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The five basic protocols of cooperative learning in the classroom.

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THE FIVE BASIC PROTOCOLS OF COOPERATIVE LEARNING
IN THE CLASSROOM

A Dissertation Presented

by

CHARLIEMAE G. ALLEN-HEARD

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

September 1993

School of Education

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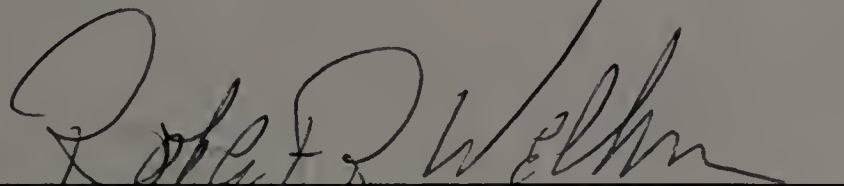
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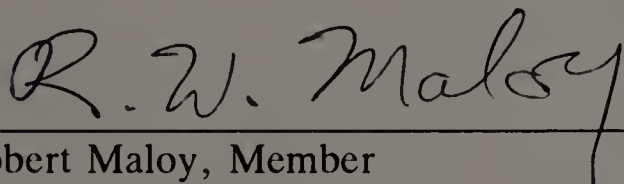
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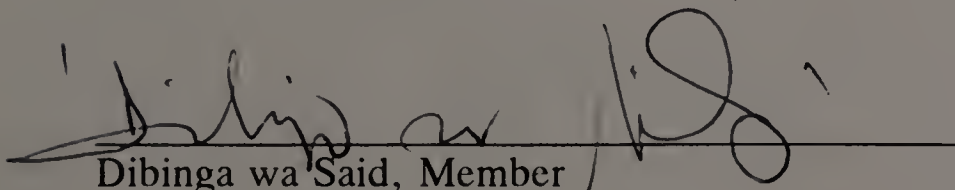
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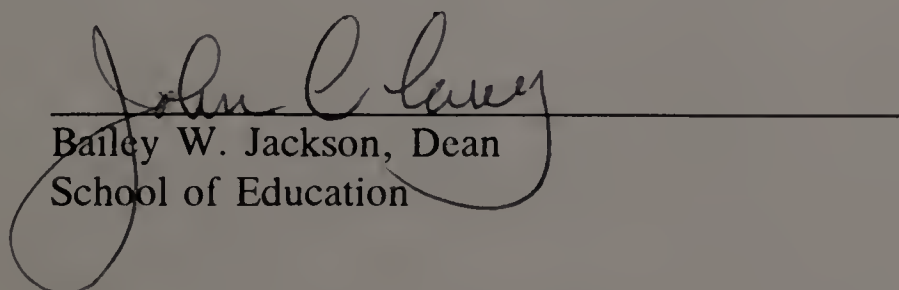
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"But they that wait upon the Lord
Shall renew their strength;
they shall mount up with wings as eagles;
they shall run, and not be weary;
and they shall walk and not faint."

ISALAH 40:31

Dedicated to: My ancestors, my present generation, my future
generations, LaAndrylene Allen Henry, Oliver Wendell Allen, Perry
William Allen, III, Quynston Wallace Allen, Ira Henry III,
DeAngela Henry, Dedrick Henry, Eric Allen, Corelia Allen
Richardson, Makisha Allen, Rene Henry, Dion Henry, Mechelle
Henry, Obdwain Martin, Jerome Anderson, Joyree Henry, T'kia
Henry, Portia Henry, my parents, my maternal grand parents,
Dorothy Chase Newell and Harry Heard.

Also: Fannie Moss Belton, Thelma S. Warren McCall, Dollie R. Flakes, Bernice Solomon
Williams, Dr. Ngolela wa Kabongo, Leo Motley, Alda J. Witherspoon, Col, William J.
Holzappel, Sister Agnes Evans Moore and La Hispanola Grocery.

Whitney Wells
Greg Burton
Julie Bayer

ABSTRACT

THE FIVE BASIC PROTOCOLS OF COOPERATIVE LEARNING IN THE CLASSROOM

SEPTEMBER 1993

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This study is to explore the effective use of the five basic protocols for oral discussion and debate as articulated by the National Council for the Social Studies [NCSS, 1988] as a basis for promoting cooperative learning in Social Studies for grades three-six. Social Studies is especially suited to cooperative learning because it develops skills and processes for cooperative problem solving and the social participation skills. Children engage in discussion of social issues in the classrooms and, in so doing, grasp fully their social meaning and complexity. And, it is in this setting that cooperative learning is especially appropriate, since discussion is a prime means of developing and teaching thinking and analytical skills.

This study was conducted in two stages:

1. Sixteen administrative interviews; and
2. Nonparticipatory direct observations of 786 children.

During these observations, every child observed the following five basic protocols as articulated by the National Council for the Social studies (NCSS, 1988). They are:

1. Giving one's ideas;
2. Listening to the ideas of others;
3. Planning one's work with the group;
4. Presenting the group project; and
5. Discussing how the group worked.

