

INFORMATION TO USERS

This material was produced from a microfilm copy of the original document. While the most advanced technological means to photograph and reproduce this document have been used, the quality is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original submitted.

The following explanation of techniques is provided to help you understand markings or patterns which may appear on this reproduction.

1. The sign or "target" for pages apparently lacking from the document photographed is "Missing Page(s)". If it was possible to obtain the missing page(s) or section, they are spliced into the film along with adjacent pages. This may have necessitated cutting thru an image and duplicating adjacent pages to insure you complete continuity.
2. When an image on the film is obliterated with a large round black mark, it is an indication that the photographer suspected that the copy may have moved during exposure and thus cause a blurred image. You will find a good image of the page in the adjacent frame.
3. When a map, drawing or chart, etc., was part of the material being photographed the photographer followed a definite method in "sectioning" the material. It is customary to begin photoing at the upper left hand corner of a large sheet and to continue photoing from left to right in equal sections with a small overlap. If necessary, sectioning is continued again - beginning below the first row and continuing on until complete.
4. The majority of users indicate that the textual content is of greatest value, however, a somewhat higher quality reproduction could be made from "photographs" if essential to the understanding of the dissertation. Silver prints of "photographs" may be ordered at additional charge by writing the Order Department, giving the catalog number, title, author and specific pages you wish reproduced.
5. PLEASE NOTE: Some pages may have indistinct print. Filmed as received.

Xerox University Microfilms

300 North Zeeb Road
Ann Arbor, Michigan 48106

73-26,412

WILLIAMS, Jo Watts, 1929-
A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR ELEMENTARY SOCIAL
STUDIES CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION.

University of North Carolina at Greensboro,
Ed.D., 1973
Education, curriculum development

University Microfilms, A XEROX Company, Ann Arbor, Michigan

© 1973

JO WATTS WILLIAMS

ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR ELEMENTARY
SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM AND
INSTRUCTION

by

Jo Watts Williams

A Dissertation Submitted to
the Faculty of the Graduate School at
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

Greensboro
1973

Approved by

John C. Brubaker

This dissertation has been approved by the following committee of the Faculty of the Graduate School at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

Walter L. Darr

Richard H. Wells

J. C. Davis

Donald W. Russell

D. F. Clark

March 19, 1973

WILLIAMS, JO WATTS. A Conceptual Framework for Elementary Social Studies Curriculum and Instruction. (1973) Directed by: Dr. Dale L. Brubaker, pp. 191.

It was the purpose of this study to build a conceptual framework for defining, clarifying, and understanding social studies curriculum and instruction. Through a systematic search of the literature surrounding the field of social studies education, five conceptually distinct traditions within the social studies have been identified, and these traditions comprise a comprehensive, consistent framework which will assist in bringing conceptual clarity to the field of study.

The five traditions comprising the framework are: (1) Social Studies as Knowledge for the Sake of Knowledge, (2) Social Studies in the Child-Centered Tradition, (3) Social Studies as Reflective Inquiry, (4) Social Studies as Structure of the Disciplines, and (5) Social Studies as Socio-Political Involvement.

Descriptive rather than prescriptive in nature, the framework contributes to the field of social studies education by providing a definition of social studies based on a description of what is actually taking place in social studies education. It also provides an orderly way of interpreting and understanding varied philosophical differences in social studies education, as well as a

systematic means for critically analyzing and evaluating approaches to social studies curriculum and instruction, thereby enabling those involved in the field of study to determine their current position in relation to social studies education, and reach decisions about a future course of action in terms of options and alternatives open to them. Finally, this study may well serve as a model for analyzing other areas of the curriculum which would benefit from a conceptualization and analysis similar to the one undertaken in this dissertation.

Dedicated to Dr. Dale L. Brubaker

TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Page
	LIST OF FIGURES	vii
Chapter		
I	INTRODUCTION	1
	THE ROOTS OF TODAY'S CONCEPTUAL PROBLEMS	1
	PROPOSAL FOR CHANGE	3
	A Proposed Framework	4
II	SOCIAL STUDIES AS KNOWLEDGE FOR THE SAKE OF KNOWLEDGE	14
	EMERGENCE OF TRADITION IN SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION	14
	DESCRIPTION	16
	ADVOCATES OF THIS TRADITION	21
	DISCUSSION OF CURRICULAR COMPONENTS	22
	Citizenship Education Student Maturity Selection of Content Use of Content What Significant Others are Expected to Do Evaluation	
	SUMMARY	38
III	SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE CHILD-CENTERED TRADITION	39
	DESCRIPTION	39
	FOCUS OF TRADITION	42
	MAJOR CONTRIBUTORS	48

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)

	Page
DISCUSSION OF CURRICULAR COMPONENTS . . .	58
Citizenship Education	
Student Maturity	
Selection of Content	
Use of Content	
What Significant Others Are Expected to Do	
Evaluation	
SUMMARY	67
IV SOCIAL STUDIES AS REFLECTIVE INQUIRY . . .	68
DESCRIPTION	69
APPROACHES TO CONTENT ORGANIZATION . . .	77
CURRICULAR EXAMPLES	78
MAJOR CONTRIBUTORS	86
DISCUSSION OF CURRICULAR COMPONENTS . . .	90
Citizenship Education	
Student Maturity	
Selection of Content	
Use of Content	
What Significant Others are Expected to Do	
Evaluation	
SUMMARY	111
V SOCIAL STUDIES AS STRUCTURE OF THE DISCI- PLINES	114
DESCRIPTION	115
MAJOR CONTRIBUTORS	117
FOCUS	126
DISCUSSION OF CURRICULAR COMPONENTS . . .	129
Citizenship Education	
Student Maturity	

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)

	Selection of Content	
	Use of Content	
	What Significant Others Are Expected to Do	
	Evaluation	
	SUMMARY	145
VI	SOCIAL STUDIES AS SOCIO-POLITICAL INVOLVEMENT .	147
	DESCRIPTION	149
	MAJOR CONTRIBUTORS	155
	DISCUSSION OF CURRICULAR COMPONENTS	160
	Citizenship Education	
	Student Maturity	
	Selection of Content	
	Use of Content	
	What Significant Others Are Expected to Do	
	Evaluation	
	SUMMARY	177
VII	CONCLUSION	178
	BIBLIOGRAPHY	185

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
1.1	Five Social Studies Traditions	5
1.2	Curricular Components Influencing Social Studies Curriculum and Instruction . . .	13
2.1	The Social Studies Curriculum in the University of Chicago Laboratory Schools	17
3.1	Typical Captions of the Educational Program in the Child-Centered Schools and the Conventional Schools	43
3.2	Illustration of the Daily Program in a Child-Centered School	45
3.3	Illustration of the Daily Program in a Conventional School	46
3.4	A Social Studies Curriculum Design	54
3.5	The Sequence of the Expanding Communities of Men	55
3.6	Basic Human Activities Overlaid on Expanding Communities	57
4.1	The Reflective Model of Massialas and Cox	73
4.2	Five Operations in Beyer's Inquiry Process.	74
4.3	Beyer's Process of Inquiring	75
4.4	Goldmark's Method of Inquiry	77
4.5	Taba's Model for Development of Teacher Guidebooks	85
4.6	A Curriculum Model Incorporating Reflective Inquiry	105

LIST OF FIGURES (Continued)

Figure		Page
4.7	The Process of Education in a "Traditional" Social Studies Setting	112
4.8	The Process of Education in a "Reflective" Social Studies Setting	113
5.1	An Illustration of Simple to More Complex Concepts and Generalizations	122
6.1	Curriculum Structure - Current Social Themes and Problems	171

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In the present chapter, the investigator will discuss the genesis of present day problems in elementary school social studies education after which a framework will be proposed in order to bring conceptual clarity to the field of study.

THE ROOTS OF TODAY'S CONCEPTUAL PROBLEMS

The term "social studies" is historically quite new to the field of American education. It came into widespread use in the 1920's largely as a result of the 1916 Report of the National Education Association. The report cited the need for an education that would squarely face the social problems created by a complex new industrial society. Specifically, the commission advocated a new high school course titled Problems of American Democracy.¹ In 1921, the National Council for the Social Studies was formed, its very title clearly indicating that the term "social studies" was in vogue.

¹U.S., Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, The Social Studies in Secondary Education, Bulletin 28 ([Washington: Government Printing Office, 1916]), 35.

Although the term "social studies" was not commonly used prior to the 1920's, activities in this area of the elementary-school curriculum did exist. The early colonial period was marked by the use of the hornbook, the primer, the Psalter, and the Bible both at home and at school. The elementary curriculum in general and the "social studies" in particular were expected to produce a literate citizenry with special attention given to young men who would soon enter college in order to prepare for the ministry. During this era (pre-1890), "social studies" meant history, geography, and civics (civil government).

From 1890 to 1920, a series of national committees were established and attention was given to the clarification of objectives for social studies teaching and learning. In most cases, specific programs which were recommended placed history in the center of "social studies" activities.²

New emphasis during the 1920's on the term "social" was a direct response to mass immigration and industrialization in the United States. National education committees naturally reacted to the larger society's demands. The term "social" was widely and favorably used as reflected in terms such as social betterment, social settlement,

²Elementary social studies programs were recommended in 1892 and 1895 by the National Education Association, by the American Historical Association's Committee of Seven in 1899, by another committee of the American Historical Association in 1908, and by the yearbooks of the National Society for the Study of Education in 1902 and 1903.

social gospel, social survey, and social work.³ Is it any wonder that the term "social studies" came into use!

"Social studies" was readily accepted in the educational circles of the day, and during recent decades social studies as a field of study has come to occupy a prominent place in the elementary school curriculum of the nation's schools. However, as social studies education has evolved, confusion has arisen, and this confusion has led to many questionable, if not undesirable, practices in the field of elementary-school social studies education.⁴ Awareness of such practices prompted one social studies educator to observe that social studies in elementary schools today continues as a "body without a spirit, a corpse made of lifeless information to be covered and regurgitated."⁵

PROPOSAL FOR CHANGE

Much of the confusion existing in today's social studies curriculum and instruction results from a lack of understanding of just what social studies is and what it

³Hazel W. Hertzberg, Historical Parallels for the Sixties and Seventies: Primary Sources and Core Curriculum Revisited (Boulder: Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., 1971), p. 10. (Mimeographed.)

⁴William B. Ragan, Modern Elementary Curriculum (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1966), pp. 300-301.

⁵Milton E. Ploghoft and Albert H. Shuster, Social Science Education in the Elementary School (Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1971), p. 7.

ought to be.⁶ Many of the present-day problems confronting elementary social studies education can be eliminated with the development of a comprehensive, consistent framework for investigating, defining, clarifying, and understanding social studies education. The purpose of this dissertation is to build such a framework, in an attempt to assist in bringing conceptual clarity to the field of study. Descriptive rather than prescriptive in nature, the framework will provide a definition of social studies based on what is actually taking place in the field of social studies education.

A Proposed Framework⁷

The framework proposed in this dissertation, as depicted in Figure 1.1, is comprised of five conceptually distinct social studies traditions.⁸

The five traditions, identified through a systematic search of the literature surrounding the field of social studies education, span the period from the 1890's to the present. In some instances, the actual beginnings

⁶James L. Barth and S. Samuel Shermis, "Defining the Social Studies: An Exploration of Three Traditions," Social Education, Volume 34 (November, 1970), 743.

⁷The genesis for the investigator's model is described in "A Conceptual Framework for Social Studies Curriculum and Instruction," unpublished manuscript of the University of North Carolina-Greensboro Humanistic Education Project, September, 1972.

⁸The investigator wishes to acknowledge the excellent work of James L. Barth and S. Samuel Shermis who have developed their own "social studies traditions" model. The Barth and Shermis model is an extension of an earlier model built by Dale L. Brubaker. See Alternative Directions for the Social Studies (Scranton: International Textbook Co., 1967).

Knowledge for the Sake of Knowledge	Child Centered Tradition	Reflective Inquiry	Structure of the Discipline	Socio-Political Involvement
Focus is on the accumulation of facts	Focus is on the child in the present	Focus is on the process of inquiry	Focus is on organizing structure of the social science	Focus is on retaining and/or reconstructing aspects of society

Figure 1.1

Five Social Studies Traditions

of a particular tradition precede this period, but for the purpose of this investigation social studies education as it has emerged since the 1890's is the primary concern. This is consistent with Thomas and Brubaker's demarcation of the progressive and post-progressive eras in social studies education,⁹ and, in addition, the 1890's mark the beginning of national committee activity which ultimately led to the establishment of social studies as a field of study.¹⁰

A brief description of each of the five traditions follows at this point, with detailed descriptions presented in subsequent chapters of this dissertation.

⁹R. Murray Thomas and Dale L. Brubaker, Curriculum Patterns in Elementary Social Studies (Belmont: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 1971), p. 6.

¹⁰See footnote 2.

Knowledge for the sake of knowledge. Social studies as knowledge for the sake of knowledge could also be entitled social studies as acquisition of knowledge. The tradition, dating back to the days of the American colonies -- early 1600's,¹¹ focuses primarily on acquiring the knowledge necessary for a "full life" in adulthood. Roots of the tradition lie in the history-geography-civics curriculum which can be traced to the hornbook of the New England Puritans, and the influence of this early era, with its emphasis upon recitation and memorization, is still evident in social studies education to the present day.

According to Thomas and Brubaker:

A review of articles about elementary social studies in education publications in recent decades suggests that the history-geography pattern of the early 1900's has been driven out of American schools by newer curriculum designs. But this impression is far from accurate. The general-form of the history-geography pattern has remained much the same as it was years ago.¹²

The child-centered tradition. As might be expected, the child-centered tradition in social studies education, with its genesis in the decades immediately following the Civil War,¹³ squarely places the child in the center of all activities. The child determines all that is to happen to him in the educational process,

¹¹Thomas and Brubaker, loc. cit.

¹²Ibid., p. 165.

¹³Lawrence Cremin, The Transformation of the School (New York: Vintage Books, 1961), p. ix.

for his needs and interests shape the curriculum.

The peak of the tradition's success came with John Dewey and his efforts in the Progressive Education Movement which reached its high point during the second quarter of this century. In The Child and the Curriculum, Dewey wrote:

The child is the starting point, the center, and the end. His development, his growth, is the ideal. It alone furnishes the standard. To the growth of the child all studies are subservient; they are instruments valued as they serve the needs of growth. Personality, character is more than subject matter. Moreover, subject matter can never be got into the child from without. Learning is active. It involves reaching out of the mind. It involves organic assimilation starting from within. Literally, we must take our stand with the child and our departure from him. It is he and not the subject matter which determines both quality and quantity of learning.¹⁴

Reflective inquiry. John Dewey's How We Think (1910) sets forth the classical theory and marks the beginning of the reflective inquiry tradition in social studies education.¹⁵ Since this initial effort by Dewey, researchers have identified a variety of tasks and conditions pertinent to reflective inquiry, but they basically center around Dewey's idea of reflective thinking.¹⁶

¹⁴John Dewey, The Child and the Curriculum (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1902), pp. 14-15.

¹⁵Lawrence Metcalf, "The Reflective Teacher," Phi Delta Kappan XLIV (October, 1962), 19-20.

¹⁶Byron G. Massialas and C. Benjamin Cox, Inquiry in Social Studies (Belmont: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 1965), p. 90.

In reflective inquiry, the student is to learn to think reflectively in social studies classrooms where reflective thinking is valued, emphasized, and practiced. The reflective process recognizes decision making and the making of judgments of fact and value as the most important business of social studies education. The reflective process and its instructional implementation are emphasized. According to Massialas and Cox, "Reflective thinking is the process of identifying problems of fact and value, asserting them in view of the assumption in which they are grounded, and subjecting them to proof in terms of certain criteria."¹⁷

Structure of the disciplines. Support for a structural approach in social studies education came as early as 1929 in the writings of Alfred North Whitehead,¹⁸ but it was not until the mid-fifties that social scientists set about in earnest to identify the organizing concepts of the social science disciplines.¹⁹ The vast proliferation of knowledge forced social scientists to seek out more efficient means of learning, and it was felt that

¹⁷Ibid.

¹⁸Alfred North Whitehead, The Aims of Education and Other Essays (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1929), p. 3.

¹⁹Philip H. Phenix, "The Use of the Disciplines as Curriculum Content," The Educational Forum, XXIV (March, 1962), 273. See also Thomas and Brubaker, op. cit., p. 19.

"attending to the 'key concepts' in the several fields of learning" was the best means for such efficiency.²⁰

Curriculum content, in the structure of the disciplines tradition, is drawn almost exclusively from the social science disciplines. The emphasis is upon identification of concepts which make up the organizing structure of each discipline, and these, in turn, become the basis for curriculum.

The disciplines, according to Phenix, are bodies of knowledge organized for the most effective instruction. Phenix spells out the thinking of the structuralists in stating:

My theme has been that the curriculum should consist entirely of knowledge which comes from the disciplines, for the reason that the disciplines reveal knowledge in its teachable forms. We should not try to teach anything which has not been found actually instructive through the labors of hosts of dedicated inquirers. Education should be conceived of as guided recapitulation of the processes of inquiry which gave rise to the fruitful bodies of organized knowledge comprising the established disciplines.²¹

Socio-political involvement. As early as the 1930's, persons such as Charles A. Beard were advocating participation of the individual in making choices as well as commitment of the individual to action on the basis of

²⁰Phenix, loc cit.

²¹Ibid.

choices made,²² but it was not until the late sixties and early seventies that emphasis upon social participation and individual involvement began to gain a foothold and become accepted as a legitimate and necessary part of social studies education.²³ During this period it has become more and more evident that additional avenues must be provided for handling societal problems; thus the groundwork has been laid for fostering acceptance of the socio-political involvement tradition.

Through social studies as socio-political involvement, individuals are encouraged to investigate traditional mechanisms for handling social problems, as well as to search for alternative routes in dealing with current conflicts. In this way an avenue is provided for the development of needed leadership for either retaining or reconstructing aspects of society -- that is, social action or social participation in this tradition may be either for or against society, depending upon the commitment of the individual.

²²Charles A. Beard, A Charter for the Social Sciences (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932).

²³John Jarolimek, "Concerning the Matter of Activism in Social Studies Education," Social Education Volume 36 (February 1972), 149. See also Social Studies Curriculum Guidelines, developed by the National Council for the Social Studies Task Force on Curriculum Guidelines (Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1971), p. 14.

Theodore Brameld, writing in Education as Power,

says:

I am convinced that it makes a world of difference to us whether we approach our work believing primarily that education is power for the renewal of civilization, or whether we enter with the dominant attitude that our main task is to transmit and to preserve the social heritage. A persuasive case can be made for either approach, and, of course, no teacher can or should hold either one to the complete exclusion of the other. But the reconstructionist view is that, in a crisis age such as our own, the former of the two approaches is much to be preferred over the latter.²⁴

Curricular components of the framework. Identification of the traditions which have been briefly described in the preceding paragraphs required some type of organized approach as a search of the literature was begun. Recognizing that certain curricular components, central to all social studies curriculum and instruction, bring pressures to bear upon social studies education, and, to a large degree, determine its direction, specific curricular components were selected and used in delineating the traditions which constitute the framework proposed in this

²⁴Theodore Brameld, Education as Power (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965), p. 40.

dissertation.²⁵ Figure 1.2 presents the components used, as well as the plan followed in searching the literature to determine the influence of each component on the traditions which have been identified. As the traditions are presented in the following chapters of this dissertation, the influence of the specific curricular components on each tradition will be discussed in detail. Presentation of the traditions follows this order:

Chapter II	Knowledge for the Sake of Knowledge
Chapter III	The Child-Centered Tradition
Chapter IV	Reflective Inquiry
Chapter V	Structure of the Disciplines
Chapter VI	Socio-Political Involvement

²⁵These criteria are used in many models, including those of Tyler, Macdonald, Goodlad. See Ralph Tyler's Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1950), James Macdonald's "The High School in Human Terms: Curriculum Design," in Humanizing the Secondary School, eds. Norman K. Hamilton and J. Galen Saylor (Washington: The Association for Supervision and Curriculum and Development, 1969), and John Goodlad's School, Curriculum, and the Individual (Waltham: Blaisdell Publishing Company, 1966).

Curricular Components	Knowledge for the Sake of Knowledge	The Child-Centered Tradition	Reflective Inquiry	Structure of the Disciplines	Socio-Political Involvement
Citizenship education					
Student maturity (intellectual and social)					
Selection of content					
Use of content					
a) Teachers					
b) Students					
Significant others					
a) Publishing companies					
b) Social studies projects					
c) Methods teachers					
d) Professors in academic disciplines					
e) Community members					
Evaluation					
a) Students					
b) Teachers					

Figure 1.2

Curricular Components Influencing
Social Studies Curriculum and Instruction

CHAPTER II

SOCIAL STUDIES AS KNOWLEDGE FOR THE SAKE OF KNOWLEDGE

The roots of social studies as knowledge for the sake of knowledge extend deeper into American education than the period examined in this dissertation. These roots have nurtured and sustained the tradition, and the tradition is still a part of social studies education at this time. Consequently, knowledge for its own sake is identified as one of the traditions in social studies education.

EMERGENCE OF TRADITION IN SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION

As the nineteenth century gave way to the twentieth, the United States was faced with the Americanization of as many as one million immigrants per year. At the same time, agrarian life was being supplanted with industrialization, causing problems of urbanization and social change. To deal with the flood of immigrants as well as the new urban masses, society turned to the schools for the development of citizens who were "concerned, competent, and committed."¹

¹Frank J. Estvan, Social Studies in a Changing World (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1968), p. 42. See also Lawrence A. Cremin, The Transformation of the School (New York: Vintage Books, 1961), p. viii.

Schools assumed the responsibility. "Civics," introduced to emphasize the importance of the Federal Constitution and government, stressed the duties of citizenship, and, as concern grew about the wasteful depletion of the continent's resources, geography assumed a major role in the education of children. Growing pains of industrialization gave rise to a need for history -- that we might search the past for insight into the problems facing the nation. Knowledge for its own sake, with the history-geography-civics emphasis, became firmly entrenched in social studies education.

One reinforcement for the continuance of the knowledge for its own sake tradition has been the quality of teacher education programs. Numerous private and public normal schools purported to prepare professional teachers, but "their offerings were meager at best, and confined largely to the methods and mechanics of the classroom."² Training periods varied from six-week courses in instant pedagogy to the two-year programs offered in most state normal schools. Later the normal schools expanded, including four-year teacher training programs, and liberal arts colleges joined the normal schools in the preparation of teachers.

Expansions in teacher-training programs were scarcely noticed and contributed little to the improvement of teacher

²Cremin, op. cit., p. 169.

education, since needed reforms in curricular offerings did not come with the expansions. The essence of the "reform" was addition of more courses like those already being offered. The state of teacher education during this era prompted George S. Counts to write:

From state to state over the entire land the curricula of the public normal schools and teachers colleges are as like as peas in a pod. Only with extreme rarity does a state or educational administrator display real statesmanship by looking the teacher training problem in the face and proposing a program at variance with tradition. So-called reforms there have been; they pass in waves from region to region -- patchwork tinkering with the familiar curricula pattern.³

Lack of reform in higher education in general and teacher education programs in particular resulted in a continuance of the history-geography-civics emphasis. Poorly prepared teachers returned to the classroom, teaching as they were taught, thus perpetuating the existing tradition.

DESCRIPTION

Accumulation of facts is the major focus of this tradition, a tradition anchored in the basic disciplines of history, geography, and civics (civil government). As a result, curriculum and instruction have remained much the same as they were years ago;⁴ that is, including only those facts and ideas which have stood the tests of time and reason and are obviously beyond contention.

³George S. Counts, "Break the Teacher Training Lock-step," Teacher Education in America, ed. Merle L. Borrowman (New York: Teachers College Press, 1965), p. 219.

⁴R. Murray Thomas and Dale L. Brubaker, Curriculum Patterns in Elementary Social Studies (Belmont: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1971), p. 165.

The history-geography-civics emphasis is illustrated in the 1934 elementary social studies curriculum of the University of Chicago Laboratory Schools. In grades four through seven, contemporary society was ignored in the curriculum, with history and geography constituting the entire program. (See Figure 2.1).

Grade	History	Contemporary Society	Geography
Kindergarten and Grade 1	Projects of construction and dramatization focusing upon the home, neighborhood, farm, and means of transportation and communication; group living		
II and III	Direct instruction and reading about social topics, such as primitive Indians in different environments, the Vikings, and early Chicago		
IV and V	How People Lived in the Past		Geography
VI	Man's Achievements		Geography
VII	United States History		Geography (with United States History)

Figure 2.1

The Social Studies Curriculum in the University of Chicago Laboratory Schools⁵

⁵Robert E. Keohane and Howard C. Hill, "The Social Studies Curriculum in the University of Chicago Laboratory Schools," The Social-Studies Curriculum, Fourth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies (Philadelphia: McKinley Publishing Company, 1934), p. 177.

In a similar fashion, the emphasis upon facts and the history-geography-civics tradition is evident as textbooks from the early part of the twentieth century are examined. In the preface of New Geography, Book One, published by Ginn and Company in 1917, the author states:

The aim of this book is to present, in a simple and attractive way, the facts that seem to be best suited for the early years of the study of geography. ...To impress the facts of geography, the book draws freely on history. There is a charm in thus seeing geography in the making.⁶

Social studies as knowledge for the sake of knowledge is described by Friere's "banking" concept of education. From this standpoint, knowledge is viewed as a gift which is "bestowed by those who consider themselves knowledgeable upon those whom they consider to know nothing."⁷ According to Friere, the "banking" concept supports the following attitudes and practices:

- (a) the teacher teaches and the students are taught
- (b) the teacher knows everything and the students know nothing
- (c) the teacher thinks and the students are thought about
- (d) the teacher talks and the students listen--meekly
- (e) the teacher disciplines and the students are disciplined
- (f) the teacher chooses and enforces his choice, and the students comply
- (g) the teacher acts and the students have the illusion of acting through the action of the teacher

⁶Alexis Everett Frye, New Geography, Book One (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1917), p. ii.

⁷Paulo Friere, Pedagogy of the Oppressed (New York: Herder and Herder New York, 1971), p. 58.

- (h) the teacher chooses the program content, and the students (who were not consulted) adapt to it
- (i) the teacher confuses the authority of knowledge with his own professional authority, which he sets in opposition to the freedom of the students
- (j) the teacher is the subject of the learning process, while the pupils are mere objects.⁸

The orientation of knowledge for its own sake is low-level cognitive, with students seldom moving beyond the beginning point in cognitive development, which, according to Bloom, is "knowledge of specifics." In this category are the hard core of facts or information in each field of knowledge.⁹ The higher levels of the cognitive domain -- comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation, are rarely dealt with by educators who subscribe to this tradition. A classification of the cognitive skills, as rank ordered by Bloom and others, is shown below.

1.00 Knowledge

- 1.10 Knowledge of specifics
- 1.20 Knowledge of ways and means of dealing with specifics
- 1.30 Knowledge of the universals and abstractions in a field

Testing for Knowledge, and illustrative test items

- 1.10 Knowledge of specifics
- 1.20 Knowledge of ways and means of dealing with specifics
- 1.30 Knowledge of the universals and abstractions in a field

⁸Ibid.

⁹Benjamin S. Bloom (ed.), Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook I: Cognitive Domain (New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1956), p. 63.

2.00 Comprehension

- 2.10 Translation
- 2.20 Interpretation
- 2.30 Extrapolation

Testing for Comprehension, and illustrative test items

- 2.10 Translation
- 2.20 Interpretation
- 2.30 Extrapolation

3.00 Application

The educational implications of objectives in the application category

Testing for Application, and illustrative test items

4.00 Analysis

- 4.10 Analysis of elements
- 4.20 Analysis of relationships
- 4.30 Analysis of organizational principles

Testing for Analysis, and illustrative test items

- 4.10 Analysis of elements
- 4.20 Analysis of relationships
- 4.20 Analysis of organizational principles

5.00 Synthesis

Educational significance of Synthesis objectives

- 5.10 Production of a unique communication
- 5.20 Production of a plan, or proposed set of operations
- 5.30 Derivation of a set of abstract relations

6.00 Evaluation

- 6.10 Judgments in terms of internal evidence
- 6.20 Judgments in terms of external criteria

Testing for Evaluation, and illustrative test items

- 6.10 Judgments in terms of internal evidence
- 6.20 Judgments in terms of external criteria

Subject matter, in the knowledge for its own sake

tradition, is systematically presented; usually it is divided into parts -- history, geography, civics--and each is focused on in turn. There is a minimal amount of inter-relation among the three for each is considered to be discrete.

Social studies education as knowledge for its own sake is most aptly described by those educators who proclaim, "We know what good education is; take it or leave it." To Cremin this is much like the alternatives provided by Henry Ford I in automobile colors -- customers could choose any color they desired so long as it was black.¹⁰ As a result of the knowledge for its own sake practice in education, students have been cast in a squalor of irrelevant factual accumulation from which they have sought the quickest and surest means of escape. Consequently, they have deserted the schools in droves.¹¹

ADVOCATES OF THIS TRADITION

An early advocate of knowledge for its own sake was Robert Hutchins. In discussing education, he states:

Education implies teaching. Teaching implies knowledge. Knowledge is truth. The truth is everywhere the same. Hence education should be everywhere the same.¹²

Education is defined as cultivation of the intellect, and intellectual virtues are habits resulting from the training of intellectual powers. Hutchins proposes training the mind through a course of study consisting of the greatest books of the western world, along with the arts of reading, writing, thinking, speaking, and

¹⁰Cremin, op. cit., p. ix.

