DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 100 752 SO 008 035

AUTHOR	Fox, Robert; And Others
TITLE	A Framework for Social Science Education.
INSTITUTION	Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., Boulder, Colo.
REPORT NO	SSEC-159
PUB DATE	Jul 73
NOTE	24p.
AVAILABLE FROM	Social Science Education Consortium, 855 Broadway, Boulder, Colorado 80302 (SSEC publication #159, $0.85, prepaid)
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.75 HC Not Available from EDRS. PLUS POSTAGE
DESCRIPTORS	Behavioral Sciences; Curriculum Design; *Curriculum Development; Curriculum Planning; Elementary Education; *Inquiry Training; Interdisciplinary Approach; Models; Process Education; Secondary Education; *Social Psychology; *Social Sciences; *Social Studies

ABSTRACT

This behavioral science-based framework for a social studies curriculum stresses an interdisciplinary inquiry approach to the scientific study of human behavior. It is based on a model developed by the Michigan Social Science Education Project and published by Science Research Associates. The concepts of social psychology are used to integrate the various social science disciplines and provide relevance to the psychological world of the students. The structure of the inquiry process forms the dimensions and sequence of the curriculum. This is detailed in two flow charts and commentaries which map out the rationships between the objects of inquiry activity, the inquiry activities themselves, the methodologies of inquiry, the supports for the inquiry learning process, and the outcomes of inquiry learning activities. The criteria for selection of the content of inquiry projects include problem relevance or urgency, use of core concepts from the social sciences, use of core concepts from other domains of knowledge, and methods and processes basic to social science inquiry. Techniques to enrich and extend the content are discussed. In conclusion, collaboration is urged between social scientists and educators, teachers and curriculum developers, and curriculum developers and publishers in order to relate significant social science concepts to the realities of the life space of young people. (SH)

A FRAMEWORK FOR SOCIAL SCIENCE EDUCATION

SSEC Publication #159

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A FRAMEWORK FOR SOCIAL SCIENCE EDUCATION

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THE NEED FOR CURRICULUM REVISION

The social studies program as it is carried on in most schools is seen by students as among the least relevant, and is certainly among the less popular, of school offerings. It is dominated by an emphasis on history, geography, and American government or civics. Learning facts is stressed, and pupil involvement in learning activity is usually low. Very little of the new content from the behavioral sciences has been effectively introduced into the curriculum.

Vast numbers of students have suffered at the hands of the traditional social studies curriculum, based as it is on three implicit assumptions: (1) that every student is an efficient reader, (2) that the curriculum designer has little responsibility for helping the student perceive the work as relevant to him and to his life space, and (3) that the student has no need for experience with the process or methods of the social scientist, but only a need to familiarize himself with certain products of the social sciences (in other words, it is assumed that a social studies student should be concerned with <u>what</u> a sociologist or a historian has learned, but not necessarily with <u>why</u> and <u>how</u> the sociologist and historian pursued this learning).

In contrast, the curriculum we envision would be developed from the reverse of each of these assumptions. Students would be involved in continuing cycles of data gathering, data analysis, inference testing, value judging, and action designing. Each cycle would confront students with the opportunity for exploring alternatives and developing rationales for preferred courses of action.

Such a behavioral science-based curriculum should prove particularly effective with the several groups of students for whom the traditional social studies has proved meaningless and irrelevant. Among these groups is the inner-city youngster, who often views himself as outside the mainstream of white, middle-class traditions. Such a student might be guided to devote his

efforts to developing an awareness of his immediate culture and heritage and could be trained in analysis skills which would allow him to understand and appreciate this culture. He could consider means by which he might effect change in his life space and in the larger society. Likewise, the student who is thought of as a non-reader--and typically finds himself with no option other than reading the reports of historians, social scientists, or textbook writers--will become a part of a social science class that involves him in the active collection of his own data, the generation of his own hypotheses, and the creative use of the findings and conclusions of others.

Recent Social Science Curriculum Innovation

In response to these challenges, concerned social scientists and educators have developed a variety of innovative curriculum programs and instructional materials--materials developed by the American Anthropological Association, the Association of American Geographers, the American Sociological Association, and others. While some projects--such as Oliver's at Harvard, Fenton's at Carnegie-Mellon, Berlak's at St. Louis, and the Minnesota Project Social Studies--take an interdisciplinary posture, most do not.* By and

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*The American Anthropological Association sponsored the development of Patterns in Human History by the Anthropology Curriculum Study Project (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1971). The High School Geography Project of the Association of American Geographers developed Geography in an Urban Age (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1969-70). The American Sociological Association's project, Sociological Resources for the Social Studies, developed a year-long course, Inquiries in Sociology; a series of paperbacks, Readings in Sociology; and a series of learning units, Episodes in Social Inquiry (all published by Allyn and Bacon, Inc., Rockleigh, New Jersey, 1969-72). The Harvard University Social Studies Project, directed by Donald W. Oliver and Fred M. Newmann, produced a series of 24 unit books dealing with controversial issues (Columbus, Ohio: American Education Publications, 1967-70). Edwin Fenton's Social Studies Curriculum Project at Carnegie-Mellon University produced a 9-12 curriculum for the social studies, including Comparative Political Systems, Comparative Economic Systems, The Shaping of Western Society, Tradition and Change in Four Societies, A New History of the United States, The Humanities in Three Cities, and Introduction to the Behavioral Sciences (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1967-69). Harold Berlak and Timothy R. Tomlinson directed the Washington University project that developed the People/Choices/Decisions program for grades 4-6 (New York: Random House, 1973). The University of Minnesota's Project Social Studies produced, among other items, the Family of Man series for grades K-5 (Newton, Massachusetts: Selective Educational Equipment, Inc., 1971-73).