Moreover, these rules were adhered to during the classroom meetings and small groups.

This author concludes that, during the discussions and debates, these elementary school children were in fact demonstrating the six classifications of cognitive development according to Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: Knowledge, comprehension, analysis, application, synthesis, and evaluation, as well as cooperative problem solving and metacognition. Furthermore, in this post-Cold War era, our world is becoming a world of increasing democratic nations, therefore this author's general conclusion is that cooperative learning in the Social Studies is "dress rehearsal" at the elementary school level for the children's adult community activism.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

After twenty years of using the most common elementary school instructional and learning strategy, small group and whole class discussion, this author began to explore how cooperative learning contributes to the teaching of the integrated Social Studies concepts, processes and skills. During the small group discussions, children express their opinions and ideas; listen to ideas and opinions of others; and, then, decide which ideas should collectively become the final decision. This author considers group learning and democratic learning to be synonymous with the descriptor, cooperative learning.

However, this author uses the descriptor, cooperative learning, in the dissertation as defined in the literature. Cooperative learning relates to learning situations in which the individual members of the group work together to develop a product, project or make a decision and that the recognition or reward is given to the group instead of an individual.

Historically, societies developed educational systems to inculcate and acculturate its youth toward perpetuating the society. Cooperative learning relates directly to the democratic society of the United States. Therefore, for children to fulfill their future responsibilities, they must develop the democratic cornerstones, namely, communication, cooperative problem solving, and cooperative behavior for the welfare of society.

Cooperative learning requires debate and discussion of the issues. These classrooms are miniature replicas of our society.

Oral discussion or oral debate is a teaching strategy that has five basic rules or observable behaviors such as:

1. Giving individual ideas;
2. Listening to the ideas of others;
3. Planning individual work with the group;

4. Presenting the group project; and,
5. Discussing how the group worked.

These rules or observable behaviors were articulated by the **National Council for the Social Studies [NCSS]** as the five basic protocols for oral discussion [1988].

It is the purpose of this study to determine the effectiveness of these protocols in promoting cooperative learning in the elementary school in an urban setting. Hopefully, it can be utilized by elementary teacher training programs, urban educational practitioners, urban educational specialists, theorists, staff developers, parents or caretakers, and other human developers, and rehabilitators. Moreover, the Protocols Checklist can be added to the existing checklists for recording elementary school children's various skills.

This study makes the following assumptions. Cooperative learning activities develop the academic, the moral, the personal, the political and social domains in elementary school children. Cooperative learning enables every child to develop the social participation skills, think critically, experience positive interdependence, grow in self esteem, have face-to-face interaction develop individual accountability and develop group processing skills.

Theoretical Rationale

The theoretical rationale for this study is to be found, among other things, in the vast literature of democratic theory which includes all aspects of cooperative learning. The literature is reviewed in Chapter Two.

This concept, democracy, which gave rise to the theoretical and practical settings of the cooperative learning process and problem solving. Moreover, in the integrated Social Studies classes, children have equal status and responsibility for debation and discussing the issues or problems. Also, everyone participates equally toward the development of

tasks' completion for the whole class, small group and individual projects as well as the classroom social issues. Moreover, this cooperative learning at the elementary school level utilizes the individual contributions of all children regardless of diversity in culture, home environment, socio-economical background, parental educational level, abilities, skills, personalities, values mores, beliefs, goals, potentialities, learning styles and physical abilities.

Contextual Aspects of the Study

This study was conducted in a metropolitan area whose population is approximately 700, 000. More than 60% of the population is under 40 years of age. The workforce includes services, trade manufacturing, computer and computer related industry, city civil service, county civil service, federal civil service and military jobs. Current unemployment is about 8%. The city has the usual problems peculiar to urban cities.

There are world reknown medical centers research centers, hospitals, universities, colleges and post secondary institutions and a major public library system in this metropolis. School age children attend parochial, independent private and private schools. Under federal court orders, children attending the public schools are usually bussed to schools outside their neighborhood. City agencies provide after school programs to assist those children who come from homes where parents are under educated. Some facilities help every type of student regardless of the parents' educational and socio-economical levels.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

During the past decade a tremendous repository of literature has been developed concerning the elementary school children from all parts of the world. The periodicals of professional teachers' organizations such as Educational Leadership [Association for School and Curriculum Development, ASCD], holds workshops yearly to discuss the latest issues that are common concerns of educational practitioners. The literature in the **ERIC File [1982-June 1992]** is world-wide in its reporting of many classroom laboratories and for securing methods to improve the instructional and learning processes. Also, the elementary school grades' subject organizations such as the **National Council for the Social Studies [NCSS]** and the **National Council of Teachers of Mathematics** are also reporting their findings about cognitive skills and their relationship to the improvement of teaching in all subjects and cooperative classroom activities. Therefore, this author has selected a problem which is constant toward the effective instructional and learning processes for generating cooperative social systems in the Social Studies classes.