¹¹Ibid.

¹²Robert M. Hutchins, The Higher Learning in America (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1936), p. 66.

mathematics. To be "educated," students must learn what has been done in the past and what the greatest men have thought. These are permanent studies which must be mastered by all in the process of becoming educated, and they cannot be altered to suit the whims of parents, students, or the public;¹³ they must be everywhere the same.

A current advocate of social studies as knowledge for the sake of knowledge is Max Rafferty, former superintendent of public instruction for the state of California. His book, Suffer, Little Children, is a stinging indictment of current practices in American education. He states his position concerning social studies and the history-geography-civics emphasis, saying:

The term "social studies"...should be relegated to the scrap heap reserved for outworn cliches like "Twenty-three skidoo," and "Oh, you kid." Our schools should require instruction in ancient, medieval, modern, and American history starting in the lower grades and going right through high school. Comprehensive knowledge of world and American geography should be expected of all children of normal intelligence, and taught them in a systematized form. Classwork should include in all schools memorization and drill...in historical dates and names of significance.¹⁴

DISCUSSION OF CURRICULAR COMPONENTS

Curricular components identified earlier in this dissertation as common to all social studies instruction

¹³Ibid., p. 73.

¹⁴Max Rafferty, Suffer, Little Children (New York: The Devin-Adair Company, 1962), p. 136. See also Readin, Ritin, and Rafferty by William O'Neill (Berkeley: Glendessary Press, 1969).

will be considered as viewed in the tradition of knowledge for the sake of knowledge. Discussion of the components follows.

Citizenship Education

The emphasis is upon students as future citizens, rather than students as citizens at the present. Students are to be taught the behavior expected of a good citizen; this behavior will be used when they, as adults, become citizens.

The best way to "teach" good citizenship is to have students memorize facts and drill on mechanical skills. Acquiring large quantities of factual information and storing it in their minds assures good citizenship for students, since storage of factual information is prerequisite to dealing with controversial questions or societal issues which students will face upon becoming citizens.

Lives of heroes such as George Washington and Abraham Lincoln are studied to learn the fine qualities of citizenship they illustrated, and memorization of the Declaration of Independence, the Preamble to the Constitution, and Lincoln's Gettysburg Address is common procedure. In discussing acquisition of facts as opposed to dealing with current issues, Beard wrote in 1932:

The mind may be whetted in live issues as well as dead issues, but there is something to be said for giving pupils a thorough grounding in the

historical records of human experience before they attack the more elusive questions of the living present.¹⁵

Likewise, a list of suggested school procedures for fashioning an adequate program of civic education, presented in 1945, stresses the need for teachers to cause young Americans to be proud of their democratic heritage, through an appreciation of the nation's heroes.

...concerning the need for a reorganization of the social studies program, I now call attention to the first aim suggested for that program on the elementary school range. An attitude of "hero-respect" for those men and women who, actuated by the democratic ideal of fraternity, have lived and labored for others. The teacher who keeps that aim in mind will see to it that her children learn about those devoted human beings who have consecrated their lives to one or another democratic cause. Jane Addams, Clara Barton, Dr. Frenfell, . . . , and other "Saints in Action" -- elementary school children should come to know such people, and catch inspiration and uplift from the realization that there are men and women in all walks of life who choose the hard way of service for country and mankind.¹⁶

Another part of the information required for good citizenship is a set of "right" beliefs. These beliefs, to be stored by students for later use as citizens, result from internalization of the "right" values; that is, conforming to what is expected, and accepting local community concepts of democracy. These beliefs constitute knowledge and are considered necessary for good citizenship; consequently, schools must see that they are stored in students' minds.

¹⁵Charles A. Beard, A Charter for the Social Sciences (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932), p. 47.

¹⁶John J. Mahoney, For Us The Living (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1945), p. 282.

The widely held view of the route to good citizenship held by most persons who subscribe to this tradition is a rather simple one. Concentrate, they say, upon turning out in successive years "good" boys and "good" girls, strong in character, and they will become the "good" citizens in the days to come. To socialize, to citizenize, and to moralize are the same. In other words, develop "character" in the young people and worthy citizenship will flow therefrom; hence these young people will, of course, become the "good" citizens that the nation needs.

Student Maturity

Relative uniformity in children is assumed in social studies as knowledge for the sake of knowledge. The curriculum consists of specific knowledge, beliefs, and values, and these are transmitted to a group of students in precisely the same manner, regardless of individual uniqueness.

Each mind is considered an empty vessel which is to be filled with knowledge; whether or not the student is sufficiently mature intellectually and socially to receive this knowledge is of little concern. The primary concern is with specific factual information and transmission of this information into the students' minds.

Selection of Content

Social studies as knowledge for the sake of knowledge is conceived primarily as formal subject matter -- facts and principles -- which are selected without adequate relation

to life. Content often includes facts, ideas, and words which students do not understand, yet they are asked to repeat the words and deal with the ideas as though they have a grasp of them. Materials are selected and organized by someone other than students, and students accept, adopt, and use the materials as they are furnished to them.

Textbooks that are most popular with teachers of social studies are those whose content includes the "facts" teachers believe students must learn in order to acquire adequate background for thinking about current societal problems. Teachers, in turn, too often insist upon teaching the facts out of all relationship to concepts or generalizations, leaving students little opportunity to grow in their understanding of social phenomena.¹⁷

Use of Content

One textbook, or in some cases several textbooks, is followed closely in this approach to social studies instruction, with the textbook(s) ultimately becoming the content of the curriculum. The method of instruction has four components: (1) assign, (2) study, (3) recite, and (4) test. Teachers religiously follow the textbook(s) themselves, and are careful to see that students read them from beginning to end. Little or no effort is made by the teacher to organize the content so that it will use his own

¹⁷Lawrence Metcalf, "The Reflective Teacher," Phi Delta Kappan, XLIV (October, 1962), 19-20.

qualifications and expertise, and little effort is made to build upon the circumstances peculiar to the class or community in which he is teaching.

Teachers feel an obligation to inculcate obedience to certain values. They attempt to persuade students of the ultimate rightness or wrongness of values, telling them what they should believe, as well as which values they should reject and which they should accept. The sources of these values are usually two-fold; either they are contained in the textbooks which constitute the curriculum, or they are those values considered by the teacher to be hallmarks of democracy.

Students are cast into dependent, passive roles. They are to sit attentively, read the textbooks, discuss the reading, and store the information until they are asked to answer questions supplied in the textbooks and teacher's guide. According to Friere:

Education thus becomes an act of depositing, in which the students are the depositories and the teacher is the depositor. Instead of communicating, the teacher issues communiques and makes deposits which the students patiently receive, memorize, and repeat. This is the "banking" concept of education in which the scope of action allowed to the students extends only as far as receiving, filing, and storing the deposits.¹⁸

In the Thirty-ninth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies, Norris Sanders says:

¹⁸Friere, loc. cit.

Despite a continuous barrage of recommended innovation, the basic instructional strategies of teachers seem to remain in the same stable pattern. Expository textbooks continue to be the overwhelming choice of teachers as the most used instructional aid. Homework calls for studying a text; in the classroom recitation which follows, the students are asked to remember what they have read. Finally a test calls for recall of knowledge that was read and recited.¹⁹

It is expected that students will fill their minds with certain selected content which is to be stored until such time as they need to retrieve it. Generally speaking, this is test time, and the students soon acquire techniques needed for "temporary" storage, for they are not concerned with making the content a part of themselves on a permanent basis. They are concerned only with the need to recall it on selected ceremonial occasions.

What Significant Others Are Expected to Do

In addition to the specific curricular components, there are others who play a major role in determining the direction of social studies education. Among these are publishing companies, social studies projects, methods teachers, professors in the academic disciplines and community members. Discussion follows as to their influence on social studies as knowledge for its own sake.

Publishing companies. Curriculum content and instructional practices in this tradition are greatly influenced

¹⁹ Norris Sanders, "Changing Strategies of Instruction: Three Case Examples," Social Studies Curriculum Development: Prospects and Problems, Thirty-ninth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies (Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1969), p. 139.

by textbook publishers, due to the reliance of teachers who subscribe to this tradition upon "covering the text." Publishing companies supply textbooks, and, in too many instances, these textbooks become the curriculum, with teachers' manuals, also supplied by publishers of the textbook in use, guiding the instructional program of the classroom. In discussing different approaches to the teaching of history, Rolla M. Tryon cites the influence of textbook publishers, through their writers, in controlling instructional practices in history teaching. In his way of thinking, it would be difficult to exaggerate the tenacity with which writers of textbooks have held to the strictly chronological approach,²⁰ thus enabling the chronological approach to dominate history instruction. According to Tryon, the long predominance of the chronological approach can be attributed to the "influence of textbooks on history teaching."²¹

In general, textbook publishers strive for "appealing readable books, neither too short nor too long, too superficial nor too deep, too unrealistic nor too trivial."²² Most of the information presented is descriptive rather than analytical, and the emphasis is on identifying conclusions or

²⁰Rolla M. Tryon, The Social Sciences as School Subjects (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1935), p. 435.

²¹Ibid., p. 324.

²²William Rader, "The Intermediate Grades," Social Studies in the United States, eds. C. Benjamin Cox and Byron G. Massialas (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1967), pp. 42-43.

statements which can be taught to children.²³ One author announces with seeming pride in the preface to a textbook that the book, in which there are more than six hundred pictures, is put in story form to arouse interest; then he explains, "While stories add to the number of pages, they lighten the study by holding the attention."²⁴

Many textbooks, especially in the primary grades, create a fictional cast of characters and cast them in a bland environment, with little content included which reflects the nature of a real world. An injustice is dealt to both lower-class urban and rural children as well as upper-class, suburban children. The former group views the textbooks as fairy tales, and the latter group continues to live in its cloistered suburban world. According to Joyce, this anti-septic approach should be supplanted with textbooks in which the city looks like a city, the factory is a noisy, discordant struggle between workers and employer, and the slums smell like slums.²⁵

Teachers' editions of textbooks in use at the present time continue to encourage classroom teachers to ask specific, factual questions, as is shown by the following questions

²³Bruce H. Joyce, New Strategies for Social Education (Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1972), p. 37.

²⁴Frye, loc. cit.

²⁵Bruce R. Joyce, "The Primary Grades," Social Studies in the United States, eds. C. Benjamin Cox and Byron G. Massialas (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1967), p. 22.

found in a current textbook under the caption, "Questions for Discussion: (1) How long has Hawaii been a state?, and (2) What was an earlier name for Thailand."²⁶ It is difficult to imagine how questions of this nature can encourage students to engage in any sort of classroom discussion.

Social studies projects. The literature does not indicate that social studies projects have been involved in social studies education as knowledge for the sake of knowledge. They may be accounted for by the fact the project staffs do not have to rely upon sale of materials in order to exist. Funds from foundations, federal grants, and other sources are available from the outset of project efforts, thus eliminating the necessity to publish textbooks and materials which meet the demands of market, schools, and teachers. As a result, social scientists involved in projects have fewer restrictions, and they are more innovative in approaches to social studies education than those persons who adhere to the knowledge for the sake of knowledge tradition.

Methods teachers. In many colleges, social studies methods courses are assigned to professors in the history department who know little about the methods of teaching social studies and who know even less about the public schools.²⁷ As is expected, the primary concern of these "methods teachers" is with

²⁶Paul R. Hanna, Investigating Man's World, Metropolitan Studies (Glenview: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1970), pp. 74-75.

²⁷Edwin Fenton, The New Social Studies (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1967), p. 128. Fenton is a historian.

the discipline of history and its continuance as a major focus in the schools. With so little instruction in methods of teaching social studies, the prospective teachers under their tutelage willingly oblige by moving into the schools and mimicking the pattern set for them by the history professors -- that is, emphasis upon factual accumulation through the assign-study-recite-test method cited earlier in this chapter.

An encouraging aspect of teacher education is the observation by Thomas and Brubaker that methods teachers are moving away from the formerly popular habit of urging prospective teachers to adopt the correct way of teaching. In their thinking, this traditional campaign by methods teachers of the one right way is being replaced by a recognition that a variety of teaching methods is necessary for successful social studies teaching.²⁸ It is suspected that the "one right way" has been closely tied in with social studies as knowledge for its own sake and its emphasis on factual accumulation. Certainly methods teachers are taking a step in the right direction as they encourage more and more prospective teachers to investigate various methods of teaching social studies.

Social studies as knowledge for the sake of knowledge is so appealing to methods teachers -- they simply teach as they were taught -- that it is difficult to convince them that they should behave otherwise. For them, there is little pressure to learn new strategies and techniques, or to alter their exist-

²⁸R. Murray Thomas and Dale L. Brubaker, Decisions in Teaching Elementary Social Studies (Belmont: Wadsworth Publishing Co., Inc., 1971), p. viii.

ing ideas of what social studies teaching is all about. By continuing the existing pattern of knowledge for its own sake, methods teachers feel no responsibility to keep abreast of new dimensions in social studies education or to assist their students in understanding new developments. Continuance of social studies as knowledge for its own sake is the line of least resistance on their part.

Professors in the academic disciplines. Along with others, professors serve as authors for textbooks, even though much of the writing is done by the publisher's staff. In this way, professors continue to contribute to the storehouse of factual content with which students can fill their minds.

In the discipline of history, professors wield considerable influence. Certification requirements in teacher education have provided a ready-made plan for continuing the emphasis on history in social studies education. Generally speaking, "teachers have been required to major in one discipline and minor in one or two related disciplines. Traditionally, social studies teachers have selected history as the major...."²⁹ Professors of history have experienced no difficulty in maintaining the status quo of the history emphasis in social studies.

²⁹Frederick R. Smith and C. Benjamin Cox, New Strategies and Curriculum in Social Studies (Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1969), p. 157.

Community members. Generally speaking, community members are content with social studies as knowledge for the sake of knowledge, since they have no difficulty relating to the history-geography-civics tradition. It is familiar to them, because they studied in a like manner when they were in elementary school, and, as a result, their general philosophy is, "It was good enough for me -- it is good enough for my child." In many school districts, community members, through their sheer complacency, actually encourage continuance of the knowledge for its own sake tradition.

Knowledge for the sake of knowledge, with its emphasis on factual accumulation, has little chance of evoking antagonism from community members. Its noncontroversial nature seldom draws attack from even the most outspoken members of a community; it is only when schools attempt to deviate from the tradition and when teachers stray from emphasis upon factual accumulation that parents begin to register complaints. According to Fenton, parents begin to "cry foul unless teachers emphasize the bodies of knowledge required by national examinations," since it is felt that acceptance at a "good" college depends upon scores attained on required tests.³⁰

One exception sometimes occurs. Occasionally, a religious or ethnic minority in the community will object

³⁰Fenton, op. cit., p. 8.

to what it considers an inequity or distortion of its role as portrayed in existing text materials. When this happens, a group may become quite vocal in its criticisms and objections -- not of the approach to social studies education, but of the textbooks being used. Substituting textbooks which it considers more desirable eliminates the concern.³¹

Evaluation

Progress of students is measured by assessing the amount of factual information which they accumulate from the content of textbooks. To determine progress, students are tested using evaluation items given in the textbook and/or teacher's guide. Nearly all items are limited to measuring factual knowledge,³² and teachers simply test the student's memory of facts and generalizations given in the text.

Student progress in the knowledge for the sake of knowledge tradition is easier to evaluate than in traditions which are more innovative in nature. It is less difficult to assess students' accumulation of sets of facts and generalizations than it is to measure increased skill in social-science inquiry or growth in decision-making skills. Teachers can measure knowledge for the sake of knowledge with short-answer, objective-type questions (true-false, matching, multiple-choice, fill-in).³³ In most instances, such questions are given in the teacher's guide, along with answers which are considered correct.

³¹Thomas and Brubaker, op. cit., p. 180.

³²Ibid., p. 197.

³³Ibid., p. 198.

Some teachers engage in the practice of using workbooks provided by publishers to accompany their textbooks in the evaluation of students. Procedures such as this were questioned as early as 1935; yet such practices continue to persist in present-day classrooms.

Many of the published workbooks, perhaps too many, are constructed as convenient testing devices. With the convenience and efficiency that is made feasible by the use of the variety of objective methods of scoring, such testing manuals are used by teachers as a mere substitute for the labor of making their own tests and examinations and to reduce greatly the drudgery and uncertainty of marking and grading tests. This feature may be especially prominent in workbooks used in the social studies. Some of this testing type in history and geography, especially those that are published to accompany a particular textbook, are devised as ingenious, exhaustive examination blanks that go to almost cruel extremes in trying to trap the pupil in the tests on details.³⁴

The ease in evaluation of student progress in this tradition appeals to teachers. It offers a concrete, right-wrong approach to evaluation that is not possible in less structured programs. Not only is this time-saving and convenient for the teachers, but the specificity of the right-wrong approach is easily interpreted to parents and community members.

Evaluation of teachers is based on the amount of factual information accumulated by students, often measured by the extent to which they can recite large quantities of historical documentaries. Scores on objective tests are a prime criteria in determining teacher success. According

³⁴M. J. Stormzand and Robert H. Lewis, New Methods in Social Studies (New York: Farrar and Rinehart, Inc., 1935), p. 36.

to Fenton, teachers are evaluated by some administrators on how well their students perform on examinations such as the College Board Achievement Tests and New York State Board of Regents Exam. Further, he says, "Even if the better colleges pay little attention to the social studies achievement tests, parents, teachers, and school administrators think they do."³⁵ In addition, such tests "condition teachers to stress knowledge of content for its own sake," since a majority of them consist of multiple choice items, most of which demand recognition of data.³⁶

In the earlier years of social studies as knowledge for the sake of knowledge, a teacher's success was judged by the number of students entering the ministry and higher education. Since a major purpose of education at the time was to prepare students for college and the ministry, a teacher whose students stopped short of the goal was looked upon with disfavor.

Also, in earlier times the minister in the community assumed an indirect role in teacher evaluation. Citizens were expected to be able to read the Bible, and it was the responsibility of the teacher to see that students received instruction in Bible reading. A criterion for teacher success became, "Can students read the Bible?"

Friere discusses student-teacher evaluation as viewed in the banking concept of education. Students, in

³⁵Fenton, op. cit., p. 121.

³⁶Ibid.

this concept of education, are "receptacles" to be "filled" by the teacher, and student-teacher success is related to the process of filling the receptacles. He says, "The more completely he fills the receptacles, the better teacher he is; the more meekly the receptacles permit themselves to be filled, the better students they are."³⁷

SUMMARY

In examining the social studies literature from the 1890's to the present time, it becomes readily evident that social studies as knowledge for the sake of knowledge, with its history-geography-civics emphasis as described in this chapter, is a tradition which continues to maintain a strong foothold in today's elementary schools. This simply reaffirms Thomas and Brubaker's statement quoted in the introductory chapter of this dissertation to the effect that the general form of the history-geography pattern of the early 1900's has not been driven out of the schools by newer curriculum designs, but remains much the same as it was years ago.³⁸

Looking at the four remaining traditions of the proposed framework, as discussed in ensuing chapters of this dissertation, simply sharpens the reader's awareness of the widespread acceptance which knowledge for its own sake has in the elementary-school social studies programs of our nation's schools. Unfortunately, its followers are legion.

³⁷Friere, loc. cit.

³⁸Thomas and Brubaker, op. cit., p. 6.

CHAPTER III

SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE CHILD-CENTERED TRADITION

During the first quarter of this century, educational leaders recognized that a new kind of society was emerging. The new social order would require informed and independent thinkers. An increasingly opulent society, with a rising middle class, could now afford the luxury of such independence for all. Among school people and interested citizens it was recognized that accumulation of knowledge and transmission of the social heritage would no longer suffice as the sole ingredients in the preparation of individuals for a full life in the more sophisticated, progressive society. A transformation in education must take place -- the center of educational gravity must be shifted to the child; his natural impulses to conversation, to inquiry, to instruction, and to expression must be the natural resources, the "uninvested capital" of the educative process.¹ Thus, the child-centered tradition in social studies education was born.

DESCRIPTION

Even though the beginnings of the child-centered tradition were in the decades immediately following the

¹John Dewey, The School and Society (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1899), p. 47.

Civil War,² the tradition is best illustrated by the progressive education movement which flourished during the early part and up to the middle of the twentieth century. The movement actually began, as Cremin describes it, as a "part of a vast humanitarian effort to apply the promise of American life -- the ideal of government by, of, and for the people -- to the puzzling new urban-industrial civilization that came into being during the latter half of the nineteenth century."³ Progressive education was one whole facet of America's response to industrialization, and it began as a many-sided effort to use the schools as a means for improving the lives of individuals.⁴ To the supporters of progressive education, the movement meant:

- (1) Broadening the program and function of the school to include direct concern for health, vocation, and the quality of family and community life
- (2) Applying in the classroom the pedagogical principles derived from new scientific research in psychology and the social sciences
- (3) Tailoring instruction more and more to the different kinds and classes of children who were being brought within the purview of the school
- (4) Democratizing culture without vulgarizing it -- that is, everyone could share not only in

²Lawrence Cremin, The Transformation of the School (New York: Vintage Books, 1961), p. viii.

³Ibid.

⁴Ibid., p. x.

the benefits of the new sciences but in the pursuit of the arts as well.⁵

As suggested by its title, at the heart of the child-centered tradition in social studies education is the child; his needs and interests are paramount. Emphasis is upon the child in the present tense; he learns to live through living, and the classroom is thought of as a miniature society in which the child is a fully participating citizen in all activities. Dewey says:

...make each one of our schools an embryonic community life, active with types of occupations that reflect the life of the larger society, and permeated throughout with the spirit of art, history, and science. When the school introduces and trains each child of society into membership within such a little community, saturating him with the spirit of service and providing him with the instruments of effective self-direction, we shall have the deepest and best guaranty of a larger society which is worthy, lovely, and harmonious.⁶

Real, concrete, personal experiences within the child's classroom environment form the roots out of which thoughts and thinking processes grow, therefore learning is something created by the child in response to the environment; not something transferred from the environment to the classroom for the child to absorb. Environmental interaction stimulates thinking processes, and learning is created by the child in response to the classroom environment in which he finds himself.

⁵Ibid., pp. viii-ix.

⁶Dewey, op. cit., p. 29.

FOCUS OF TRADITION

The major focus of the child-centered movement is upon letting the child grow naturally into the individual he will become, without society dictating to him the direction in which he should go. He is viewed as the source of all content in the social studies program, with curriculum and instruction geared to his nature, needs, and concerns; not only the needs of society or the academic disciplines.

The child-centered tradition focuses upon children rather than theories about children. Energies of all educational endeavors are directed toward sensitivity to the child and his needs, rather than rigorous scholarly pursuits in the scientific study of children. An example of a school operated in keeping with the child-centered tradition was the School of Organic Education, opened in 1910 in Fairhope, Alabama. Marietta Johnson, Director, states the educational principles of the school:

We believe that education is life, growth; that the ends are immediate; that the end and process are one....Our constant thought is not what do the children learn or do, but what are the "learning" and the "doing" doing to them....Not "what do you know," but "what do you need," should be asked, and the nature of childhood indicates the answer.⁷

In keeping with the psychology of the new movement, novel programs of work and daily schedules were devised to

⁷Marietta Johnson, "The Educational Principles of the School of Organic Education, Fairhope, Alabama," Curriculum Making: Past and Present, The Twenty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (Bloomington: Public School Publishing Company, 1926), p. 350.

focus on the child and to provide stimulating conditions in which the child would work. Activities and materials of instruction, as well as the program captions themselves, reflected a new day in educational circles. The revolutionary changes taking place in the classrooms are conveyed in the language surrounding the movement, as is evidenced in Figure 3.1, "Typical Captions of the Child-Centered Schools as Opposed to those of the Conventional Schools."⁸

TYPICAL CAPTIONS OF THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM IN:

THE CHILD-CENTERED SCHOOLS	THE CONVENTIONAL SCHOOLS
(These are representative centers of interest or units of work).	(These are representative school subjects.)
A food study -- fruits and vegetables	Algebra
A study of trees and tree making	Arithmetic
History play -- "Following Columbus"	Bookkeeping
A Knight study -- making and giving a play	Economics
A play city	English Composition
A study of milk	Geography
Study of Holland	Grammar
A study of wool	History
A study of boats	Latin
Water transportation	Manual training
A study of tree people	Nature study
How man has made records	Reading
Care of a flock of chickens	Rhetoric
Story of the growth of Chicago	Science
The Study of Greek life	Spelling
Colonial life	Writing

Figure 3.1

Typical Captions of the Educational Program in
the Child-Centered Schools and the Conventional Schools

⁸Harold Rugg and Ann Shumaker, The Child-Centered School (Chicago: World Book Company, 1928), p. 69.

New and old educational philosophies are epitomized quite clearly in the daily schedules of the child-centered schools. In the schools there are large blocks of time for creative activity, pupil enterprises, self-initiated undertakings, open forums and debate, experimentation in shop, kitchen, laboratory, and research in library and afield. Not only are the time allotments, activities, and materials different in the child-centered schools, but the vocabulary itself resounds with new terms and phrases. Figure 3.2⁹ is an illustration of the organization of the daily program in the schools.

To contrast further, a typical school day in a conventional public school of the better type is presented in Figure 3.3.¹⁰ The large blocks of time, the activities, and the vocabulary of the child-centered school are conspicuously absent from the program of work in the conventional school.

Rugg and Shumaker label the child-centered school a "child's world in a child's-size environment," where the child lives in a democracy of youth. The child-centered school is different, they contend -- different in atmosphere, housing, furniture; different in its basic philosophy and psychology; different in the role that it assigns to pupil and teacher initiative.¹¹ It forces a central focus

⁹Ibid., p. 70

¹⁰Ibid., p. 71

¹¹Ibid., p. 2.

THE CHILD-CENTERED SCHOOL

A

ILLUSTRATION OF THE ORGANIZATION OF THE DAILY PROGRAM IN THE NEW SCHOOLS

Tentative program of the Fourth Grade, as worked out by Mr. James S. Tippet in the Lincoln School, 1925

TIME	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
9:00	9:00-9:25 French		9:05-9:45	9:00-9:25 French	
10:00	9:30-10:10 Music		Assembly	9:30-10:00 Library Special Reading Help	9:30-10:00 Creative Music
10:00	•	10:00-10:20 Special Help in Reading			• ¹
11:00		10:20-10:45 Gymnasium			
		10:45-11:45 • ¹		•	
	11:00-11:30 Gymnasium				11:00-11:30 Gymnasium
12:00	11:30-12:30				
1:00	Lunch and Rest				
1:00	•	•	•	1:00-2:45	•
2:00	12:30-1:30	Recreation		Creative Work Period	
3:00	1:30-2:00				
3:00	2:00-2:45 ²	•	•		•
3:00	2:45-3:00 Lunch and Dismissal				

* Educative units rich in group and individual activity; in opportunity for developing responsibility, initiative, cooperation, and scientific attitude; in the need for information and skill; and in social meaning will be the basis for most of the work of these periods. Practice in arithmetic, in reading, in spelling, in writing, in construction or other manual activities, or in getting and using facts may any or all be found in any one period of time.

¹ At this period the household arts laboratory and teacher are available for use. The household arts phase of the unit of work will be stressed at this period.

² This is the period at which help may be expected from the industrial arts teacher.

Figure 3.2

Illustration of the Daily Program in a Child-Centered School

THE PROGRAM OF WORK

A TYPICAL SCHOOL DAY IN A CONVENTIONAL PUBLIC SCHOOL
OF THE BETTER TYPE

Grade IV

TIME	ORDER OF SUBJECTS
9:00 - 9:05	Physical Inspection of Hands, Hair, etc.
9:05 - 9:20	Service Period (Patriotism and Citizenship)
9:20 - 9:35	Spelling
9:35 - 9:45	Penmanship
9:45 - 10:00	Oral or Written Composition
10:00 - 10:10	Recess
10:10 - 10:40	Arithmetic
10:40 - 11:00	Physical Education
11:00 - 11:10	Recess
11:10 - 11:40	Reading (First Division)
11:40 - 12:00	Language or Composition
	NOON
1:00 - 1:08	Announcements
1:08 - 1:35	Drawing or Music
1:40 - 2:00	Geography or Nature Study
2:00 - 2:15	Recess
2:15 - 2:50	Reading (Second Division)
2:50 - 3:15	History or Civics. Study Period

Figure 3.3

Illustration of the Daily Program in a Conventional School

on the child. They reiterate this in the closing statement of their book, The Child-Centered School, by saying, "The new education has reoriented educational thinking about its true center -- the child."¹²

¹²Ibid., p. 325.

Gradually, the fervor of the progressive, child-centered movement in education began to wane, as more and more disenchantment arose with the progressive's activity curriculum and its seeming lack of pedagogical goals. Even the strong voice gained by the founding of the Progressive Education Association in 1919 was inadequate to maintain the momentum of the movement over the ensuing decades. Cremin, in a thumbnail sketch, traces the history of the progressive movement in education from its peak following World War I to its demise in the late 1950's:

With the cessation of hostilities (World War I), progressive education again quickened amidst Wilsonian promises of a new and better world. But somehow the movement, like Progressivism writ large, had changed. During the twenties, as the intellectual avant garde became fascinated with the arts in general and Freud in particular, social reformism was virtually eclipsed by the rhetoric of child-centered pedagogy. During the thirties, when influential groups within the profession sought to tie progressive education more closely to political Progressivism, the movement was racked by a paralyzing partisanship from which it never fully recovered. After World War II the added curse of inertness cast its pall over the enterprise. By the 1950's the enthusiasm, the vitality, and the drive were gone, all that remained were the slogans.¹³

Seven major reasons, according to Cremin, brought about the collapse of the progressive movement in this country. These are:

- (1) The schism within the ranks of the movement
- (2) The negativism inherent in this and all social reform movements
- (3) The inordinate demands on the teacher's time and ability

¹³Cremin, op. cit., p. 181.

