

THREE NEW TOPICS SUGGESTED FOR ADDITION
TO THE SOCIAL STUDIES METHODS COURSE

by 500

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B. S., Kansas State University, 1967

A MASTER'S REPORT

submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree

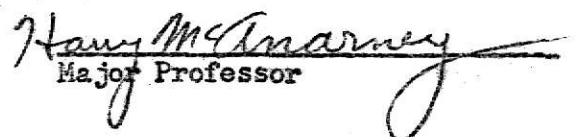
MASTER OF SCIENCE

College of Education

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

1969

Approved by:


Major Professor

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ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The author wishes to acknowledge the advice and assistance given
by Dr. Harry McAnarney in preparing this report.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM AND DEFINITIONS OF TERMS USED

In the midst of the "ferment" currently brewing in the field of Social Studies, there remains one front where seemingly little change has been made or activity noted. This front, teacher education, seems to be a real problem area in effecting change in the Social Studies. There are several new methods and topics of which students and instructors in methods courses ought to be aware.¹

THE PROBLEM

General Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this report is to discuss some of the newer techniques and materials being developed in the Social Studies. It is hoped that through the discussion and models presented teachers and teachers of teachers may become more familiar with three innovative methods of instruction--inquiry method, simulation, and case study.

Importance of the Report

A report on this topic might be worthy of note by teachers and administrators in the elementary school as well as by instructors of methods courses in Social Studies. The curricular pattern of the Social Studies is presently undergoing intensive study and modification. At one point it was estimated that more than forty projects were underway in education institutions throughout America. These projects were designed not only to explore

¹D. F. McElroy and R. K. Templeton, "The Social Studies Revolution: Implications for Teacher Education," Social Studies, 60:106, March, 1967.

and suggest improvements and innovations in the Social Studies curriculum, but also in the methodology used by the teacher.²

Such new techniques and methods as simulation games, inquiry, and case studies require a change in the preparation of the teachers who will use them. The undergraduates in teacher education programs need to be exposed to these new ideas and their methods and materials, as well as to the traditional topics of unit planning and current events. Teachers now engaged in the teaching of elementary school youngsters could profit by in-service training in these new techniques.³

DEFINITIONS OF TERMS USED

The following definitions are offered in order to give the reader some idea of the topics to be covered in the report. The terms defined will hopefully take on fuller meaning as they are discussed and exemplified in succeeding chapters.

Case Study

Students are given basic information on a certain problem or issue and are asked to draw conclusions.⁴

Simulation

Students are presented with a situation having the characteristics of

²W. D. Moreland, "New Methods in Teaching Social Studies," Education, 88:116, November, 1967; and J. E. Searles, "New Training for Social Studies Teachers," Pennsylvania School Journal, 114:272, February, 1966.

³J. Allen, "Assessing Recent Developments in Social Studies," Social Education, 31:103, February, 1967.

⁴Moreland, op. cit., p. 117.

an actual problem or issue and are given the opportunity to make decisions.⁵

Inquiry Method

Students are guided in formulating questions about the topic under study and in devising and implementing ways to answer these questions. Alternative answers are explored and evaluated, often directing the inquiry into related areas for further investigation.

⁵Ibid.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The various innovations in curriculum and methodology currently being explored in the area of Social Studies deserve consideration by those preparing the teachers who will be expected to use these techniques. These new directions and patterns that are evolving in the Social Studies today pose problems for institutions preparing teachers for the schools and pupils of the future.¹ Some colleges and universities have faced these problems with exciting and original approaches to social studies teaching. Unfortunately some institutions have not been sensitive to these changes in the Social Studies in today's classrooms.

A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

The earliest mention of programs in the Social Studies for elementary schools was found in an 1892 publication by the National Education Association. Further recommendations, though brief and general, were made by the NEA in 1895, by the American Historical Association's Committee of Seven in 1899 and 1908, and by the National Society for the Study of Education in its yearbooks for 1902 and 1903.

It was not until the early thirties that anything of much length was written in the field of elementary school social studies. At that time the American Historical Association's Commission on Social Studies in the Schools

¹Searles, loc. cit.

published its voluminous report. The advice and recommendations given were very general in nature. With the coming of the Depression, however, there emerged a focal topic on which the Social Studies could dwell for a time. This focus was social and economic problems. Later such curricular movements as intercultural education and the use of problem-solving techniques emerged.

Following World War II concern mounted for international education in the Social Studies. In the late forties the trend toward economic education appeared again, and with the fifties came a pull toward education for responsible citizenship.

The sixties brought tremendous affluence to most of the nation. This decade has become characterized as a time when man's most fundamental values have been challenged and restructured.² In 1962 and later years various grants, federal and private, were made to researchers in the Social Studies. The excitement and activity was so great that many projects overlapped. They competed with, rather than complemented, each other.³

The ideas initiated and the issues raised by these recent studies were only the beginning of a challenging new look at all phases of the social studies curriculum. As the various findings were consolidated, they seemed to point in the direction of a program extending from Kindergarten through Grade Twelve drawn from the several distinct, yet related, disciplines of the Social Sciences. The curricular developments seemed to have as their objectives the inculcation of the mode of inquiry, the use of content knowledge as a means rather than an end, and the formation and clarification of

²Allen, op. cit., pp. 99-100.

³W. W. Crowder, "Issues in the Social Studies," Education, 88:101, November, 1967.

attitudes and values. There was a growing emphasis placed on the learning of skills. Skills were to be developed, moreover, not through the expository method, but through new course materials, new audio-visual devices, and interesting new teaching strategies such as simulation and game theory. The aim was to develop habits of self-direction on the part of the students.⁴

In the words of one writer, this period in the history of the Social Studies has ushered in a Social Studies which is "more challenging, less static, more realistic, more future-oriented, and more differentiated."⁵

SYNOPSIS OF PRESENT TRENDS IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Several of the current innovations in the Social Studies were touched upon in the preceding section. These will be mentioned in this section, along with others presented by various authors in the Social Studies field. The extent to which some are trends, rather than innovations, was cause for debate by some authors. The researcher's purpose was not to pass judgement in this matter, but to report, as objectively as possible, the findings available.

In 1964 Harrison and Solomon were able to identify these trends, although they stressed the tentative nature of their findings.

- a. the development of sequential curriculums for grades K-12 such that a year's course would build on the skills and concepts introduced in previous years;
- b. elimination of much of the unnecessary repetition of content inherent in the traditional fifth, eighth, and eleventh grade American History sequence;

⁴Allen, op. cit., pp. 101-102.

⁵M. D. Rabozzi, "Social Studies in the Elementary School," Education, 88:105, November, 1967.

- c. area studies and study in-depth of selected topics;
- d. communicating to students the methods of inquiry of the social scientist;
- e. the greater use of readings, case studies, and primary sources;
- f. greater emphasis on developing skills of inductive thinking and critical analysis;
- g. greater emphasis on the affective as well as the cognitive outcomes of instruction.⁶

Dorothy Frasher cited these trends in an article published in 1965.

1. Priority is given to the establishment of a conceptual framework for social studies instruction, for a single course, a group of courses, or an entire program.
2. There is much more, and much more skillful, planning for the cumulative, sequential development of skills and generalizations from year to year and course to course.
3. There is movement away from broad surveys---often cyclically repeated, superficial, and incomplete---and toward more intensive and careful studies of a limited number of selected topics.
4. The traditional dominance of history, civics, and geography is being reduced, and materials and content from the other social sciences are moving into the secondary school curriculum.
5. Much more attention is being given to the possibility of developing a "world view", a "global framework" through social studies instruction.
6. More provisions are being made for the serious study of some of

⁶S. E. Harrison and R. J. Solomon, "Review of the Research in the Teaching of Social Studies: 1964," Social Education, 29:281, May, 1965.

society's unsolved problems.

7. There is some action and much more talk about teaching the methods of scholarship characteristic of the social sciences and encouraging the use of these methods by high school pupils.
8. The "multi-media" approach in the preparation and selection of learning materials is rapidly gaining ground.⁷

One researcher, when reviewing the various projects undertaken in Project Social Studies, found these generalizations to emerge.

1. learning by induction rather than memorization of pre-digested generalizations;
2. emphasis on the most significant parts of each social science discipline with an attempt to integrate them;
3. use of a multi-media approach including games, reading, films, filmstrips, tape recordings, transparencies, and other audio-visual aids;
4. increased emphasis on knowledge and methods from anthropology, sociology, and economics as an addition to the traditional group of history, geography, and political science.⁸

Bradley, Hunkins, and Moreland cited the problem-solving approach involving inductive thinking as an important new development.⁹ As Moreland

⁷D. M. Frasher, "What's Happening in the Social Studies," Curriculum Report (Curriculum Service Center/NASSP), 3:3-7, March, 1965.