This literature review discusses the following:

1. Cooperative learning in the integrated Social Studies classrooms of elementary school children;
2. Multiculturalism;
3. Essentialism;
4. Perennialism;
5. Other Ethnic Centricism;
6. Objects, concepts, processes, and skills of the integrated Social Studies for elementary school children;

7. Objectives of the academic, moral, personal, political, and social domains for elementary school children;
8. Developmental stages of elementary school children;
9. The effect of these developmental stages of children upon the instructional and learning process;
10. Instructional and learning strategies: Concept Attainment [Bruner et al, 1967]; Concept Formation [Taba, 1967]; Role Playing [Schafstel and Schafstel, 1967]; Classroom Meeting [Glasser, 1969]; and
11. The democratic classroom at the elementary school level.

The literature further investigates use of the academic discipline Social Studies as an effective means of utilizing the research on cooperative learning and the developmental stages of elementary school children.

Moreover, it is this author's contention that the Social Studies curriculum provides an effective vehicle for developing the academic, moral, personal, political, and social domains in elementary school children. And she proposes the incorporation of cooperative learning as one of the best methods of instruction for the integrated Social Studies.

Moreover, it is the integrative development of the academic, moral, personal, political, and social domains at the elementary school level which provides these children the foundation upon which societal inculcation and acculturation are possible. Furthermore, school staff must be aware of the literature which describes instructional and learning strategies, cooperative learning environments, the environmental generators, and the compatibility of these elements with the development of the academic, moral, personal, political, and social domains. This knowledge enables the educational practitioners to develop direct and indirect instructional and learning classrooms while attending to the concept of total child development.

Purpose of the Literature Review

This author's purpose for researching these topics is threefold:

1. To find support in the literature for cooperative learning as an effective instructional and learning technique for the social participation skills development;
2. To find support for utilizing the integrated Social Studies as a vehicle for cooperative learning; and
3. To discover the instructional and learning strategies that best develop the academic concepts while attending to children's development in their moral, personal, political, and social domains.

The Historical Evolution of the Concept of Cooperative Learning

Even though the Progressive Education Movement was begun by American educators, it evolved from European educators and has remained largely Eurocentric. During the 1930s and 1940s, **Harold Rugg**, a Professor of Education at Teachers' College, Columbia University, began teaching liberal and international political views in Teacher training programs while instructing them how to include these different beliefs in their Social Studies at the elementary school level. In 1914, a former social worker, **Margaret Naumberg**, founded the Children's School [later Walden's School] in New York City. Additionally, two other women, **Elizabeth A. Irwin** and **Caroline Pratt**, began schools that were child-centered, namely, The Little Red School House and Play School [later City and Country School]. Both were also in New York City. The Bank Street College of Education began as the Bureau of Educational Experiments under the chairmanship of **Lucy Sprague Mitchell**.

As expressed earlier, European philosophers influenced the educational system of the United States during the Colonial Times and continue to be the basic dominating influence. In my opinion, the European-influenced educational system of the United States is Americanized by the inclusion of the cooperative principles of the democracy into the elementary school Social Studies classroom. This inclusion of cooperation at this level begins the developmental foundation in children for they live in a democratic society. However, the democratic ideas did not originate in the United States. Rather, they began in Periclean Greece during the 4th century.

According to the literature, humankind develops societal educational systems based upon its values, mores, and goals. Moreover, the ambition of societal educational systems is the inculcation and acculturation of its youth toward becoming well-informed adults who participate positively in the society. Since the beginning of Western civilization to our present time, educational philosophers have supported this idea [Rousseau, 1762; Pestalozzi, 1771-1844; Col. Parker, 1883-early 1900s; Kilpatrick, 1919-1925; Bode, 1927; Locke, 1927; St. Augustine, 1931; Counts, 1932; Judd, 1934; Hullfish and Smith, 1961; Crosby, 1965; and Sir Thomas More, 1965, among others]. These philosophers present different points of view for the relationship between society and its educational system.

According to Rousseau [1762], children's personal domains are developed through concrete experiences, freedom of expression, and freedom of action under the guidance of the teachers. According to Pestalozzi [1801], children derive knowledge from first-hand experiences such as objects, field-trips, and directed observations which develop children's sensory background, a requirement for understanding definitions and abstract statements in reading materials. According to Herbart [1892], five steps are needed to present subject matter to children: preparation, presentation, association, systematization, and application. According to Froebel [1837], the kindergarten involves self-activity through plays, games, songs, paper-weaving, and clay-modeling. According to Spencer

[1858], the study of science is important for children to study. And von Fellenberg [1771-1844] introduced manual training as a phase of children's education. These influences upon the educational system of the United States took place in mechanical and militaristic classrooms until the Dewey-Kilpatrick-Parker era.