- (4) The inability of the movement to formulate "next steps" -- intellectual bankruptcy
- (5) The conservatism in postwar political and social thought
- (6) The cessation of assiduously cultivating lay support
- (7) The movement's failure to keep pace with continuing transformation of American society.¹⁴

According to Cremin, death of the movement was inevitable -- a result of its own internal contradictions. Russia's Sputnik may have hastened its demise and dramatized its end; but even so, "there were few mourners at the funeral."¹⁵

MAJOR CONTRIBUTORS

The earliest and most profound advocate of the child-centered tradition in social studies education was John Dewey. His writings around the turn of the century set the stage for later change in educational thinking. In discussing Dewey's influence, Harold Rugg writes, "It is probably safe to say that Dewey's The School and Society (1899) and his later The Child and the Curriculum (1902) have influenced the thought of teachers in training and in educational institutions as profoundly as any other educational writings of the past generation."¹⁶ Dewey's pedagogic creed, issued in 1897,

¹⁴ Ibid., pp. 348-51.

¹⁵ Ibid., p. 185.

¹⁶ Harold Rugg, "Curriculum-Making in Laboratory Schools," Curriculum Making: Past and Present, Twenty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (Bloomington: Public School Publishing Company, 1926), p. 94.

prompted Lawrence Cremin to write, "Little wonder that American educators came to view this quiet little man with the dark mustache as a Moses who would eventually lead them toward the pedagogic promised land!"¹⁷

Education, in Dewey's thinking, is a matter of individual growth and development. It should constantly expand the range of social situations in which individuals perceive issues, make choices, and act upon those choices. Individuals with changed behaviors, perceptions, and insights would be needed in the new society which was coming into being, and education must devise a plan for producing those individuals. Dewey was convinced that the child-centered tradition would be the means, and he devoted his life to that end.

A more recent advocate of the child-centered tradition in elementary social studies education is Paul Hanna. He focuses on the child, at the same time recognizing the needs of society and the contributions which the various social science disciplines have to offer in helping children contribute to the democratic way of life.

Hanna's educational career began in the 1920's. Following undergraduate work at Hamline University, he continued his studies at Columbia University, where he received the Doctor of Philosophy Degree in 1929. While at Columbia he was a research associate in the Lincoln Schools, which were

¹⁷Cremin, op. cit., p. 100.

affiliated with the Teachers College, Columbia. In 1935, he joined the faculty at Stanford University as associate professor of education, becoming professor of education in 1937, and Lee Jacks Professor of Child Education in 1954. He is currently Emeritus Lee Jacks Professor at Stanford.

A major concern of Hanna's has been what he labels the child-society dilemma; that is, the dilemma of social studies education designed to meet the needs of society versus social studies education designed to meet the needs of the child. He analyzes social studies curriculum and instruction during the first half of this century:

In the first half of this century the almost exclusive dependence on formal content drawn from the social sciences resulted in too static a program and was accompanied by excessive drill on geographic, historical, and civic facts....The second quarter of this century saw much experimentation in the elementary school classroom with more and more dependence upon "current events" and pupil interest. The social sciences as the primary source of content gave ground to these newer influences in the learner-centered schools, thus contributing to a new curricular imbalance.¹⁸

Hanna proposes that curricular imbalance is neither necessary nor desirable. The nature of society and the nature of the child are both vital parts of a balanced curriculum. Writing in Education 2000 AD, he says:

¹⁸Paul R. Hanna and John R. Lee, "Content in the Social Studies. Generalizations from the Social Sciences," Social Studies in Elementary Schools, Thirty-second Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies (Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1962), p. 63.

Today many educators wish to know why the curriculum should be dominated by either the child or the society. The needs of each are interrelated in such ways that the nature of society and the nature of childhood are indispensable to a balanced curriculum. On the one hand, the curriculum is based upon a regard for the individual child and his optimum growth as valuable ends in society....On the other hand the curriculum imparts to the young that knowledge which perpetuates and enriches the society.¹⁹

To balance the curriculum in social studies education, Hanna feels that content must come from at least three major sources: (1) informal life of the expanding communities of which the child is simultaneously a member, (2) the more formal social science disciplines and history, and (3) pupils' responses to the informal life cited as the first source.²⁰ An ideal social studies program draws content from each of the three sources.

From Hanna's writing, it is evident that during his earlier career he was content with a social studies program in which the child trekked behind the mailman for extended periods of time. Later, however, he began to have misgivings about either the desirability or the feasibility of a curriculum geared totally to the activities of the child, with little or no emphasis on a plan of organization for the vast mass of activities. Writing in 1960, Hanna

¹⁹Paul R. Hanna, "Society-Child-Curriculum," Education 2000 AD, ed. Clarence W. Hunnicutt (New York: Syracuse University Press, 1956), p. 4.

²⁰Paul R. Hanna, "The Social Studies Program in the Elementary School in the Twentieth Century," The Social Studies: Curriculum Proposals for the Future, ed., G. Wesley Sowards (Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1963), pp. 47-48.

discusses his career:

This is my immodest statement of some of the major steps that have gone into the development of the design for a coordinated social studies program.

The story actually begins with my undergraduate work at Hamline University, where I majored in Philosophy. Under the tutelage of Professor Gregory B. Wolcott, I was constantly forced to develop the largest possible configuration of ideas, always encouraged to elaborate a frame of reference into which all new ideas must be related. This habit has been a major factor in motivating me always to think in terms of overall design.

There was no such overall design, however, when I began my research in curriculum work in 1927 at the Lincoln School of Teachers College at Columbia University. Moreover, there was little agreement in the faculty that the school had a responsibility for providing an overall balance of teaching-learning experiences that would make the child more competent now as a child and later as an adult. To illustrate the lack of balance in our social studies program at that time, the second grade book we published was entitled, Carrying the Mail, and a child might spend the entire year investigating the postal services of New York City. The third grade book was Manhattan Indians and the Dutch Colonial Settlement. It was possible for a child to concentrate almost entirely upon the phenomena around him in New York City through the elementary school years.²¹

In 1931, Hanna joined a consulting team for the State of Virginia in a long-range curriculum development program. Hanna served as chief consultant in social studies. Working with several thousand teachers, he first attempted to develop units of work along the same lines used at the Lincoln Schools -- planning later to assemble the units in Richmond, where the team would establish "some logic or design that would provide a pattern for the

²¹Paul R. Hanna, "The Story of the Design for the Basic Social Studies Program," (Chicago: Scott, Foresman Company, December, 1960), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

assignment of units or themes to the various grades."²² No such sequential pattern or themes could be derived from the analysis of units turned in by teachers. It was agreed that Hanna would try a different approach, and he was instructed "to select the most significant content of the social sciences and arrange it in some sequence that would assure coverage of the material in a pattern consistent with the biopsychological development of children."²³

Hanna and his associates at Stanford continued their work -- considering many proposals, trying a few of them, and eventually discarding them all.²⁴ Finally, after years of research, constantly influenced by world events, they developed the concept of the "expanding-communities-of-men" -- a model consisting of a series of concentric circle communities, beginning with the family and moving outward to the world as the home of mankind. (See Figure 3.4).

In presenting the rationale for his design, Hanna wrote:

...there is merit in providing youth first with experiences that help them see the larger warp and woof of the cultural patterns in which they live; we advocate in the beginning school grades the wholistic study of men living in societies;...If we commence our social studies program in the elementary school with unified, coordinated, wholistic study

²² Ibid.

²³ Ibid., p. 2.

²⁴ Ibid., p. 4.

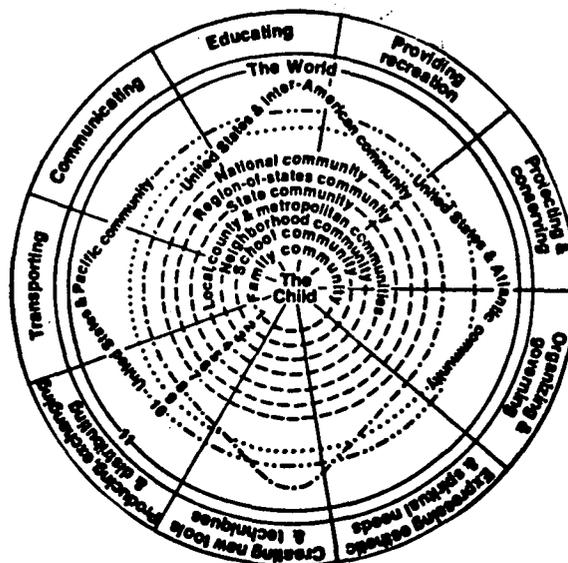


Figure 3.4

A Social Studies Curriculum Design

of man-to-man relations, then we contend that we can proceed in the high school to be more atomistic in our study of history, ...geography, or...any of the social science disciplines.²⁵

The expanding-environments model developed by Hanna and his associates has both a scope and sequence. Scope refers to the breadth and depth of content and experiences to be provided in the social studies curriculum -- the what of the curriculum. Sequence means the continuity and order of experiences provided from year to year throughout the student's school career -- the when of the curriculum.

In Hanna's model, a sequence of themes emerges from the observation that children live within a system or set of expanding but interdependent communities. Starting

²⁵Paul R. Hanna, "Revising the Social Studies: What Is Needed." Social Education, Volume 27 (April, 1963), 191-192.

with the social studies program in the primary grades, the family, which is the oldest, smallest, most intimate grouping of men, is initially presented and represents the first and innermost concentric band of the Hanna model. Next, the child's world expands to include the urban neighborhood and its population, the second concentric band. Later, the child's contacts extend beyond the neighborhood, and his world begins to expand more rapidly as he comes in contact with more and more people living in larger and larger world arenas. This set of communities -- family to nation -- is a highly interdependent system and constitutes the sequence for the expanding-horizons model. Each of the communities in the mode is represented by a concentric band, with the child maintaining his position in the center of the mode. The entire model is much like a pebble dropped into still water, with each ripple representing a new community in the child's expanding world. (See Figure 3.5).

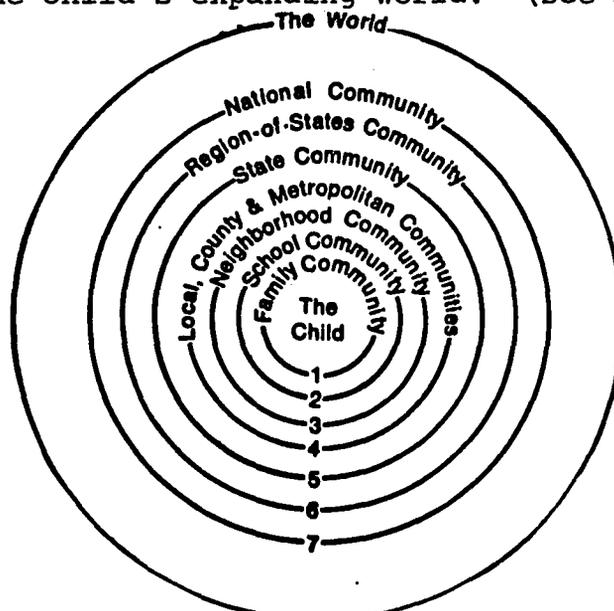


Figure 3.5

The Sequence of the Expanding Communities of Men

The sequence typically followed in schools adopting Hanna's model is:

<u>Grade</u>	<u>Emphasis</u>
One	The child's family community The child's school
Two	The child's neighborhood community
Three	The child's local communities: city, county, metropolis
Four	The child's state community The child's region-of-states community
Five	The U.S. national community
Six	The world community ²⁶

Nine clusters of basic human activities make up the scope of social studies education as proposed by Hanna and his associates, and these activities constitute a grid which is laid over the expanding-communities model. Hanna likens the grid to a wheel with nine segments, each focusing on a cluster of basic human activities, which is superimposed over the sequence dimension of concentric circles. (See Figure 3.6). As each of the expanding communities is presented to the child, he studies the ways in which various community groups carry out basic human activities. Hanna identifies nine basic human activities:

- (1) Communicating
- (2) Educating
- (3) Providing recreation
- (4) Protecting and conserving
- (5) Organizing and governing
- (6) Transporting
- (7) Creating new tools and technics
- (8) Expressing esthetic and spiritual needs
- (9) Producing, exchanging, and distributing²⁷

²⁶Hanna, "Revising the Social Studies: What Is Needed?" op. cit., p. 193.

²⁷Ibid., p. 194.

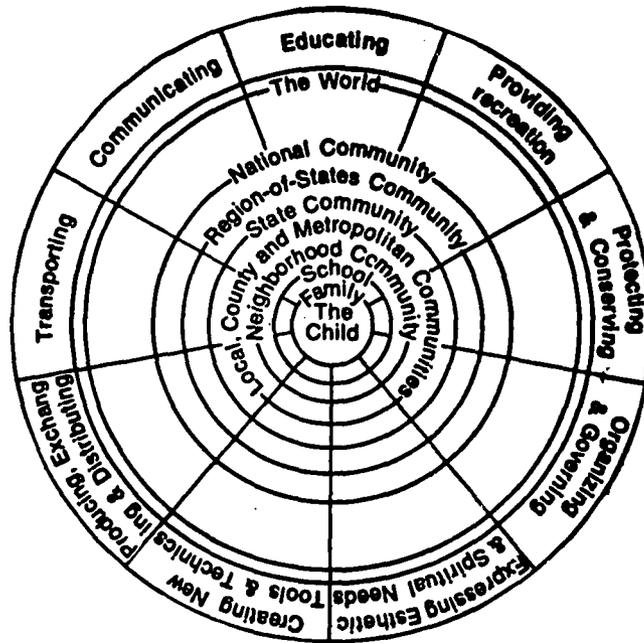


Figure 3.6

Basic Human Activities Overlaid on Expanding Communities

An important strategy, according to Hanna, of his model is that the pupil is not "encouraged to jump about aimlessly from community to community or from culture to culture." Instead, the student moves systematically through the expanding communities, from family through nation to the world.

DISCUSSION OF CURRICULAR COMPONENTS

There is a uniqueness in the treatment of specific curricular components in the child-centered tradition. Each will be discussed as it is viewed in this approach to social studies education.

Citizenship Education

Living life fully as a child is considered the best preparation for adulthood and good citizenship, with the school environment providing real, concrete, personal experiences within which the roots of desirable citizenship can be formed. In the child-centered approach, it is believed that full participation in the school environment, Dewey's "embryonic community," will assure a child the expertise needed for good citizenship in adult life.

Student Maturity

The focus is upon the child undergoing growth as a child. As an organism evolving through a series of different stages of development, he is not to be hurried from stage to stage. Growth of the child is not uniform over time; he is quite different at four years and sixteen years, and his "learnings and achievements are fluid and moving. They change from day to day and from hour to hour. It will do harm if child-study leaves in the popular mind the impression that a child of a given age has a positive equipment of purposes and interests to be cultivated just as they stand."²⁸

²⁸John Dewey, The Child and the Curriculum (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1902), pp. 20-21.

Selection of Content

Children have four primary impulses, according to Dewey, and they constitute the natural resources, the uninvested capital, which educators should use in determining content for social studies curriculum. The impulses are: (1) interest in conversation, or communication; (2) interest in inquiry, or finding out things; (3) interest in making things, or construction; and (4) interest in artistic expression.²⁹

In discussing a desirable course of study, Dewey says:

Abandon the notion of subject matter as something fixed and ready made in itself, outside the child's experience; cease thinking of the child's experience as also something hard and fast; see it as something fluent, embryonic, vital; and we realize that the child and the curriculum are simply two limits which define a single process. Just as two points define a straight line, so the present standpoint of the child and the facts and truths of studies define instruction. It is continuous reconstruction, moving from the child's present experience out into that represented by the organized bodies of truth that we call studies.³⁰

Knowledge in the child-centered tradition results from the individual child's direct experience with his world. It is the socialization process. The child-centered school, with its experience curriculum, is the best guarantee for acquiring knowledge, according to the child-centered tradition in social studies education.

²⁹Dewey, The School and Society, op.cit., pp. 43-47.

³⁰Dewey, The Child and the Curriculum, op.cit., p. 16.

Use of Content

In the child-centered tradition the teacher is a facilitator of learning. He is to present opportunities for the children to experience events.

As a teacher he is not concerned with adding new facts to the science he teaches;...His problem is that of producing a vital and personal experiencing. Hence, what concerns him, as teacher, is the ways in which that subject may become a part of experience; ...how his own knowledge of the subject matter may assist in interpreting the child's needs and doings, and determine the medium in which the child should be placed in order that his growth may be properly directed. He is concerned, not with the subject-matter as such, but with the subject-matter as a related factor in a total and growing experience.³¹

The teacher is a provider of the kind of environment which stimulates responses, directs the learner's course, and prevents the child from functioning in his own "unguided spontaneity."³² All activity takes place in a medium, and the teacher, utilizing his own knowledge and understanding of children, is to determine the environment in which the child will learn. Teachers have a responsibility to see to it that day by day conditions are such that children move toward "culmination of themselves."³³

Students are expected to make decisions concerning their own learning, choosing from among alternative directions along which they might proceed. This does not mean, as some have interpreted, a complete range of freedom

³¹Dewey, The Child and the Curriculum, op. cit., p. 30.

³²Ibid., p. 39.

³³Ibid.

in which the child is expected to develop truth out of his own mind; instead the student functions within an environment provided by the teacher.

As the child-centered tradition in social studies education unfolded, misinterpretation of the teacher-pupil role in the use of content resulted. John Dewey, in a stinging attack (1926), attempted to clarify the situation:

There is present tendency in so-called advanced schools of education thought to say, in effect, let us surround pupils with certain materials, tools, appliances, etc., and then let pupils respond to these things according to their own desires. Above all let us not suggest any end or plan to students; let us not suggest to them what they shall do, for that is unwarranted trespass upon their sacred intellectual individuality....Now such a method is really stupid. For it attempts the impossible, which is always stupid; and it misconceives the conditions of independent thinking.³⁴

What Significant Others Are Expected to Do

The influence of publishing companies, social studies projects, methods teachers, and others outside the profession have been significant in the child-centered tradition. An examination of these influences follows.

Publishing companies. Much of the emphasis in the experimental schools of the 1920's was on units of work,

³⁴"Representative Quotations from John Dewey's Written Statements on the Curriculum (1900-1926)," The Foundations and Techniques of Curriculum-Construction, The Twenty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Bloomington: Public School Publishing Company, 1926), p. 173, citing John Dewey, "Individuality and Experience," Journal of the Barnes Foundation, Volume II (January, 1926).

where "children sang about the community helpers, drew pictures of their school, and learned to read from experience charts developed from the study of the bakery, the home, and the landing of the pilgrims."³⁵ There was little need for specific published materials, consequently textbooks and publishing companies were unable to wield the influence they had maintained in earlier days.

However, with the development of Hanna's expanding communities model, publishing companies once again acquired a firm grip on elementary social studies education, as all of the leading publishers geared their textbooks to the expanding-communities concept. Elementary textbook publishers such as Silver Burdett, Ginn, American Book Company, Rand McNally, Follett, Heath, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Allyn and Bacon, Macmillan, and Scott, Foresman have all incorporated, to some degree, Hanna's model into their texts.³⁶ According to Thomas and Brubaker, "though all textbook series do not follow precisely the theoretical approach espoused by Hanna, the general concept of expanding communities has been so popular throughout the United States that most textbook series follow some variation of that overall theme. As a result, that approach represents almost a

³⁵Bruce R. Joyce, "The Primary Grades," Social Studies in the United States, eds. C. Benjamin Cox and Byron G. Massialas (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1967), p. 17.

³⁶Ibid., pp. 17-18.

national curriculum design for elementary social studies."³⁷

The best example of a textbook series based on Hanna's expanding-communities-of-men model is Scott, Foresman's Investigating Man's World, of which Paul Hanna is senior author. The opening paragraph in each teacher's edition of the series states:

... Investigating Man's World is designed to help elementary schoolchildren develop systematic ways of thinking about and studying the world in which they live. It is a social studies program to generate patterns of thought and analysis that children can use in a lifetime of work, leisure, and citizenship. The program encourages children to study families, communities, regions, nations, and many other human groups. Investigating Man's World is constructed so that children will be actively involved in the learning process.

The titles in the series are: Study Prints, Family Studies, Local Studies, Metropolitan Studies, Regional Studies, United States Studies, Inter-American Studies, Atlantic Studies, and Pacific Studies.³⁸

Social studies projects. The earliest organized efforts in behalf of the child-centered tradition were the campus laboratory schools. These institutions, housed mostly on university campuses, were dedicated to experimentation; hence their involvement in the child-centered tradition was consistent with their philosophy.

³⁷R. Murray Thomas and Dale L. Brubaker, Decisions in Teaching Elementary Social Studies (Belmont: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 1971), p. 125.

³⁸Paul R. Hanna and others, Investigating Man's World (Glenview: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1970).

In the laboratory schools, the interests and drives of the children received top priority, much more so than in the rank and file of public schools. The child-centered emphasis was evident -- children worked much more than they listened, and activities were provided in which the child could participate. He was encouraged to engage himself in these activities.

The laboratory schools were concerned with providing a creative environment for the child. Centers of interest, organized and designed to stimulate the child's activity and creativity, encouraged children to write poetry, draw pictures, and express themselves in writing. Opportunities for teaching were provided, but specific prescriptions of materials to be read were not made; the only requirement was that the child read something. In general, the tone of the schools could be described as "taking off the lid."³⁹

Federally-funded and foundation-supported social studies projects as we have known them during the sixties were not a part of the child-centered tradition in elementary social studies curriculum and instruction. Yet, one cannot overlook the work of Paul Hanna -- with the child as central focus -- and its tremendous impact on social studies

³⁹Harold Rugg and George S. Counts, "A Critical Appraisal of Current Methods of Curriculum-Making," Curriculum Making: Past and Present, the Twenty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (Bloomington: Public School Publishing Company, 1926), p. 435.

education in this country. This endeavor was not a "project" in present-day jargon, but it represents a major cooperative effort by scholars in the social science disciplines.

Methods teachers. Social studies methods teachers are to provide students with experiences in constructing instructional environments which are conducive to education in the child-centered tradition. They are to develop the attitude that the teacher, along with the child, is a learner and experimenter; that the teacher is a facilitator of growth and development, not a dispenser of knowledge.

Copying or imitating the collegiate instruction and methods of professors in the academic disciplines is looked upon with disfavor in the child-centered tradition. According to Hanna, there should be no attempt at "making professional social science researchers out of elementary school youngsters...the logical order of arranging content found in the social sciences or the methods traditionally utilized by scholars to teach advanced university students are not -- I repeat, not -- appropriate for the immature youngsters of our elementary schools."⁴⁰

Professors in the academic disciplines. In almost all instances, professors from the academic disciplines were ignored in the child-centered tradition. Educational psychologists engaged in research related to child study and learning theory were recognized and their contributions

⁴⁰Hanna, "Society-Child-Curriculum," op. cit., p. 171.

solicited, but, for the most part, educationists were in control of curriculum decisions as well as determination of instructional strategies and techniques. Social scientists, as well as scholars from the other disciplines, were conspicuously absent in Joyce's statement about the harmony which existed among educationists during this time. He says, "...the period from about 1920 to 1960 was, for the primary grades at least, a period of remarkable harmony among social studies curriculum theorists, teachers, supervisors of instruction, and publishers of textbooks."⁴¹

Evaluation

In the child-centered tradition attempts are made to break away from rigid grading of students. As a result, objective methods of evaluation are de-emphasized, and emphasis is placed upon flexibility in grouping and individual evaluation. Students do not fail; those who are unable to advance with the group are provided with special individual attention or transferred to a group more adapted to their peculiar needs.

In evaluating teachers, the prime question is, "Are the students happy?" The emotional health of students is a major factor in determining teacher success, for it is assumed that teachers who provide the environment needed for satisfying personal living on the part of children are successful in their teaching experience. They are guiding the students toward good citizenship upon reaching adulthood.

⁴¹Joyce, loc. cit.

The teacher is evaluated in terms of her sensitivity to the needs and interests of the students. A gauge of success is her ability to spotlight the children and utilize the direct experiences they bring to the classroom. Spotlighting the children indicates a truly child-centered classroom, which is the ultimate in the child-centered tradition.

SUMMARY

In this chapter, it has been shown that the child-centered tradition in social studies education flourished for more than a half-century in American education.⁴² However, the 1950's ushered in a new educational era, and with the new era came a central effort to define more precisely the school's responsibilities, delineating those things that the school must do if they were to be done.⁴³ This more precise delineation of the school's responsibilities, coupled with the launching of Sputnik I in 1957, dealt a final blow to progressive education, and with it the child-centered tradition. They could no longer keep pace with the continuing transformation of American society.⁴⁴

⁴²Cremin, *op. cit.*, p. 348.

⁴³*Ibid.*, p. 352.

⁴⁴*Ibid.*, p. 350.

CHAPTER IV

SOCIAL STUDIES AS REFLECTIVE INQUIRY

As a result of industrial and technological advances in this country, American youth has found itself living in a society which presents it with more and more cultural alternatives. There is a diminution of culturally fixed mores and values; disagreement in general exists on preferred means of dealing with the problems of society, as society's traditional values are forced to give way to emergent values. Traditional values, founded in Puritan morality, the work-success ethic, individualism, and achievement, have been supplanted by emergent values based on sociability, consideration for others, happiness, and conformity.¹

In this setting, education cannot function as culture preserver or mediator; it must make its most important contribution within the area of intelligent choice and decision-making on the part of the individual. Education must be responsible for creating conditions whereby students can inquire into beliefs, values, and social policies, as well as assess the consequences and implications

¹Byron G. Massialas and C. Benjamin Cox, Inquiry in Social Studies (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1966), p. 7.

of possible alternatives.² Social studies as reflective inquiry makes it possible for education to fulfill its responsibility in providing an avenue for students to participate in the inquiry process.

DESCRIPTION

The reflective inquiry tradition is not new or even a recent emphasis in social studies education. Support for the tradition came as early as 1910 when John Dewey, attempting to delineate the kinds of thought, wrote in the opening pages of How We Think:

Thoughts that result in belief have an importance attached to them which leads to reflective thought, to conscious inquiry into the nature, conditions, and bearings on the belief....Thinking in its best sense is that which considers the basis and consequences of beliefs....Active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it, and the further conclusions to which it tends, constitute reflective thought.³

Reflection, according to Dewey, implies that something is believed in -- or disbelieved in, not on its own direct account, but through something else which stands as witness, evidence, proof, voucher, warrant; that is, as ground of belief.⁴ In every reflective operation Dewey sees two subprocesses: (1) a state of perplexity, hesitation,

²Ibid., p. 5.

³John Dewey, How We Think (New York: D. C. Heath and Company, Publishers, 1910), pp. 5-6.

⁴Ibid., p. 7.

doubt; and (2) an act of search or investigation directed toward bringing to light further facts which serve to corroborate or to nullify the suggested belief.⁵

To illustrate further, Dewey uses the "forked-road" analogy. He says:

Thinking begins in what may fairly enough be called a forked-road situation, a situation which is ambiguous, which presents a dilemma, which proposes alternatives. As long as our activity glides smoothly along from one activity to another, or as long as we permit our imagination to entertain fancies at pleasure, there is no call for reflection. Difficulty or obstruction in the way of reaching a belief brings us, however, to a pause. In the suspense of uncertainty, we metaphorically climb a tree; we try to find some standpoint from which we may survey additional facts and, getting a more commanding view of the situation, may decide how the facts stand related to one another.⁶

In Dewey's thinking, there are five logically distinct steps which comprise the reflective process. He defines them as (1) the occurrence of a difficulty, (2) definition of the difficulty, (3) occurrence of a suggested explanation or possible solution, (4) the rational elaboration of an idea, and (5) corroboration of an idea and formation of a concluding belief.⁷

Dewey's statements and his early writings concerning reflective thinking made little impact in educational circles during the beginning decades of this century. Educators, and the public in general, were so swept up in

⁵Ibid., p. 9.

⁶Ibid., p. 11.

⁷Ibid., pp. 72-77.

the progressive education movement centered around Dewey's thinking offered in The Child and the Curriculum and The School and Society, that his ideas in How We Think and other writings received little attention.

It has been through the works of such persons as Metcalf, Engle, Massialas, Fenton, Oliver and Shaver, and others that the tradition of reflective inquiry has slowly emerged in social studies education. As a result of their efforts, a variety of tasks and conditions in reflective thought have been identified, but basically they center around Dewey's ideas.⁸

Reflective thinking, as defined by Massialas and Cox, is the process of identifying problems of fact and value, assessing them in view of the assumptions in which they are grounded, and subjecting them to proof in terms of certain criteria.⁹ As a method of instruction, the reflective process recognizes that "decision making and the making of judgments of fact and value are the most important business of social studies education."¹⁰

A major premise of the reflective inquiry tradition in social studies education is the belief that students can no longer master the myriad facts resulting from the tremendous explosion of knowledge in the twentieth century. Moreover, the desirability of accumulating vast amounts of

⁸Massialas and Cox, op. cit., p. 90.