large, these curriculum development efforts have tended to focus on the contributions of specific disciplines, leaving to the teacher or school curriculum leadership personnel the responsibility for organizing the "bits and pieces" into a coherent, sequential program.

Some of the efforts at building new social studies curricula have taken the form of "modest modification"--tinkering with the arrangement of topics, changing terminology to include words like "concepts" or "values," introducing new one-semester courses such as economics or psychology at the high school level, or introducing occasional "inquiry projects" to enliven things a bit.

It is our conviction that there is no more relevant or exciting curriculum area than the social sciences. They deal, in fact, with the core of life for most students and adults. We feel that a curriculum can be built around them that will be relevant, exciting, and involving for the learner because it deals with some of the most important issues of his life. Such a curriculum will need to be more than a patchwork revision of traditional courses of study and methodologies. It will need to focus on the core of the social sciences as they relate to the lives of young people in the world of today.

THE MICHIGAN SOCIAL SCIENCE EDUCATION PROJECT

Beginning in 1962, a team of social psychologists, psychologists, and curriculum specialists at the University of Michigan began developing a framework for a social science curriculum for the elementary and secondary schools. An early step was to invite the collaboration of a wider group of social scientists in identifying some of the concepts and methodologies from their particular disciplines that were deemed to have high relevance for the school social studies curriculum. (Jung et al., 1966) Through a series of seminars held during the course of a year, one or more experts from a variety of the behavioral sciences was invited each week to share his thinking with the project staff about core concepts, the "cutting edge" areas of inquiry in the years ahead, and the crucial methodologies of data collection and analysis.

A remarkable congruence of judgment occurred around a considerable number of concepts. These core concepts include:

--Deviation and conformity--including concepts such as pluralism, respect for differences, creativity, and normative pressures.

--Identity and membership--including concepts such as individual

identity, self-evaluation, self esteem, status, role, institutional identity, multiple loyalty, interrelations between individual and the group.

--Conflict and conflict utilization--including concepts such as goal, approach-avoidance, win-lose, compromise, negotiation, use of force, escalation, and violence.

--Decision-making and action-taking--including concepts such as problem solving, resource identification, development and utilization of knowledge, communication and feedback, evaluation, and planning.

--Power and influence--including concepts such as dependence, independence, counter dependence, interdependence, intervention, and bases of power.

--Representation systems--including formal and informal consent, leadership and followership responsibilities and roles, apathy and participation, conflicts of interest and value, and multiple loyalties.

--Exchange systems--including interpersonal and macro-economic interchange, opportunity, choice, and marketing.

--Change--including concepts such as the Lewinian "force field" model of dynamic equilibria of forces; learning; and normative, planned, accidental, and developmental change.

--Value--including concepts such as choice processes and the feelings influencing value decisions, values as they affect internal needs and fears or as they serve as external restraints and facilitators, and morality.

--Multiple causation--including concepts such as those found in a model of behavior called the "circular process of interaction relationships."

--Life space--including concepts such as time, space, Lewinian "life space" with its internal and external components of the perceived environment, psychological impact of physical and physiological variables, and socio-psychological ecology.

--Rationality-emotionality--including concepts of affect and cognition and their interaction in behavior, repression, unconscious motivation, process, and task. (Jung et al., 1966)

Another whole set of ideas from the scientist-informants focuses on methods of inquiry and philosophy of science, including emphasis on empirical data and interpretation, science versus guess-work, methods of data collection, and strategies of analysis and inference. Some of these ideas are presented later in Figures 2 and 3 on pages 11 and 15.

Social Science Laboratory Units

A first application of these concepts was in a set of materials developed for the upper elementary grades, published by Science Research Associates. (Lippitt et al., 1969) This curriculum spans the fields of psychology, social psychology, micro-sociology, and the small group aspects of social anthropology. Paralleling recent revisions in the teaching of the physical sciences, the curriculum employs a laboratory approach to the scientific study of human behavior. Each of the seven units developed by this project uses the classroom as a laboratory where episodes of behavioral interaction ("specimens of behavior") are explored.

A number of inquiry projects designed to help a child understand significant social science concepts, to master the rudiments of social scientific methods, and to employ the scientific values of openness to inquiry, objectivity, curiosity, reliability, and validity are included in each unit. In addition to supporting a process of discovery in the laboratory, the units include rewrites of the findings of significant research by a variety of social scientists.