While the educational system of the United States was developing and evolving, the concept of democracy was becoming the foundation model for its present-day governmental and societal nation. It follows, then, that since, historically, educational systems are directly related to forms of national government, it was just a matter of time for the educational system in the United States to have an educational system reflecting its form of government.

Therefore, postwar reform philosophers perceived a need for adding geography, history, and science to the elementary school curriculum [Parker, 1920s]; developing the total child [Parker, 1920s]; group discussions [Kilpatrick, 1919-1925]; and the Americanization of immigrants as well as vocational and community centers. These concepts were very prevalent during the 1920s, 1930s, and 1940s [Educational Encyclopedia, 1988].

Pre-World War II elementary schools had changed from the elitist school population during Colonial Times to including the lower economic class in both rural and urban areas. Post-World War I the emphasis included the upper-middle class. George Counts, a Professor of Education at Teachers' College, Columbia University, suggested that Progressive Education should not be aligned with the upper-middle class.

The educational reform and the revolutionary movements in the United States seem to be dated by either world wars or its "cold wars." For example, from the 1930s until the 1950s, elementary school core courses were English and Social Studies. In the 1950s [Post-World War II and Korean Conflict; Russian-American Cold War], Harold Rugg [1953] suggested the need for intercultural learning and America's understanding of the African-American, and that this information be added to the Social Studies curriculum.

In 1953, the NCSS added economics, sociology, and anthropology to the Social Studies curriculum. Teacher training programs for elementary school teachers followed by training them how to teach these subjects at each level. In 1957, with Russia's launching of Sputnik into outer space, teaching the sciences became mandatory at the elementary school level. Furthermore, 1970, the first class of elementary school teachers whose first area of concentration was General Science graduated [I am one of them].

It was **John Dewey** who first presented the democratic classroom [1899] idea to American educators. Throughout his lifetime he continued to write about the benefits of the cooperative learning. Dewey's followers developed variations of his ideas. Both **Kilpatrick** and **Parker** trained teachers to implement Dewey's ideas in elementary school classrooms. **Kilpatrick [1919-1925]** emphasized developing the social domain in children through oral group discussion, oral debate and cooperative problem-solving. **Col. Parker** emphasized the informal elementary school classroom with its freedom from militaristic and mechanical environments. **Counts [1932]** emphasized problem-solving and the restructuring of society by instructing children to solve problems, reflect on societal conditions, then change them for the better. **Bode [1927]** emphasized the intellectual process of problem-solving. **Hullfish** and **Smith** emphasized the relationship of the individual's academic, personal, and social domains and the individual's positive participation in a democratic society. This team also emphasized that the individual differences are the strengths of a democracy. Dewey, the dominating force in developing the democratic classroom at the elementary school level, suggested that the entire elementary school be organized as a miniature democracy [Democracy and Society, 1916].

Historically, elementary schools aim to provide pupils with general education which prepares them for adult responsibility such as community activism. Moreover, the elementary school develops basic skills which are used during the entire lifetime. Children learn about the society's common heritage, its moral values, and the rights and

duties of citizenship. Usually, grades 1-3 are designated as primary grades; the grades 4-6 are the intermediate grades; and grades 7-8 are the upper elementary grades. In the United States, sometimes grades 6, 7, and 8 are known as middle school, and grades 7, 8 and 9 are known as junior high school. The junior high school may be considered as the conservative form of the educational system in the United States, while middle school is more pupil-oriented. According to the literature, the Dewey-Kilpatrick-Parker era began in the 1920s with Kilpatrick and Parker promoting Dewey's concepts of a democratic elementary school classroom through lectures and publications during their tenure as professors of education at Teachers' College, Columbia University and Chicago Institute, Chicago University, respectively.

[This concept of cooperative learning in 1992 involves more than group debates and discussions. Moreover, the Social Studies curriculum continue to develop the historical concepts, geography literacy, citizenship education, scientific concepts, and sociological or cultural concepts, while including developmental reading skills, literature, art, mathematics, writing skills, economical concepts, environmental concepts, and physical education research. Simultaneously, the academic, moral, personal, political, and social domains are being developed [NCSS, 1991, 1962; Kaltsounis, 1990, 1989; Sharan and Sharan, 1990, 1989; Slavin, 1990, 1989; Sharin, Israel, 1981].

The cooperative Social Studies classroom is sensitive to the child's abilities, skills, competencies, interests, feelings, attitudes, opinions, values, culture, and contributions to the cooperative learning process. Teachers must know materials and content concepts of the elementary school instruction, the particular nature of each child, the developmental stages, rate of learning, and potential growth in all areas of each child. This knowledge allows teachers to develop the total child while providing growth in self-esteem and self-motivation. Furthermore, children become partners in creating their own learning environments; they discuss, debate and develop; decide classroom and school policies for conduct in classrooms, school cafeteria, school corridors, and on school playground.]