⁹Ibid.

¹⁰Ibid., p. 91.

factual information, even if possible, is questioned in light of the rapidity of change evident in society today. More important, it seems, is an emphasis upon helping students learn on their own, helping them to inquire reflectively, to discover what is "in their own heads."

No one set body of content is considered essential in the reflective inquiry tradition, instead the emphasis is upon an organized, directed search, a process which is guided by hypotheses formulated as the problem is defined. Knowledge is never conclusive in the sense of being final fact -- it is the outgrowth of continuous inquiry and test; hence, open to re-examination, renewal, and change.¹¹

Instead of stressing a particular body of knowledge or specific content, the reflective inquiry tradition stresses a process for inquiry; the emphasis is on the entire act of problem-solving -- from identification, through conceptualization, to testing. Included in the process are problem identification, data gathering, data analysis, and several steps involved in verification.

A reflective model, as conceived by Massialas, is presented in Figure 4.1.¹² It is comprised of six phases,

¹¹Charlotte Crabtree, "Supporting Reflective Thinking in the Classroom," Effective Thinking in the Social Studies, Thirty-seventh Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies (Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1967), p. 89.

¹²Massialas and Cox, op. cit., p. 115.

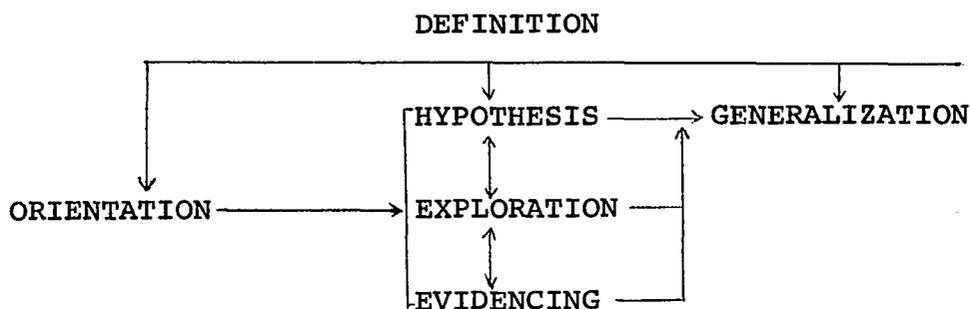


Figure 4.1

The Reflective Model of Massialas and Cox

each one of which is characterized by certain kinds of skills and activities. The process of reflection has its inception at that point where the teacher and class become oriented or sensitive to a dilemma, and the "key to the process is the willingness on the part of students and teacher to further explore and validate the springboard which provides the initial encounter."¹³

A further model exemplifying the steps in reflective inquiry is presented in Figure 4.2.¹⁴ In this model, developed by Beyer, operations are identified as the main steps in the process of inquiry. In contrast to the model of Massialas, the steps are sequential; that is, step one, defining a purpose for inquiry, must precede the other

¹³Ibid., p. 121.

¹⁴Barry K. Beyer, Inquiry in the Social Studies Classroom (Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1971), p. 23.

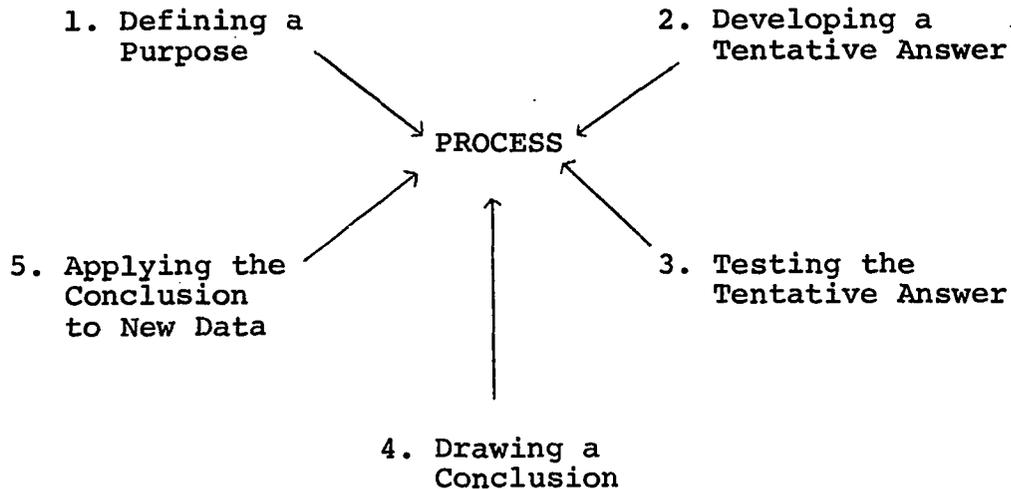


Figure 4.2

Five Operations in Beyer's Inquiry Process

steps in the model. Likewise, each of the other steps must occur in proper order.¹⁵

Beyer's model for the inquiry process does not stop with this simple diagram; it is considerably more complex -- with other subprocesses or acts of inquiry which affect each of the five essential operations. Viewed as a total operation, the inquiry process, with all its subprocesses, is exemplified in Figure 4.3.¹⁶

¹⁵Ibid., p. 50.

¹⁶Ibid., p. 50.

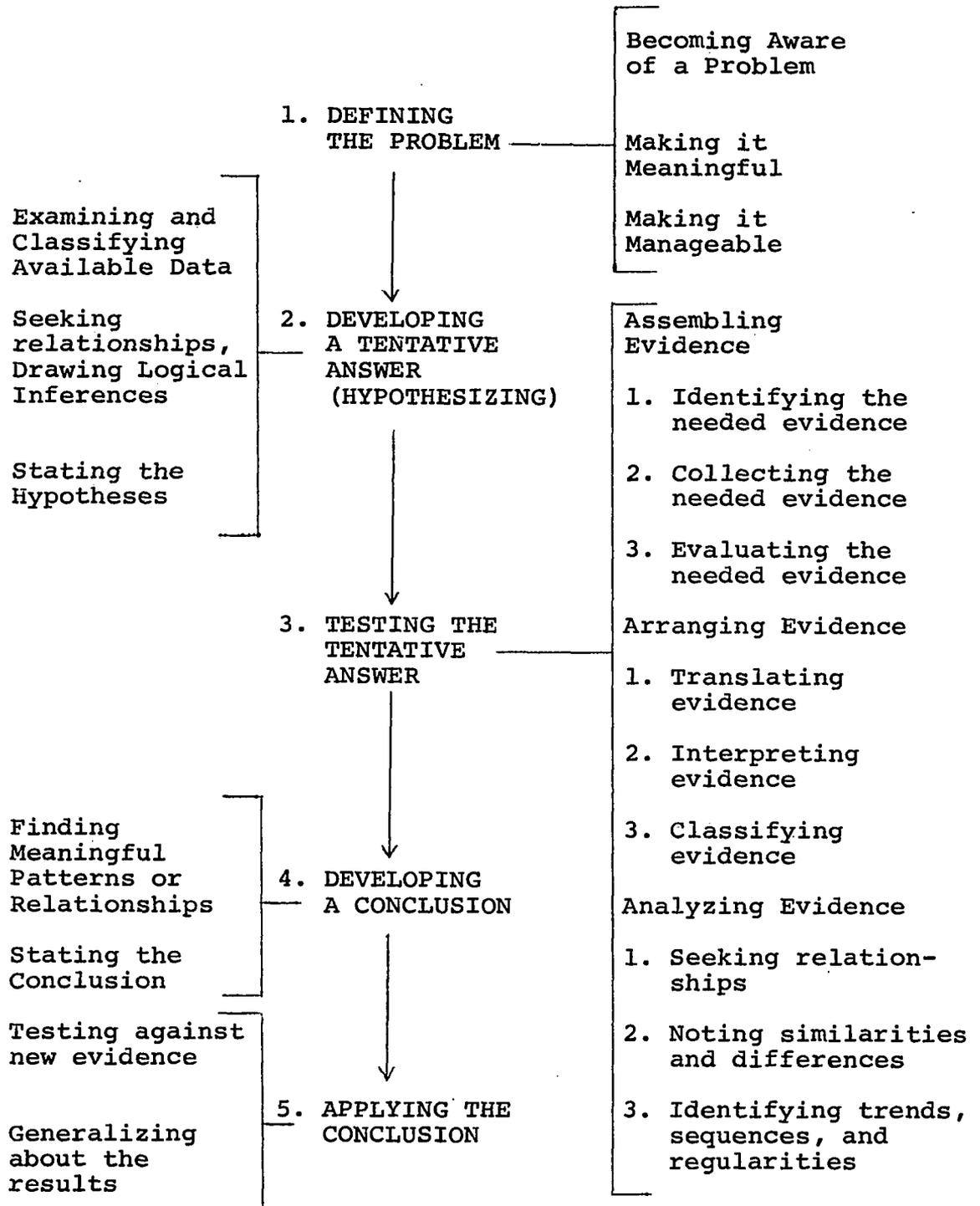


Figure 4.3

Beyer's Process of Inquiring

Bernice Goldmark, in determining a model for inquiry, embarks on an "inquiry into inquiry." At the outset she acknowledges the importance of process by noting that development of a definition of inquiry requires a close look at the process of asking questions, for the concept (inquiry) is vague and gives us no direction for conducting an inquiry.¹⁷ As she sees it, questions asked in the inquiry process are not really random; rather "they are located in a system at some particular level of competency; they are framed in the language of the system; and they indicate the tools of inquiry to be employed in seeking answers."¹⁸ To Goldmark, the inquiry method is a logical structure -- a discourse in itself and does not employ the language, the criteria, or the conclusions of any other discourse.

Goldmark's model consists of five steps, and Social Studies, A Method of Inquiry, her own "inquiry into inquiry" steps are: (1) the problem, (2) criteria, (3) values and assumptions, (4) construction of a new social studies program, and (5) inquiry into inquiry. Schematically, Goldmark represents her process of inquiry as shown in Figure 4.4.¹⁹

¹⁷Bernice Goldmark, Social Studies, A Method of Inquiry (Belmont: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 1968), p. 2.

¹⁸Ibid., p. 3.

¹⁹Ibid., p. 6.

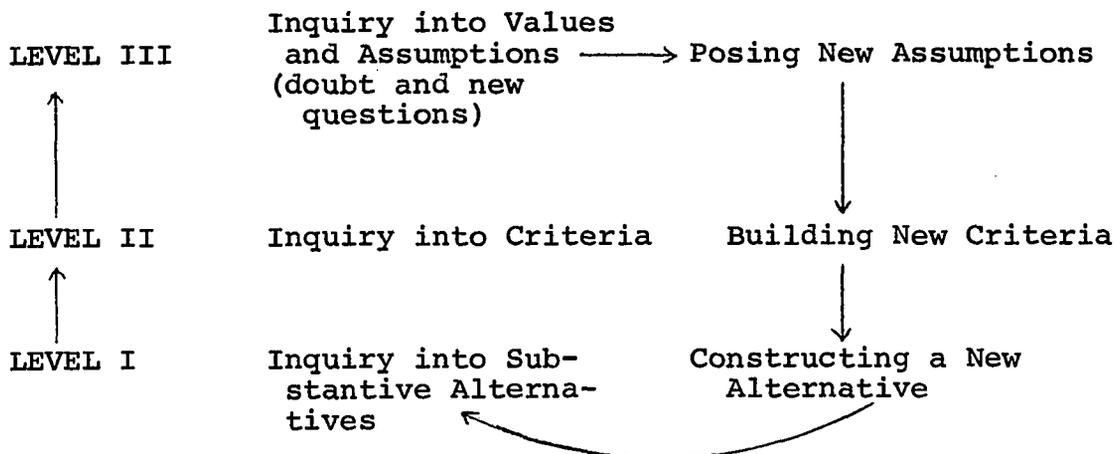


Figure 4.4

Goldmark's Method of Inquiry

The importance of reflective inquiry, and its emphasis on learning how to learn, is emphasized in a recent publication by John Michaelis:

Effective thinking is characterized by the ability to learn on one's own, to find new solutions to problems, to employ processes of inquiry independently....The accelerating explosion of knowledge has given new importance to view life-long learning as both a personal and social responsibility. Learning how to learn, therefore, is being given high priority in new programs of instruction.²⁰

APPROACHES TO CONTENT ORGANIZATION

The content in social studies as reflective inquiry may be organized in any or all of three ways. It may be interdisciplinary -- that is, the use of

²⁰John U. Michaelis, Social Studies for Children in a Democracy (4th ed.; Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1968), p. 7.

interrelated data from all of the social sciences is used for instructional purposes; multidisciplinary -- each of the individual social sciences is taught as a discrete subject; or non-disciplinary -- the experiences of students and the problems which they identify are relied upon as a basis for curriculum and instruction.

By student identification of problems, it is not meant that students are to dash off in all directions in the process of inquiring -- labeled by Dewey as the "spontaneous combustion" approach.²¹ Instead, students are engaged in an organized exploration or search which focuses around a particular problem which the student has defined for study.

CURRICULAR EXAMPLES

In an attempt to prepare students for making decisions expected of citizens in a modern, democratic society, Donald W. Oliver launched the Harvard Social Studies Project (1956). A curricular approach was developed which would teach junior high and high-school students to analyze public controversy and, particularly, to argue social issues successfully.²² Later Oliver was assisted in this effort by James P. Shaver, Harold Berlak, and Fred M. Newmann.²³

²¹Dewey, op. cit., p. 12.

²²R. Murray Thomas and Dale L. Brubaker, Curriculum Patterns in Elementary Social Studies (Belmont: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1971), p. 221.

²³Ibid.

The work has been labeled "jurisprudential teaching," and it is considered adaptable to upper elementary grades; thus it is included as a project effort which exemplifies the reflective inquiry tradition in elementary social studies. In describing the project, Oliver and Shaver say:

It has been difficult to label because of its complexity; it combines several ingredients not commonly put together in social studies curriculum. Beginning with a type of contemporary issue commonly mentioned in the problems of democracy course,...it then relates the contemporary case to cases which range widely in time and space, appealing especially to historical analogies to broaden the context of discussion. The initial questions raised by this material tend to be "should"-type questions, but the class is inevitably thrust into legal, factual, and definitional questions when the students' own views of the "good" solution are compared with other "legitimate" social solutions. It is this amalgamation of law-government, ethics, contemporary, and historical questions developed around perennial issues of public policy that we refer to as jurisprudential teaching.²⁴

The focus and real core of jurisprudential teaching is on the dialogue which is stimulated either between teacher and student or among students. In this approach, the teacher is likely "to begin discussion by reading a provocative message presenting a controversial situation and quickly move to a dialogue about the substance of the issue or problem described in the

²⁴Donald W. Oliver and James P. Shaver, Teaching Public Issues in the High School (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1966), pp. 114-115.

message."²⁵ The interaction process and dialogue which are at the heart of the approach may be seen in the following excerpt of a discussion focusing on the question of full voting rights for Negroes.

Excerpt of a Discussion That Has Focused
On the Question of Full Voting Rights for Negroes

Dialogue	Annotation
Teacher: What to you think, Steve?	
Steve: I think that the police power of local government can go only so far, that the constitutional rights of voting -- maybe the Negroes should have them.	
Teacher: Negroes should have the right to vote, even though there may be all kinds of violence and resistance. We should send troops into the South and protect every individual's right to vote?	The teacher suggests that providing voting rights may threaten a second important value: the safety of the community; and this in turn may threaten local control by the states, if federal intervention is required to keep order.
Steve: I'm not saying that. I don't think that we would have to send down troops.	Questions factual assumption of teacher. The teacher can, at this point, choose to debate the factual assumption or treat the assumption hypothetically and clarify the value commitment of the student.
Teacher: But what if it did go that far?	
Steve: Probably; yes.	The teacher chooses the latter course
Teacher: Suppose people called Negroes on the phone who intended to vote and said, "If you vote tomorrow, something might very well happen to your kids." Do you think	The teacher modifies the hypothetical situation to determine the point at which the student's position will change in favor of local control

²⁵Ibid., p. 115.

we should send the FBI down to investigate these intimidations?

Steve: No.

Teacher: Why not?

Steve: If the threat is carried out; then I would send down troops or the FBI.

Teacher: After something has happened to the courageous Negro's family, then you would send someone down to stop it.

You don't go along with the notion that if there is an atmosphere of fear and intimidation we should do something to change the atmosphere so that people will be free to vote. We shouldn't do anything until there is actual violence?

Steve: In the case of Negroes, yes.

Teacher: Why?

Steve: Because I don't want to give them the complete power to vote. This is taking a little of it away.

Teacher: You want to deny some Negroes the right to vote, a right you are willing to give whites?

Steve: Yes.

Teacher: Why?

and against federal intervention. He is shifting the meaning of "violence" to do this.

The student reverses his position with the shift in the situation.

The student is aware of the reversal of his position and explains the essential criterion determining the reversal: overt use of force to prevent the Negro from voting. The student has qualified his position. Emphasizes the negative consequences of the student's position.

The teacher now raises the definitional question: Do we have to commit an act of physical violence against a person before we have violated his rights? Is threat of violence, to some degree, also "violence"?

The student is operating with two categories of citizenship. The teacher is here asking him to justify classification on the basis of race.

Steve: Because I feel that Negroes are inferior to whites.

Children are classified as different from adults and denied full rights because they are "inferior." This response does have a rational component which the teacher feels obligated to explore.

Teacher: In what respect?

Steve: In intelligence; in health, in crime rates.

The student states the criteria on which his classification is based.

Teacher: You are suggesting that if a person is tubercular or sick, you should deny him the right to vote.

The teacher is here challenging the relevance of a criterion on the basis of which the student is making his classification.

Steve: No.

Teacher: But if a Negro is sick, we don't let him vote?

Steve: Let him vote, sure. It is just that I think they are inferior for these reasons. I'm not saying because of these reasons I'm not going to let him vote.

Teacher: Then for what reason aren't you going to let them vote?

Steve: Because I think they are inferior because of these reasons. (Student then laughs self-consciously, aware of his inconsistency.)

At this point the student has contradicted an earlier position.²⁶

This excerpt bears out the pronouncement by Oliver and Shaver that:

Our concern is not for issues in the abstract; it is for issues as they exist and may be clarified in the minds of individual citizens....Our purpose is to encourage the student to explore a controversial area, to find out himself where he stands in the controversy and how he might best defend his position in terms of the values of his culture and society,...In a real sense, instruction begins,

²⁶ Ibid., pp. 150-152.

not when the student begins to read about the problem, but when he becomes personally involved in dialogue about it.²⁷

Work of the late Hilda Taba in social studies education coincided with the efforts of Donald W. Oliver and his associates. Early in 1950, Taba left the University of Chicago to join the faculty of San Francisco State College, where she had opportunity to work with personnel in Contra Costa County and other nearby school districts. She fashioned a social studies program for grades one through eight, and following her death in 1967, her associates continued her work under the name of the Taba Curriculum Development Project, a title chosen in honor of her contribution to the project.

Writing in 1953, Taba expressed concern for effective means of relating learning in school to the social learning of children. It could not be assumed, she felt, that children enter school with vacant minds on which social studies could inscribe anything it pleased. Rather, children start school with some very definite social learnings, and "the social studies program needs to be articulated with these learnings to be effective; to correct the gaps and misinterpretations in some, to extend others, and to give coherence to all."²⁸

²⁷Ibid., p. 149-150.

²⁸Hilda Taba, "An Articulated Social Studies Curriculum in the Elementary School," Social Education, Volume 17 (December, 1953), 369-72.

The reflective inquiry tradition in social studies is exemplified by the specific learning principles upon which the Taba materials are based and which they attempt to implement. They are as follows:

- (1) Individuals learn by responding to (i.e., "interacting" with) their environment.
- (2) Learning is essentially an active process whereby a change takes place in the ways in which individuals perceive and give meaning to their environment.
- (3) Man is an adaptive creature who can organize his subsequent responses on the basis of his earlier experiences.
- (4) Since every individual has a unique set of experiences, a variety of responses to any given stimulus is possible. Therefore, provision for individual differences in learning is crucial.
- (5) Current experiences are influenced by, and thus can build on, preceding experiences.
- (6) The cultural environment in which an individual finds himself shapes what he perceives and values.
- (7) Man has the capacity to perceive relationships, and to guide his actions accordingly.
- (8) Learning is facilitated when an individual is motivated and interested in what is to be learned.
- (9) Practice is important.
- (10) When a "dissonant" object or fact is inserted into any sequence of objects or facts, attention, curiosity, and interest often occur.
- (11) The breakdown of a task into its component parts is necessary if maximal learning of the task is to be accomplished.
- (12) Transfer of learning is not automatic, but is more likely to occur when an individual learns the

underlying principles of a subject or problem.²⁹

Guided by these basic learning principles, Taba and associates developed a series of teacher guidebooks, one for each grade from grades one through eight. Each guidebook is organized around a yearly theme which is composed of a variety of unit topics. The rationale is schematically presented in Figure 4.5.³⁰

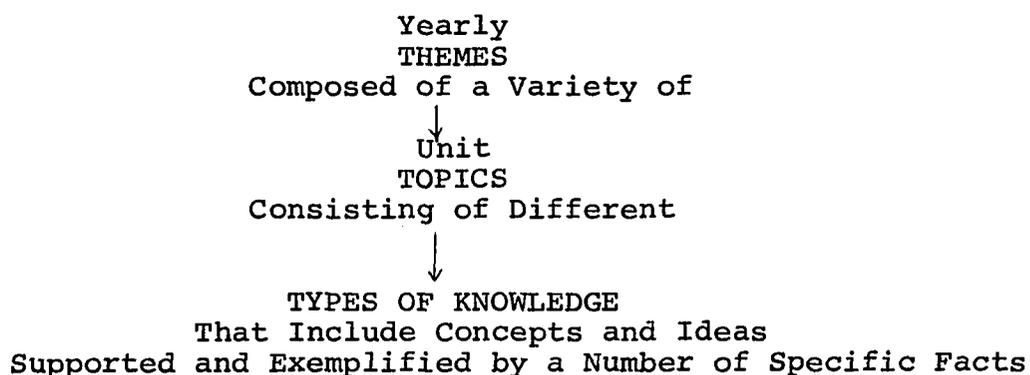


Figure 4.5

Taba's Model for Development of Teacher Guidebooks

The topics, or yearly themes, of the guidebooks are as follows:

Grade One	The Family and the School
Grade Two	The Local Community
Grade Three	Communities in Other Cultures
Grade Four	The State

²⁹Jack R. Fraenkel, "A Curriculum Model for the Social Studies," Social Education, Volume 33 (January, 1969), 45.

³⁰Ibid., p. 43.

Grade Five	The United States
Grade Six	Nations in Latin America
Grade Seven	Western Civilization: Perspective and Change
Grade Eight	United States -- Change, Problems, and Promises

As is evident, the expanding-communities model (Hanna) is followed in selection of themes. This is explained by the hypothesis "that students will gain a greater understanding of their own culture if they compare and contrast it with other cultures. With this in mind, communities and cultures that differ in a number of ways from the United States were selected for comparison"³¹

MAJOR CONTRIBUTORS

Professor Edward Fenton of Carnegie Institute of Technology supports the position that inquiry is the heart of social studies instruction; but he supports inquiry as a process by which students, social scientists, and historians interpret the past and investigate both personal problems and contemporary public issues. He favors having students go through the process of inquiring that leads to generalizations, as opposed to having someone else compile lists of generalizations for use by students and teachers. Critical of compiling lists of generalizations for use by teachers, he foresees them becoming ends in themselves, "tempting teachers to choose generalizations from a list, smorgasbord fashion, for their students."³²

³¹Ibid.

³²Edwin Fenton, The New Social Studies (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1967), p. 13.

Generalizations, in Fenton's opinion, do not help students learn the process by which social scientists develop a generalization; as a result he advocates that students learn a process for building generalizations of their own. He says, "Process is important. In the midst of a knowledge explosion, each of us must either know how to build new generalizations, or be content to live in tomorrow's world with yesterday's knowledge."³³

Fenton and his associates at Carnegie Institute of Technology's Social Studies Curriculum Development Center have constructed a mode of inquiry for the social studies classroom. The process of inquiry is divided into six major steps as follows:

- (1) Recognizing a problem from data
- (2) Formulating hypotheses
 - a. Asking analytical questions
 - b. Stating hypotheses
 - c. Remaining aware of the tentative nature of hypotheses
- (3) Recognizing the logical implications of hypotheses
- (4) Gathering data
 - a. Deciding what data will be needed
 - b. Selecting or rejecting sources
- (5) Analyzing, evaluating and interpreting data
 - a. Selecting relevant data
 - b. Evaluating sources
 - (1) Determining the frame of reference of an author
 - (2) Determining the accuracy of statements of fact
 - c. Interpreting data

³³Ibid.

- (6) Evaluating the hypothesis in light of the data
 - a. Modifying the hypothesis, if necessary
 - (1) Rejecting a logical implication unsupported by data
 - (2) Restating the hypothesis
 - b. Stating a generalization³⁴

The research of Donald W. Oliver and James P.

Shaver has made a significant contribution to the reflective inquiry tradition in social studies. A four-year study, known as the Harvard Social Studies Project, focused on the question of whether it is possible to teach adolescent youth (junior high school students) to use an abstract conceptual model for analyzing and clarifying public controversy. From their research it was found that students can be taught to think in abstract terms set forth in the model without sacrificing knowledge of social studies content; moreover, some knowledge is better retained.³⁵ In addition, it was found that the effect of the experimental curriculum on student interest was in general positive.³⁶

Byron Massialas has contributed to research in the area of reflective inquiry, and he, like others in the field, is supportive of a process or model approach to inquiry in social studies education. Working at Indiana University, he constructed a ten-point model focusing around the specific skills to be developed by students in the process of inquiry. The model is made up of the following skills:

³⁴Ibid., pp. 16-17.

³⁵Oliver and Shaver, op. cit., p. 284.

³⁶Ibid.

- (1) Hypothesizing
- (2) Defining and clarifying
- (3) Enlarging the students' perspective
- (4) Identifying and probing assumptions
- (5) Drawing logical implications
- (6) Producing relevant information
- (7) Generalizing and distinguishing among different kinds of generalizations
- (8) Recognizing material fallacies in propositions
- (9) Relating propositions to one another in terms of their explanatory power
- (10) Developing a sensitivity to facts and proof³⁷

The endeavors of Shirley S. Engle, Professor of Education at Indiana University and former President of the National Council of Social Studies, have included work toward extending the reflective inquiry tradition. He declares, in his own words, a very "simple" theme -- that is, in teaching social studies, decision making, not mere remembering, should be emphasized; for decision making is the heart of citizenship.³⁸

Engle also advocates use of models for decision making in social studies education, but the models which

³⁷C. Benjamin Cox and Jack E. Cousins, "Teaching Social Studies in Secondary Schools and Colleges," New Challenges in the Social Studies: Implications of Research and Teaching, eds. Byron G. Massialas and Frederick R. Smith (Belmont: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 1965), p. 92.

³⁸Shirley S. Engle and Wilma S. Longstreet, A Design for Social Education in the Open Curriculum (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1972), p. 14.

he proposes are those which individuals build from their own perceptions and experiences. They may be considered as pictures in the mind's eye of how sets of circumstances are causally related. "Models are systems or patterns drawn from man's perceptions of existence," Engle says, "and education may help us realize more powerful models, which give us control over more, and more varied situations."³⁹ Consequently, social studies curriculum and instruction should be directed toward the development of models within the individual which are more consistent, more powerful, more consciously held, and more flexible than would have been true without a course in social studies.⁴⁰ The job of education should be to improve the quality of the models held and used by students in interpreting new situations which they encounter.

DISCUSSION OF CURRICULAR COMPONENTS

Adjustments in the various curricular components have been necessary as the reflective inquiry tradition has emerged in social studies education. The underlying philosophy of citizenship education and student maturity, as well as the selection and use of content acquired a new focus, seemingly centered more on student activity and the inquiry process. Analysis of these components follows.

³⁹Ibid., p. 17.

⁴⁰Ibid.

Citizenship Education

It is agreed that effective thinking is basic to living in a democracy, and a basic assumption of the reflective inquiry tradition is that the best preparation for citizenship is practice in decision making. Students are to acquire this skill through everyday use of the reflective inquiry process. Defining problems and breaking them down into manageable parts; finding, analyzing, and appraising information; making, testing, and revising conclusions; and deciding among alternatives is the best possible route in the creation of open-minded, thinking citizens, who, having developed concepts of loyalty and patriotism, will accept individual responsibilities of citizenship.

Citizenship in the reflective inquiry tradition is defined as a process, not a pre-commitment to a given set of community norms or values.⁴¹ Students are involved in decision-making situations where choices are not between good and evil, but between what the student perceives to be good, or what is taken to be better; or, conversely, what is thought to be bad or might be worse. In other words, decision making takes place in ambiguous situations, and the best preparation for citizenship is providing

⁴¹James L. Barth and S. Samuel Shermis, "Defining the Social Studies: An Exploration of Three Traditions," Social Education, Volume 34 (November, 1970), 748.

situations where students acquire practice in "making decisions which reflect significant social problems and which presently affect them or are likely to affect them."⁴²

Student Maturity

A prime argument in social studies education has been that a degree of maturity is needed before children are interested in issues or capable of engaging in discourse centered around issues. Research pertaining to the degree of political socialization the elementary child possesses does not support this argument.