⁸D. E. Wilson, "Curriculum Reform in History and the Social Studies, 1960-1965--A Survey of the Literature," (unpublished Master's report, Kansas State University, Manhattan, 1965), pp. 42-44.

⁹R. C. Bradley, "Suggestions for Improving the Social Studies Curriculum at the Elementary School Level," Social Studies, 88:116, November, 1967; F. P. Hunkins, "Skill Building in the Social Studies," Education, 88:123-4, November, 1967.

expressed it:

Traditionally social studies has been largely taught by the expository method--the teacher lectured, directed discussion, assigned reading. Emphasis was placed on acquiring a body of predetermined data. The pupil was a passive participant even though the teacher initiated activities designed to make the learning meaningful and interesting. This approach has been questioned, and a problem-solving approach is now advocated which requires the student to become actively involved in the process of learning. Under this method pupils use materials and data from the Social Sciences to help them answer questions, form generalizations, and explain the social world. Students, it is assumed, will benefit, not only from the product of their inquiry, but also from the process. Through development of these intellectual skills they would be in a better position to face the new problems of tomorrow.¹⁰

Although many authors noted a trend in establishing a Kindergarten through grade twelve sequence, most often the content to be included for each level was not specified. This was left to individual school districts. Moreover, since an inductive approach was advocated to determine basic fundamental ideas rather than emphasis on fact finding, content was regarded as a means rather than an end of social study.¹¹ As Moreland has put it, "the students determine the content according to what information they need to solve their problems."¹² This would necessitate greater flexibility and a wider range of materials than teachers have traditionally used. Two techniques, he reported, proven useful for developing and extending this inquiring method of teaching social studies were case study and simulation.¹³

¹⁰Moreland, op. cit., p. 116.

¹¹J. H. Littrell, "Current Practices and Trends in the Elementary and Secondary Curricula," (Kansas State University, 1966). (Mimeographed.)

¹²Moreland, op. cit., p. 117.

¹³Ibid.

REPORT OF A SURVEY

In a questionnaire study by McAulay, instructors in elementary education at 100 institutions preparing teachers for the elementary schools were asked to list the learnings and projects they felt were essential to prepare their students to teach Social Studies at the elementary level. Sixty-seven institutions considered the purposes of the Social Studies were a must; unit structure was mentioned by 64; the objectives of the Social Studies by 63; geography skills by 56; audio-visual aids pertinent to the Social Studies by 55; the use of textbooks by 54; how to teach current events by 54; the collection and use of free and inexpensive materials by 51; review of courses of study which the student might use by 51; how to handle controversial issues by 44; the proper use of geography materials by 44; the correct use of trade books by 39; civic education by 34; the historical method by 31; economics education by 30; anthropological concepts by 30; and international education by 25.

Five institutions stressed the evaluation of teacher-pupil progress, and three emphasized the inquiry method in the Social Studies. The following topics were thought essential to the preparation of young teachers by only one institution: how to teach world citizenship, Social Studies for the culturally deprived, team teaching trends in the Social Studies, role playing, sociometrics, pertinent issues in the Social Studies, use of television in the Social Studies, modern research and experimentation in the Social Studies.

McAulay concluded that the content of most social studies methods courses, as indicated from his study, seemed to be preparing the young teacher for the "status quo" rather than for the new programs and materials.

An examination was also made of the various experiences offered in the

social studies methods courses. Of the 100 institutions surveyed, 66 required the student to develop a social studies unit; 58 required the construction of social studies lesson plans; 52 planned for students to observe social studies lessons in the classroom; 47 required students to evaluate social studies textbooks; 45 gave experiences in the preparation of social studies bulletin boards; 43 had students teach a social studies lesson in the methods course; 40 incorporated panel discussions of current events; 16 organized visitations to community social agencies; 16 provided experience in interviewing foreign visitors; 13 incorporated field experiences into their social studies methods courses; 12 had the students participate in community events; 12 had students observe and record a child's social development; 8 involved the students in community or international projects; and two required their students to conduct opinion polls. The following projects or activities were each reported by one institution: the making of a picture file and a file of free and inexpensive materials; participation in a television program; planning a social studies program for the first week or month of school; hearing guest speakers invited from anthropology, sociology, history, economics, political science, and geography; conducting evaluations of particular social studies programs; carrying out role playing; using films; and initiating experimentation in the Social Studies. McAulay observed that there seemed to be little effort to have students practice the method of inquiry or simulation in the social studies methods course. He deplored the lack of experimentation and research in this area of the curriculum.¹⁴

¹⁴J. D. McAulay, "The Preparation of Elementary Teachers in the Social Studies," Journal of Teacher Education, 17:90-91, Spring, 1966.

From his evidence McAulay concluded:

the social studies preparation of elementary teachers would seem to indicate this area of the curriculum has little ferment, depth, or modernization. If today's elementary teacher is to prepare the child adequately for a rapidly changing social world, he himself must receive a deeper, more adequate background in the pertinent social studies; instructors in the social studies methods courses must be highly skilled and professionally prepared; and the content of the course must contain those understandings, skills, and experiences which are more active and pertinent to modern techniques, methods, and content of the elementary social studies program. The bottleneck preventing improvement of the social studies may well be in teacher preparation.¹⁵

STATEMENTS OF OTHER WRITERS

Writers other than McAulay have manifested concern over the seeming insensitivity of teacher education institutions to the current trends in the Social Studies. Beyer, in an article appearing in the periodical Social Studies, cited several of the innovations and new teaching techniques being studied in various social studies projects across the country. He then commented that the instructors preparing our future social studies teachers did not seem aware of these trends and the implications they might hold for themselves, their students, and society. He felt drastic changes in the teacher preparation programs of many colleges and universities were needed if teachers were to be adequately prepared to teach the new Social Studies. Beyer recommended that social studies educators consult with local school districts about what their teachers ought to be doing and then reappraise their own programs in the light of the requirements of the changing social studies curriculum in order to develop appropriate pre-service experiences.¹⁶

¹⁵Ibid., p. 92.

¹⁶B. K. Beyer, "Mandate for Change - Curriculum Innovation and Teacher Preparation in Social Studies," Social Studies, 58:202, October, 1967.

It would seem that the educators of teachers should feel a strong obligation to follow Beyer's recommendations. The teacher of students in the profession of education is, in a sense, certifying his pupils to society. He must take the responsibility of saying that a designated student is qualified to practice the profession for which he has been prepared. In addition, the professional school instructor often serves as a model of the profession to his students. It is important, then, for a professor in education to be continually reading in the professional literature, evaluating his teaching, and revising his courses in response to the new findings of research.¹⁷

SUMMARY

In view of the fact that techniques such as inquiry method, simulation, and case study are, or are becoming trends in the teaching of the social studies at the elementary level, and whereas methods courses in Elementary Social Studies have moved slowly in responding to these innovations, the author has compiled and presented much that has been published about these three techniques. It is hoped that through becoming familiar with these innovations, instructors in Social Studies methods courses, as well as elementary school teachers, will incorporate something of them into their teaching. Indeed, the "revolution" in the Social Studies that is advocated by many leaders in the field cannot succeed unless teacher education programs play the role of "chief revolutionary."¹⁸

¹⁷E. Schmidt, "The Undergraduate Professional School Professor," Improving College and University Teaching, 16:36, Winter, 1968.

¹⁸McElroy and Templeton, loc. cit.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND MATERIALS

THE RESEARCH DESIGN

This was a survey of the literature about the teaching techniques known as inquiry, simulation and case study drawn from materials in periodicals and books. In addition the author collected or developed several examples of each of these techniques.

SOURCES AND KINDS OF DATA NEEDED

Sources of data were materials that the researcher could secure in libraries, in bookstores, or through the mail in the time available.

These types of data were needed: (1) reports on recent trends and reforms in elementary school social studies; (2) data on current practices in social studies methods courses; (3) discussions and samples of simulation devices, case studies, and inquiry techniques; and (4) data on recommended topics at various levels of the elementary social studies curriculum to aid in preparing examples of the various techniques.

PROCEDURES

After collection of the data, it was necessary to synthesize the material to (1) relate how much curriculum reform and how many projects are underway at the present in the social studies; (2) show that current social studies methods courses for undergraduates in teacher education generally make little mention of some of the newer topics in the social studies field;

and (3) develop understanding of three of these innovations through explanation and example.