Under these conditions, children are learning and developing the required skills for adult societal participation. They are learning citizenship as they practice its duties and responsibilities in their immediate social group. Thus a spirit of positive interaction and interdependence in social living is developed through the normal classroom activities daily.

According to Dewey [1916] and Kaltsounis [1990], the preparation for citizenship is that children participate in the development of the classroom social system. A former NCSS president, John U. Michaelis, based his recommendations for teaching Social Studies at the elementary school level on this Dewey idea [1980]. Additionally, Bruce Joyce and Marsha Weil have observed many instructional and learning strategies and have identified specific social systems generated by each model [Models of Teaching, 1991, 1986, 1979, 1972]. According to the literature, classrooms are miniature societies in which teachers guide children to learn:

1. To respect the rights of others;
2. To accept responsibilities;
3. To do her or his share of the work;
4. To act unselfishly and cooperatively as a member of a social group;
5. To develop an awareness of and maintenance of society's cultural heritage;
and,
6. To empower children with skills and knowledge to create a world of better tomorrows [Dewey, 1960, 1946, 1916, 1910, 1902, 1899; Naisbitt, 1982; Bellah, 1986; Kaltsounis, 1991; Barbini et al., 1985; Tussman, 1958; Raskin and Berstein, 1987; Hunt and Metcalf, 1955].

During the 1920s, as the social and economic changes were occurring in the United States, arduous mental discipline was receding from elementary classrooms. The Dewey-Kilpatrick-Parker era was becoming the norm for the educational system in the United States. American educational philosophy began to take hold which provides its children

with the education for a democratic society. According to the literature, cooperative learning is better for learning than teacher domination [Slavin, 1983; Johnson et al, 1981; Thelen, 1960; Dewey, 1960, 1916, 1910]. According to Sharin, Israel [1981], cooperative learning is the most effective for teaching basic skills, as well as the more complex cognitive, moral, personal, and social domains. Baveja et al, [1985], conducted a study in which concept and intuitive-deductive procedures were carried out in cooperative classrooms. According to this team, the cooperative treatment generated gains twice those of a comparison group that received intensive individual and group tutoring over the same material. Additionally, according to Baveja et al, [1985], the information-processing and social-interaction instructional and learning models generate learning environments which are conducive to cooperative learning in Social Studies classes. According to Joyce and Weil [1991, 1986, 1979, 1972], instructional and learning strategies can be divided into four families with each family designed to obtain specific goals.

However, this author's concern is with those instructional and learning models which are most appropriate for simultaneously developing children's abilities to attain and form concepts, thinking skills, and analytical tools, and to solve social issues within their immediate environment [NCSS, 1991, 1988, 1962; Kaltsounis, 1991]. Three of the foregoing instructional and learning families are relevant for developing basic thinking skills, concept attainment and formation, analytical tools, and social participation skills for futuristic and classroom usage. Those instructional and learning families are:

1. Information-Processing Family;
2. Personal Family; and
3. Social or Cooperative Family.

Rather, it is selected models within these three families that enhance the development of the aforementioned skills, abilities, and tools essential for developing and sustaining the elementary school classroom as a miniature democracy [Joyce and Weil, 1991, 1986,

1979, 1972]. Based upon this author's experience of following the syntaxes of these instructional and learning models, it is the integration of selected ones from three families that achieve the developmental goals in children's academic, moral, personal, political, and social domains.

This author further suggests the following instructional and learning strategies for developing the total child:

Information-Processing Family:

Concept Attainment [Bruner et al, 1967]

Concept Formation [Taba, 1967]

Personal Family:

The Classroom Meeting [Glasser, 1969]

Social/Cooperative Family:

Role Playing [F. and G. Schaftel, 1967].

According to Joyce and Weil [1991, 1986, 1979, 1972], these instructional and learning strategies are designed to produce specific results in children and in the learning environment. For example, the Information-Processing Family of teaching models is designed for long-term retention of knowledge and to create cooperative learning environments. The Personal Family of teaching models is designed to develop self-organization, productive thinking, and motivation to achieve while creating an environment in which the teacher provides the leadership and children express value judgments, make decisions about morality, initiate topics for discussion and debate, and are change agents of the behavioral process. The primary function of the Social or Cooperative Family of teaching models is to develop group problem-solving and social activism as well as positive human relations while creating an environment where children explore problems and are encouraged to express themselves freely and honestly regarding their feelings, ideas, or attitudes. Each of these teaching model families allows

classrooms to be “child-centered” under the guidance of the teacher rather than teacher-dominated. Furthermore, it is this concept of child-centeredness that makes the elementary school peerless among all other educational institutions [Sergiovanni and Elliott, 1975].