An introductory unit presents the domain of social science to the students and includes a series of activities focused on developing such methodological skills as observation, interviewing, questionnaire development, and data analysis. Six other units are designed to assist the child in an analysis of several key aspects of behavior. The units are entitled:

Unit I: Learning to Use Social Science
Unit II: Discovering Differences
Unit III: Friendly and Unfriendly Behavior
Unit IV: Being and Becoming
Unit V: Individuals and Groups
Unit VI: Deciding and Doing
Unit VII: Influencing Each Other

Subsequently, the Michigan Social Science Education project has taken further steps in conceptualizing a social science education curriculum and developing materials for other age levels. We are sharing our framework at

this time, even though it is still in a developmental stage, because we believe further progress toward our common goal of an improved curriculum can only result from such exchange and critical testing. Following a brief discussion of the core concepts underlying our approach, we will describe: (1) our conception of the inquiry process, which guides the flow of each unit of study; (2) criteria for the selection of content; and (3) guidelines for the enrichment and extension of content.

SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY: BRIDGE TO AN INTERDISCIPLINARY ORIENTATION

In a number of ways social psychology serves as a bridging or "linking" discipline in helping the learner-actor integrate the various disciplines--history, economics, political science, sociology, anthropology--with relevant confrontations in his own life space and with behavioral phenomena in the world around him.

The concepts of social psychology are themselves interdisciplinary in providing bridges between the study of the individual and the study of larger social systems such as organizations, communities, and nations. The ways in which persons and society interact, such as in war and peace, race relations, and intergenerational conflicts, are the focus of social-psychological analysis. Integration of understandings about the individual and the collectivity, between individuals and macrosystems, is the challenge.

Another perspective drawn from social psychology is the emphasis of Kurt Lewin on understanding how phenomena of the objective world of physical, biolgoical, and social facts (that impinge on the life spaces of people and become psychological facts) that influence the formation and channeling of values, attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors.

Perhaps most important in our analysis of the learning situation, to which the curriculum must relate, is the issue of relevance to the learner. Understanding and relating to where learners are and how they can become involved is a challenge for socio-psychological analysis. Linking learners to their curriculum environment is a core problem. In working on this challenge we have used the following socio-psychological generalizations in arriving at the conclusions reported in this paper:

--that, to become involved, the learner must see connections of the learning task to his own here-and-now life space;

--that much of the support for learning or inhibition of learning comes from the peer group, with its norms, expectations, taboos,

and status criteria;

--that confrontation of a concrete problem dilemma is the most involving and motivating start-up for most learning sequences;

--that success in learning efforts depends on acquisition of a repertoire of problem-solving tools and skills; and

--that "real" learning requires that we focus on the links within the learner between cognitive information, the values and attitudes relevant to that information, and skills of using information and actualizing the values through plans, commitments, and skilled actions.

This last point emphasizes one type of interdisciplinary integration which we believe is a core aspect of our curriculum and its use by learners. Too often social science analysis fails to bring together the analytic or causal-process understanding of a problem with the value or policy aspects and the action implications and action-taking aspects of that problem. Diagnosis, evaluation, planning, and action must be part of a meaningful problem-solving or inquiry process. The conceptual tools and methods of social psychology give us a framework for this interdisciplinary integration of the learning task, the content resources of the disciplines, and the psychological world of the learners.

THE DIMENSIONS OF A SOCIAL SCIENCE EDUCATION LEARNING ACTIVITY

What do we really mean by teaching through the inquiry method? How do the "process" or "methodological" aspects of learning relate to substantive learnings about the subject matter of the social sciences? In the next section of this paper we focus on selection of the substantive content of the social sciences to be studied. We present a framework for the selection and sequencing of curriculum content. But at this point we want to explore the dimensions and the sequence of the learning activity we have called the inquiry process.

In Figure 1, The Dimensions of Inquiry Learning, we have attempted to portray five major dimensions: (1) the phenomena (or objects) of inquiry activity; (2) the inquiry activities themselves; (3) the tools for carrying out inquiry activities; (4) the supports for the learning process; and (5) the outcomes of the inquiry effort. Let's review these five aspects briefly.