Easton and others have found that "a child's political world begins to take shape before he enters school and undergoes rapid change from kindergarten through grade six."⁴³ Further findings show "that by the time the child has completed elementary school many of his basic political attachments, attitudes, and values are firmly established and are not subject to significant change during the secondary school years."⁴⁴

Obviously, children do vary significantly in social experiences and reasoning capabilities, but this does not mean that all opportunities for reflective inquiry must be

⁴²Ibid., p. 749.

⁴³Robert L. Ebel (ed.), Encyclopedia of Educational Research (4th ed.; New York: The Macmillan Company, 1969), p. 1234.

⁴⁴Ibid.

postponed until late in the educational experience. Inasmuch as children vary, so does complexity of content and the reflective inquiry tradition proposes involving students in the process of inquiry, each at his own level of thinking.

Selection of Content

Data bearing upon a problem perceived by the teacher and students constitutes content. There is no set body of content; rather content is based upon whatever teacher and students deem to be pertinent in the investigation of a problem.

It is the feeling of Massialas and Cox that a social studies program is acceptable to the extent that it meets two specific criteria: (1) it emphasizes concepts and generalizations which explain human interactions and illuminates problems of mankind, and (2) it incorporates within itself models of search, verification and invention which the learner employs in his quest to find dependable knowledge.⁴⁵

Elaborating further on content selection as it relates to the reflective inquiry tradition, Massialas says:

A social studies program which is designed to maximize the ability of students to understand and satisfactorily explain human and natural problems should incorporate within itself relevant topics and activities. Fundamental ideas and generalizations about men interacting with the environment

⁴⁵Massialas and Cox, op. cit., p. 54.

coupled with intellectual tools of verification should form the core of the program. In an era characterized by rapid change in so many aspects of life, all students should participate directly in inquiry, invention, and the act of philosophizing. The study of value conflicts in our society and alternative approaches to understanding or resolving them should also have a definite place in the curriculum.⁴⁶

In the classroom where reflective inquiry is used, factual knowledge is not ignored in the selection of content, for the reflective inquiry tradition acknowledges its dependence upon facts but recognizes them as human judgments. Both teacher and students are committed to utilization of the storehouse of facts, but not in the sense of Friere's banking concept, discussed earlier in this dissertation.⁴⁷ Facts are not sacrosanct in the reflective inquiry tradition; they are pieces of information, oftentimes selected through an interpretive, value-laden, judgmental process, and they are to be constantly judged relative to their reliability and contribution to the problem under consideration.⁴⁸

Use of Content

In reflective inquiry, the teacher is placed in a role of manager or coordinator of inquiry; he is an assistant to the student in connecting new problems to the student's own repertoire of knowledge. An open

⁴⁶Byron G. Massialas, "Revising the Social Studies: An Inquiry-Centered Approach," Social Education, Volume 27 (April, 1963), 189.

⁴⁷See Chapter II, pp. 18-19.

⁴⁸Massialas and Cox, op. cit., p. 114.

classroom climate must be created by the teacher -- one which encourages wide student participation and expression of divergent points of view, where students can utilize the concepts and skills of the arts and sciences, draw upon their own personal experiences, and attempt to deal judiciously with important natural and social problems.⁴⁹

Roles of teachers who stress the process of reflective inquiry fall into six major categories, according to Massialas. They are: (1) the teacher as planner, (2) the teacher as introducer, (3) the teacher as questioner and sustainer, (4) the teacher as manager, (5) the teacher as rewarder, and (6) the teacher as value investigator.⁵⁰

In the first role, teacher as planner, the teacher carefully plans learning activities, collects and prepares materials for classroom use, organizes and times the spacing and sequencing of these materials, and when needed, constructs some of his own materials. The teacher as introducer presents material that will serve as a springboard for inquiry and discussion. Timing in introduction is important, as teachers are aware of capitalizing on the "teachable moment." As a questioner and sustainer of inquiry, the teacher, through his style and manner of presentation, makes clear that all statements or claims to knowledge, including those of textbooks, are

⁴⁹Byron G. Massialas, "Inquiry," Today's Education, Volume 58 (May, 1969, 40-42.

⁵⁰Ibid.

to be examined and either accepted or rejected in the open forum of ideas.

In the fourth role, teacher as manager, the teacher performs such routine tasks as recognizing students, making announcements, maintaining order -- as well as engaging students in executing inquiries of their own. As the students inquire, the teacher functions as a rewarder. He suggests, encourages, or praises, but never commands, criticizes, or punishes. The inquiry teacher encourages students to play their "hunches" and praises them when they do. The sixth role, the teacher as value investigator, requires the teacher to operate on the assumption that values are not taught, but they are examined openly for investigation and clarification.

The classroom teacher, to institute a program of inquiry, must himself be an inquirer; he must have a commitment to doubt, to raise questions, as well as an alertness to opportunities for testing, reconstruction, and re-evaluation. Goldmark identifies three areas into which the teacher must inquire:

- (1) Inquiry into the means-ends method: The teacher must have a clear understanding of the ends he holds for education.
- (2) Inquiry into curriculum: The teacher must determine the appropriateness of the curriculum in helping him achieve his desired ends.
- (3) Inquiry into classroom context: The teacher should determine the degree of freedom to reconstruct; the experience backgrounds of the

children, that is, their socio-economic group, their culture, their education experience, their experience with inquiry; and the qualities of the classroom.⁵¹

A primary task of teachers is that of helping students acquire self-discipline, self-motivation, and a willingness to accept responsibility for their own decisions. Teachers should encourage diversity of thought which leads to the generation of new hypotheses. At the same time, teachers should analyze the behavior of children, constantly considering possible techniques and materials for use with children functioning on different learning levels.

John Dewey's charge to the teacher, issued in 1910, still aptly exemplifies the teacher's role in reflective inquiry:

His task is to keep alive the sacred spark of wonder and to fan the flame that already glows. His problem is to protect the spirit of inquiry, to keep it from becoming blasé from overexcitement, wooden from routine, fossilized through dogmatic instruction, or dissipated by random exercise upon trivial things.⁵²

Joyce issues a warning to teachers using the reflective inquiry approach in social studies education:

This is no easy commitment. Helping children reflect on themselves, their group, on the nature of man, requires an unhurried approach to teaching and a judgment that knowledge of the world can be acquired as effectively through inquiry as through knowledge of subject matter. This is an era when many schools are trying to standardize their

⁵¹Goldmark, op. cit., pp. 156-160.

⁵²Dewey, op. cit., p. 34.

curriculum. Democratic process is more likely to diversify the world of the school just as it makes room for diversity in society generally.⁵³

Students in the reflective inquiry tradition are actively seeking, discovering, testing, organizing, and reorganizing knowledge -- they participate in the process of reorganizing knowledge around new centers of attention and interest. They rely upon and utilize past experiences and prior knowledge in arriving at conclusions. Thus, the student learns to think reflectively in social studies classrooms, where reflective thinking is considered to be of value.

In the reflective inquiry tradition, a major premise is that students must recognize their own prejudices and biases as well as those of others. In addition, they must learn that it is important to withhold judgment until adequate data have been gathered and analyzed.⁵⁴

What Significant Others Are Expected to Do

Publishing companies, social studies projects, and community members, as well as persons within the profession, such as methods teachers and professors, are influential in the reflective inquiry tradition. An analysis of their influence follows.

⁵³Bruce R. Joyce, New Strategies for Social Education (Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1972), p. 163.

⁵⁴Frederick R. Smith and C. Benjamin Cox, New Strategies and Curriculum in Social Studies (Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1969), p. 37.

Publishing companies. Textbooks are written primarily for content objectives and generally do not include material which lends itself to reflective inquiry. At best, textbooks can only serve as a springboard for students, challenging them to question hypotheses presented by the author in the text. Heavy reliance on a textbook by either/both student and teacher gets in the way of reflective inquiry.

Traditional publishers are forced to change their practices in the reflective inquiry approach. Rather than publishing narrative textbooks for standard adoption, books of readings, accompanied by packages of audio-visual materials, are needed to guide students in reflective inquiry.

It is suggested by Fenton that publishers offer research funds to support the production of materials. "An educational system cannot be developed by a writer at a typewriter; it involves too many elements: readings, audiovisual materials, evaluating instruments, tryouts, revisions. The whole process costs money. A publisher who expects to profit from selling a product should bear some of the cost."⁵⁵

Social studies projects. The Harvard Social Studies Project, directed by Donald W. Oliver and Fred M. Newmann, focuses more on inquiry into problems of society than on

⁵⁵Fenton, op. cit., p. 126.

problems of the social science disciplines. A series of booklets, each containing a selection of readings on one or more public problems, constitute the instructional materials. Introducing the series is a student booklet entitled Taking A Stand, in which three types of discussions are defined: (1) persuasion/winning, (2) unloading feelings, and (3) problem solving and clarification of opposing points of view.⁵⁶ Students are instructed to practice classifying discussions under these headings.

The Harvard Project pointed to the importance of openly examining and testing beliefs and ideas in the classroom. Social studies programs, the project staff proposed, should focus on the "closed areas" of society, such as intergroup relations, social class, religion and morality, nationalism, sex, courtship, marriage, and other controversial areas currently deleted from the instructional program;⁵⁷ thus the work of the Harvard group is considered significant in the reflective inquiry tradition.

Housed at San Francisco State College, the Taba Curriculum Project was financed by grants from the United States Office of Education, the Joint Council on

⁵⁶Norris M. Sanders and Marlin L. Tanck, "A Critical Appraisal of Twenty-Six National Social Studies Projects," Social Education, Volume 34 (April, 1970), 440-441.

⁵⁷Byron G. Massialas, "American Government, We Are The Greatest," Social Studies in the United States, eds. C. Benjamin Cox and Byron G. Massialas (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1967), pp. 171-172.

Economic Education. The intangibles outweigh the tangibles in these materials (eight teacher's guides for grades one through eight). More important than the guides are the rationale, teaching strategies and curriculum design on which the guides are based. The curriculum, organized in units around key concepts which are repeated and expanded through the grades, is designed to help students in developing thinking skills, abstractions, and attitudes, as well as state hypotheses and make explanations of causes of human behavior.⁵⁸

At Carnegie-Mellon University in Pittsburgh, a project headed by Edwin Fenton was conducted by the Carnegie Social Studies Development Center in close cooperation with Pittsburgh Public Schools. Four major types of objectives -- values, attitudes, inquiry skills, and knowledge, were defined by the program. Around these the staff developed a curriculum that is not based on narrative textbooks. Student texts contain a variety of resource materials -- historical accounts, excerpts of essays and speeches, documents, magazine and journal articles, memoirs, pieces of fiction, poems -- which the students read, take notes on, and discuss in class.⁵⁹ As an added dividend, some of the lessons use duplicator handouts, film strips, picture cards, recordings or

⁵⁸Norris and Tanck, op. cit., p. 407.

⁵⁹Ibid., p. 398.

transparencies from audiovisual kits provided for the course. In other words, instead of traditional narrative texts, there is an assemblage of social studies resources emphasizing inquiry skills and value orientations which are so often neglected in social studies curricula.⁶⁰

Further extension of the reflective inquiry tradition occurred through the Indiana Experiments in Inquiry, conducted during the early sixties. In a series of experiments, Byron Massialas and others attacked and confirmed the overall hypotheses that "growth in reflective thinking is produced most efficiently in classrooms where reflective thinking is valued, emphasized, and practiced, and that the goal of acquiring facts is not sacrificed in classrooms which are oriented toward reflective thinking."⁶¹ The Indiana researchers also stressed a model for reflective inquiry, hypothesizing that the behavior of students engaged in reflective inquiry falls into a pattern. From the teacher's point of view, the most important implication of the Indiana project is that reflective inquiry can be effectively established within the classroom setting through the use of a model which has distinguishable phases.

⁶⁰Ibid., p. 397.

⁶¹C. Benjamin Cox and Jack E. Cousins, "Teaching Social Studies in Secondary Schools and Colleges," New Challenges in the Social Studies: Implications of Research and Teaching, eds. Byron G. Massialas and Frederick R. Smith (Belmont: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1965), pp. 90-91.

The Social Studies Curriculum Center at Syracuse University, operating from 1963 to 1968, exemplifies a project effort directed toward reflective inquiry. One phase of the project was an attempt to identify important concepts from the social sciences and allied disciplines considered appropriate for elementary and secondary social studies programs. Six major concepts were identified and labeled "action-concepts." They are: (1) conflict, (2) power, (3) valuing, (4) interaction, (5) change, and (6) adjustment. The project staff envisioned the six action-concepts as including "all conceivable forms of human action on both the personal and societal level. They offer the school a logical pedagogical structure for dealing with human behavior. The number of topics chosen for study under these concepts approaches infinity."⁶²

A second phase of the Syracuse Project dealt with the creation of decision-making models. Students, as citizens, are model makers; that is, the various conceptions which students bring to decision making are thought of as models; and they use these decision-making models to summarize knowledge and experiences. Social studies curriculum and instruction, therefore, should assist students in building, clarifying, and improving models

⁶²Engle and Longstreet, op. cit., p. 58.

which they use in interpreting new situations in the environment.

Students entering social studies classrooms have already acquired models, and a vital factor in determining a relevant social studies curriculum is knowledge of the sources of acquired models. In the third phase of the Syracuse project, the staff identified seven major sources of models. They are: (1) models arising out of the conglomerate of vague, subverbal impressions; (2) models arising from exemplars; (3) models arising from the religion, philosophy, and traditional beliefs of the culture; (4) models arising from the social sciences; (6) models of formal analysis, and (7) models arising from the need to act.⁶³

In the final phase of the project, the staff put all the parts together, coupling these sources of models with the six action-concepts and fourteen pedagogical media, to devise a plan for social studies curriculum and instruction. It is presented in schematic form in Figure 4.6.⁶⁴

Methods teachers. Students should be introduced to inquiry teaching by example; thus, methods teachers should teach inquiry teaching by the inquiry process. Creating and conducting learning experiences which require prospective teachers to go through the same processes and develop or

⁶³Ibid., p. 32.

⁶⁴Ibid., p. 113.

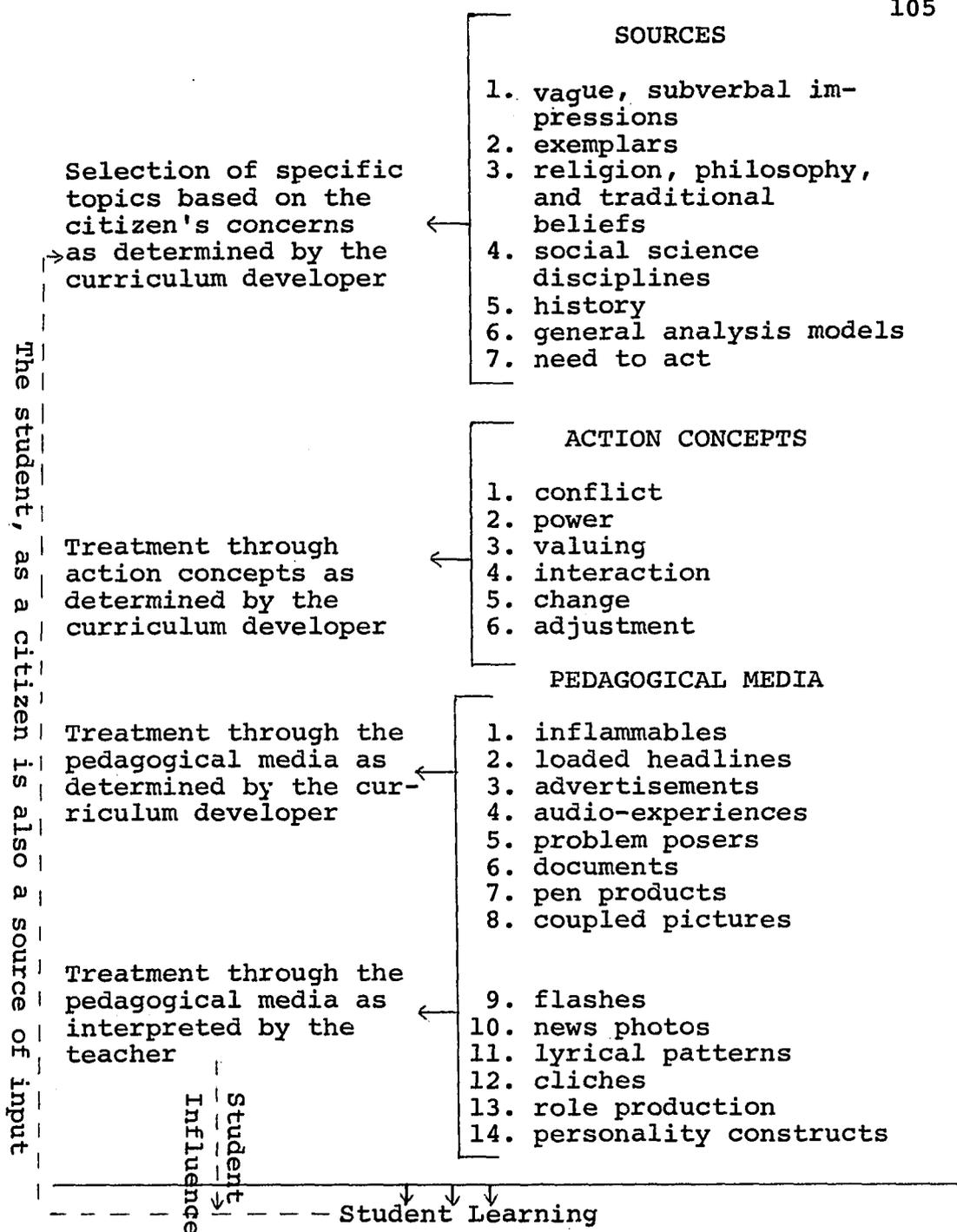


Figure 4.6

A Curriculum Model Incorporating Reflective Inquiry

employ the same knowledge and attitudes that they would use in their own classroom, is the best assurance that the same prospective teachers will use the inquiry process. In addition, methods teachers should guide prospective teachers in collecting and preparing appropriate learning materials for later use in inquiry teaching.⁶⁵

Massialas and Cox level criticism at both methods teachers and methods courses, saying many methods courses are anti-intellectual; that instead of offering a basic theoretical model for use in dealing critically with human and social problems, they concentrate on activities such as lesson planning and conducting "effective" classroom discussions. They contend that unless methods courses become more rigorous in intellectual content and change their focus, they will continue to maintain their low status in the academic community or will disappear altogether.⁶⁶

Methods teachers are provided little assistance by methods textbooks currently available in social studies education. Generally speaking, long lists of objectives, bibliographies, how-to-do-it materials, activities, and techniques provide prospective teachers a "cookbook recipes"

⁶⁵Beyer, op. cit., p. 53.

⁶⁶Byron G. Massialas and C. Benjamin Cox, "Conclusion: Social Studies, Present and Future," Social Studies in the United States, eds. C. Benjamin Cox and Byron G. Massialas (New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World, Inc., 1967), p. 343.

approach to classroom procedures.⁶⁷ Textbooks evidence little concern with the "why" of proposed activities and classroom practices, according to Massialas and Cox. Needed are methods texts which include a conceptual framework delimiting the boundaries of the field, integrating various elements in the educative process, and giving a theoretical base of operations to the practitioner.⁶⁸

Professors in the academic disciplines. Typically, college professors, through the lecture method, dazzle young students with their vast amount of knowledge and wide collection of data. Their students promptly set out to emulate them once in charge of their own classrooms.

The reflective inquiry tradition calls for a change in this practice. Professors in all disciplines must share the responsibility for teaching the skills of inquiry; they should all challenge their students "to develop and test hypotheses -- those tentative explanations adopted provisionally to explain certain facts and guide the investigation of others -- and to learn the rules of logic which govern the process."⁶⁹ College professors should examine their objectives carefully and develop a sophisticated rationale to support what they are doing.⁷⁰ Development of a rationale implies evaluation of teaching strategies,

⁶⁷Ibid.

⁶⁸Ibid.

⁶⁹Fenton, op. cit., p. 11.

⁷⁰Ibid., p. 127

materials, and patterns of deployment; as a result, college professors begin to realize their responsibility in the reflective inquiry tradition.

Professors in the academic disciplines also have a responsibility to serve as on-the-scene editors for curriculum projects and textbook publishers, contributing, as needed, the resources and research of their specialized discipline. They need to contribute their findings and methodologies -- what they know and know how to do -- for use in the reflective inquiry tradition.

Community members. Teachers who use the reflective inquiry approach often cause children to question values of the community. When this happens, community members resist the approach and pressure is brought to bear on teachers who deal with "questionable" or controversial topics. Generally satisfied with the status quo, any attempt to deviate from the traditional approach to instruction in the schools is looked upon with disfavor by members of the community, and teachers are criticized who engage in such practices.

Evaluation

Teacher evaluation in the reflective inquiry tradition centers around the teacher's ability to create a classroom climate conducive to inquiry. A teacher is considered successful if she maintains a classroom in which:

- (1) The learners are active and the content is problem centered.
- (2) The intellectual tools of inquiry are utilized.
- (3) Systematic study of problems, issues, and values is emphasized.
- (4) The teacher becomes progressively less directive.⁷¹

The teacher must have a tolerance for ambiguity, as well as the security to say "I don't know." At the same time, however, she must possess the intellectual acuity to assess the reasoning pattern of students involved in the reflective inquiry process.

Students are evaluated by informal observation and pupil-teacher interviews. During both student-student and teacher-student dialogue, careful attention is paid to the students' oral analyses of social issues. In some instances, tests of critical thinking are used as a means of student evaluation in reflective inquiry.

For teachers interested in developing tests for assessing the effectiveness of their instruction, and evaluating the outcomes in reflective thinking, Massialas and Cox suggest as guidelines some questions applying to the various levels of Bloom's taxonomy.

1. Knowledge

Is the student familiar with certain basic facts?
Does he know conventional methods of scientific inquiry?

⁷¹Smith and Cox, op. cit., p. 38.

Are the data in the student's paper sound and in line with the facts of the case?

Is the student presenting a paper which is grammatically and structurally correct?

2. Comprehension

Is the student able to summarize complex ideas into brief and abstract statements?

Can he translate a principle into an illustration or sample?

Does he employ terms for which he has established an operational meaning?

Is he able to identify ambiguous words and phrases in the various propositions and statements under consideration?

Can he interpret various types of data, including statistical data?

3. Application

Is the student able to apply a principle or generalization to a novel problem?

Can he match a concept with a given statement?

Can he predict the outcome of an event or phenomenon on the basis of given ideas and methods?

4. Analysis

Is the student able to determine the interrelationships among ideas?

Can he distinguish facts from values?

Is he able to recognize a bias or a point of view?

Is the student demonstrating his ability to confine discussion only to the topic under consideration?

Have underlying assumptions been discovered and made explicit?

Have the fundamental issues at stake been isolated?

Have the biases and presuppositions of the source authority been discovered?

5. Synthesis

Does the student raise questions of a relatively high speculative nature?

Have possibilities for unearthing new evidence been explored?

Is the student able to make a leap into the world of the unknown?

What screening device does the student apply in

- separating the relevant from the irrelevant social-historical data?
 Have the logical implications (necessary consequences) of stated or implied assertions been thoroughly examined?
 Has a strategy of inquiry and investigation of the problem been developed and fully explained?
 Is the student writing in a style which makes the reading of the paper interesting and challenging?

6. Evaluation

- Is the student able to apply given criteria to certain hypotheses and their supporting evidence?
 Is he able to link and compare the past with the present and the future?
 Have logical inconsistencies and pitfalls in argument been identified?
 Is the student aware of the idea of interrelatedness of nature?
 Have the data been scrutinized as to their reliability?
 Have the sources of data been revealed?
 Have conflicting data been considered?⁷²

SUMMARY

In this chapter an attempt has been made to describe the conceptual uniqueness of the reflective inquiry tradition in social studies education. To summarize, two clear and concise figures are presented below which graphically compare the process of education in a "traditional" social studies setting with that of a "reflective" social studies setting. Figures 4.7 and 4.8 depict the two settings.⁷³

⁷²Massialas and Cox, op. cit., pp. 267-269.

⁷³Ibid., pp. 310-311.

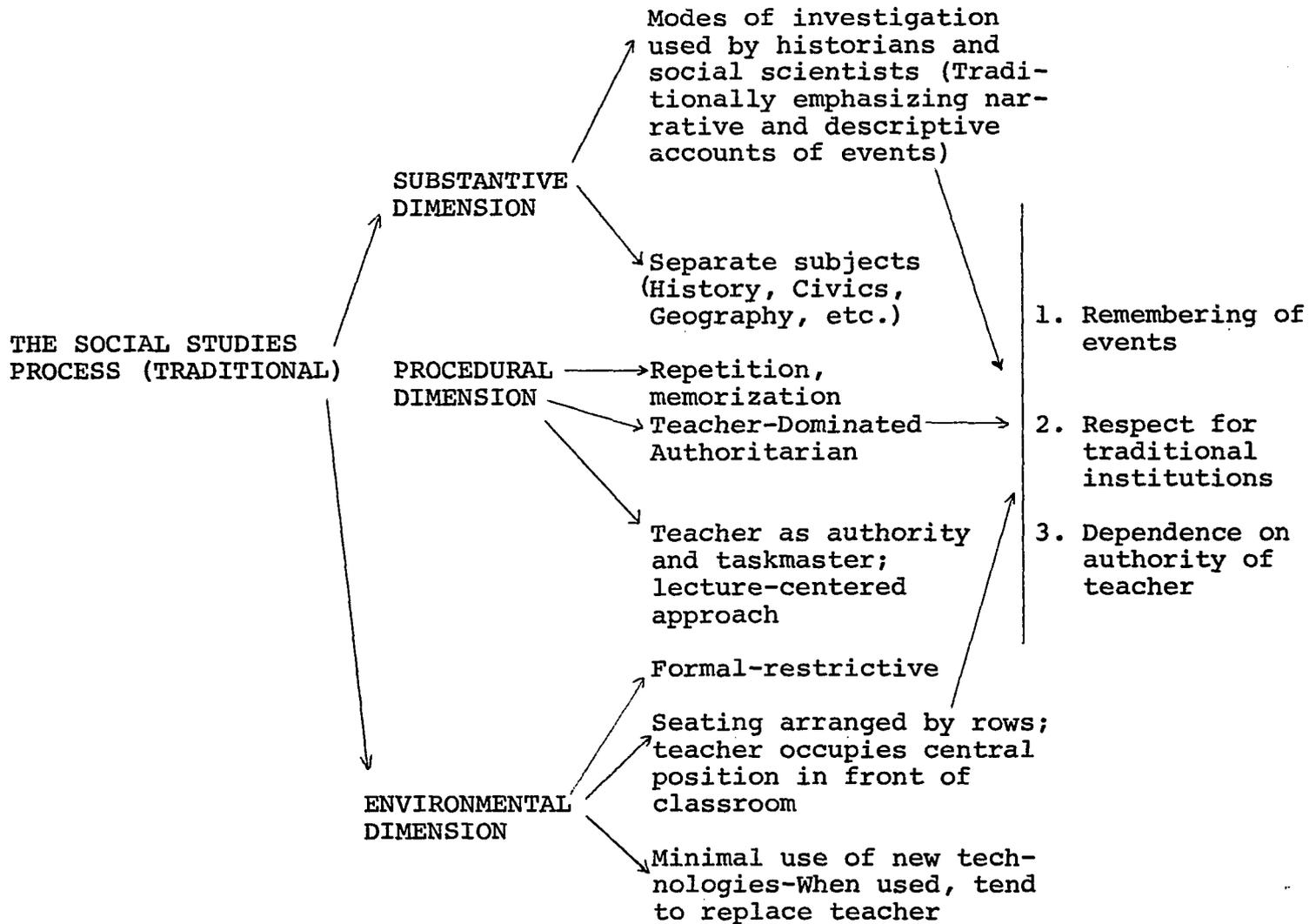


Figure 4.7

The Process of Education in a "Traditional" Social Studies Setting

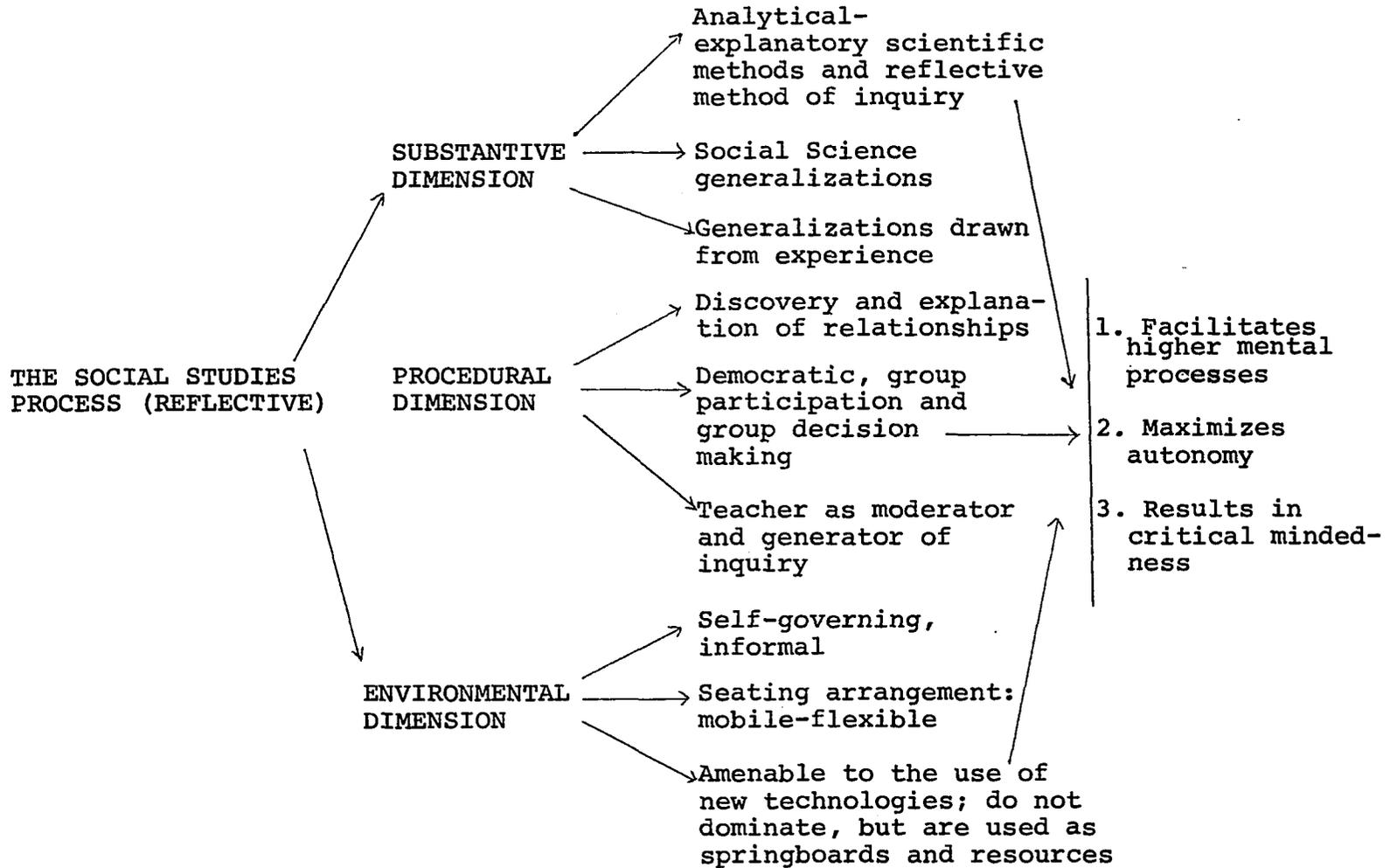


Figure 4.8

The Process of Education in a "Reflective" Social Studies Setting

CHAPTER V

SOCIAL STUDIES AS STRUCTURE OF THE DISCIPLINES

Social studies as structure of the disciplines is representative of more recent approaches to social studies education. During the decade of the sixties, efforts of numerous social scientists have been directed toward identifying the major concepts which make up the organizing structure of the disciplines.¹ Momentum for their efforts has been maintained by several factors. First of all, it has long been known that social studies programs typically include an overwhelming amount of specific information, a problem of concern to many social studies educators. This problem is additionally confounded because: (1) the amount of specific information is increasing at a rapid rate due to the discovery of new knowledge; (2) specific information is ephemeral and becomes obsolete quickly; (3) the rate of forgetting specific information is known to be high; and (4) unless specifics are tied to larger ideas, it is impossible to

¹R. Murray Thomas and Dale L. Brubaker, Curriculum Patterns in Elementary Social Studies (Belmont: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1971), p. 19.

establish functional criteria for the selection of facts to be taught.²

Attempts to cope with these changes have forced a shift of emphasis in social studies education. The traditional content-oriented, descriptive, fact-centered programs are being replaced with programs which are based on a structure of the disciplines approach to social studies curriculum and instruction.