Therefore, since the focus of this inquiry is to investigate how teachers use cooperative learning in their Social Studies classes, it follows, then, that the aforementioned instructional and learning strategies are this author’s selection as listed above for this study. The literature further states that these foregoing families complement each other [Michaelis, 1980; Hunt, 1971; Holt, 1968; Cook and Cook, 1967; Taba, 1967, 1964; Schaftel and Schaftel, 1967; Bruner et al., 1967; Harvey, 1967; Hullfish and Smith, 1961; Crosby, 1965; Dewey, 1960, 1956, 1946, 1920, 1916, 1910; Bank Street School, 1950; Joyce and Weil, 1991, 1986, 1979, 1972].

Several studies have been conducted concerning the interspersing of inductive-deductive thinking [Taba’s Concept-Formation, 1967], and with Bruner et al’s Concept Attainment [1967]. Both models are designed for specific instructions and learning of concepts and provide practice in inductive-deductive reasoning and opportunities for improving children’s concept-building strategies. According to Gagné [1965] and McKinney et al [1983], these strategies, concept attainment and formation, nurture an awareness of alternative perspectives with abstract concepts.

Moreover, the concept attainment and formation models provide direct instructions for the nature of concepts, improved concept-building strategies, inductive-deductive reasoning, and confrontational processes [Joyce and Weil, 1991, 1986, 1979, 1972; Baveja et al, 1985; McKinney et al, 1983; Bruner et al, 1967; Taba, 1967, 1964, 1952; Gagné, 1965]. These researchers further cite the other indirect or nurturing effects of these models such as sensitivity to logical reasoning in communication, tolerance of ambiguity [but attention to logic], attention to logic, sensitivity to language, and awareness of the nature of knowledge.

This author suggests that there is compatibility between cooperative learning and the multi-disciplinary Social Studies at the elementary school level [based upon her 20 years' teaching experience]. This author further suggests the use of the academic discipline, Social Studies, as one of the most effective means of using the teaching technique, cooperative learning, because it develops the foundation upon which the positive adult social participation skills rest in the United States. According to the Social Studies textbooks written for the elementary school, cooperative learning activities involve the concepts, processes, and skills from various disciplines. Moreover, when integrated or multi-disciplinary Social Studies combines with total language arts at the elementary school level and word problems from arithmetic, children receive a liberal arts or general education [Bass, 1991; Ludwig, 1991; Kaltsounis, 1991; Banks, 1991; Barbini et al, 1985; Toth, 1991; Smith, 1991; Palmer and Davis, 1919].

Among the vast repository of literature concerning the Social Studies classes in the elementary school, one does not find studies that focus upon the five basic protocols for discussion as articulated by NCSS [1988] or The Classroom Meeting [Glassner's 1969 concept for discussion]. However, those studies which have been done concerning cooperative learning in these Social Studies classes do inform us that children are engaging in the social participation skills' development. Yet, very little, if any, literature addresses these issues. Therefore, this author proposes the investigation of these social participation skills.

Cooperative learning is a situation in which pupils work together in small groups and receive rewards or recognition based upon the group's performance.¹ According to the literature, this process promotes academic achievement and social skills development [Slavin, 1990; McKinney et al, 1983; Johnson and Johnson, 1981, 1974; Thelen, 1960; Dewey, 1960, 1910]. According to Sharin [Israel, 1981], cooperative learning is most effective for teaching the basic skills as well as the more complex cognitive, moral,

¹Eric File Thesaurus, 1982-1992.

personal, political, and social domains. In 1985, Baveja et al. conducted a study in which concept and inductive-deductive procedures were carried out in cooperative classrooms. According to this team their findings prove that the information-processing and social-interaction instructional and learning models complement each other. (Social-interaction models are the personal capacity and social or cooperative instructional and learning strategies). According to Baveja et al, the cooperative treatment generated gains twice those of a comparison group that received intensive individual and group tutoring over the same material. Also, in 1985 after observing several cooperative Social Studies classes, Graybeal and Stodolsky reported two very important factors regarding cooperative learning, namely:

1. The majority of Social Studies classes at the elementary school level are cooperative classrooms.
2. Children's involvement is highest in the cooperative classrooms.

The literature further states that when compared to the effect of cooperative learning versus competitive learning situation on achievement, cooperative learning promotes higher individual achievement [Johnson and Johnson, 1989a]. Slavin [1990] supports the findings of Johnson and Johnson, adding that these effects are particularly important because of additional benefits of cooperative learning for social skills development. Moreover, both the Johnsons' and Slavin's finding cite that additional gains have been observed in the liking of school and the subject studied as well as time-on-task and attendance.

The Manitoba Department of Education and Training [Canada] includes group performance in its 1989 Social Studies Assessment for fourth graders. Teachers of the performing groups are later interviewed concerning the social participation skills of these children. The Alberta Department of Education [Canada] includes in its Social Studies Grades 4-6 Teachers' Resource Manual [Antonik, 1989] strategies for cooperative learning. Comparison studies of geographical concepts of Japan and the United States;

China and the United States have successfully used cooperative classrooms in Australia, England, Sweden, Germany, Israel, and other countries who have educators with membership in the Association for School and Curriculum Development [ASCD].