CHAPTER IV

INQUIRY METHOD

INTRODUCTION

Inquiry has been said to be the "search for the solution of a problem through an exploration and evaluation of alternatives."¹ Implied is the consideration of consequences, the testing of alternatives, and the formulation of tentative conclusions on the basis of evaluation. The student is encouraged to take a more active role in the educative process. Rather than being predominantly a listener and respondent to the teacher's questions, he is asked to raise the questions and to participate in formulating and evaluating answers to these questions.² The inquiry approach is similar to "just plain good teaching" except that in inquiry the students organize and apply data as well as accumulate it. "After evaluating factual material the children form generalizations and are encouraged to formulate tentative conclusions to verify their hypotheses."³

As early as 1916 John Dewey led a protest against curricula based on the teaching of specific facts and generalizations. He maintained that true education was more than the transmission of an accumulated body of knowledge. It should also assist the development of certain natural tendencies in the child, one of which he identified as the tendency to inquire, that is, to

¹v. R. Rogers, "How to Use Inquiry," Instructor, 78:94, March, 1969.

²0. A. Hagan and S. T. Stansberry, "Why Inquiry," Social Education, 33:534, May, 1969.

³B. Kravitz and D. J. Soroka, "Inquiry in the Middle Grades," Social Education, 33:540, May, 1969.

want to know and attempt to find out.⁴ Dewey, and others after him, believed such inquiry, together with learning how to search effectively for answers to the questions raised, was more important than learning particular information. The development of the skills of inquiry and procedures for seeking answers could be useful to the student in any situation that might confront him.⁵

Numerous other authorities in the field of social studies have advocated this investigation-oriented approach for fostering self-direction, independence, and a positive desire to learn in the students. They also felt that it encouraged the higher thinking operations, such as comparing, summarizing, and interpreting, and provided for greater retention and transfer of learning.⁶

The teacher is often said to be the key to the development of a spirit of inquiry among her pupils. She must regard inquiry as a desirable and useful teaching strategy and be willing to let pupils take the time to find out for themselves. She must usually be the one to secure a large portion of the many books, maps, globes, artifacts, and audio-visual aids necessary for inquiry to proceed. This is true especially for young children and in the initial steps of inquiring.⁷

In addition the teacher must be skilled in asking questions and in

⁴J. Dewey, Democracy and Education (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1916), p. 96.

⁵F. P. Hunkins, "Skill Building in the Social Studies," Education, 88:124, November, 1967; H. M. Clements, W. R. Fielder, B. R. Tabachnick, Social Study: Inquiry in Elementary Classrooms (New York: Bobb-Merrill Company, Inc., 1966), pp. 19-21.

⁶Hagan and Stansberry, op. cit., p. 537.

⁷O. A. Rogers, Jr. and I. L. Genovese, "Inquiry in the Primary Grades: A Means to a Beginning," Social Education, 33:539, May, 1969.

coaxing into the open questions that catch the imagination of her class. Some of the questions may suggest appeal to an authority for the answer, but the more powerful ones will be those that entice students to develop answers on their own authority.⁸

There is a place in inquiry for the information question such as: In what parts of the world did civilized man first appear? The important thing for the teacher to know is when to move on to the next level of questioning which asks for interpretation, for example, Why did civilization first appear here instead of other parts of the world? Finally she must realize when to go to the highest level of questioning which requires application of the information and includes questions of this sort: What might happen if . . .? Effective transition from one level to the next requires the teacher to be well prepared in the content of the topic under study and to be knowledgeable of the thinking and learning processes through which the pupils are proceeding.⁹

USING INQUIRY METHOD WITH PRIMARY GRADE STUDENTS

Traditionally the primary grade social studies program has dealt with things "here" and "now" more than things "there" and "then". Children at this age have a questing and curious spirit which the teacher can help maintain through the use of the process of inquiry. Rather than telling the children about social living in his family, city, and world, the teacher guides them in discovering, investigating, and evaluating for themselves.

⁸Clements, Fielder, and Tabachnick, op. cit., pp. 94-97.

⁹D. J. Skeel and J. G. Decaroli, "The Role of the Teacher in an Inquiry-Centered Classroom," Social Education, 33:549, May, 1969.

Children, even at this young age, can question, formulate tentative answers, test these answers, and draw conclusions on the basis of this testing.¹⁰

Many of the usual topics studied in the primary grades are capable of being dealt with using the inquiry method. The following illustration may give some idea of how inquiry may be initiated utilizing a typical primary grade topic.

Stores in the Community

The unit might begin by comments made on various articles of apparel newly purchased for school; it might continue on to other less obvious purchases such as new books, paper supplies, play equipment, and so on. With the help of pictures, the many things families buy, for example, furniture, food, toys, might be considered. If questions arise they should be recorded, but if none are ventured the teacher may have to start a series of them. Some questions might be "How are families able to buy all the things they need?", "Where do they go to purchase the various items?", "Why does Susie's mother go to . . . to buy groceries while Tom's mother goes to . . .?", "Why do we need so many different kinds of stores to sell food?". The directions which the questions might take are numerous. A chart story might be made recording the discussion and listing some things for which the class would like to discover answers. The next episode of inquiry would consider how they might find answers to some of their questions. Some suggestions might include looking in books, asking parents, going to the store and talking to the storekeeper, and observing people as they make purchases in the stores.

¹⁰Rogers and Genovese, op. cit., p. 538.

As the initial questions are resolved, they may suggest further queries, such as "Why do some stores sell only one thing and other stores many things", "Why does the man give money to Mommy when she signs that little paper (a check)?" The teacher must be willing to be flexible as the questions may be quite diverse.¹¹

Inquiry may start as a result of some local happening or event in the news. A fire in the community or one reported in the news media might initiate such questions as "Where did all the firemen come from?", "What do they do when they aren't putting out fires?", "Is it hard to drive a fire truck?", "How can I get to be a fireman?", "Did we always have firemen?".

Inquiry often starts with the discovering of a problem, one that is within the children's experience, but which does not have an obvious solution. The location of a new playground can be proposed.

The teacher asks: "Where should this new playground be located so that it can be used by as many children as possible? Is it possible to locate the playground so children in all parts of town can walk to it? Is it important that the playground be located so that all children can walk to it?" Through the use of such questions the problem and hypotheses for its solution can be formulated by the pupils. As data are collected to test the hypotheses, maps will be needed along with their identifying symbols and related concepts. The original investigation of where to locate the new playground can be the foundation for a study of the criteria that separate private from community sites. The pupil discovers his community, and, as he discovers, finding the proper questions to ask becomes as important as giving tentative answers to them.¹²

A true report of how a teacher turned an unfortunate spontaneous incident into a profitable learning situation utilizing the inquiry method is

¹¹This is a hypothetical episode that supposes what might happen. For an account of what did happen when one second grade tackled a very similar problem the reader is referred to Social Study: Inquiry in Elementary Classrooms by Clements, Fielder and Tabachnick, pages 158 to 161.

¹²Rogers and Genovese, loc. cit.

related below.

During recess Miss Newbury watched and listened as some of her second graders played at chasing and shooting a bunch of "dirty greasers." As the breathless youngsters settled into their seats after recess, Miss Newbury decided to get at the background of what she had seen and heard. Why were some people called "dirty greasers"? . . . Oh, because they get greasy food. They're bandits, and they live in Mexico, and they steal horses and shoot people. They'll cheat you, and you can't trust them. The best thing to do is to shoot 'em . . . Well, Miss Newbury had gotten what she asked for, and it didn't sit very well.

When the outpour had died down, she moved in again with a quiet, half-to-herself comment . . . This is all very strange. I have an aunt who lives in Mexico . . . A gasp, a whistle, a skeptical snort, and then: You do? I'll bet she has a whole stack of guns. How many Mexicans has she killed? Does she have a big ranch? Has she seen any rustlers? Is it safe there? . . . Yes, it's just as safe as it is here. She doesn't live on a ranch. Her husband is an engineer. They live in very much the same way as we do. I've visited them in Mexico . . . You have? . . . Eyes and mouths wide open now, and Miss Newbury has undivided attention.

Where do we go from here? This was the thought that momentarily troubled Miss Newbury . . . Perhaps you would like to find out some more things about Mexico. Perhaps you would like to write my aunt . . . Couldn't we visit her? . . . Yes, we could pretend. But we couldn't actually visit because it's too far . . . As far as Rich's (a large store in Atlanta)? . . . Laughter from the group and a voice: Lots farther, silly, a hundred times, a million times, a million, million times . . . No, not that far, Tommy, but it would take your daddy several days to drive there in his new car. Now, what are some of the things you would like to know about people who live in Mexico? . . .