DESCRIPTION

Social studies as structure of the disciplines is viewed from the perspective of the social science disciplines. It is felt that the disciplines constitute the most advanced structures for making sense of the social world, and students need to be exposed to such disciplines. Thus, from this viewpoint, social studies derives both its meaning and its content from the social sciences. Scholars within each social science discipline look upon education as a process for enculturation of students into the disciplines, feeling that students should acquire the analytic constructs and problem-solving tools which have been developed by the social science scholars.

²John Jarolimek, "Conceptual Approaches: Their Meaning for Elementary Social Studies," Readings for Social Studies in Elementary Education, eds. John Jarolimek and Huber M. Walsh (2d ed.; New York: The Macmillan Company, 1969), p. 210.

Some social scientists believe that each of the social sciences should be presented to students in such a way as to preserve its integrity.³ In such case, this would mean discrete presentation of each of the disciplines. Due to time limitations in a student's educational career, certain adjustments must be made. Therefore, it is accepted practice for the social scientists to identify the central concepts in the various scholarly fields and introduce all of these early in the child's educational experience. These are to be reinforced as the child continues in school until they become a natural part of his thinking.

Other social scientists find it difficult to support the notion of individually introducing each of the social sciences into the curriculum. They see a need to integrate two or more social science disciplines.⁴ By this it is meant that the most important concepts, principles, and analytical tools underlying all the social sciences will be identified, and these will constitute the structure of the social science field. Mastery of this structure will lay a foundation for the student to learn about the individual disciplines as time and interest permit. Inasmuch as the student has acquired the

³The writer will refer to this as the multidisciplinary approach.

⁴The writer will refer to this as the interdisciplinary approach.

necessary foundation, he will find learning more efficient and insight into the social system greater than if he worked only within the individual disciplines.

MAJOR CONTRIBUTORS

The idea of social studies as structure of the disciplines received support as early as 1929 in the writings of Alfred North Whitehead. In The Aims of Education he wrote:

Let the main ideas which are introduced into a child's education be few and important, and let them be thrown into every combination possible. The child should make them his own, and should understand their application here and now in the circumstances of his actual life.⁵

This statement not only advocates the use of main ideas in education, it also supports the premise of Whitehead's first educational commandment, "Do not teach too many subjects."⁶ Thus, by identifying main ideas, it would be possible to incorporate the thinking of scholars from various social science disciplines into one area of study, the social sciences.

A more recent advocate of identifying major structural ideas within the disciplines is Jerome Bruner, professor of Psychology at Harvard University. By structure

⁵Alfred North Whitehead, "The Aims of Education and Other Essays" (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1929), p. 3.

⁶Ibid., p. 2.

Bruner means that different academic disciplines are founded on particular ideas about the way things are related to each other.⁷ Professor Bruner suggests that by teaching elements and their relationships a method will be acquired which will enable the student to identify an organizational framework for the things he learns. This framework will be in accord with the way the social science scholar organizes the information from the field. Bruner feels that adherence to this framework will eliminate the teaching of fragmented bits of knowledge from a discipline.

Bruner further suggests that a structural approach will enable the student to understand a field of study as it is and as it is developing. The latter is significant in that no field of study is viewed as static or unchanging. To reiterate, the relationships within a field of study should receive a good deal of attention according to structuralists such as Bruner.

The student will begin by discovering the structures in a simple form, and then progress to discovery of more and more complex forms of the structure as he proceeds through the curriculum. As this happens, he will learn to hold ideas tentatively, awaiting further information, and in the overall procedure, he will realize that present knowledge is proximate.

⁷Thomas and Brubaker, op. cit., p. 22.

The Social Sciences: Concepts and Values is a textbook series exemplifying a program structured in a hierarchical manner, progressing from the simple concepts of a discipline in the lower grade levels to more complex concepts in the higher grades. Figure 5.1⁸ provides an overview of the behavioral themes and conceptual schemes that are developed at the seven levels of the textbook series.

In advocating the application of organizing concepts to education, Bruner offers these hypotheses:

- (1) In the scholarly disciplines, the major organizing concepts are essentially very simple.
- (2) These concepts can be developed in a form that even young children can discover, in childish terms, at first, and gradually in more sophisticated forms.
- (3) Organizing concepts can be utilized as focal themes in curricula, to be reiterated and rediscovered in more complex and adequate terms as one advances through the grades.
- (4) The child who is taught so that he discovers the organizing concepts in the disciplines will benefit for the following reasons:
 - (a) Organizing concepts facilitate memory. Learning how things are related makes it easier to remember facts.
 - (b) Organizing concepts provide intellectual power by ensuring greater comprehension of the area concerned.
 - (c) Organizing concepts facilitate transfer of learning to new situations and problems.
 - (d) Organizing concepts are the language of the scholar. By learning these concepts the learner is brought closer to the leading

⁸Milton E. Ploghoft and Albert E. Shuster, Social Science Education in the Elementary School (Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1971), pp. 368-369.

BEGINNING LEVEL

CHART B-1. Children interact with the physical and social environment

Behavioral Themes	Cognitive Scheme A	Cognitive Scheme B	Cognitive Scheme C	Cognitive Scheme D	Cognitive Scheme E
	Man is the product of heredity and environment	Human behavior is shaped by the social environment.	The geographic features of the Earth affect man's behavior	Economic behavior depends upon the utilization of resources	Political organization (government) resolves conflicts and makes interactions easier among people.
6. Responsibility for man and his environment-through development of systems of behavior.	6. Biological and cultural inheritance results in variation in the people of the Earth.	6. Social systems are shaped by the values of interacting groups.	6. Political organization alters the map.	6. Economic systems are shaped by the values of the culture.	6. Political systems are developed, changed, or maintained through the interaction of individuals and government.
5. Responsibility for man and his environment-through cultural patterns of behavior.	5. The interaction of biological and cultural inheritance results in the adaptation of man to his environment.	5. Cultures in varying environments have similar components.	5. Man modifies the environment in order to utilize his resources and increase them.	5. The patterns of buying and selling depend upon choices people make.	5. Regional and national governments cooperate.

CHART B-1. Children interact with the physical and social environment (Continued)

Behavioral Theme	Cognitive Scheme A	Cognitive Scheme B	Cognitive Scheme C	Cognitive Scheme D	Cognitive Scheme E
4. Responsibility for man and his environment-through adaptive patterns of behavior.	4.Man inherits and learns patterns of behavior.	4.Man learns social behavior from groups with which he interacts.	4.Man utilizes his environment to secure basic needs.	4.Man interacts to utilize available resources.	4.Man's peaceful interaction depends on social controls
3. Responsibility for man and his environment-through adaptive behavior of the larger group.	3.Community groups adapt to the environment.	3.The characteristics of a community are the results of interactions between individuals and other groups in a specific environment.	3.Communities develop different modes of adaptation.	3.The culture of a community determines the use of resources.	3.Community groups are governed through leadership and authority.
2.Responsibility for man and his environment-through adaptive behavior of the basic group.	2.Members of family group are alike because of heredity and environment.	2.The family group teaches the child the social behavior of his culture.	2.Family groups through out the world live in different environments.	2.Family groups utilize resources to satisfy their needs.	2.Members of family groups are governed by rules and law.

CHART B-1. Children interact with the physical and social environment (Continued)

Behavioral Theme	Cognitive Scheme A	Cognitive Scheme B	Cognitive Scheme C	Cognitive Scheme D	Cognitive Scheme E
1. Responsibility for man and his environment-through adaptive behavior of the individual within the group.	1.Individuals resemble each other.	1.Individuals learn from each other.	1.Individuals live in different environments on the Earth.	1.Individuals use the resources available to them.	1.The behavior of individuals is governed by commonly accepted rules.

Figure 5.1

An illustration of simple to more complex concepts and generalizations

edge of the discipline. He learns to think with the most advanced minds in the field.⁹

Lawrence Senesh also advocates the structure of the disciplines approach. To introduce the structure of all the social sciences into the curriculum, he calls for an "orchestration" of the social sciences.¹⁰ By this he means that a big idea, a big area, or a big topic from a social science discipline is selected, sub-divided, and studied from different points of view.

At every grade level units will be developed in which different social science disciplines are called upon to play the dominant analytical role. The other disciplines are in accompaniment. For instance, in grade one, economics might play the "solo" role with the other disciplines playing supporting roles; in grade two, anthropology would solo, with the other disciplines accompanying -- and so on. Professor Senesh foresees a well-orchestrated curriculum resulting from this approach to social studies education, with students in the end knowing the fundamental ideas of knowledge from the different social science disciplines.

A similar approach to the idea of structure is taken by Joseph Schwab. He sees structural ideas as expressions of generalizations concerning the data of a field. Further,

⁹Bruce Joyce, New Strategies for Social Education (Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1972), p. 34-35.

¹⁰Irving Morrisett and W. Williams Stevens, Jr., Social Sciences in the Schools (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1971), p. 127.

he concludes, structural ideas are the basis for organizing knowledge in a field, and for guiding the search for future knowledge.¹¹

Schwab views structure of the disciplines as tentative and changing. The structure is to be revised as necessary "in directions dictated by large complexes of theory, diverse bodies of data, and numerous criteria of progress in science."¹² Scholars are cautioned to be aware of the changing ideas of subject matter which recent scientific discoveries have opened.

Conceptual structures serve as guides for research, according to Schwab, with scholars looking for new information in terms of the structural ideas which emerge from the old. Students form a series of tentative ideas about the relationships between the facts within the disciplines, with these relationships giving rise to further searching, in which ideas can be modified or discarded.

The thesis of Philip H. Phenix is that "all curriculum content should be drawn from the disciplines, or, to put it another way, that only knowledge contained in the disciplines is appropriate for the curriculum."¹³ The non-disciplined knowledge -- that which exists outside the disciplines, is unsuitable for teaching and learning, according

¹¹Jarolimek, op. cit., p. 397.

¹²Ibid., p. 396.

¹³Philip H. Phenix, "The Use of the Disciplines as Curriculum Content," The Educational Forum, XXIV (March, 1962), 273.

to Phenix. It is undesirable to have any instruction in matters which fall beyond the disciplines; thus instruction based on psychological needs, social problems, and any of a variety of materials based on non-discipline content is not appropriate for teaching and learnings. Phenix also supports the thinking that identification of key concepts within the disciplines provides the most economical and efficient procedure for learning, citing a special need for key concepts in this time of vast proliferation of knowledge as a means for efficiency in the educational process.

John Jarolimek, former President of the National Council for the Social Studies, does not specifically call for organizing concepts, but he is adamant in saying that we need to learn more about the social sciences as organized bodies of knowledge. Certainly there are overtones of interest in some type of structure, as he cites the need for means of adapting content to the world of children.

The legitimate sources of content for elementary social studies are, therefore, the social sciences.... It is not necessary to go shopping about for new sources of content for the social studies. What we really need to do is learn more about these organized bodies of knowledge called the social sciences.... We need to know how we can translate and adapt the rich and interesting content with which each of them provides us, to the language, life, and experiences of young children.¹⁴

¹⁴John Jarolimek, "Curriculum Content and the Child in the Elementary School," Social Education, XXVI (February, 1962), 61.

FOCUS

Social studies as structure of the disciplines is concept oriented. Through concept formation, facts may be categorized so that the tremendous complexity of the world becomes manageable. Students learn these organizing concepts, and it is theorized that they will be able to organize their own learning in the same way a scholar organizes information in his discipline. As a result, both comprehension of knowledge and retention of knowledge are enhanced for the student, while at the same time he is in some sense a social scientist himself.

The term "conceptual approach" became one of common usage in the 1960's. It grew out of a general movement in the late 1950's to upgrade content in the social studies curriculum. Two factors contributed to this movement -- first, the recognized futility of knowledge as accumulation of facts -- in light of the knowledge explosion following World War II, and second, the 1957 launching of Sputnik I by the Soviet Union. A conceptual approach appeared to be an effective method for incorporating the exploding social science content into the social studies curriculum as well as upgrading the content.¹⁵

A strong argument for a concept-oriented social studies curriculum is presented by Paul F. Brandwein, who

¹⁵Robert L. Ebel (ed.), Encyclopedia of Educational Research (4th ed.; New York: The Macmillan Company, 1969), pp. 271-272.

sees concepts in the social sciences as maps of the social universe, which remain relevant to life and living; hence they are stable intellectual currency.¹⁶ Brandwein proposes that teaching children concepts is superior to teaching them facts. In Toward a Discipline of Responsible Consent, he writes:

Concepts have stability. New nations may develop as "new data", but the concept of "nation" remains. Within a child's schooling in the past generation, Africa exploded into nationhood. It can be argued that the "old facts" about Africa that were taught the child are no longer tenable, and no longer can serve the child, but the concept of nationhood was, and is, tenable and still serves the child in his attempts to understand his culture and to live successfully in it. Postulate a child entering the first grade and being subjected for the next twelve years to a "fact"-oriented, topic-centered course of social studies. At the current rate of generation of knowledge, perhaps little that he learned will be "true" as "fact" at the time of his leaving high school. His "school life" would, in a sense, have been "wasted." Postulate another child, one taking part in a curriculum based on concepts. Time, new data, and attendant processes, which secure the dynamic operations that are part of concept-seeking, feed the concepts. Twelve years later, the data will have changed. China may no longer be Communist, or may be fascist; the satellite states of Russia may all be democratic, or part of Russia may be so inclined; the United States may have fifty-four states, the Constitution yet another amendment; the wheat, corn, rice, and oat crops may be even larger; a new technology may be burgeoning and we may no longer be interested in "outer space" but in "inner space." Nevertheless, "nation," "scarcity," "man," "interaction," "norms," "values," "family," "interdependence," "community," "environment," "time," "rules," "law," "role" will be conceptually his, with a host of viable,

¹⁶Thomas and Brubaker, op. cit., p. 105.

subject matter to feed them. He can use these concepts to explain new nations, the new cycles, the new behavior he meets.¹⁷

Joyce, in summarizing the use of concepts in the social sciences, feels that they function in several important ways, for they (1) show how things are related in any given sphere of inquiry; (2) provide a basis for organizing knowledge in a field; and (3) guide the search for further knowledge.¹⁸

A structure of the disciplines approach to social studies education focuses primarily on the cognitive domain. Concept development, according to Jarolimek, calls for placing information in correct cognitive categories.¹⁹ This emphasis on cognitive learning is consistent with the scholastic tradition which is so deeply imbedded in our culture; hence, the structural approach is one to which many educators subscribe.

A structural approach is well-suited to instruction at the cognitive level. Once the concepts are identified, these can be transmitted to students as "true" knowledge which has been discovered by "experts," whereas pupils' knowledge is considered less extensive, less reliable, and less "true." Student mastery of the discovered organizing structure of the disciplines is evidence of the desired

¹⁷Thomas and Brubaker, op. cit., p. 105.

¹⁸Joyce, op. cit., p. 40.

¹⁹Cognitive simply means recall or recognition of knowledge and the development of intellectual abilities and skills.

cognitive development, and is thereby accepted as knowledge which is "good" and "true."²⁰

It is feared that emphasis on cognitive development encourages closure and convergent thinking.²¹ Since a structural or structure of the disciplines approach emphasizes the cognitive domain, this would limit the student in his efforts to gain new knowledge. For the student the concepts could become knowledge as an end in itself instead of becoming a systematic method to use in attacking areas where he is seeking new knowledge.

On the other hand, it is recognized that organizing concepts do provide the scholars within the disciplines with tools for generating new knowledge. Thus it is feasible that as the student gains more expertise as an incipient scholar, he will engage in more divergent thinking. He will begin to use these concepts as part of the intellectual equipment needed to attack new problems and generate his own knowledge.

DISCUSSION OF CURRICULAR COMPONENTS

Curricular components such as citizenship education, selection and use of content, and other significant factors influence the direction of social studies education.

²⁰Theodore W. Parsons and Fannie R. Shaftel, "Thinking and Inquiry: Some Critical Issues," Effective Thinking in the Social Studies, Thirty-seventh Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies (Washington: National Council for the Social Studies), p. 148.

²¹Ibid., p. 155.

This is true in the structure of the disciplines tradition, and discussion of these components follows.

Citizenship Education

The best preparation for "responsible citizenship" according to the social scientists is by way of the social science disciplines. Social scientists, however, have been less prone to cite "citizenship" as a major objective for social studies education than have educationists. "Good citizenship" has connoted an imposition of values at the expense of engagement in the valuing process according to many social scientists.²² On the other hand, educationists, supporting the structure of the disciplines approach, have promoted the tactics of the social scientists as the best tools for helping children face social problems and comprehend the complexities of life. As a result, they contend, possession of the tactics will provide students an avenue for effective adult participation in society.

Student Maturity

"There is no reason to believe that any subject cannot be taught to any child at virtually any age in some form," according to Bruner.²³ The child, at each stage of intellectual development or maturity, has a particular way of viewing the world and explaining it to himself -- implying, then, that the organizing concepts of the

²²See Dale L. Brubaker, Alternative Directions for the Social Studies (Scranton: International Textbook Company, 1967), Chapters 1 and 2.

²³Jerome Bruner, Process of Education (Cambridge: The Harvard University Press, 1956), p. 47.

disciplines must be identified and sequenced in such a way that the child can grasp them. In other words, the structure of the social sciences must be represented in terms of the child's way of viewing things.

In discussing the intellectual maturity of children, Bruner cites the research of Swiss psychologist, Jean Piaget. In his work, Piaget suggests three stages in the intellectual development of the child. The first stage, usually corresponding to the child's pre-school years, is labeled pre-operational, and during this stage the child is concerned with manipulating the world through action. During the second stage, which Piaget calls the stage of concrete operations, the child develops an internalized structure with which to operate. In the third stage, called formal operations, the child is able to operate on hypothetical propositions, and he is no longer restricted to past experiences or that which is currently before him.²⁴

Stages two and three are the stages with which elementary social studies is concerned. During these stages, the student is viewed as an immature member of the social science discipline, capable of growth and development, and through exposure to the organizing structure of the discipline, the student will be enculturated into them.

²⁴Ibid., pp. 34-38.

Selection of Content

The social sciences constitute the major source of curriculum content, and content selected must reflect the authentic structures underlying the principles of the disciplines. Children's needs and the needs of society are unimportant in determining the content of the curriculum.

In selecting content, knowledge is viewed as a series of pronouncements from the social sciences, resulting from intellectual inquiry within the disciplines. From this inquiry, the central or unique ideas are selected from each of the disciplines. These are designated organizing concepts and, once acquired by the student, they provide a method for seeking knowledge.

The move toward the use of concepts as organizing schemes has come about as a result of an attempt to overcome basic problems in social studies education cited earlier in this chapter. Through a structure of the disciplines approach, it is intended that a relatively few fundamental concepts will be identified for each social studies discipline. These will be those concepts which are unique to the social sciences, have a high rate of transfer value, and help to explain or predict social and natural phenomena. Once these are identified, specific subject matter is selected to illustrate the concepts which have been chosen.

Use of Content

Content utilization in a structure of the disciplines approach is of particular significance. Expectations are different for teachers, students, and significant others.

Teachers are to transmit the "true" knowledge which has been discovered by the "experts" in the social science disciplines. They are the expositors of knowledge and transmitters of the disciplines; their major purpose is to develop miniature scholars -- to get the knowledge of the disciplines into the students' minds. In general, teaching is viewed as a function within the discipline which enables the student to master that discipline.

Students are to act as recipients of knowledge. They are to acquire the concepts which constitute the organizing structure of the social science disciplines, as well as the modes of thinking of the social scientists. Students are expected to "discover" with guidance already existing structures or frameworks rather than participating in building their own analytic frameworks. Like all incipient scholars, they are to look to mature scholars as a model for their own behavior.

What Significant Others Are Expected to Do

Other influences are significant in the structure of the disciplines approach to social studies education.

Publishing companies, social studies projects, methods teachers, community members, and professors within the academic disciplines have all made contributions to the tradition.

Publishing companies. Publishers have claimed to incorporate the thinking of the structure of the disciplines approach into textbooks. In many instances, however, the approach has been simply to overlay a list of concepts from the social sciences on the traditional scope and sequence plan based on the expanding horizons approach. This is evidenced in the Investigating Man's World series published by Scott, Foresman Company (1970) as one notes the titles in the series: (1) Study Prints, (2) Family Studies, (3) Local Studies, (4) Metropolitan Studies, (5) Regional Studies, (6) United States Studies, (7) Inter-American Studies, (8) Atlantic Studies, and (9) Pacific Studies.

In too many instances when publishers have attempted a concept-oriented approach, arrangement of the content within the textbooks scarcely resembles the general principles of concept learning proposed by those involved in research.²⁵ Content continues to be arranged in a topological or chronological fashion, with the

²⁵Peter H. Martorella, Concept Learning in the Social Studies (Scranton: Intext Publishers, 1971), p. 6.

concepts clustered around particular topics or events. Selakovich points to this at the secondary level, and investigations of elementary textbooks reveal the same pattern. According to Selakovich:

Learning principles widely accepted in educational psychology have not yet been widely applied to curriculum organization and content in the social studies...the materials which constitute the social studies have yet to incorporate the ideas. Because social studies texts have made little effort to organize content on the basis of principles of learning, such organization becomes the responsibility of the classroom teacher -- and the extent to which learning principles are applied to teaching depends largely on the teacher's ability to apply them.²⁶

There are current movements underway among publishing companies to provide both textbooks and materials which incorporate the thinking of social scientists. Materials are being provided which teach children about human interaction, and which use the strategies of social science to analyze human relations. Two examples are the Social Science Laboratory Units published by Science Research Associates and Man: A Course of Study developed by Curriculum Development Associates.

Social studies projects. The major curriculum revision projects of the past decade have given attention to basic concepts in their approaches to elementary social studies education. Numerous social scientists

²⁶Daniel Selakovich, Problems in Secondary Social Studies (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1965), p. 6.

have been involved in these projects, searching for basic concepts which could be incorporated into social studies education.

Our Working World, created by Lawrence Senesh at Purdue University in the mid-sixties, is an example of a curricula design which sought to introduce the teaching of structure of the disciplines at the elementary level. Economics serves as the central organizing core of the program, but children also deal with sociological, anthropological, historical, and political science concepts throughout the program.

The program, designed for grades one through three, has three major components. In grade one, the child functions within a framework most familiar to him, the family. This part of the program is entitled "Families at Work." Following the family orientation, the child moves to an area with which he is also familiar, the community -- entitled "Neighbors at Work." At the third-grade level, the child is involved in a study of the metropolis, "Cities at Work."

Professor Senesh's efforts in creating Our Working World is an example of a curricula project which has simply overlaid social science concepts onto the traditional scope and sequence which already existed. This sequence is the expanding environments pattern which has been a part of social studies education for several decades.

The fact that Our Working World is planned for grades one through three has added significance, however. It is an organized approach to social studies education for the primary grades. In too many classrooms, social studies is the overlooked area of the curriculum at this level, due to the heavy emphasis on mathematics and reading. Having materials such as Our Working World available encourages teachers to place more emphasis on social studies education in these grades.

The Georgia Anthropology Project, financed by United States Office of Education grants, began in the early sixties at the University of Georgia and focuses on a particular discipline. Materials from the project are designed to teach the academic discipline of anthropology at the elementary and junior high level.

Proposing to supplement rather than replace existing social-studies programs, the Georgia curriculum is made up of units, each of which is designed to last for four or five weeks, during which time students are presented the organizing concepts of anthropology. They are expected to think like anthropologists, asking the kinds of questions which anthropologists ask, and the instructor's primary goal is to help children understand the terminology and methods of anthropologists.

The contents of the materials are suggested in the following descriptions of the several units that compose the overall program. The basic program consists of one unit for the kindergarten, three for primary grades, three for intermediate grades, and one for the junior high. Four additional units can be used with intermediate or upper-grade pupils.

Concept of Culture: An Introductory Unit (kindergarten). A picture-text and activity book with daily lessons extensively outlined in the accompanying teacher's manual.

The Concept of Culture (primary). Ethnographic description with emphasis on oral presentation by the teacher and the use of a picture text by the pupils. Three ethnographies--the American, Arunta, and Kazak--are studied as comparative cultures. The...topics are: how we study people, housing, material culture, earning a living, social organization (family and community), and religion.

Development of Man and His Culture: New World Pre-history (primary). Introduces archeological methods by presenting Indian life in five stages of cultural development: paleo-Indian, archaic, formative, classic, post-classic.

The Changing World Today (primary). Case studies of modernization in Japan, Africa, and India.

The Concept of Culture (intermediate). Repeats and enlarges on ideas developed in the primary unit of the same name. Chapters in the pupil texts and study guides treat: how we study people, concepts of culture, cultural universals, culture variation, enculturation, culture, dynamics.

Development of Man and His Culture: Old World Pre-history (intermediate). Chapters on archeological methods, evolution, fossil man, and Old World pre-history.

How Change Takes Place (intermediate). Case studies of modernization and planned change in Latin America and the United States are supplemented by a major section on theories of change.

Life Cycle (junior high). Life from birth through old age is traced for Chinese, American, Tiv, and Balkan peasant cultures.²⁷

²⁷Thomas and Brubaker, op. cit., p. 246.

A statewide effort to move toward a structure of the disciplines approach to social studies education took place in California during the late sixties. The State Board of Education authorized the development of a new program designed to incorporate recent thinking in the social sciences into the curriculum of that state. This authorization resulted in the design of the Social Sciences Education Framework for California Public Schools which was proposed in 1968.