Several studies have been conducted in the elementary schools concerning the interspersing of inductive-deductive thinking in these cooperative learning classrooms [Taba's Concept Formation, 1967; Bruner et al's Concept Attainment, 1967; Baveja et al., 1985; McKinney et al., 1983; Kaplan, 1990; David, 1987; Brody, 1988; Kalko, 1987; Jassim, 1990; Gagné and Briggs, 1979]. Both models are designed for instructions and learning of specific concepts and provide practice in inductive reasoning and opportunities for improving concept-building strategies in children. Moreover, these instructional and learning strategies generate democratic social environments in the cooperative classroom. According to Gagné [1965], McKinney et al [1983], and Joyce and Weil [1991, 1986, 1979, 1972], the concept attainment and formation strategies nurture an awareness of alternative perspectives with abstract concepts.

According to the literature, cooperative learning is compatible with these instructional and learning models which generate a classroom environment which enhances cooperative learning while simultaneously attending to children's academic, moral, personal, political, and social domains [Joyce and Weil, 1991, 1986, 1979, 1972]. Children's interaction is encouraged by the use of these instructional and learning strategies. Children assume more initiative for the inductive-deductive process as they gain more experience with methods of acquiring basic Social Studies concepts. Cooperative learning activities provide this needed experience. Children experience positive interdependence, face-to-face interaction, individual accountability, interpersonal skills, and group processing [Johnson et al, 1990]. According to Joyce and Weil [1991, 1986, 1979, 1972], teachers assist children in discussing and evaluating thinking, planning, and presenting their projects. In this instance, teachers and children have a cooperative experience. As children enter each succeeding grade they are able to move

from moderate classroom structure to low classroom structure at the sixth through eighth-grade level.

Therefore, at these grade levels [six, seven, and eight], children's perfected cooperative learning skills are immediately observable. They move the decision-making process of small group discussion faster than they did in previous grades.

Cooperative learning, summarily, is an effective instructional and learning strategy which provides children with experience to:

1. Use discussion as an instruction and learning strategy;
2. Practice the five basic protocols for oral discussion as articulated by NCSS [1988];
3. Think critically;
4. Grow in self-esteem;
5. Have positive interdependence;
6. Have face-to-face interaction;
7. Develop individual accountability;
8. Develop interpersonal accountability;
9. Develop interpersonal skills; and,
10. Develop group processing.

Thus far, this author has presented support for cooperative learning in the elementary school Social Studies class. Following is the discussion concerning the effectiveness of this process and its affect upon every child regardless of the child's personality, abilities, skills, culture, et cetera.

The following presentation of this author's twenty years of using cooperative learning in two urban school systems with all types of children confirms what is known and recorded in the literature. Moreover, her undergraduate training at Drake University included cooperative and traditional instructional and learning strategies with consideration for individual needs.

Cooperative learning is effective for every type of child, including the learning and physically disabled, emotionally impaired, “dull or slow,” low average, middle-average, high-average, gifted or talented, the mainstream special education child, personality types, and culturally deprived as well as the child from the inner-city slum area, lower-lower socio-economic home, middle-lower socio-economic home, upper-lower socio-economic home, lower-middle socio-economic home, middle-middle socio-economic home, upper-middle socio-economic home, lower-upper socio-economic home, middle-upper socio-economic home, and the upper-upper socio-economic home. Moreover, cooperative instructional and learning activities are effective with all ethnic groups, including immigrant children whose parents are illiterate in their native countries and are becoming literate in the United States.

Usually, at the elementary school level, staff plans how to discover where children are academically [concepts et cetera], developmentally, and socially in the school setting. Recognizing that children differ in all areas of development, elementary school staff does extensive record-keeping such as anecdotal records, checklists, rating scales, self-evaluation reports, personality development records, observation reports, samples of children’s work, as well as the records of skills, processes, and abilities in every subject are including Social Studies. Since English and Social Studies have similar skills and processes, staff can use these subjects for reinforcing development through the cooperative activities.

In a democracy, the rights of the minority must be recognized. It is for this reason, recognition of minority rights, that the minority [timid, shy, culturally different, et cetera] needs special attention in this cooperative learning process. Knowledge of how pupils differ and in which area they need experience to stabilize a particular skill is shared in the elementary school divisions. Under these circumstances each year the receiving teacher can plan to address the timid or shy or aggressive child through cooperative activities without negatively affecting her or him. The high classroom structure at the beginning of

the school year gradually moves to moderate, then low structure toward the end of the school year.

About the beginning of the second marking period, the timid, shy child begins to demonstrate that she or he is gaining confidence in her or his ability and contributions to the group. Moreover, group talent differentiation helps children toward increased motivation to do their best because others recognize, praise and accept her or his best valuable contributions to the small group which in turn contributes to the whole class project.