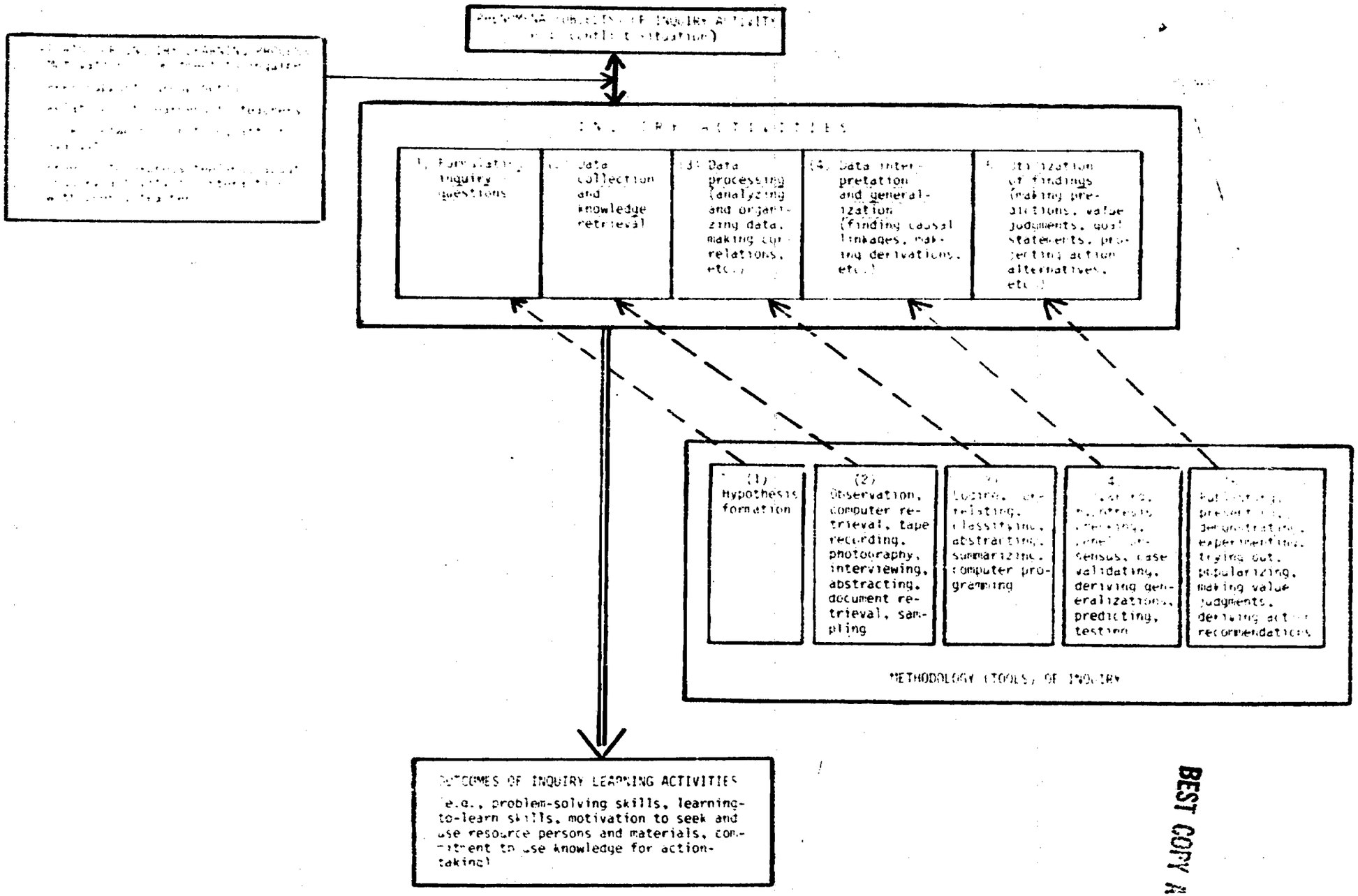


Figure 1. The Dimensions of Inquiry Learning

The Phenomena (Objects) of Inquiry Activity. These are simply the objects on which inquiry activity focuses, or with which inquiry activity interacts. These phenomena may include any event, situation, or object, though in the social studies, of course, the focus is on social phenomena, such as conflict situations, power and influence relationships, and decision-making.

Inquiry Activity. The phenomena of inquiry can be "met" or coped with at a variety of levels. For example, the phenomenon of conflict can be experienced as "raw data" being observed and experienced. But the same event can be used as a stimulus to formulate inquiry questions such as "Was the hostility caused by frustration?" Or the phenomenon can be dealt with by efforts to describe what happened or conceptualize the event; e.g., "That type of off-target scape-goating or misplacement must be triggered by a lot of repressed hostility." Or one may try to generalize from this sample of behavior, make predictions about future behavior, or formulate value judgments about the behavior. All these are different ways of focusing on the various aspects of inquiry effort. The box labeled "Inquiry Activities" designates five categories of these activities. The inquiry activities are shown interacting with the phenomena on which they focus to produce the learning outcomes.

The Methodology (Tools) of Inquiry. The key characteristic of the scientific method is that it uses tools and procedures that attempt to objectify the inquiry effort, to control the biases and distortion tendencies of the human investigators. Learning to use these methods, and to value them as relevant for frequent use in dealing with many confrontations, is one of the major objectives of the social science education project. "Methodological training" is a core objective. The box labeled "Methodology (Tools) of Inquiry" gives specific examples of scientific procedures for conducting the five different kinds of inquiry activities, as indicated by the dotted lines running to the "Inquiry Activities" boxes.

Supports for the Inquiry Learning Process. Any curriculum can be well selected, the materials well developed, and the concepts well presented, but still the learning opportunities may not be used by the potential learners because there is no motivation or support for a learning transaction. The box labeled "Supports for Inquiry Learning Process" presents some of these aspects of support for the inquiry process. There must be a perception of relevance, generating a commitment to put effort into learning. There needs