The California framework was designed to help students become "proficient in using the conceptual tools and the data which social scientists employ as they utilize processes of inquiry."²⁸ In spelling out the rationale for the framework, the following statement was made concerning concepts for the social sciences:

Concepts such as role, region, decision-making, power, values, and economic system are tools for studying man in society. Concepts are used in studying human behavior in situations ranging from family life to international trade. They are needed to guide observation, set up classifications, and give a distinctive flavor to the use of modes and processes of inquiry in the social sciences and to instruction in social science education.²⁹

The Michigan Social Science Curriculum Project, directed by Ronald Lippitt and Robert Fox, developed

²⁸Statewide Social Sciences Study Committee, Proposed Social Sciences Education Framework for California Public Schools (Sacramento: California State Board of Education, 1968), p. 2.

²⁹Ibid., p. 8.

materials which attempt to teach the research techniques of social psychology directly to children through human relations content, including analysis of their own behavior. The entire program is built around continuous inquiry into human behavior, with the intention that the student take on some of the characteristics of the social scientist as he explores his interpersonal world.

There are seven laboratory units, built around a resource book for students and a series of project books. Through these materials the student is involved in a study of his own behavior and the behavior of those people around him. An overview of the seven units, published in 1968, is presented by Thomas and Brubaker in Curriculum Patterns in Elementary Schools.

Unit One--Learning to Use Social Science: Are social scientists like other scientists? How do they conduct experiments? This basic unit presents some of the tools and methods the social scientist uses. Children learn how to approach the study of human behavior with the objectivity of scientists. This unit is a prerequisite to study of all other units.

Unit Two--Discovering Differences: What are some ways that people are different? Are differences important? Pupils identify biological and cultural differences between individuals and between groups. They inquire into the causes and effects of making prejudgments about differences. In this way, they discover how and why stereotypes develop.

Unit Three-Friendly and Unfriendly Behavior: What are some causes and effects of kindness and cruelty, acceptance or rejection?...

Unit Four--Being and Becoming: What does it mean to grow up? Are there different ways of

growing up? This unit gives the student an opportunity to study his own development.... A major inquiry concerns ways in which heredity and environment influence development.

Unit Five--Individuals and Groups: What is a group? How does it function?...Three types of group leadership (autocratic, democratic, laissez-faire) and three types of group members (dissenter, mode, slider) are subjects for inquiry.

Unit Six--Deciding and Doing: How do we make decisions? Do we always carry them out? Students ...attempt to establish the causes of successful and unsuccessful efforts.

Unit Seven--Influencing Each Other: How do we influence each other? Pupils examine five bases of social power to learn why some influence attempts are more successful than others. They also discover that while children and adults have the ability to influence each other, not all influences are intentions.³⁰

Man: A Course of Study further exemplifies a project attempt to develop materials reflecting the structure of the disciplines approach to social studies curriculum and instruction. The study, funded by the National Science Foundation at a cost of five million dollars, was directed by Jerome Bruner, and it strongly reflects Bruner's emphasis on the power of organizing ideas to shape thinking. The Brunerian approach to curriculum is evident in the following assumptions which are listed in the materials:

- (1) That learning is in good measure a social process by which children and teachers can articulate and share ideas with one another.
- (2) That competence over a body of knowledge will lead to increased self-confidence and comprehension of one's operating assumptions about life, and

³⁰Thomas and Brubaker, op. cit., pp. 310-311.

- (3) That the world can be observed, conjectured about and to some degree ordered and understood using the tools of the behavioral sciences, and that an individual life can be viewed as part of the larger flow of human existence.³¹

The course is organized around the conceptual question, "What makes man human?" Nine conceptual themes are dealt with in the course, but Bruner is careful to point out that these are not "superordinate to the critical goals; rather, a continual interaction of method and material has been devised, whereby conceptual grasp and mastery of information are never considered separately from the method of discovery."³²

In the course, students use the techniques of the social sciences in dealing with philosophical issues. They are led to investigate issues much as leading scholars would investigate them, raising questions such as a social scientist would ask, and sharing the social scientists' interpretations of the data which have been assembled in the program.

Methods teachers. It is the responsibility of a methods teacher to make those teachers with whom he works members of the social science of which he is a part. He is to impart to teachers a knowledge of the tactics employed by social scientists, with the

³¹Janet P. Hanley and others, Curiosity, Competence, Community (Cambridge: Education Development Center, 1970), pp. 3-4.

³²Ibid., p. 5.

expectation that the teacher, in turn, will teach these tactics to children. Stated quite bluntly, the methods teacher is expected to be a midwife for social scientists.

Professors in academic disciplines. A basic assumption is that scholars within the disciplines, the inventors of new knowledge, are the most qualified individuals to advise on the structure of their discipline. Through rigorous research and experimentation, scholars are to work toward establishing the structure of the disciplines; and following these endeavors, they are to engage in joint efforts in establishing curriculum for the field of social studies.

Moreover, a primary responsibility of the professors in the disciplines is teaching the social sciences in a way that preserves the integrity of each discipline. The social scientists join the scholars from the other academic disciplines in discouraging education outside the disciplines. They do not look with favor upon vocational or technical education, since these are viewed as prospects for siphoning off potential talent from the disciplines.

During the sixties, many university social scientists were appointed to curriculum development projects. Historians and geographers were joined by scientists representing anthropology, economics,

political science, social psychology, and sociology at both the project level and in the field of textbook writing. It has been the responsibility of these scholars to identify the organizing concepts of the disciplines and to incorporate them into project materials and textbooks.

Community members. Community members have little, if any, voice in determining content in the structure of the disciplines approach to social studies education. Their most salient contribution has been their silence. In most cases, social studies from this approach reflects an antiseptic world. Textbooks incorporate all the "acceptable" concepts of middle-class America, causing no conflict with the values held by the majority of interested community members; hence their silence is their approval.

Evaluation

Due to the concrete nature of social studies as structure of the disciplines, evaluation is considered less difficult than in some of the other traditions identified. Students are evaluated on their ability to recall and present to members of the discipline that which has been transmitted to him. In the case of elementary social studies, the student is evaluated by the teacher according to his understanding of the organizing concepts which have been presented to

him, as measured by both teacher-made tests and standardized achievement tests.

On the other hand, the teacher is evaluated almost entirely by students' scores on standardized tests. Little value is placed on classroom climate, social adjustment of children, or students' ability to think for themselves. The teacher is successful if students progress the desired amount as prescribed by administrative personnel, on the annual standardized achievement tests, usually administered on a system-wide basis in the school unit where the teacher is employed.

SUMMARY

In sum, then, the structure of the disciplines approach to social studies education is best described in a statement by Jerome Bruner as he discusses the importance of structure in the learning process. Bruner states, "that the curriculum of a subject should be determined by the most fundamental understanding that can be achieved of the underlying principles that give structure to that subject."³³ Unless this is done, Bruner foresees difficulty for the student in generalizing from what he has learned to what he will encounter in the future, thus there is little reward for the student in terms of intellectual excitement.

³³Bruner, op. cit., p. 31.

In too many instances, however, the original intentions of the structuralists have been abused, as students have been required to memorize specific key concepts and generalizations for instant recall at test time. Sharp criticisms have arisen, and as a result social studies educators have begun to seek avenues for student participation and involvement in classroom and community activities. This leads us into the socio-political involvement tradition which will be discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER VI

SOCIAL STUDIES AS SOCIO-POLITICAL INVOLVEMENT

As early as 1932, Charles A. Beard set the stage for socio-political involvement in social studies education, stating:

Given mankind capable of growth and improvement, given a changing world, with its swift technical transformation and democratic conflicts, it follows that no fixed set of dogmas and disciplines listed as articles of faith, from which it is treason to vary, can automatically prepare children for success, adaptation, and good living in the world of tomorrow, the years in which their adult years must be spent. In modern civilization life is and must be a series of more or less difficult choices made by individuals alone or in groups, involving conduct, creative activity, ideas loyalties, and obligations.¹

Beard points out further that "verbal recitals" of prescribed creeds and dogma are inadequate and cannot provide students functioning in the wider range of social relations with the capacity to understand, analyze, bring information to bear, to choose, to resolve, and to act wisely. Competence in the individual, not dogma, should be the supreme objective in social studies education.²

Words such as Beard's were largely unheeded until the challenge of Russia's Sputnik I routed the American

¹Charles A. Beard, A Charter for the Social Sciences (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932), p.95.

²Ibid., p. 96.

public from its educational lethargy, forcing professional educators and the public in general to consider the functions and purposes of education in our democracy. Education was faced with two major premises of this post-Sputnik society; (1) that we live today in one of the greatest crisis periods in human history; one in which America, living as it does in an aura of deceptive prosperity and complacency, is looked upon with more and more skepticism, less and less the great democratic vanguard it once was, and (2) mankind is now approaching the opportunity to achieve a world civilization of abundance, health, and humane capacity that is as life-affirming and promising as the crisis symbolized by Sputniks and hydrogen bombs is life-denying and dreadful.³

Education, in this setting, must inspire young people to become fully-functioning citizens, aware of the processes, skills, and subtleties involved in conflict resolution and the democratic way of life. To achieve this goal, students must be provided opportunities to engage in decision-making processes which will prepare them for citizenship in this post-Sputnik society. Social studies education, through the tradition of socio-political involvement, provides students the means for such participation.

³Theodore Brameld, "Imperatives for a Reconstructed Philosophy of Education," Contemporary American Education, eds. Stan Dropkin, Harold Full, and Ernest Schwarcz (2d ed.; New York: The Macmillan Company, 1970), p. 251.

DESCRIPTION

Social studies as socio-political involvement coming into being as it has during the late sixties and early seventies represents a significant departure from social studies education of past decades. Two aspects of the tradition signal its uniqueness. First, in the socio-political involvement tradition, the student is considered capable of making decisions concerning his own actions, and secondly, once he has made a decision, he is committed to participate in initiating action needed in dealing with a particular situation.

Social participation is considered a legitimate and necessary part of social studies curriculum and instruction in the socio-political involvement tradition. Obviously, the schools must assume some role in determining the nature and extent of social participation, as there are necessarily restraints on students which are different from those placed on adults as they function in society. Nevertheless, the school, through the social studies program, is expected to provide opportunities for social participation, recognizing that students learn the skills needed to participate in social affairs by participating in them.⁴

Social participation is interpreted, in the socio-political involvement tradition, as active student

⁴John Jarolimek, "Concerning the Matter of Activism in Social Studies Education," Social Education, Volume 36 (February, 1972), 150.

involvement in social affairs outside the classroom. A major thrust of the tradition is to prepare young people for intelligent action in the social affairs of their own society, through exploration of personal and social issues as perceived by them.

In discussing social issues, social action, and the social studies, Ochoa and Manson explain the relationship:

Social issues arise when the goals, the structures, and the processes of communities or societies combine or conflict in ways that threaten the survival, well-being, or progress of the group or its members. To warrant inclusion in the social studies curriculum, a social issue must be enduring, which means persistently recurs in human experience; or it must be pervasive, which means it exists in a range of cultural settings; or it must be threatening, which means it challenges human survival. In the school setting, social action is any behavior consistent with the norms of rationality and human dignity, and directed toward resolving a social issue. Ideally, social action means direct involvement by pupils of all ages in public affairs as a consequence of careful analysis of an issue and with thoughtful acceptance of the consequences of their involvement.⁵

Too often, social participation on the part of students results from an almost spontaneous reaction to a situation which confronts them. In cases such as this, the action usually seeks to alleviate the symptoms rather than the causes of a social issue, and actions seldom extend beyond the learner's immediate personal satisfaction. Cleaning up the neighborhood, conducting

⁵ Anna Ochoa and Gary Manson, "Social Issues, Social Action, and the Social Studies," (Greensboro: Handout in Education 520, University of North Carolina, Greensboro, 1972). (Mimeographed.)

paper drives, campaigning at election time, and other such social action is commendable, but social participation as practiced in the socio-political involvement tradition is more than this. It is social participation in which students, after grappling with the roots of problems, develop more sophisticated understandings about problems and attempt to reduce the probability of their recurrence.

Social participation in the socio-political involvement tradition is set apart even further by the degree of individual commitment required of the student. Commitment comes from the student himself as he deals with his personal feelings and experiences in relation to significant happenings of the present day. Teachers cannot endow students with commitment -- it is not something which can be given; rather, it is acquired by students as they come to know issues, the dimensions of issues, and the consequences of specific action which they elect to take in regard to issues.⁶

Socio-political involvement can best be described as social participation based on a recognition of the basic promises that are part of our nation's history. The tradition's overriding premise is to cherish and preserve those conditions that promote and enhance the humanness of human beings and to broaden the scope for

⁶John Jarolimek, *op. cit.*, p. 152.

such self-fulfillment, as well as demonstrate a responsible concern for improving the system.⁷

Focus

Focusing primarily on the reconstruction of society, the socio-political involvement tradition recognizes current threats of societal annihilation and destruction but is optimistic that man can overcome such threats. Society's unhealthy state, the threatened survival of the race, and other crises confronting man are only challenges to be modified and stabilized in the process of improvement and preservation. Through socio-political involvement, education functions as an agent of cultural modification -- an agency of change as well as an agency of stabilization.⁸

Socio-political involvement and humanistic education go hand-in-hand, as reflected in the thinking of Dale L. Brubaker and James B. Macdonald, Directors of the Greensboro Humanistic Education Project. Writing in Interface, the newsletter of the School of Education, University of North Carolina at Greensboro, Brubaker says:

...the challenge to social studies educators in the 70's will be to create more humanistic conditions in our schools and at the same time to expand definitions of curriculum and instruction so that students can directly influence communities outside of the school. What this will mean is that schooling will

⁷Ibid., p. 155.

⁸Theodore Brameld, Education as Power (New York: Holt Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1965), p. 40.

not be designed to prepare the student for life. Schooling and life will be inseparable.⁹

Humanists, such as Brubaker and Macdonald, seek educational practices which are consistent with the goals of the socio-political involvement tradition.

- (1) The learner's feelings are as legitimate a part of the teacher-learning process as are cognitive emphases.
- (2) Learners communicate with and learn from each other in ways free from domination by the teacher, or one authority, usually the textbook.
- (3) The teacher's role becomes that of catalyst-inquirer-learner rather than that of manager of busywork, fount of information, sermonizer, or just someone to be ignored or tolerated.
- (4) Instructional materials are organized conceptually and the learner is expected to ask the kinds of questions that decision-makers in the larger society ask.
- (5) Learners can be engaged in the valuing process without fear of being put down for any values they wish to express.¹⁰

Macdonald's philosophy is supportive of this thinking as is evidenced by his description of his personal teaching strategies. Two basic assumptions direct his action: (1) there is no specific, limited amount of knowledge to be given, and (2) there is to be no repetition of content, time after time. Based on these two assumptions, his classroom procedures (objectives) are to:

- (1) Identify the area of concern and marshal resources that reflect people's activity in this

⁹Dale L. Brubaker, "Humanizing the Social Studies," Trends in Social Education, The Florida Council for the Social Studies, Volume 19 (Fall, 1972), 5.

¹⁰Ibid., p. 4.

area; usually specific readings or texts which have been personally interesting.

- (2) Assume responsibility for "starter" activity.
- (3) Initiate people into area of concern for study; elicit responses in a way that makes sense to the student.
- (4) Recognize when behavior is "in the ball park" or "out of the ball park"; attempt to move behavior to conceptual thinking, through encouragement.
- (5) Attempt to reach behavioral state called "dialogue"; with students interacting in a free and open way; verbalizing behavior as a result of interaction, common interest, and search for meaning.
- (6) Relate to the student in an authentic way; attempt to help people; try to escape the "praise-blame" syndrome.
- (7) Attempt to separate people from ideas (ideas may be good or bad, but have no relation to the person).
- (8) Assume there will be physical environment provided by private or public funds; it is his responsibility to create learning environment.
- (9) Offer "human potential" -- taking it is the responsibility of the student.¹¹

In its emphasis on individual decision-making and participation, social studies as socio-political involvement does not overlook the importance of skills. Quite to the contrary, they are a major focus of the tradition, as spelled out by Ochoa and Manson:

Skills are properly regarded as significant educational goals. A curriculum based on the

¹¹Description given by James B. Macdonald, Teacher Education Seminar, University of North Carolina (Greensboro), September 26, 1972.

resolution of social issues through social action enhances opportunities for the social studies program to develop a broad range of intellectual and social competencies. Making decisions, managing authority, implementing policy, communicating effectively, and participating in groups are skills that are logically involved in a curriculum that is targeted in resolving social issues through social action. Social action gives pupils an opportunity to apply these skills to the artificial confines of the classroom; applying these skills in a real setting adds to the development of such competencies.¹²

MAJOR CONTRIBUTORS

As an early advocate of social studies as socio-political involvement, George S. Counts has been described as America's most insightful early student of the relationship between the schools and social interest groups.¹³ Writing in 1926, Counts raised the question of whether "education contemplates as its end the present life of the learner or the life of an adult."¹⁴ He answered his own question by saying, "the end of education is to be found in neither the one period nor the other, but rather in the growth of the power of the learner

¹²Ochoa and Manson, op. cit., p. 5.

¹³George S. Counts, "Break the Teacher Training Lockstep," Teacher Education in America, ed. Merle L. Borrowman (New York: Teachers College Press, 1965), p. 218.

¹⁴George S. Counts, "Some Notes on the Foundation of Curriculum Making," The Foundations and Techniques of Curriculum Construction, The Twenty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Bloomington: Public School Publishing Company, 1926), p. 74.

to cope with his environment -- a growth which is nurtured through a direct participation in the life of the group and through a vicarious participation in the racial experience."¹⁵

In other words, the object of education is not to produce the adult, nor to maintain the student in the status of a child; instead, its purpose is to transform him into a valuable member of society and give him mastery over his world. This can be done by opening the student's mind to new ways of viewing himself and the world -- new sensations, perceptions, and emotions, as the student becomes more independent and critical in his thinking. If the schools, in Counts' way of thinking, are to be really effective, they must become centers for the building, and not merely for the contemplation, of our civilization. Children should be given a vision of the possibilities which lie ahead and their loyalties and enthusiasm enlisted in the realization of the vision.¹⁶

In 1969, Counts cautioned from the perspective of his eightieth year of life, that one other aspect must be considered. The student should not be encouraged to engage in criticism just for the sake of criticism. "The truly critical mind is one of the most precious

¹⁵Ibid., p. 74.

¹⁶George S. Counts, Dare the School Build A New Social Order? (New York: The John Day Company, 1932), p. 37.

resources of a free society, yet, at the same time such a mind should be highly disciplined. Not only should the critical mind be armed with knowledge and understanding, but there should be a 'modicum of humility and wisdom'; also desirable are the intellectual virtues of accuracy, precision, truthfulness, open-mindedness and absolute integrity."¹⁷

Two current leaders exemplifying socio-political involvement are Ralph Nader and Jesse Jackson, neither of whom is linked to big business, labor, or government. Instead each is committed to a cause in an attempt to improve society.

Both Jackson and Nader, during their college years, were engaged in activities outside the academic realm. In 1963, while a student at Agricultural and Technical University, Jackson became a leader of the downtown Greensboro sit-in campaign, where for ten months he led the almost daily protest marches and sit-ins at Greensboro theatres and restaurants that brought about their integration. Largely as a result of his leadership in the civil rights movements, segregation barriers in other areas of the south began to crumble.

Ralph Nader, on the other hand, was not as successful in his early attempts at socio-political involvement; however, it must be realized that his first efforts

¹⁷George S. Counts, "Should the Teacher Always Be Neutral?" Phi Delta Kappan LI (December, 1969), 188.

occurred in the mid-fifties, several years ahead of Jackson's actions. While at Princeton, Nader waged an unsuccessful campaign to prevent the campus trees from being sprayed with DDT, and he also tried, again unsuccessfully, to interest his fellow students in defending their legal rights against arbitrary power exercised over them by the university administration. Later, as a student at Harvard Law School, Nader became interested in automobile safety, and he waged a one-man war on the automobile industry. In 1966 the National Traffic and Motor Vehicle Safety Act was passed, causing the Washington Post to editorialize, "Most of the credit for making possible this important legislation belongs to one man -- Ralph Nader....Through his...determination, and his seemingly limitless energy, he won a one-man lobby ...over the nation's most powerful industry."¹⁸

Encouraged by the success of this monumental effort, Nader has since turned his attention to mounting crusades in other areas where he felt the public interest was being threatened. Drives by Nader to eliminate health hazards in mining, to improve the lot of the American Indian, to require federal inspection standards on slaughterhouses and meat processing plants have all called attention to pressing social concerns.

¹⁸Charles Moritz (ed.), Current Biography Yearbook (New York: The N. W. Wilson Company, 1968), p. 280.

Values and valuing are an integral part of the socio-political involvement tradition, since choices from among alternatives necessitates use of the value system held by students. Louis Raths and his associates have developed what they term the value clarifying response. It is a developing reacting behavior that is used following student comments that deal with attitudes, aspirations, activities, or purposes. According to Raths, these value related areas are value indicators.¹⁹ The value clarifying response functions to raise these to the level of values, and in order for a value indicator to become a value, it must meet seven criteria. These, as delineated by Raths, are: (1) choosing freely, (2) choosing from among alternatives, (3) choosing after thoughtful consideration of the consequences, (4) prizing and cherishing, (5) affirming, (6) acting upon choices, and (7) repeating.²⁰

Raths reviews his definition of the process of valuing in schematic form:

- Choosing: (1) freely
 (2) from alternatives
 (3) after thoughtful consideration
 of the consequences of each
 alternative

¹⁹John A. Zahorik and Dale L. Brubaker, Toward More Humanistic Instruction (Dubuque: Wm. C. Brown Company Publishers, 1972), p. 42.

²⁰Louis E. Raths, and others, Values and Teaching (Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1966), pp. 28-29.

- Prizing: (4) cherishing, being happy with the choice
 (5) willing to affirm the choice publicly
 Acting: (6) doing something with the choice
 (7) repeated, in some pattern of life²¹

DISCUSSION OF CURRICULAR COMPONENTS

In socio-political involvement, as in the other traditions, specific curricular components are treated in a unique manner, thereby determining the direction of social studies curriculum and instruction for that tradition. Discussion follows of the manner in which certain components are treated by the socio-political involvement tradition.

Citizenship Education

Social studies education as socio-political involvement concerns itself early with the development of students as future citizens. Studies show that students, in general, are more consistently sensitive to the feelings and opinions of their peers than to any voice from within.²² Consequently, through socio-political involvement, an attempt is made to combat this trend by the development of personalized and individualized critical analysis and decision-making skills as opposed to

²¹Ibid., p. 30.

²²William C. Kvaraceus, "Tomorrow's Youth and Tomorrow's Citizens," Citizenship and A Free Society: Education for the Future, Thirtieth Yearbook of the National Council of the Social Studies (Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1960), p. 21.

allowing in students a sheep-like following of the crowd, clique, gang, minority, pressure group, or even the mob.

To develop responsible citizens, schools must provide an atmosphere which is democratic in spirit and procedures, one which prizes individuality and individual differences. Students must be provided with many successful experiences in civic action, some undertaken under the guidance of community groups. Laboratory practice in citizenship education and social studies instruction is needed for the same reasons that we need laboratory experience in science: growth of skill in defining and solving a problem, or understanding the nature of evidence and its relevance, and of awareness of the values that one promotes as one takes action to cope with a problem.²³

In discussing the use of the community as a social studies laboratory, Gross and Zeleny point out:

Where does a school child find opportunities for experiences in being a good citizen?... Certainly the school environment will provide many -- but not enough to give young people a realistic experience in community life. The out-of-school environment, the city, state, nation, and world, provides the stage for performing myriad social, economical, political, and religious phenomena, and from it emerge some common and consistent action patterns. It is the real community in which the student will find the opportunity to live and act as a good citizen. This community is the laboratory for the social studies; it is the place young people learn to be citizens.²⁴

²³Ibid., p. 60.

²⁴Richard E. Gross and Leslie D. Zeleny, Educating Citizens for A Democracy (New York: Oxford University Press, 1958), p. 399.

Lack of opportunity for citizenship development through social participation is analyzed by Kvaraceus in the 1960 Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies:

Too often and too long American youth have been limited in their participation in important and worthwhile adult-like activities by law, by sentiment, and by overzealous adult planning for youth. As a result, they are too often merely passive participants or are recipients of services rendered by adults in such areas as recreation, social and civic activity, religion, and schooling....School-community citizenship programs should exploit the practicum possibilities in all youth activities and organizations by enabling young people to serve themselves and the community. Only in this way can lessons of self-direction, responsibility, and social participation -- three important cornerstones of effective citizenship -- be learned and applied.²⁵

Student Maturity

Questions are often raised concerning the advisability of a curriculum focused primarily on controversial social issues for the elementary school-child. Some of those concerned with the education of young children contend that students' basic security as individuals and citizens depends upon early exposure to a world that is well ordered; therefore elementary school curricula should emphasize descriptive, noncontroversial material about American society. This builds a foundation for citizenship, according to their thinking, thereby enabling students to deal with social conflicts in secondary school and later

²⁵Kvaraceus, op. cit., pp. 19-20.

years. Others, however, hold the view that students should not be sheltered from the real world; feeling that overprotectiveness in shielding them from reality results in inability to face social controversies.

Thomas and Brubaker respond to the above situation, saying, "Since we lack adequate research to settle this difference of opinion, each teacher or school is left to determine on the basis of personal experience and conviction whether it is best for elementary-school children to deal with political controversy."²⁶

As for the ability and enthusiasm of preadolescent students in addressing themselves to social controversies, Thomas and Brubaker have found:

The nature of the issues that are of interest depends somewhat upon the children's own social setting -- their home and community atmosphere, their race, their religion, their parents' occupations, the topics their parents discuss at home. The topics that lend themselves to the case-study and argumentation approach in the middle and lower elementary grades are not broad political issues, but issues involving social relations that children personally experience.²⁷

Selection of Content

Socio-political involvement forces a move away from traditional social studies education; it requires content which is more open and general, as opposed to that which is closed and specific. Current social problems comprise an important part of the subject matter, and the

²⁶R. Murray Thomas and Dale L. Brubaker, Curriculum Patterns in Elementary Social Studies (Belmont: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 1971), p. 235.

²⁷Ibid., p. 236.

student creates his own content through a search into social issues and through action which he initiates as a result of his search.

Brameld discusses the necessity of change, saying social participation means

...fundamental alteration in the curriculum of schools all the way from kindergarten up through high schools, the colleges, and adult education. The process of learning the teaching will also be radically altered. Finally, the control of education, including its administration and policy-making, will have to be changed. Thus, the curriculum, the teaching-learning process, and the control of education, will undergo transformation. ²⁸

Use of Content

In socio-political involvement a circular relationship exists between teachers and students in the classroom; that is, teachers influence students and students influence teachers. Students and teachers both become learners and teachers, as all classroom participants assume and share responsibility for each other's growth.

Teachers, however, have the major responsibility for the education of students, and, therefore, have greater influence. Because of their influence, they can initiate opportunities for involvement; their role consists of helping students define what is possible, what the issues are, the dimensions of the program, and specific

²⁸Brameld, Education as Power, op. cit., p. 40.

²⁹Zahorik and Brubaker, op. cit., pp. 65-66.

action which they might decide to take.³⁰ In this way, teachers permit, encourage, and extend students' ability to be independent, self-directed, responsible persons.³¹

Teachers, in their classroom activity, should demonstrate certain behavior for their teaching to be in keeping with the socio-political involvement tradition.

Four criteria cited by Zahorik and Brubaker are:

- (1) Receptive: Teacher behavior must be open and receptive to students' ideas, feelings, and actions.
- (2) Facilitating: Teacher behavior must not only be receptive to students' ideas, it must also facilitate students' thinking and valuing.
- (3) Personal: Teacher behavior must be sensitive and responsive to the interests, needs, and talents of each student.
- (4) Genuine: Teachers must be deeply interested in the lives of students and this interest and genuine concern must be manifested in the teachers' behavior.³²

Students do not submit to authority blindly; instead they challenge the accepted and the sacred when these are in conflict with their own values and institutions. As they challenge, they find themselves responding and reacting to other students and the teachers, becoming more actively involved. As a result of the interchange, students find themselves faced with choices and decisions, from which they must choose, thereby gaining a measure of

³⁰Jarolimek, op. cit., p. 52.

³¹Zahorik and Brubaker, op. cit., p. 17.

³²Ibid., pp. 17-18.

control over and responsibility for their own learning.³³ They become involved in independent thinking, identifying their own values, analyzing them, and either reconstructing or redefining them. In this way, students learn to deal with values in conflict and learn to resolve differences, not by way of hostility, but through a whole range of skills and abilities learned through social participation in the social studies classroom.

In considering the future of social studies education, Ronald Lippitt, noted social studies educator at the University of Michigan, looks ahead to 1975. Ironically, his descriptive analysis of teacher-student behavior is exemplified currently in social studies classrooms, functioning in the socio-political involvement tradition. Dr. Lippitt says:

The teachers tell us that the focus of their social science period each day is one of the development of awareness, sensitivity, skill, and information about some of the core themes of the students' daily experience as a starting point -- e.g., the phenomena of conflict, power, compromise, love, apathy, and decision-making. Small lab teams of students are formed around inquiry interests after exposure to a variety of confrontations from which they choose their inquiry projects.

Although they start from the here and now of their own life situation, students work to achieve perspective by comparing the phenomena they are studying in their own peer culture with the adult society around them. They also make cross-cultural analyses of peer-level phenomena in other cultures. An active program of inquiry into causation is developed by comparing the here and now with previous historical periods. Students also look into the future -- projecting possible changes in our society and others,

³³Ibid., p. 51.

making value judgments about the desirability of those changes and preventing or redirecting undesirable ones, and applying these ideas in action programs outside the school.³⁴

What Significant Others
Are Expected to Do

Increased student participation is causing publishing companies, methods teachers, professors in the academic disciplines, and community members to reassess their respective roles in social studies education. Through an analysis of these influences, there is evidence of a changed direction and emphasis in social studies as socio-political involvement.