As fast as the questions came, the teacher listed them on the blackboard:

1. What do Mexican people look like?
2. How do they talk?
3. What do they eat?
4. How do they dress?
5. Do they fly kites?
6. What do they do in school?
7. How do they get places?
8. What kinds of work do they do?
9. What kinds of stores do they have?
10. How do they play? What do they play?
11. What are their towns like?
12. How can we be friends?
13. Do they go to Sunday school and church?
14. What can we do to help each other?

Miss Newbury's next question was not so productive . . . How might we discover some of this information by ourselves? . . . Five ideas came forth.

1. "Play like" we take a trip to Mexico.
2. Write letters to people in Mexico.
3. Read stories about Mexican children.
4. Look at pictures of Mexican life.
5. Enjoy seeing things that came from Mexico.

The children were still eager, even though the entire process had taken three times as long as those activities usually engaged in by the group. But Miss Newbury wanted both to maintain this enthusiasm and to take stock of the series of events that had occurred in such rapid succession. That afternoon and evening she did some thinking and some planning. She reviewed in her mind her over-all purposes and wrote the following for the proposed study of Mexico:

1. To help the children begin to build a broader conception of the world.
2. To help straighten out the children's misconceptions about the Mexicans.
3. To help them discover the many ways in which Mexican children are like themselves.
4. To help the boys and girls find answers to their questions, through their reading and other experiences.
5. To help them develop the ability to plan and select and to attack new activities in a spirit of research.
6. To lay a foundation for further study and research in which they will find rich experiences.

She knew that the proposed activity would fail unless materials suitable for the children were available. Much of this would be brought forth by the children themselves, but some things were needed immediately. Her research brought forth authentic Mexican objects as well as books and pamphlets.

Books for Children--Pancho (Hader), Manuela's Birthday (Bannon), Pepe and the Parrot (Credle), Pablo's Pipe (Eliot), Pancho and His Burro (Gay).

Filmstrip--Children of Mexico (Encyclopedia Britannica).

Records--"Let's Fly to Mexico" and several recordings of Mexican music.

Other Printed Material--Travel posters and guides, maps, globe, National Geographic magazines, pictures, newspapers, UN and UNESCO materials.

Exhibits--Wool rug, pottery, woven mats and baskets, ancient Aztec money, modern money, straw toys, school books, stamps, picture cards, silver jewelry, Mexican flag.¹³

EXAMPLES OF THE USE OF INQUIRY METHOD

IN THE INTERMEDIATE GRADES

¹³Clements, Fielder, and Tabachnick, op. cit., pp. 184-186.

Primary source materials can be used to good advantage in an historical unit featuring the principles of inquiry teaching. Instead of a text book telling them how it was then, they read about the event or institution as one who was there experienced it.

United States history comes alive for fifth-grade pupils as they read the following account of a Massachusetts worker's childhood:

When I began work as a boy in the mill, I worked 15 hours a day. I used to go in at a quarter past four in the morning and work till quarter to eight at night, having thirty minutes for breakfast and the same for dinner, drinking tea after ringing out at night. But I took breakfast and dinner in the mill as the time was too short to go home, so that I was sixteen hours in the mill. This I did for eleven years, 1837-48.

After the reading the teacher poses questions to help the pupils interpret what life was like for some children in this country during the 1830's and 1840's. The pupils can infer why it was necessary for this boy to work such long hours, and they compare their daily schedule with his. This activity will prepare them for a study of the child-labor movement that emerged about a generation later.¹⁴

Reading source materials or accounts that profess differing viewpoints can aid in developing the critical thinking so important to the inquiring student. The following two passages require an evaluation of the ideas and viewpoints of the authors. The first selection is a recollection by Nellie Thomas of her grandfather's plantation in the South:

Grandfather's discipline with his slaves was mild, but exceedingly firm. There was no rebellion or even an undercurrent of dissatisfaction against his rule. They all obeyed him implicitly. I think the secret of his success and his hold on his employees was the absolute system and order that marked the plantation work Amid such conditions--conditions that were right--the slaves were happy and cheerful and worked willingly and enthusiastically.¹⁵

A different opinion of slavery is expressed by Frederick Douglass in the

¹⁴Kravitz and Soroka, op. cit., p. 541.

¹⁵H. T. Commager and Allan Nevins, The Heritage of America (Boston: Little Brown, 1939), pp. 454-456.

following excerpts from a letter to his former master to explain why he had run away:

You are a man, and so am I . . . I am not by nature bound to you, or you to me . . . In leaving you, I took nothing but what belonged to me, and in no way lessened your means for obtaining an honest living . . . I therefore see no wrong in [leaving] . . . It is true, I went off secretly, but that was more your fault than mine . . .

At one time a man actually [accused me of] being a runaway . . . I was greatly afraid he might . . . get me again into slavery, a condition I then dreaded more than death . . . I remember the chain . . . the whip . . . the [chance] of being torn away from wife and children, and sold like a beast in the market . . . ¹⁶

The teacher might then ask: "What are the differences in the two statements? Why do the authors have opposing viewpoints on slavery? How do you think you would feel about slavery as the child of a slave owner, and as the child of a slave? Who is right?" The last question should lead the children to further study in order to deepen their understanding of the difficult and complex problems the American people in that era attempted to resolve. As the pupils continue their study, they will synthesize the information they acquire to arrive at conclusions.¹⁷

A teacher may also use artifacts or objects to stimulate the curiosity of children and to start them thinking in divergent directions as they try to resolve apparent contradictions or to guess about, and to justify guesses about, things about which they know little.

Mr. Mansfield walked into his classroom one morning wearing a Mexican serape which he placed on a back table for the class to examine. When they did, and asked him about it, he looked up and remarked a bit sternly, "Yes,

¹⁶J. McClellan et al., Teacher's Manual and Key: Your Country's History (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1966), pp. 125-6.

¹⁷Kravitz and Soroka, op. cit., pp. 541-2.

that's a pretty interesting thing. Please don't handle it though, it's quite valuable. Let's go on with what we are doing." The next day, the children found a Mexican basket and some beautiful silver jewelry on the table with the serape. When they asked about it, he said, "They are pretty, aren't they? You may look at them, but please remember not to touch them. Now let's get on with reading." On the following day an ornate Mexican saddle stood on the table beside the serape, basket, and jewelry. The children were excited. One boy cocked his head, looked at Mr. Mansfield and asked, "Mr. Mansfield, are we going to study about another country or something?" Mr. Mansfield grinned and inquiry began.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

The foregoing episodes have largely described how to initiate inquiry. These beginning activities should pique children's interest. They can also reveal the quality or depth of understanding which the children bring to a study and lead students and teachers to sketch loosely the range, significance, and possibilities of a problem. The beginning steps of inquiry can stimulate thinking about the various ways to organize for study and to look at the problem. Finally the beginning experiences should create an appropriate emotional climate in the classroom.¹⁸ The initiating activities described in the section about the primary grades could, with a few modifications, be used in the intermediate grades and vice versa.

The inquiry may be moved along from its initial stage by implementing the various suggestions the children have made about how to find the answers

¹⁸Clements, Fielder, and Tabachnick, op. cit., pp. 187-189.

to their questions. The important part of inquiry, which chiefly distinguishes it from more traditional methods of learning, interpreting the facts discovered and forming generalizations from this organized data, must not be overlooked. Finally, students should be given opportunities to apply the principles they have developed and the facts they have amassed to novel situations.¹⁹ All this should take place in a social-emotional climate which permits freedom of expression and exploration.

Children are generally quite enthusiastic about the use of inquiry. Here are some comments obtained by workers in the Tri-University Project in Elementary Education. The comments were made by sixth-graders who were involved in an inquiry-oriented unit in social studies.

It gets kinda boring to just sit and listen to someone who is always talking. It's kinda fun to make decisions for yourself and think about it instead of having someone tell you all the time.

I think you learn more than the book gives you. You work in the book and, well, you mostly just forget it. If you do it yourself, you are more interested and you remember it longer.

There is teaching where the teacher tells you what to do, and one where the teacher just talks and talks, and then there's the kind where we help decide what to do. That's what we are doing in social studies, and it's really fun.

We get a lot of new ideas from working in groups. I learn more than reading a book. When I read a book, I can be thinking about something else--here I have to be thinking about it all the time.

Yes we have a lot of disagreements--like sometimes we make suggestions when we discuss something and sometimes we have little arguments, but we turn out all right.