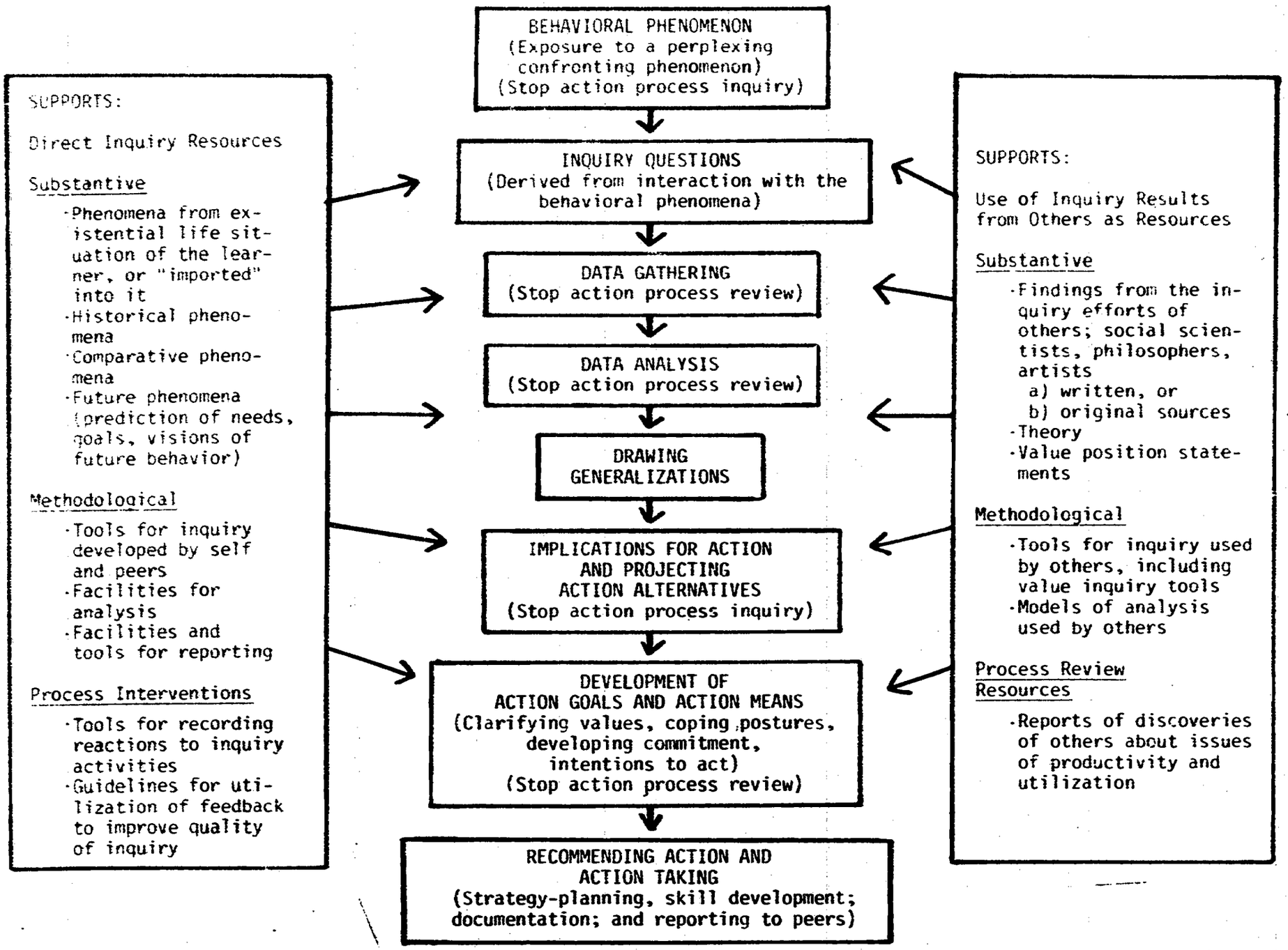
to be a supportive peer situation with norms that legitimize and even reward the role of active learner. There must be positive affective relations and respect feelings between teachers and learners. (The teachers may be older peer helpers, or a librarian, or classroom aide, or a more expert same-age peer). And the learning activities must support the learner in making connections between cognitive learnings, affective meanings, and evaluative derivations for self. They must lead to generalizing or applying the learnings to other contexts and to meaningful implications. Learnings that stay purely cognitive and external to the self are short-lived and nonfunctional; and a sequence of such experiences "turns off" the learner. He loses motivation to respond to future opportunities. Because the process of learning is fraught with frustrations, full commitment to inquiry learning must be supported by freedom of the participants to reflect on and cope with the process issues of "working at learning."

Outcomes of Inquiry Learning Activities. The interaction of these three aspects (substantive methodological, and process) with the objects or phenomena of inquiry and with each other results in certain types of learning outcomes that indicate the quality and the nature of learning about and using the inquiry process. Examples of such outcomes are illustrated in the bottom box. We can examine the quality of the causal inferences and generalizations about the phenomena being studied. We can assess the clarity and perspective represented by the value preferences explored and the judgments arrived at. We can examine the action orientations and plans for self which have been derived, the new inquiry questions stimulated, and the skills developed in using resources for learning. This would include skills in value inquiry and of taking the learner role as well as action skills relevant to the social phenomena being studied.

THE SEQUENCE OF A SOCIAL SCIENCE EDUCATION LEARNING ACTIVITY

If we examine concretely the interaction among the three major dimensions of the inquiry learning process, we can derive the design of a curriculum unit, the flow of the teacher's activities, the organization of the materials, and the sequence of learning activities for a student or a classroom group. Figure 2 presents such a schematic sequence.