Publishing companies. The socio-political involvement tradition is both bane and blessing to textbook publishers -- a blessing in that it calls for more bound and illustrated volumes on various world cultures and historic epochs. At the same time, it is forcing publishers away from the traditional descriptive textbooks currently featured in a majority of classrooms. Paperback books and pamphlet materials, focusing on contemporary problems, are needed, and these will be changed often in the classrooms, thereby increasing paperback sales for publishers. No longer will the curriculum be tied to an obsolete course of study, while waiting for the hardbound textbooks, fanatically preserved by teachers, to wear out.

³⁴Ronald Lippitt, The Dimensions of Change: In Our Society, Our Students, and Our Social Studies Curriculum (Boulder: Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., 1971), pp. 8-9. (Mimeographed.)

Social studies projects. Staffs of numerous social studies projects joined others in efforts toward social participation. Materials from the University of North Carolina Humanistic Education Project, developed by Dale L. Brubaker and James B. Macdonald support the view that social learnings related to man's achievements and problems, wherever they occur in the life of the elementary school student, are the proper concern of those interested in more humanistic instruction. The project is now in its third year of existence and the progress achieved thus far is summarized in two major publications: Curriculum Patterns in Elementary Social Studies and Toward More Humanistic Instruction.

In their way of thinking, Brubaker and Macdonald feel that:

...social action activities should be an integral part of social education, based on the assumption that one of society's main problems is an apathetic citizenry....As most of us know by looking at our own lives, we need more than information and the "right" attitude to make our society a better one. We need to be involved in making necessary changes and supporting that which is still worth conserving. Such involvement depends on experience or practice, for experience gives the individual the feeling that he can make a difference. Furthermore, one learns through experience the techniques needed for implementing his ideas. It is our view that this experience should be provided at an early age by our schools.³⁵

The materials developed in the Greensboro project focus mainly on the classroom as a center for simulating social processes and problems that characterize the larger

³⁵Zahorik and Brubaker, op. cit., pp. 145-146.

society outside the classroom -- in the school as a whole and in the community outside the school, and also studying knowledge problems that emerge from the simulation activities. At the same time, students are improving their skills of social analysis as they experience emotions typical for people facing social problems in their real lives.

Particular convictions of the developers undergird the materials:

- (1) Social studies should focus on significant happenings of the day.
- (2) Learners' rights and responsibilities are to be considered.
- (3) A problem must be felt by the learner before he will become actively engaged in the inquiry process.
- (4) Curriculum materials should be conceptually oriented.
- (5) Interaction among pupils should be encouraged.³⁶

Lesson plans, organized around themes and around problems subsumed under themes, make up the materials, and each lesson involves three elements intended to promote critical inquiry: (1) a problem to be solved, (2) concepts to comprehend, and (3) a social setting. In keeping with the convictions of the developers, the project materials propose to teach both concepts -- in the context of significant happenings of the day, as well as feelings and sensitivities through student interaction in situations which they "feel."³⁷ The curriculum structure is schematically presented in Figure 6.1.³⁸

³⁶Thomas and Brubaker, op. cit., pp. 276-277.

³⁷Ibid., p. 278.

³⁸Ibid., pp. 279-280.

THEMES-Sample Lesson Titles Related Social Science Disciplines

(+ = Lesson centers
on positive action.)

(- = Lesson centers
on problems.)

	Social Psychology	Geog- raphy	His- tory	Polit. Sci.	Eco- nomics
I. URBANIZATION					
+Loyalty to community	X		X	X	
+City knowledge, rural knowledge	X	X			X
+Back to nature	X	X	X		
+Art in the city	X				
-Noninvolvement with others' lives	X	X			
-Commuter attitude	X	X		X	X
-Trouble in schools	X	X		X	
II. TECHNOLOGICAL CHANGE					
+Information: storage and retrieval	X	X			X
+Influencing the media	X	X		X	X
+Use of leisure time	X				X
+Vocations	X	X	X		X
-Traffic	X	X	X	X	X
-Dehumanization	X		X		
-Technological unemploy- ment	X	X	X	X	X
III. SURVIVAL					
+Recycling cans and papers	X			X	X
+Information sum- marizing		X	X	X	X
-Overcrowded territory	X	X		X	
-Air Pollution	X	X	X	X	X
-Noise pollution	X	X		X	X
IV. INTERGROUP RELATIONS- GROUP INTERACTION					
+Facts and values	X				
+Compromising	X			X	X
+Feeling black or white	X	X	X		
+Comparing cultures	X	X	X	X	X
+Diplomacy	X			X	

THEMES-Sample Lesson Titles Related Social Science Disciplines

(+ = Lesson centers
on positive action.)

(- = Lesson centers
on problems.)

	Social Psychology	Geog- raphy	His- tory	Polit. Sci.	Eco- nomics
-Ethnic stereotypes	X	X	X		
-Landlord-tenant confrontation	X			X	X
-White police in a black ghetto (authority representative in host- ile group)	X			X	
-Informers in society	X			X	X
-Preferential treatment	X			X	X
-Marginality: immigrant vs. Anglo-Saxon Americans	X	X	X	X	X
-Marginality: parents vs. peers	X				X
-Marginality: male vs. female roles	X		X	X	X
V. INTRAGROUP RELATIONS- PERSONAL BEHAVIOR					
+Verbal-nonverbal com- munication	X				
+Positive reinforcers- smiles and nods	X			X	
+Positive reinforcers- comments	X			X	
+Respecting the rights of others	X			X	X
+Compromise	X				
-Confronting someone you dislike	X			X	
-Intolerance	X				
-Dealing with anger	S				
-Dealing with jealousy	X				

Figure 6.1

Curriculum Structure-Current Social Themes and Problems

Another representative project of the socio-political involvement tradition is the somewhat different approach of George I. Brown of the University of California, Santa Barbara. Drawing heavily on the experiential work of Esalen Institute at Big Sur, California, and the work of Gestalt therapist Fritz Perls, Brown has elected to call his work "confluent education." Sponsored by the Ford Foundation, through the Esalen Institute, the program encourages harmonious flowing together of cognition and affect.³⁹

Brown's confluent education is a partial program, because it does not propose to teach all the social skills and understandings that children are expected to acquire in elementary schools. Three principles or value statements are implied by practitioners in the classroom where confluent education is being used:

- (1) Children should be given direct experiences with ways to become more aware of themselves and of their relationships with others.
- (2) Anytime a pupil's actions suggest that he can profit from expressing and comprehending (emotionally as well as intellectually) his feelings, the teacher should use methods suitable for promoting such expression and comprehension.
- (3) When social-studies topics are pursued, activities that elucidate the affective factors involved in social phenomena should be employed along with the more traditional methodology aimed at cognitive learning.⁴⁰

No particular set of materials has been produced by the Ford-Esalen Project. There is more reliance on a point

³⁹Ibid., p. 254.

⁴⁰Ibid., p. 260.

of view or quality of teacher-pupil interaction in specific social situations as the individual student seeks to understand how he is feeling at the time.⁴¹ On the other hand, methods in confluent education encompass "all techniques that promote pupil's awareness of emotional aspects of his own life and others' lives....The methods are intended to free the child to experience a broader range of emotions and to understand their role in his life. At the same time he is directed toward accepting the responsibility for his affective states and their consequences."⁴²

Methods teachers. Surrounding the socio-political involvement tradition in social studies education is an aura of newness, labeled by some the "new social studies," and this newness has affected methods teachers in the field. A study by Tucker revealed that methods teachers, in general, were unfavorable in their perceptions of the "new social studies." She explained this attitude with three hypotheses: (1) the obsolescence hypothesis, (2) the role-separation hypothesis, and (3) the value-conflict hypothesis.⁴³

Elaborating further, she explains the hypotheses, saying that in the obsolescence hypothesis, materials developed by the projects and being disseminated by commercial publishers have caused the knowledge and skills of methods

⁴¹Ibid., p. 260.

⁴²Ibid., p. 272.

⁴³Jan L. Tucker, "Teacher Educators and the 'New' Social Studies," Social Education Volume 36 (May, 1972), 552.

teachers to become obsolete. Secondly, materials from the projects have more frequently been developed by academicians than by teacher educators, placing the teacher educator in unfamiliar territory as implementation is attempted. This results in role-separation. Finally, project directors and staff have a set of values about social studies which is different from the set of values held by a typical teacher educator, resulting in value conflict.⁴⁴

The truth of the matter is that methods teachers, in too many instances, have been reluctant to move away from traditional types of training, lagging behind in social studies teacher education programs, and, in assembling project staffs for material development, teacher educators have been bypassed. Now that the materials are available and in use, the lag is even more evident. Hence, Tucker's timely analysis of the situation points the way for needed change on the part of methods teachers.

Professors in academic disciplines. Perhaps the most significant contribution of professors from the academic disciplines to the socio-political involvement tradition has been the example set as they have worked on interdisciplinary teams for various project staffs. This has enabled many of them to break away from traditional curriculum and instructional patterns, thus recognizing opportunities for a unified approach to social studies education. John Jarolimek describes the responsibilities

⁴⁴Ibid., pp. 552-554.

of secondary methods teachers, and the same applies to professors in the academic disciplines as well as elementary teachers. He says:

...We have a responsibility to be creative rather than reactive. We should provide leadership in moving schools toward more meaningful student participation in institutional affairs. No doubt this will have to be achieved in stages. But if we have any claims to expertise in studies that deal with social affairs, we should be willing to provide the secondary schools of the nation with the benefit of our wisdom. Failing that, we can sit idly by quoting platitudes about social participation while our secondary schools come apart at the seams. Here is a challenge of tremendous dimensions which has in it all of the exciting possibilities of applying all that we know about social education. If we do not make it with social participation as applied to the school itself, we just do not make it at all....As social studies teachers we have a duty not only to teach young people how our social system works, but also to become thoughtful, informed social critics, to participate in democratic processes, to be involved, to be activists, and to demonstrate a responsible concern for improving the system.⁴⁵

Community members. In most cases, community members are involved in joint planning projects which stimulate awareness of problems. In addition, they attend classes of public schools and participate in discussion groups, assemblies and extracurricular activities.

In isolated instances, prejudice among pressure groups prevents frank study of problems. Some parents do not want their children involved in a study of controversial issues or engaged in activities outside the classroom, and, when this happens, they object to teachers who participate in such practices. Pressure from community members, in such cases,

⁴⁵Jarolimek, op. cit., pp. 154-155.

is a key obstruction to the socio-political involvement tradition in social studies education.

Evaluation

Student evaluation in the socio-political involvement tradition lacks specificity. The extent to which he has learned to explore developing problems, identify likely sore spots in society, and commit himself to their solution, as well as his ability to face recurrent crises, are all criteria in determining his success as a student.

Generally speaking, student progress is not measured by written or oral tests; instead the teacher appraises children through observations of their behavior. Upper-grade children may be asked to keep a log, or diary, in which they record their thoughts and activities, and teachers use these in appraising the student's growth toward greater awareness, freedom, and responsibility.⁴⁶ In other words, evaluation is much broader than paper and pencil testing.

The comments of Engle and Longstreet concerning evaluation in social studies are consistent with socio-political involvement:

A social studies course should not be expected to achieve specific measurable objectives in the specific sense, for it is not strictly a scientific course; it must become involved in the affective acting of citizens. Insofar as it delves into the affective, it escapes quantitative measurement and is best represented by qualitative description...The situational elements of human behavior are so many and so varied that no scheme has yet been attained which permits measurable

⁴⁶Thomas and Brubaker, op. cit., p. 273.

comparison through time, or between separate cultures, or even between groups of people within the same society. In formulating the objectives of a social studies course, it must be realized that only very general, encompassing objectives can be achieved. The specific behavioral objectives, which has become so popular in recent times, could never adequately represent the scope and breadth of a course in social education.⁴⁷

SUMMARY

Even though social studies curriculum and instruction as advocated and practiced in the socio-political involvement tradition is a newcomer to the field of social studies education, it offers considerable promise for insuring that more humanistic procedures will be developed and maintained in classrooms where the tradition is employed. Increased availability of materials such as those currently being developed by the Greensboro Humanistic Education Project will facilitate implementation of the tradition on a more widespread basis, since many teachers are apprehensive about producing their own materials, especially at the outset of an instructional approach which is different from some of the more traditional approaches presently used in elementary social studies curriculum and instruction.

⁴⁷Shirley S. Engle and Wilma S. Longstreet, A Design for Social Education in the Open Curriculum (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1972), pp. 12-13.

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSION

In this dissertation, a conceptual framework, comprised of five social studies traditions, has been developed for defining, clarifying, and understanding social studies curriculum and instruction. The framework, descriptive rather than prescriptive in nature, contributes to the field of social studies education in at least three major areas.

Its first contribution, a definition of social studies based on a description of what is actually taking place in social studies education, is a step toward clarification of the confusion and, in many cases, open disagreement about the nature, purpose, and direction of social studies education.¹ A major drawback has been that too many of the earlier attempts to define social studies reflect a tendency to view social studies curriculum and instruction in terms of content. This tendency becomes obvious upon examination of definitions assigned by several leaders in the field.

¹For an analysis of the variety of definitions assigned to social studies, see Shirley H. Engle, "Objectives of the Social Studies," New Challenges in the Social Studies, eds. Byron G. Massialas and Frederick R. Smith (Belmont: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 1965), pp. 1-19.

Perhaps the most quoted definition of social studies is the classic statement offered by Edgar Wesley, "The social studies are the social sciences simplified for pedagogical purposes."² In keeping with Wesley's thinking, the National Council for the Social Studies charter states, "The term 'social studies' is used to include history, economics, sociology, civics, geography, and all modifications of subjects whose content as well as aim is social."³ Paralleling these definitions is the more recent definition found in the United States Office of Education's Standard Terminology for Curriculum and Instruction, "The social studies are comprised of those aspects of history, economics, political science, sociology, anthropology, psychology, geography, and philosophy which in practice are selected for instructional purposes in schools and colleges."⁴

Illustrating further, both John Jarolimek and John Michaelis, two currently recognized authors in elementary social studies, follow the same pattern in defining social studies. Michaelis, in the fourth edition of Social Studies for Children in a Democracy (1968) says, "The social studies curriculum encompasses those aspects of history and the

²Edgar B. Wesley and Stanley P. Wronski, Teaching Social Studies in High Schools (Boston: D.C. Heath, 1958), p. 3.

³Robert D. Barr, "The Question of Our Professional Identity: Reactions to Barth-Shermis Article," Social Education, Volume 34 (November, 1970), 754.

⁴Ibid.

social sciences that are believed to be of greatest value for the general education of students in elementary and secondary schools."⁵ Likewise, in Jarolimek's fourth edition of Social Studies in Elementary Education (1971) he states, "The social studies as a part of the elementary school curriculum draw subject matter from the social sciences: history, geography, sociology, political science, social psychology, philosophy, anthropology, and economics."⁶

Upon examination of these and numerous other definitions, the content approach to defining social studies is evident. As a consequence, the plethora of existing definitions has led to the complaint that content definitions have usually prescribed the parameters of the social sciences field much too narrowly.⁷ When defining social studies in terms of academic content, it is felt that some of the more promising areas of social studies education are ignored. For example, such things as value identification, decision-making, socialization, and involvement in the issues and controversies of public policy are simply omitted in most content definitions.⁸ Therefore, a major contribution of this dissertation is that social

⁵John U. Michaelis, Social Studies for Children in a Democracy (4th ed.; Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1968). p. 2.

⁶John Jarolimek, Social Studies in Elementary Education (4th ed.; New York: The Macmillan Company, 1971), p. 6.

⁷Barr, loc. cit.

⁸Ibid.

studies, defined through an analysis and understanding of the activity surrounding the field of social studies education since its inception in American education, is viewed in its totality, not within the narrow context of content derivation.

Secondly, social studies education, traditionally characterized by conflicts and controversies, has needed a conceptual framework to bring some sort of systematic order to the field, as well as clarify the diversity within social studies curriculum and instruction. Much of the conflict has arisen, not out of thoughtless chaos, but as a result of vital and basic philosophical differences on the part of educators and others working in the field.

A representative controversy is the one of social studies versus social education. Jarolimek says:

The social studies should not be thought of as the same as social education....Social education,...is a more inclusive, broader concept embracing the entire interpersonal social life of the child. Social studies as an area of the curriculum is a regularly scheduled part of the school day; social education takes place whenever the child is in a social situation....a distinction should be made between the broad term social education and the specific area of the elementary school curriculum referred to as the social studies.⁹

To the thinking of Jarolimek, Michaelis adds:

The term social studies should not, however, be confused with the following closely related terms which are much broader in meaning:

⁹Jarolimek, loc. cit.

Social competence -- one's ability to engage in group enterprises, both in and out of school.

Social learning -- all experiences that help one to become oriented to society.

Social education -- all school activities designed to promote social learning and to improve social competence.

Social living -- processes involved in daily interaction with others; refers, in a few schools, to the social studies and other school activities provided to develop social competence.¹⁰

Joyce, however, accepts social studies curriculum and method of instruction as an opportunity to influence three different aspects of education. These, according to Joyce, are:

Intellectual education. To identify and solve social problems, a person needs to know how to use the analytic ideas and problem-solving tools developed by scholars in the social sciences.

Social education. The content and procedures involved in the social studies can prepare a child to participate effectively in his society.

Personal education. Through the exploration of culture, society, and the individual, a child can come to comprehend his experience and find meaning to it.¹¹

Using a conceptual model such as the one proposed in this dissertation to interpret social studies curriculum and instruction enables one to conceive of social studies education as a continuum of happenings, activities, events, and involvements, reflecting the varied philosophical differences of persons involved in social studies education.

¹⁰Michaelis, op. cit., p. 3.

¹¹Bruce R. Joyce, New Strategies for Social Education (Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1972), p. 1.

Utilization of a conceptual model provides an orderly way of interpreting and understanding the philosophical differences, thus eliminating the necessity of much of the controversy and conflict currently existing.

A third potential of the model has to do with the classroom teacher and social studies education. Teachers have long needed a systematic means for critically analyzing and evaluating the various approaches to social studies education, as well as analyzing their own philosophical and psychological positions in terms of teaching in the social studies field. By studying the five traditions presented in this dissertation, teachers can determine their current position in relation to social studies education, and, in addition, reach decisions about the future route they would like to take in terms of various options and alternatives open to them in social studies education.

Curriculum workers, administrators, and others involved in curriculum decisions can benefit by having a conceptual model available for categorizing and thereby evaluating the wide variety of new curriculum materials which have become available as a result of project activities during the sixties. All available curriculum materials should fit into the traditions or categories described in the conceptual framework of this dissertation. It is recognized, quite naturally, that some of the materials might extend beyond a single tradition, depending upon the

comprehensiveness of a particular project's activities and materials available from the activities. The mode, however, does provide some initial structure for dealing with the materials, and it should begin to eliminate the uneasiness evinced by teacher educators regarding the new social studies, as cited in a recent study by Tucker.¹²

Aside from its contribution to social studies curriculum and instruction, the conceptual design identified in this dissertation may well serve as a model for analyzing other areas of the curriculum, such as reading and science. It is feasible that the ambiguity and inconsistency existing in social studies education is not limited solely to this area of the curriculum. One strongly suspects that other areas of the curriculum could benefit from a conceptualization and analysis similar to the one undertaken in this study.

¹²Jan L. Tucker, "Teacher Educators and the 'New' Social Studies," Social Education Volume 36 (May, 1972), 548-554, 560.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

A. Books

- Beard, Charles A. A Charter for the Social Sciences. New York: Charles A. Scribner's Sons, 1932.
- Beckner, Weldon, and Wayne Dumas. American Education: Foundations and Superstructure. Scranton: International Textbook Company, 1970.
- Beyer, Barry E. Inquiry in the Social Studies Classroom. Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1971.
- Bloom, Benjamin S. (ed.). Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook I: Cognitive Domain. New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1956.
- Borrowman, Merle L. (ed.). Teacher Education in America. New York: Teachers College Press, 1965.
- Brameld, Theodore. Education As Power. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1965.
- Brubaker, Dale L. Alternative Directions for the Social Studies. Scranton: International Textbook Company, 1972.
- Bruner, Jerome S. The Process of Education. Cambridge: The Harvard University Press, 1965.
- Counts, George S. Dare the School to Build A New Social Order. New York: The John Day Company, 1932.
- Cox, C. Benjamin, and Byron G. Massialas (eds.). Social Studies in the United States, A Critical Appraisal. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1967.
- Cremin, Lawrence A. The Transformation of the School. New York: Vintage Books, 1961.
- Dewey, John. The Child and the Curriculum. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1902.
- Dewey, John. How We Think. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1910.

- Dewey, John. The School and Society. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1899.
- Dropkin, Stan, Harold Full, and Ernest Schwarcz. Contemporary American Education. 2d ed. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1970.
- Ebel, Robert L. (ed.). Encyclopedia of Educational Research. 4th ed. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1969.
- Engle, Shirley H., and Wilma S. Longstreet. A Design for Social Education in the Open Curriculum. New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1972.
- Estran, Frank J. Social Studies in a Changing World. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1968.
- Fenton, Edwin. The New Social Studies. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1967.
- Friere, Paulo. Pedagogy of the Oppressed. New York: Herder and Herder New York, 1971.
- Frye, Alexis Everett. New Geography, Book One. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1917.
- Goldmark, Bernice. Social Studies, A Method of Inquiry. Belmont: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 1968.
- Goodlad, John. School, Curriculum, and the Individual. Waltham: Blaisdell Publishing Company, 1966.
- Gross, Richard E., and Leslie D. Zeleny. Educating Citizens for Democracy. New York: Oxford University Press, 1958.
- Hamilton, Norman K., and J. Galen Saylor (eds.). Humanizing the Secondary School. Washington: The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1969.
- Hanley, Janet P., and others. Curiosity, Competence, Community. Man: A Course of Study. Cambridge: Education Development Center, 1970.
- Hanna, Paul R. Investigating Man's World, Metropolitan Studies. Glenview: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1970.
- Hunnicut, Clarence W. (ed.). Education 2000 A.D. New York: Syracuse University Press, 1956.
- Hutchins, Robert M. The Higher Learning in America. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1936.

- Jarolimek, John. Social Studies in Elementary Education. 4th ed. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1971.
- Jarolimek, John, and Huber M. Walsh (eds.). Readings for Social Studies in Elementary Education. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1965.
- Joyce, Bruce R. New Strategies for Social Education. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1972.
- Mahoney, John J. For Us the Living. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1945.
- Martorella, Peter H. Concept Learning in the Social Studies. Scranton: Intext Educational Publishers, 1971.
- Massialas, Byron G., and C. Benjamin Cox. Inquiry in Social Studies. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1966.
- Massialas, Byron G., and Frederick R. Smith (eds.). New Challenges in the Social Studies: Implications of Research and Teaching. Belmont: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 1965.
- Michaelis, John. Social Studies for Children in a Democracy. Englewood Cliffs; Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1968.
- Moritz, Charles (ed.). Current Biography Yearbook. New York: The N. W. Wilson Company, 1968.
- Morrisset, Irving, and W. Williams Stevens, Jr., (eds.). Social Science in the Schools, A Search for Rationale. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1971.
- National Council for the Social Studies. Citizenship and a Free Society: Education for the Future. Thirtieth Yearbook. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1960.
- National Council for the Social Studies. Effective Thinking in the Social Studies. Thirty-seventh Yearbook. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1967.
- National Council for the Social Studies. Social Studies Curriculum and Development: Prospects and Problems. Thirtieth Yearbook. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1969.
- National Council for the Social Studies. Social Studies in Elementary Schools. Thirty-second Yearbook. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1962.

- National Society for the Study of Education. The Foundations and Technique of Curriculum-Construction. Twenty-sixth Yearbook, Parts I and II. Bloomington: Public School Publishing Company, 1926.
- National Council for the Social Studies. The Social-Studies Curriculum. Fourth Yearbook. Philadelphia: McKinley Publishing Company, 1934.
- Oliver, Donald W., and James P. Shaver. Teaching Public Issues in the High School. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1966.
- O'Neill, William. Readin, Ritin, and Rafferty. Berkeley: The Glendessary Press, 1969.
- Ploghoft, Milton E., and Albert H. Shuster. Social Science Education in the Elementary School. Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1971.
- Rafferty, Max. Suffer, Little Children. New York: The Devin-Adair Company, 1962.
- Ragan, William B. Modern Elementary Curriculum. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1966.
- Raths, Louis E., Merrill Marvin, and Sidney B. Simon. Values and Teaching. Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1966.
- Rugg, Harold, and Ann Shumaker. The Child-Centered School. New York: World Book Company, 1928.
- Selakovich, Daniel. Problems in Secondary Social Studies. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1965.
- Smith, Frederick R., and C. Benjamin Cox. New Strategies and Curriculum in Social Studies. Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1969.
- Sowards, G. Wesley (ed.). The Social Studies: Curriculum Proposals for the Future. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1963.
- Statewide Social Sciences Committee. Proposed Social Sciences Education Framework for California Public Schools. Sacramento: California State Board of Education, 1968.

- Stormzand, M. J., and Robert H. Lewis. New Methods in Social Studies. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, Inc., 1935.
- Thomas, R. Murray, and Dale L. Brubaker. Curriculum Patterns in Elementary Social Studies. Belmont: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 1971.
- Thomas, R. Murray, and Dale L. Brubaker. Decisions in Teaching Elementary Social Studies. Belmont: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 1971.
- Tryon, Rolla M. The Social Sciences as School Subjects. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1935.
- Tyler, Ralph. Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1950.
- Whitehead, Alfred N. The Aims of Education and Other Essays. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1959.
- Zahorik, John A., and Dale L. Brubaker. Toward More Humanistic Instruction. Dubuque: Wm. C. Brown Company, 1972.
- B. Periodical References
- Barr, Robert D. "The Question of Our Professional Identity: Reactions to the Barth/Shermis Article," Social Education, Volume 34 (November, 1970), 751-754, 759.
- Barth, James L., and S. Samuel Shermis. "Defining the Social Studies: An Exploration of Three Traditions," Social Education, Volume 34 (November, 1970), 743-751.
- Brubaker, Dale L. "Humanizing the Social Studies," Trends in Social Education, The Florida Council for the Social Studies, Volume 19 (Fall, 1972), 5.
- Brubaker, Dale L. "The Humanities, the Social Sciences, and the Social Studies," The Social Studies, LXIII (January, 1972), 10-14.
- Counts, George S. "Should the Teacher Always Be Neutral?" Phi Delta Kappan, LI (December, 1969), 186-189.
- Fraenkel, Jack R. "A Curriculum Model for the Social Studies," Social Education, Volume 33 (January, 1969), 41-47.

- Hanna, Paul R. "Revising the Social Studies: What Is Needed?" Social Education, XXVII (April, 1963), 190-196.
- Hertzberg, Hazel W. Historical Parallels for the Sixties and Seventies: Primary Sources and Core Curriculum Revisited. Boulder: Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., April, 1971 (Mimeographed.)
- Jarolimek, John. "Concerning the Matter of Activism in Social Studies Education," Social Education, Volume 36 (February, 1972), 149-155.
- Jarolimek, John. "Curriculum Content and the Child in the Elementary School," Social Education, Volume 26 (February, 1962), 58-62, 117-120.
- Lippitt, Ronald. The Dimensions of Change: In Our Society, Our Students, and Our Social Studies Curriculum. Boulder: Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., 1971. (Mimeographed.)
- Massialas, Byron G. "Inquiry," Today's Education, Volume 58 (May, 1969), 40-42.
- Massialas, Byron G. "Revising the Social Studies: An Inquiry-Centered Approach," Social Education, Volume 27 (April, 1963), 185-189.
- Metcalf, Lawrence. "The Reflective Teacher," Phi Delta Kappan, XLIV (October, 1962), 17-21.
- Phenix, Philip H. "The Use of the Disciplines as Curriculum Content," The Educational Forum, Volume XXVI (March, 1962), 273-280.
- Sanders, Norris M., and Marlin L. Tanck. "A Critical Appraisal of Twenty-Six National Social Studies Projects," Social Education, Volume 34 (April, 1970), 383-449.
- Taba, Hilda. "An Articulated Social Studies Curriculum in the Elementary School," Social Education, Volume 17 (December, 1953), 369-372.
- Tucker, Jan L. "Teacher Educators and the 'New' Social Studies," Social Education, XXVI (May, 1972), 548-554, 560.
- U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education. The Social Studies in Secondary Education. Bulletin 28 [Washington: Government Printing Office, 1961].

C. Unpublished Materials

Hanna, Paul R. "The Story of the Design for the Basic Social Studies Program." Chicago: Scott, Foresman Company, December, 1966. (Mimeographed.)

Brubaker, Dale L., Jo Watts Williams, and Lawrence H. Simon, "A Conceptual Framework for Social Studies Curriculum and Instruction." Unpublished manuscript, University of North Carolina-Greensboro Humanistic Education Project, September, 1972.

Ochoa, Anna, and Gary Manson. "Social Issues, Social Action, and the Social Studies." Unpublished handout in Education 520, University of North Carolina-Greensboro, 1972. (Mimeographed.)