You need to be able to look for lots of references and find out what they say. You can't just look at one book and say that's what it is,

¹⁹A. L. Nelson and L. R. Simmons, "Using Learning Resources for Inquiry," Social Education, 33:543-6, May, 1969.

because I have seen lots of books that have different stories but are based on the same thing.²⁰

In conclusion, a few thoughts are presented on the teaching of teachers to use the inquiry method. An old cliché "Teachers teach as they have been taught" is usually true, and often unfortunately so, for few elementary teachers have experienced learning through inductive, investigation-oriented methods. One social studies methods course may not be able to greatly change the teaching behavior of students who have encountered years of expository training, but it would be a start and a logical place to provide a working model of inquiry teaching.²¹

²⁰Hagan and Stansberry, op. cit., pp. 534-37.

²¹McElroy and Templeton, op. cit., pp. 106-7.

CHAPTER V

CASE STUDY

INTRODUCTION

The use of case studies in social science education is often similar to and concurrent with the use of the inquiry approach. There is no single method, however, that can rightfully be called "the" case study method, as there are several styles and/or uses of case studies. There are some general characteristics whereby case studies may be defined. They are usually investigations of single institutions, decisions, situations, or individuals. Their object is to give detailed information about a relatively narrow topic, for example, the growth of a specific corporation or the living conditions of a Negro family.¹ "Although case studies focus extensively on discrete instances, rather than on sweeping sets of events, the implicit assumption is that examination of a limited incident will yield conclusions that may be validly applied to a more general class of such incidents."² The Harvard Social Studies Project was based on this assumption. Workers in this project collected and developed several different types of case studies to be used with various units at the secondary level. Following are examples of some case studies which might be appropriate and usable in elementary school social studies. The various categories are not mutually exclusive. A given case study might be placed correctly under several of the styles reported here.

¹F. M. Newman and D. W. Oliver, "Case Study Approach in Social Studies," Social Education, 31:108, February, 1967.

²Ibid.

EXAMPLES OF SEVERAL STYLES OF CASE STUDIES

The Story

This is a type of case study written much like a novel. It has dialogue, action, tells an episode, has characters and a plot. It may be based on authentic events or be largely fictitious. It is often an effective way to get students emotionally involved in a situation.³

The mules strained forward strongly, hoofs stomping, harness jingling. The iron blade of the plow sang joyously as it ripped up the moist, black Kansas earth with a soft, crunching sound, turning it over in long, smooth, root-veined rectangles.

Leather lines tied together over left shoulder and under his right arm, Jeff trudged along behind the plow, watching the fresh dirt cascade off the blade and remembering.

Remembering the terrible Kansas drouth of the year before [1860] when it hadn't rained for sixteen long months. The ground had broken open in great cracks, springs and wells went dry, and no green plant would grow except the curly buffalo grass which never failed. That drouth had been hard on everybody.

Jeff clutched the wooden plow handles and thought about it. He recalled how starved he had been for wheat bread, and how his longing for it grew so acute that on Sundays he found excuse to visit neighbor after neighbor in hopes of being invited to share a pan of hot biscuits, only to discover that, they too, took their corn bread three times a day.

A drop of perspiration trickled down his tan, dusty face. It was a pleasant face with a wide, generous mouth, a deep dimple in the chin, and quick brown eyes that crinkled with good humor. The sweat droplets ran uncomfortably into the corner of his mouth, tasting salty and warm.

But now the drouth was broken. After plenty of snow and rain, the new land was blooming again. Even his mother was learning to accept Kansas. Edith Bussey had lived all her life in Kentucky, with its gently rolling hills, its seas of bluegrass, its stone fences festooned with honeysuckle, and its stately homes with their tall white columns towering into the drowsy air. No wonder she found the new Kansas country hard to like.

She had called Kansas an erratic land. Jeff remembered she had said

³Ibid., p. 109.

it was like a child, happy and laughing one minute, hateful and contrary the next. A land famous for its cyclones, blizzards, grasshoppers, mortgages, and its violently opposed political cliques.⁴

[The story continues to tell about Jeff's family and their life in the new state. It describes the political feelings about slavery in Kansas at that time and some incidents involving Jeff and his family. It reveals Jeff's desire to enlist in the Union calvary should war come and ends with Jeff being summoned to the house in somewhat of an emergency.]

The Vignette

The vignette is written in the same style as the story, but is usually a short excerpt or slice of experience. It has no completed plot.⁵

Munuswamy the schoolmaster drew his big round gold watch out of his pocket, held it at arm's length, and tilted his head back, so that he could look at the dial through the lower half of his glasses. In another two minutes it would be four o'clock. Munuswamy nodded, pleased. After so many years he scarcely needed the watch to tell him that it was time for school to end.

He put the watch away and looked around the room, this time peering through the top part of his glasses. The thirty or more boys of varying sizes sitting cross-legged on the floor were all apparently busy with their studies. Surely the noise was enough, as they recited their lessons aloud, each trying to talk louder than his neighbor so that he could hear himself speak. But wait there was one silent figure, back in the corner, sitting hunched over something spread on the floor in front of him. Raman, the woodcutter's son--reading, as usual, and not his lesson, either! Munuswamy . . . rapped on the desk with the pointing-stick that was never out of his hand. The noise in the room stopped . . . Everyone, including Raman, sat up straight eyes on the schoolmaster. Munuswamy waited a full silent moment. Then he announced carefully, precisely: "School is dismissed" . . .

"Raman, wait a moment." Munuswamy spoke as the woodcutter's son, last in line, reached the door . . . "What is it today? Fables? Legends? Poetry?" the schoolmaster demanded.

Raman grinned shamefacedly and ducked his head. "Stories, sir, stories about heroes of ancient India. Just see!" He reached inside his shirt and drew out a small booklet, worn and smudged with dirt . . .

⁴H. Keith, Rifles for Waitie (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1957), pp. 1-2.

⁵Newman and Oliver, op. cit., p. 109.

"Raman, you are one of the best readers in the school . . . You are also one of the worst in arithmetic . . . Reading is all very well. But--" Munuswamy rapped his stick against the wall, and Raman gave a start, "--how will you sell wood when you are grown, if you cannot keep accounts? How will you buy in the bazaar, if you do not know whether the shopkeeper gives you the correct change?"⁶

[The episode concludes shortly with the schoolmaster's assignment to Raman for the following day.]

The Journalistic Historical Narrative

This form of case study is told much as a news story. It is a narrative of concrete events with no conscious effort to create a plot or characterization. It may be a day by day account or an eye witness report and often describes the actions of institutions as well as individuals.⁷

Fire! The fearful word spread from the metal tongues of bells to the lusty tongues of men, to the shrill tongues of women, and to the trembling whispering tongues of children.

The lumberyard was on fire in the shadow of Saint Paul's Church, on Broadway. Sparks flew up with the wind and swirled around the church steeple. Leather water buckets passed quickly from hand to hand from the well on Broadway to the engines' boxes. The men at the engines pumped furiously to send the water in the boxes racing through the pipes. The half-inch streams of spray flew against the flaming enemy. The people battled on for hours. They remembered the fire that had almost destroyed the city when General Washington retreated before the British in 1776. The war had passed by and left the city almost whole, but the fire had not passed by. The

⁶S. L. Arora, "What Then, Raman?" (Chicago: Follett Publishing Company, 1960), pp. 6-12.

⁷Newman and Oliver, loc. cit.

people remembered the many fires before that time and since, and their bravery in fighting the blaze was mixed with fear.⁸

Documents

These may include court opinions, speeches, letters, diaries, transcripts of trials and hearings, laws, charters, contracts, and commission reports. Following is an excerpt from "Part I, Itinerary" of Report of Explorations for a Railway Route Near the Thirty-fifth Parallel of North Latitude from the Mississippi River to the Pacific Ocean by Lieutenant A. W. Whipple, 1853-4. It was found in Volume III of Reports of Explorations and Surveys, United States War Department.

September 9-Camp 39-- . . . After leaving camp we crossed a spur of hills that approached the river, and again descended to the valley, which became wide and contained good grass and clumps of trees. Six miles brought us to the mouth of a wooded creek . . . Here were the remains of an extensive Indian encampment, with "signs" quite recent. The crotched sticks of hundreds of wigwams had been left standing. The grass was closely cropped, and the trails to the river were large and fresh. Wild grapes were again abundant . . . We soon entered upon a large Indian trail, which . . . brought us in sight of an Indian village. Great excitement was produced, each one being desirous to be among the first to encounter the strangers. The Indians met us at "Valley River", a rapid stream, flowing into the Canadian a hundred yards below. A curious scene was now presented. On one side of the stream was collected a crowd of wild Indians, apparently in great excitement; and on the other, our own party; each ignorant of the others and their designs. The Indians were evidently prepared for battle; decked out in their gayest attire, mounted on spirited horses; holding bows in their hands, and arrows between their fingers. As we advanced Vincente thought proper to place a white handkerchief at the end of a ramrod, and wave it as a signal. Upon sight of the banner the Indians set up a shout and rode rapidly to meet us. They called themselves Kai-o-was, and professed friendship. They looked splendidly as they rode from point to point; their horses prancing, and their gay silver trappings glittering in the sun . . .⁹

⁸Adapted from Fire-Fightin' Mose by H. W. Felton (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1955), pp. 4-7, an account of a fire in New York City in the early 1800's.