Looking at the overall organization of Figure 2, we note that the



sequence of the inquiry process flows down the middle of the figure. The left- and right-hand boxes indicate that the inquiry process is supported by two classes of resources: the resources developed by others (scientists and other inquirers) and direct inquiry resources. The resources provided by others are illustrated on the right-hand side. On the left are the resources generated by, or a part of, the here-and-now inquiry situation of the learners.

The resources are of three types--substantive resources relative to the phenomenon being studied, methodological resources relative to the tools and procedures of the inquiry activities, and learning process resources related to the review and improvement of the learning or inquiry process itself.

Several aspects of the familiar sequence of social science inquiry should be noted as features of our model of a curriculum unit. The process starts with exposure to the "raw" material of some phenomenon in the here-and-now, direct experience of the students. This may need to be "imported" into the classroom by role-played episodes, tapes, films, or records, or it may be a direct field experience to observe, record, etc. This common direct experience is used to stimulate the formation of inquiry questions to guide systematic data collection and analysis.

A second feature is that included within each phase of the unit is opportunity for review of the quality of the work and the process of working. Typically this is accomplished by a "stop action" period during which a brief evaluation tool is used and the resulting data discussed in lab teams, with the teacher and assistants used as consultants in reviewing the assessment of productivity and the ideas derived for improvement of the work process. These data are, of course, part of the substance of the social sciences and these "stop-action" sessions are small inquiry projects themselves in which data are collected, evaluated, and utilized to change the next steps of action. Hence, this is a program of micro-action research applied to the improvement of the problem-solving activity.

A third feature of our inquiry model is that interpretation of findings is not the end of the process. Findings are used as a basis for value inquiry and action derivation. In other words, new inquiry questions are introduced--"What derivations can one make about alternatives for doing something about the phenomenon studied and the causal processes discovered?" and "What are the preferred alternatives and why?" At this point, it becomes relevant to retrieve new resource information--the values of the participants (students,

teachers) and the value orientations of other informants, e.g., philosophers, parents.

A fourth feature has to do with the variety of endings possible for an inquiry project as we conceive of it. These endings may include arriving at a feasible action plan and carrying through an experiment in action-taking, with evaluation of the process and consequences. This might be a project to change classroom procedures or to attempt to introduce an innovation in the school building. Another ending might be to derive recommendations for the action of someone else--e.g., the city council, the student government, the Congress, or the principal of the school. Still another ending might be to report findings and derivations as fully as possible to other lab teams involved in other projects, to get a critique and possibly to involve others in the action ideas. Or the ending might be an agreement that what each student does with the inquiry outcomes is a matter of individual motivation and belief. Predictive extrapolations into the future and designs for the future is another type of ending. In all cases the linkage between fact-finding and utilization is the focus and the relationship between causal inquiry and value inquiry is clarified.

Perhaps a few clarifications are also in order about the two sides of Figure 2. The right-hand side emphasizes that there is an important opportunity and responsibility to use the resources of others as inputs to improve and to check one's own inquiry efforts. Our own orientation is to start with the direct experience of the learners and then help them examine the findings and experiences of others in improving or checking their own data, interpretations, value judgments, and methods. The resources of others may be available as reprints, taped interviews, books, films, or expert informants.

The left-hand side of Figure 2 calls attention to the fact that the direct inquiry efforts of the learners are expected to include explorations into comparative use of other situations, either in the past or in other subcultures, as part of their own analysis efforts. This may include inquiries into their own past or perhaps into the experiences of their parents. Also, there is great excitement in the use of disciplined imagination to project into the future and to defend one's predictions.

As we have illustrated in this discussion, a total inquiry project typically includes many sub-inquiry designs, and a variety of such projects may be underway in any class group at a particular time. Lab groups of three

to seven seem to us, from our observations, to make excellent learning teams. All teams might, of course, be conducting the same inquiry, with later comparisons and pooling of results; or the teams might have a choice among several optional projects; or, at more advanced stages, they might have the opportunity to develop project proposals for critical review, revision, and approval.

CRITERIA FOR SELECTION OF CONTENT

Decisions about what problems, what concepts, what specific content should be included in the day-by-day sequence of learning activities need to be based on a variety of criteria. In an effort to illustrate the nature of these criteria, as well as the relationships among them, Figure 3, Conceptual Framework for the Social Science Curriculum, has been prepared. A specific lesson, or a particular inquiry project, is seen as one of the small blocks within the larger cube. Various criteria, or guides to the selection of these inquiry projects, are arranged around the cube. On the faces of the cube are shown the dimensions of time, space, and locus of inquiry which illustrate ways in which an inquiry project initiated with a focus on a phenomenon that is at the personal or small group level, in the present, and within the learners own culture can be enriched by extending the focus to other levels of system, other cultures, and into past or future.

Problem Urgency. One major criterion for selection is that the content be relevant to the student and to the society of which he is a part. More explicitly, this first criterion might be termed problem urgency. Urgency may be found in either personal or societal need. The most immediate evidence of urgency might be that the problem grows out of a current conflict or controversy. It is pressing to the point of creating disruption, dissent, and confrontation. Another category of urgency is found in unsatisfied needs--e.g., those arising from a student's lack of opportunity to influence decisions about his life in the school, or the society's ineffectiveness in dealing with such problems as poverty. A third category of urgency could be that the problem represents a value dilemma--e.g., conflict between the values held by youth and by adults, or the inconsistency of values as applied to different situations. Urgency from the social scientist's point of view might be reflected in the scientific inquiry priorities focused upon by researchers or in the goals for problem-solving set by applied social

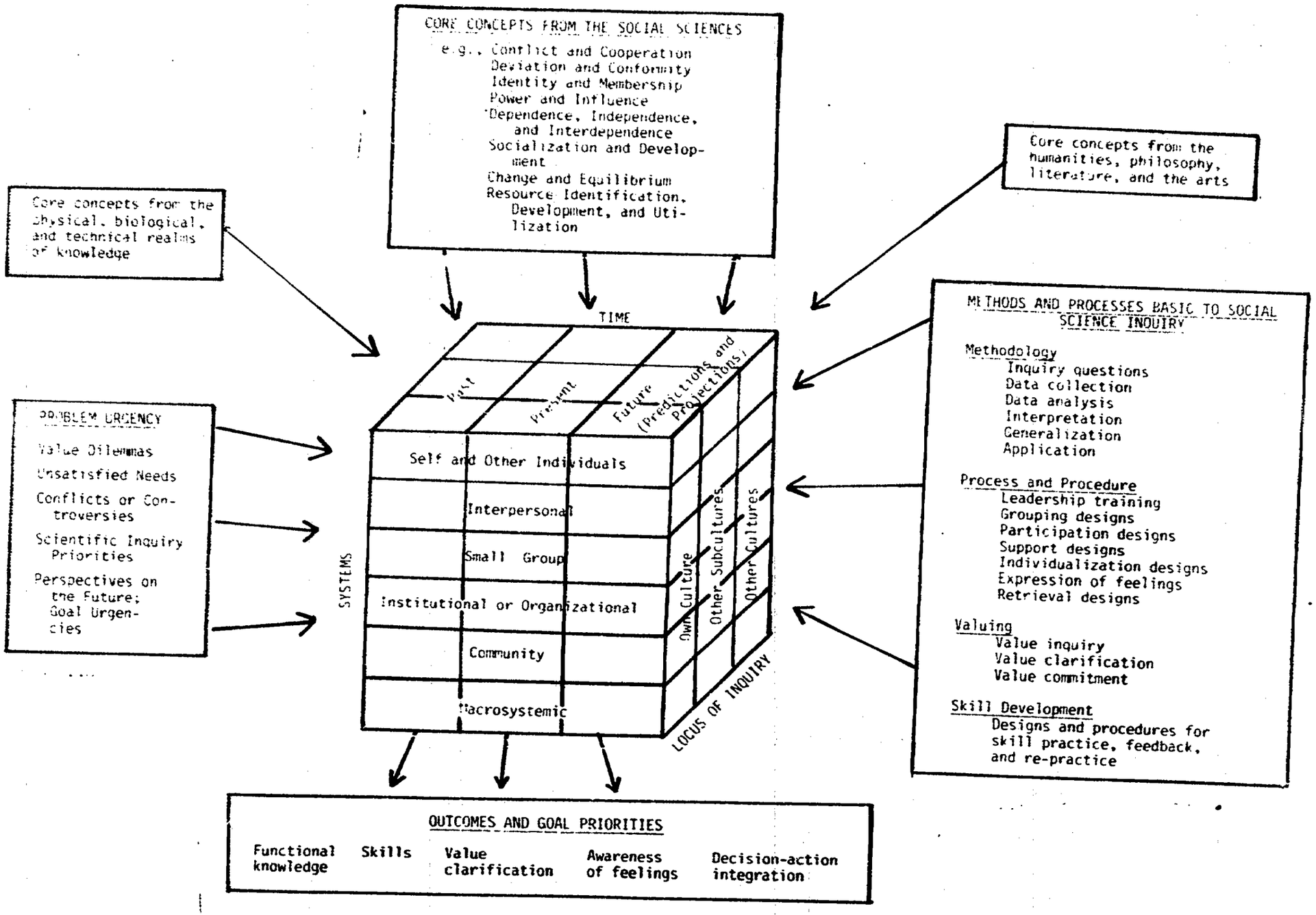


Figure 3. Conceptual Framework for a K-12 Social Science Curriculum

scientists.

Use of Core Concepts from the Social Sciences. The second criterion for content selection is that the problem has to do with some of the core concepts within the social sciences. In other words, the problem must have conceptual significance in social science theory. As was indicated previously, social psychology provides concepts and methods for linking integrated social science theory to the goals of teacher and learner. Some of these core, cross-discipline conceptual dimensions identified in our pilot analysis can be clustered under the headings of:

Conflict and cooperation
Identity and membership
Deviation and conformity
Power and influence
Dependence, independence, and interdependence
Socialization and development
Change and equilibrium
Resource identification, development, and utilization.