⁹United States War Department, Reports of Explorations and Surveys. Vol. III (Washington: Beverly Tucker Printer, 1856), pp. 30-1.

Research Data

These are reports of experimental and survey studies with statistical data that can be used as empirical evidence in the testing of factual claims. They are useful for teaching various skills involved in the reading of graphs and tables. Generalizations concerning the data may be reached inductively by the children from the raw data rather than through secondary sources.¹⁰

DEATHS CAUSED BY NONTRANSPORT ACCIDENTS 1966

Type of Accident	Total Deaths	Homes	All Other Places*
accidental poisoning	3,931	2,070	1,861
accidental falls	20,066	10,119	9,947
falls on stairs	2,165	1,753	412
falls from ladders	333	204	129
accident caused by cutting or piercing instrument	137	78	59
accident caused by electric current	1,025	295	730
accident caused by fire & explosion of combustibles	8,084	6,636	1,448
accident caused by firearms	2,558	1,330	1,228

*Includes farms, mines, quarries, industrial places, recreational sites, streets, highways, public buildings, residential institutions, and other specified and unspecified locations.¹¹

Texts

The text describes general phenomena and institutional trends.

¹⁰Newman and Oliver, op. cit., p. 111.

¹¹United States National Vital Statistics Division, Vital Statistics of the United States: 1966, Vol. II (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1968), p. 4-6 to 4-11.

Details and specifics about individuals are included mainly to illustrate generalizations. The text may explain, by giving definitions, causal theories, and explicit reasons, the occurrence of the event it describes. It presumably offers objective information which many uncritical readers accept at face value. It differs from a conventional textbook in that it focuses on a narrower range of events.¹²

At this time all the counties and some of the towns in Great Britain had the right to send representatives to Parliament, so all the counties and some of the towns had a say about what laws were made. But the colonies were not allowed to send representatives, so they had no say. Parliament simply enacted whatever laws it saw fit, and the colonists had to obey. This was not bad as long as the laws applied to all Englishmen alike, whether they lived in England or in Virginia; but when Parliament passed tax laws that applied only to the colonists, not to the people of England, trouble started.

The most famous of these laws, called the Stamp Act, was passed in 1765. In itself, it wasn't a bad law. Today the United States has several stamp acts that people obey without a murmur. For instance, every pack of cigarettes, every deck of playing cards, and every bottle of whiskey, gin or brandy carries a revenue stamp that the dealer must buy and stick on before it is sold. He adds the cost of the stamp to the price of the article, so in the end it is really the purchaser who pays the tax. The Stamp Act of 1765 required stamps to be stuck on legal documents, insurance policies, ship's papers, licenses, and newspapers and pamphlets, and agents were to be appointed throughout the colonies to sell the stamps.

It was really a convenient way of raising money, and the price of the stamps was not too high. That wasn't what caused the trouble. The trouble was that here was a tax law applying to the colonists and not to Englishmen in England, yet the colonists had had no voice in passing it. So they raised the cry, "Taxation without representation is tyranny!" and refused to obey.¹³

HOW CASE STUDIES MAY BE USED

Case studies may be used as illustrations and examples of facts and

¹²Newman and Oliver, loc. cit.

¹³G. W. Johnson, America is Born (Baltimore: William Morrow and Company, 1959), pp. 199-200.

generalizations the teacher wishes her pupils to know. Embedding the facts in an exciting or dramatic narrative may enhance pupil interest in and retention of the facts. Case studies may aid in conveying the meanings of definitions and technical terms such as "boycott" or "supply and demand". They may also be used to support certain prescriptive conclusions or moral lessons: "We must promote more effective safety measures in our homes"; "The British Parliament acted unjustly in dealing with the American colonies".

Cases may be used to provoke thought on unresolved issues. Using them in this open-ended fashion often stimulates inquiry into and debate on unresolved questions of fact, definition and policy judgement: "Are the schools in other countries as good as the ones in the United States?" To answer such a question students would have to resolve such definitional issues as "good in which ways--facilities, preparation for adult life?" and come to grips with the question "Does difference indicate inferiority?" Questions such as "Has farming changed radically in the past hundred years?" and "Is life for children harder today than long ago when Jeff Bussey lived?" can be raised, and the various case studies used to substantiate the pupils' answers, rather than to illustrate the teacher's principle that "Farming has changed greatly in the past hundred years."

The purpose of inquiry into issues of this nature is not to have the pupils learn or discover the correct answer. Rather it is to have the student analyze the data presented on behalf of various positions, or take a position and justify it rationally. The student is evaluated not on his mastery of facts, but on the rationale he gives to justify his position. Teachers have to be willing to accept rationally justified positions that disagree with their own, and a student should accept the teacher's opinion only if it

is adequately supported by rational justification.

Some styles of case study lend themselves more appropriately to certain uses than others. Some, such as research reports or documents, may tend to answer more questions than they raise, and cases like the story or vignette may be more conducive to provoking discussion than the text. In the end, however, the teacher's objectives and attitudes toward inquiry are the main determinants of how the cases will be used.¹⁴

¹⁴Newman and Oliver, op. cit., pp. 112-3.

CHAPTER VI

THE SIMULATION GAME

INTRODUCTION

Simulation has been used successfully and effectively in areas such as engineering, flight training, and combat training. It has recently proved useful for training and research in the social sciences. Even more recently it has been tried as a teaching device in classrooms from universities to grade schools.¹ Likewise games as teaching tools have been used for some time in education to dramatize materials or stimulate pupil interest. The idea of the game, a device having a competitive structure, rules for playing and a means of designating a winner or winners, has been joined with the idea of simulation, the creation of certain representative elements of a real social situation or process so that the participant must make decisions and operate as if he were in the larger environment.²

For several years educators at Johns Hopkins University, Northwestern, Yale, the Western Behavioral Sciences Institute, and other places, including their own classrooms, have developed, tried, and experimented with simulation games.³ Some have utilized the computer, such as The Sumerian Game and the Free Enterprise Game developed by the Board of Cooperative Educational

¹H. Guetzkow, Simulation in Social Sciences: Readings (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1962), pp. 1-3.

²S. S. Boocock, "The Life Career Game," Personnel and Guidance, 46:328, December, 1967.

³S. S. Boocock and J. S. Coleman, "Games with Simulated Environments in Learning," Sociology of Education, 39:220, Summer, 1966.

Services in Winchester County, New York and International Business Machines. Others have been fairly complex and have had maps, cards, tokens, and the like to use when playing the game. Such simulations are generally best used with youngsters junior high level and up although some have been devised for elementary school children. The simulations described in this section require materials that the teacher might easily obtain at school and were used several times in conjunction with the intermediate grade social studies programs. Some games, such as The Empire, Steam and Hunting, developed by Clark Apt and associates in Cambridge, Massachusetts, have simulated the past while some, like the Life Careers game, have projected the student into situations which he must meet in the future.

The main value of simulation games has proved to be the interest they generate among the students who participate in them.⁴ Although this may be a sufficient recommendation for their use in itself, educators who have used them also believe the games may help youngsters, especially those from underprivileged backgrounds, see that they can control the future to a certain extent by their decisions, and that any consequences suffered may be a result of their own actions or inactions rather than the capriciousness of society. A premise of the simulation game is that persons learn better by experiencing the consequences of their actions rather than by being told.⁵ It is hoped, too, that retention and transfer may be heightened since the student has a reason to remember and apply certain information in a motivating situation.

⁴C. H. Cherryholmes, "Some Current Research on Effectiveness of Educational Simulations: Implications for Alternative Strategies," American Behavioral Scientist, 10:5, October, 1966.

⁵J. S. Coleman, "Learning Through Games," N.E.A. Journal, 56:69, January, 1967.

Moreover simulation games can vividly dramatize to students concepts which are often glibly verbalized and hazily understood, such as inflation and social conflict. They may also bring about an awareness of the many, often conflicting, forces of motivation which have acted to influence man's existence.⁶ Some researchers cite examples of attitude changes resulting from participation in such simulation games as Sunshine and The Life Career Game. For example, after playing the Life Career Game more students felt that college was necessary to get ahead and more felt that women should be allowed a career as well as a family if they so desired.⁷ In addition, the game gives the pupil a set of realistic social elements with which to experiment as he plays out his role during the simulation. Afterwards he may choose to manipulate certain aspects and rules of the game to see if, for example, giving the parent less power to punish would make a difference in the resolution of conflicts in the Parent-Child Game which simulates a superordinate-subordinate power system.⁸ Finally games may be useful in practicing mathematical and reading skills as well as social-thinking skills.⁹

The literature on simulation was not completely complimentary. Kraft specifically criticized the Legislature Game, and simulation games in general, for obscuring reality and not teaching as much, or as well, as supporters

⁶S. Brodbelt, "Simulation in the Social Studies: an Overview," Social Education, 33:178, February, 1969.

⁷Boocock, loc. cit.

⁸C. S. Stoll and S. S. Boocock, "Simulation Games for Social Studies," Audiovisual Instruction, 13:840-842, October, 1968.

⁹Coleman, op. cit., p. 70.

maintained.¹⁰ Kardatzke admonished teachers to check the validity of a game, when considering its use, to be certain it is as close to reality as possible, especially for the principal understanding to be gained from playing it. He did admit that teachers of younger children may have to resort to very rudimentary models of procedures and that the realism of the key concept was more essential to a game's acceptability than the inclusion of other details present in the real situation, but which would only complicate and obscure the main learning of a simulated environment. He also pointed out that these criticized departures from reality might serve as an effective comparing-contrasting exercise to the real world and as an opportunity to develop critical thinking.¹¹

When using a simulation game for the first time Boocock and Coleman recommended beginning with a very simple version of a game which can be learned quickly and then adding successively more complex versions. One of the games described in this chapter illustrates this well. It is the International Trade Relations Game which is fairly uncomplicated and takes half an hour to play. This game can be followed by the Land-locked Nations Game and the Parent-Satellite Game each of which are slightly modified and refined to demonstrate more complex relationships between nations. In this way the initial hurdle of getting into a game is not too discouraging, and learning of more difficult concepts can occur as the game sessions proceed.¹² Most

¹⁰I. Kraft, "Pedagogical Futility in Fun and Games," N.E.A. Journal, 56:71-2, January, 1967.

¹¹H. Kardatzke, "Simulation Games in the Social Studies: the Reality Issue," Social Education, 33:179-80, February, 1969.

¹²Boocock and Coleman, op. cit., p. 224.

authors felt that post-game discussion was essential in assuring that the pupils gained the desired understandings. The teacher's questions should guide students to discover the general principles underlying the game. This might be accomplished by asking the highest and lowest scoring persons or teams to describe what they had done. Students might then compare strategies and analyze the differences. The next level of generalization should be to the social phenomena simulated to evaluate how well the game actually portrayed reality. A third level of generality would be from the social model represented by the game to other social relationships.¹³

EXAMPLES OF SIMULATION GAMES

International Trade Relations Game

The concept to be developed from this game was that underdeveloped nations are weak economically compared with the industrial nations in the modern world. The class was divided into six groups. Two groups had six children, three groups had four children, and one group had two children who were to act as teacher's helpers. Paper, scissors, rulers and crayons were distributed to the two larger groups, while the three smaller groups received a supply of play money and a larger supply of paper than was given to the two larger groups. The children were told that the session was to be a social studies lesson with a serious purpose and that the large groups represented modern industrial nations such as Great Britain or the U.S.S.R., while the small groups represented modern non-industrial nations such as Nigeria or Malaysia. The children were further informed that each group was to compete

¹³Stoll and Boocock, op. cit., pp. 481-2.

with the others in trying to provide items the teacher listed on the board. Within the allotted thirty minutes each group was to try to fill as many of the teacher's requests as they could. Some of the items requested were a certain amount of play money, a six inch black crayon line on white paper, a cut out paper triangle colored blue, and a cut out paper rectangle five inches by two inches, colored green. The dimensions and color of the items had to be exact and would be checked by the helpers, while the teacher observed the activity and wrote additional requests on the board. It was soon apparent to the players that no one group possessed all the materials needed to fill the requests and that trading would be necessary. Ground rules to be followed were:

1. Trade negotiations could be carried on only at a special negotiations table located near the teacher.
2. Only one child could absent himself from each assigned table at any one time.
3. All trades were final and no lease agreements were allowed.
4. Dimensions and colors of "manufactured goods" must be exact.
5. Crayons and rulers could not be broken into parts to be traded or used.

The children in the two groups initially provided with a "manufacturing capacity" (scissors, crayons, rulers) quickly learned to maintain their advantage by not trading their manufacturing tools for "raw materials" (paper). During the initial trial of the game one of the small groups was able to trade paper and money for a crayon and ruler, but this did not happen during repetitions of the game. Instead the larger groups traded finished products needed by the smaller groups for ever-increasing supplies of play money and paper. As

expected, the large groups far outdistanced the small groups. In the lively discussion that followed the children readily drew analogies between the game experience and the dilemma of underdeveloped nations in the industrialized twentieth century. A flood of questions was loosed and research was enthusiastic. At one point in the game a "war" (fist fight) nearly developed over a difficult trade negotiation between one large and two small groups. The incident made clear one possible source of conflict between nations.¹⁴

Inflation

The purpose of this game was to demonstrate how the supply of money and the supply of things-to-be-bought influence prices. It was used with a sixth grade class. The class was divided so that there were six groups each having four children and one group with two children who were to serve as teacher's helpers. The groups were seated in clusters spaced about the room and were told they were competing to fill the maximum number of teacher requests in the allotted time. Rules like those used in the Trade Relations Game were in force. Requests were similar to those for the Trade Relations Game, but were written ahead of time on tag board. Some examples were two triangles three inches on a side cut from yellow paper and colored red, a square two inches on a side drawn on white paper and colored green and three gold certificates (dittoed paper money), the word "Inflation" printed in neat one inch block letters in orange crayon on yellow paper plus six gold certificates, a circle five inches in diameter cut from white paper and colored red, and ten gold certificates in perfect condition. There were more

¹⁴C. Christine and D. Christine, "Simulation, a Teaching Tool," Elementary School Journal, 67:396-8, May, 1967.

requests than groups so that helpers would be able to replace filled requests with new ones. It was helpful to have examples of each request attached to the oak tag sheet on which it was written. Materials were distributed as follows: Group one - scissors, orange crayon, ten sheets of white paper, twenty gold certificates; Group two - compass, ten sheets white paper, ruler, blue crayon; Group three - compass, ruler, red crayon, ten gold certificates; Group four - scissors, green crayon, ten sheets of white paper, ten sheets of yellow paper, ten gold certificates; Group five - ruler, orange crayon, green crayon, ten sheets of white paper; Group six - red crayon, blue crayon, ten sheets of yellow paper, ten gold certificates.

As soon as the materials were distributed to the pupils, the teacher helpers taped the teacher requests beneath the appropriate group names. Group one got request one, group two got request two, and so on. The children saw immediately that no group could fill its entire request with the materials on hand, and trades were arranged at the "negotiations table" which consisted of three desks and six chairs. Only one member from each group was allowed to go to the negotiations table at any one time. Crayons, drawing tools, paper, scissors and gold certificates were traded in a mixture of barter exchanges and money agreements.

Whenever any group successfully completed its assignment, the finished product was presented to one of the teacher helpers. The teacher helpers checked colors, sizes, and shapes for accuracy. If the product was satisfactory the teacher helpers noted the fact after the group number on the chalkboard and taped a new teacher request under the group number.

Initially, the fifty gold certificates distributed to the children were treated largely as relatively valueless trading material. The groups

needing certificates to fulfill their teacher requests knew they could obtain them easily through inexpensive trades. However, as succeeding requests demanded more and more certificates, the paper money took on greater value. Two certificates which at the beginning of the game brought only a few sheets of paper suddenly bought a highly valued compass.

To make this change in money values more obvious the teacher began to reward each group filling a request with a bonus of five gold certificates. This, in effect, inflated the currency and a low-status piece of yellow paper was soon being traded for five gold certificates. Minutes later one child demanded--and got--thirty gold certificates for the compass that had previously been traded for two gold certificates.

As fulfilled teacher requests poured in, the number of gold certificates in the room greatly increased. There were gold certificates in pockets, gold certificates crammed into purses, gold certificates littered about the floor, gold certificates floating in the air. At this point in the game a low demand piece of yellow paper was traded for thirty well-circulated gold certificates.

When the gold certificates had reached near worthlessness, the teacher stopped the game and announced the rule that only certificates in perfect condition would be acceptable for presentation to fill teacher requests. Certificates that were dirty, dog-eared, folded, or torn would not be accepted. She also announced that the bonus of five gold certificates for filling teacher requests was being stopped.