Using Core Concepts from Other Domains of Knowledge. Knowledge is not tightly compartmentalized. The search for data for answers to inquiry questions may lead not only to the social scientist, but to the artist, the philosopher, the biologist, or the physical scientist. Inquiry into problems of growing up leads not only to questions of age group relations, personal identity, and social skill development, but also to those of biological growth patterns and differences and of feelings and values about being young and old. Thus, there are also indicated in the upper left- and right-hand corners of the diagram the need to draw upon core concepts and resources from the physical, biological, and technical realms of knowledge; and from the humanities, literature, and the arts.

Methods and Processes Basic to Social Science Inquiry. Substantive concepts are not enough, however. Of equal importance are concepts and skills of social science inquiry (right side of the diagram). If the learner is to gain power in understanding and dealing with the human world about him, he will need to have some of the tools and skills of social scientists, the methodology of scientific inquiry. Learning activities should provide individual opportunities and personal support for raising focused inquiry questions, collecting data, analyzing and interpreting the data, and generalizing and

applying the findings.

In engaging in the inquiry process in the classroom, additional concepts having to do with group dynamics will be needed, e.g., concepts of leadership and participation, communication, support, affect, individualization. Also a somewhat different set of concepts and skills may be needed to support value inquiry, e.g., concepts of pluralism, of value clarification, of value commitment.

ENRICHMENT OR EXTENSION OF CONTENT

The initial inquiry problem, selected with full attention given to the criteria described above, will very likely deal with a current situation in the immediate life space of the student. Thus, it is likely to be found in the cube within the block of "present," "own culture," and "self" or "interpersonal" level of system. For example, a problem involving the concept of conflict and conflict utilization for a 14 year old might be, "How do my parents and I come to decisions about my life?" An initial behavior specimen might deal with how late he might be permitted to stay out at night.

Other illustrations of the problem as the students experience it would, of course, be brought in as the unit moves through the sequence of steps illustrated in Figure 2, The Flow of An Inquiry Project.

Within this process, however, or following the completion of the core inquiry, understanding of the problem can be enhanced by reaching out into additional projects dealing with other parts of the cube. For example, are there differences in the way decisions are reached between child and parents within sub-cultures that are a part of the child's community (perhaps a part of his own class)? Or how about in more distant cultures, such as in some located in India or Africa? (See right-hand face of cube dealing with "locus of inquiry.")

The dimension of time (vertical dimension of cube) offers another opportunity for enrichment. As Benne has said so well:

> The orientation of social education in our age of transition must begin with a future orientation . . . We must learn to guide our action by future-oriented plans based on relevant and dependable knowledge, upon projected visions of what is valuable and desirable . . . It is a misuse of history to seek a diagnosis of our contemporary situation in a study of its

> past; diagnosis can take place only in the present . . . but any future we conceive or invent is a selection and rendering of experiences shaped and influenced by past experiences as they operate now in and through our seeing, thinking and evaluating, so the study of the past can help us place ourselves and our culture in time perspective. (Benne, unpublished)

Probably each major area of inquiry could be enriched, however, if some opportunity were provided to examine the problem from the perspective of the future. Given what we know, what predictions can we make about the future? Are the problem situations and the various alternatives for dealing with them that we have examined likely to persist? Are our generalizations likely to hold over time? What changes may take place? What projections would we like to make, toward which we might eventually want to direct our change efforts?

Further broadening and extension of understanding can come by looking at the application to other levels of system of the generalizations gained from examining these specific situations. For instance, if conflict has been studied in the interpersonal or personal setting, one could go on to ask "What evidence is there of the operation of similar forces or concepts in other settings--the classroom, the school, the community, the economic system?" Depending on the interests, needs, and maturity of the learners and the importance within the overall scope and sequence of the curriculum, such extended inquiry projects could be elective or core, illustrative or in depth.

Outcomes. The cube shows, finally, that the result of these various combinations of inquiry projects can be identified as outcome or goal priorities--functional knowledge, skills, value clarification, awareness of feelings, and an integration of inquiry decision-making and action.

TOWARD A NEW PROGRAM IN SOCIAL SCIENCE EDUCATION

The major challenge posed, we think, by the ideas we have attempted to share in the preceding pages is the creation of a whole new learning design for social science education. It implies collaboration between the social scientist and the educator in relating significant social science concepts to the realities of the life space of young people. It implies collaboration among teachers, teachers of teachers, and curriculum developers in working through the difficult problems of interpreting to teachers the new

kinds of teaching skills involved and in giving them the skill practice needed to feel comfortable in conducting a laboratory within which genuine inquiry can take place. It implies a new kind of collaboration between curriculum developers and publishers--publishers who are willing to lead the way in challenging the old and assist in developing the new. And it implies new mechanisms for the sharing of creative practices and suggestions for revision, for this would be a dynamic curriculum constantly reshaped by the growth of social science knowledge and changes in human experience.

If young people are to find the school curriculum relevant, challenging, and growth-inducing in these years immediately ahead, the vital core of their school experience will be social science education. It is toward the creation of such a vital core that we are proposing this developmental framework and conception. And the larger community of parents and community leaders must be helped to understand, support, and participate in this new curriculum for the enrichment of learning and living.

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