The announcement resulted in a near stoppage of trading activity while the children examined, smoothed, and mourned their far from perfect gold certificates.

Then the game was resumed and continued until the inflation had abated. Near the end of the game--which lasted a total of fifty minutes--two of the few usable gold certificates would buy several pieces of yellow paper.

In the discussion following the game the children were easily led to see how the supply of money and the supply of things-to-be-bought influence prices. Their questions concerning the real world included: "Who gives out the gold certificates?", "Who writes the things on the board?", "What happens to money when it gets lost or burned?", "Who decides how many gold certificates to give out?"

These are useful questions for the teacher who wants to make the problem of inflation meaningful to his students. Inflation haunts nearly every underdeveloped nation in the world. It was one of Lenin's major problems in the Soviet Union of 1923 and it has been a problem in Great Britain today. For teachers of United States history the inflation game can be used to demonstrate the currency problems of the American Revolution, the economic panic of 1837, the "greenback" issue of the Civil War, the less dramatic but nonetheless important economic movements in the 1870's and 1880's, and the economic boom of the 1920's.

Discussions based upon the children's simulated experience with the problem of expanding and contracting money values helps them to glimpse the functions filled by the Federal Reserve Board, The Federal Reserve Banking system, the International Monetary Fund, and other agencies designed to regulate the movement of money.¹⁵

¹⁵C. Christine and D. Christine, "Four Simulation Games That Teach," Grade Teacher, 85:109-11, October, 1967.

Production Line

This game was designed to demonstrate to sixth-graders the methods of production-line manufacturing and the greater efficiency of the production line as compared to the output of individual craftsmen.

The children in the class were divided into nine groups. Two six-pupil groups competed with six two-pupil groups in manufacturing various simple paper cut-out designs. One group of two children served as teacher helpers.

The children were told that each group was to prepare as many teacher-assigned cut-outs and drawings as possible in a ten-minute period.

The products of three of the two-pupil groups were counted as equal to one six-pupil group to offset the different group sizes. Communication and cooperation between groups was not allowed, and the children were told that the things they were to make would not be accepted unless the completed projects conformed exactly to the specifications given.

Each of the eight groups was supplied with a stapler, 100 sheets of paper, six pencils, six rulers, six red crayons, and six pairs of scissors. The teacher helpers were assigned to inspect all finished products and to keep score of the number of products successfully completed by each group.

The game began when the teacher displayed a card requesting the children to make four-inch paper squares, colored red, and stapled in neat stacks of five squares each. The children set (furiously) to work. If a leader in one of the six-child groups organized a production line on his own initiative, then his six-child group outproduced the other groups by a wide margin. Sometimes this happened in the first ten-minute session. At other times the six-child groups worked doggedly as individuals and produced no more than the

average production of three two-child groups. If the latter happened, the teacher would arrange each six-child group in a single line behind a row of desks and set up a production line for them. She would set one child to drawing four-inch squares on paper, have the next two children color the squares with red crayons. A fourth child in the line would cut out the colored squares with the scissors while the fifth child stacked the squares in neat piles of five and fastened them with a staple. The sixth child would be assigned to deliver the finished stacks to a teacher's helper.

Following the initial ten-minute heat, two additional ten-minute sessions were run. During these the now smoothly operating six-child production lines presented many more completed stacks of stapled red squares to the teacher helpers than any three of the two-child craftsman groups did.

Later discussion of the game uncovered complaints from the production line groups of "sore hands" and boredom with their assigned tasks which illustrated to the children the dulling effect of production line work. Questions concerning working conditions, line tie-ups, efficiency measures, and start-up capital requirements came up and were discussed in the children's language. These questions and the general game experience were used later when the class researched and discussed modern labor movements, capital resources, and the interdependence of peoples in industrial societies. Some of the problems faced by underdeveloped nations, such as acquiring start-up capital and educating their populations for production line work, were more readily understood following the simulation.¹⁶

¹⁶Christine and Christine, "Four Simulation Games That Teach," op. cit., pp. 112-114.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR DEVELOPING SIMULATIONS

There are some advantages to be gained from devising simulation games both for the teacher and for the class which might decide to develop their own game. The necessary research into the social process chosen for simulation provides for great depth of understanding, and the simulation may be designed to fit the specific needs of the class for a particular unit.

It is usually advisable to begin with a rather simple model of a social process or event and move gradually to complex ones. First the teacher must select the social process to be replicated and decide upon specific objectives to be gained by her pupils from the simulation. She may choose whether her model will simulate a current, an historical, or a hypothetical event. Selecting current or historical happenings may provide for valuable experiences in comparing the class experience to what actually happened or is happening. A hypothetical setting is recommended when one or some of the player roles to be simulated might cause unfavorable reactions. For example, if Russia or Red China were two countries in the game, only their characteristics pertaining to the conduct of the game would be revealed, and fictitious names should be used for all the countries in the game.

Next, considerable research is needed to distinguish the essential elements of the social process. Extraneous elements added to the model only obscure the simulated process and make it unnecessarily complicated. A means must be provided whereby the various relationships of power, influence, or the like among the participants of the game may be made realistic. Usually this is done through some sort of units, materials, or information provided each player or group.

Now the teacher may write a description of the social process to be

simulated which contains all the details to be included. Next the description is expanded to cover directions for the players and rules necessary for conducting the game. The model constructed must not be so simple that it bores the group for which it was prepared, nor so complicated that it frustrates them.

It might be helpful to examine simulation games designed by other persons and to have some person knowledgeable in the process to be simulated read and criticize the various revisions of the developing game. Finally the game should be tested several times with a group or various groups of children, and revisions made as necessary.¹⁷

¹⁷D. M. Garvey, "Simulation, Role-Playing, and Sociodrama in the Social Studies," The Emporia State Research Studies, 16:11-4, December, 1967.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

There has been much research done and many projects undertaken in the field of social studies in the past several years. It has seemed to many persons that one area, teacher education, has not kept pace with the innovative techniques and ideas generated by the research and projects.

Many of the recent revisions have been in the curricula for elementary and secondary school social studies programs. Others have been along the lines of teaching techniques and methods to be used by the teacher. Three of these techniques, inquiry method, case studies, and simulation games, were chosen for discussion.

Inquiry is a method not too unlike the excellent teaching that many teachers have done for years. They have stimulated their pupils to raise questions and to seek answers which would aid in solving problems which were of special interest to the class. Inquiry carries all this a step farther in that the facts and data accumulated in the search for answers are then organized and applied by the students. They evaluate the data to formulate generalizations and tentative conclusions. The classroom atmosphere must stimulate creative and independent thinking, and it is hoped the students will learn the skills of inquiry as well as the factual content of the course. Examples were given of ways in which teachers might foster the mode of inquiry among their students.

The use of case studies in social science education is often similar to and concurrent with the use of the inquiry approach. A case study might be used to initiate an inquiry, or it might serve as information from which

generalizations might be formulated. Case studies are usually focused rather narrowly to give detailed information on a single event, person, or institution. There are several styles of case studies which may be used with elementary school pupils. They are the story, the vignette, the journalistic historical narrative, documents, research data, and texts. Each of these types were discussed briefly and samples of them were given.

Simulation games have been used recently in elementary classrooms to stimulate interest in the social studies and to give students a chance to make decisions and operate in a simulated environment much as they would be required to do in the larger environment. As a highly motivating device, it is hoped that these games may increase retention and transfer as well as effectively demonstrate various social concepts to the student. There has been some evidence of attitude changes as a result of participation in simulation games. There have been some who criticized simulation games for obscuring or distorting reality, but others have seen these departures from and simplifications of reality as an effective vehicle for stimulating critical thinking as students compare and contrast the game and reality. Several examples of the use of simulation games in the elementary school were given. Recommendations and guidelines for developing such games were presented. Some of these were: (1) select the social process to be simulated, (2) decide upon specific objectives to be gained by pupils participating in the game, (3) through considerable research distinguish the essential elements of the social process desired, (4) write a detailed description of the social process, (5) expand the description to include directions and rules for the players, (6) seek the advice and criticisms of persons knowledgeable in the social process, (7) try the game with a class, and (8) make any necessary revisions.

It is hoped that through the discussions and models presented that teachers and teachers of teachers may become more familiar with these three innovative methods of instruction--inquiry method, simulation, and case study, and perhaps incorporate something of them into their teaching.

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THREE NEW TOPICS SUGGESTED FOR ADDITION
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by

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B. S., Kansas State University, 1967

AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S REPORT

submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree

MASTER OF SCIENCE

College of Education

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

1969

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