Toward the end of the second marking term, more-abled pupils begin to lend their help to less-abled children in a caring manner without negatively affecting them. These children help to keep the classroom social system cooperative, therefore cooperative behavior is the norm. The teacher is required to provide individual support periodically through desk conference for private supervision and to determine how each child feels about the cooperative learning and herself or himself. Periodically, the teacher also schedules conferences with the small groups. Group membership remains constant during the first marking term. Then, during the next twenty-seven weeks, groups are changed so that every child will have interacted with every other child in the classroom. This provides children with practice for adjusting in adult life to various peoples and their cultures regardless of where they meet.

The third and fourth marking terms show a remarkable increase in children's knowledge of Social Studies concepts, skills, and processes, thereby increasing their development of cooperative behavior. The urban schools have children who are responsible and have initiative. However, some may continue to ebb and flow because of family trauma, racism, discrimination within her or his own ethnic group, or that her or his ethnic group is not included in the assignments. Some who appear to be timid or shy, or who have modest abilities and skills, are really gifted but lack confidence for they have not been encouraged nor have they had their abilities confirmed by teachers or the home.

Leadership positions in cooperative learning activities for these types of children move them toward stabilization of their skills and abilities. Even children who are recent arrivals from within the United States or other countries can benefit from cooperative learning activities because they are involved and accepted equally. There have been some schools that have critically proposed other views vis-a-vis cooperative with consideration of one's birthplace to identify one's ethnic culture. One topic for The Classroom Meeting during the month of October is Ethnic Cultural Heritage. Children research the customs, beliefs, folk tales, fairy tales, folk songs, religions, funeral rites, marriage rites, fables, dance, music, clothing, food, transportation, ways to earn a living, et cetera. Sometimes the teacher allows the children to select another culture if she or he does not want to research her or his own culture at the beginning of the school year with the condition that her or his culture is researched and presented to the class by the first Monday in May. Each child is assigned bulletin board space to display the illustrated culture. The class is given a list of items which apply to all cultures as the criteria for developing the ethnic exhibit.

During the second, third and fourth marking periods, the children work together in groups to prepare written reports and decide which way to illustrate the ideas best. The illustrations are to include children as they are in their world within the particular culture such as family, school, church, community events and interacting in their several environments. They write letters to consulates and embassies for information and recipes. After practicing at home, they bring the food for the class to taste. The Home Economics and Industrial Arts teachers help them to make costumes and artifacts from these cultures. The teacher gives each child a hornbook from America's Colonial Times for each child to write concepts or mathematical information. This on-going project also allows the children to make articles from the earliest civilization to the present.

Another cooperative learning activity which promotes the understanding of cultures past and present is to have children use paper maché and the flour and salt dough to make

models of cities which differ from those in the United States. One day during the duration of a specific unit such as Ancient Egypt, the children can dress as the people did then or the entire class can wear bed sheets for togas while studying the Greeks.

There is ample research to suggest the efficacy of cooperative learning and discussion is an integral part of it for developing reasoning and thinking skills [Dewey, 1889, 1902, 1910, 1916, 1920; Kilpatrick, 1919-1925; Bode, 1927; Lock, 1927; Counts, 1932; Judd, 1934; Bank Street School, 1950, Hullfish and Smith, 1961; Harvey, 1961; Taba, 1967, 1964, 1952; Crosby, 1965; Schroder et al, 1967; Cook and Cook, 1967; Bruner et al, 1967; Schaftel and Schaftel, 1967; Holt, 1968; Johnson and Johnson, 1981, 1974; Sharin, Israel, 1981; Slavin, 1983; Bavega et al, 1985; Sharan and Sharan, 1990; Kaltounis, 1990; Joyce and Weil, 1991, 1986, 1979, 1972; NCSS, 1991, 1962].

Thus far, this author has presented support for cooperative learning at the elementary level. It follows, then, that the opposing side should be presented for there was contemporary opposition and lasting criticism namely, multiculturalists, essentialists, and perennialists.

Multiculturalism

This author mentioned earlier that in 1953, Harold Rugg suggested the need for multi-culturalism to be added to the Social Studies curriculum especially an understanding of the African-American. The educational system of the United States is basically Eurocentric even though Asian Americans, African Americans, Australian Americans, Latin America Americans [Hispanics], Mexican Americans [Chicanos], and Native Americans attend the schools. Therefore, the educational system of the United States should have multiculturalism included in its Social Studies curriculum for each immigrant group keeps some of its customs, celebrations and foods from their native

lands. Since World War I, some communities are involved in multicultural activities in their schools as community centers. Also, in the mid-west, one can find organizations which promote cultural exchange. Some of the multicultural activities carried out in this author's Social Studies classroom in the mid-west are included in this literature review.

This cooperative learning activity provides cultural exchange among students within the classroom and hopefully, it will be useful to other educators.

Essentialists

It is this author's opinion that essentialists believe in continuing authoritative and militaristic practices in the classrooms while ignoring child differentiations in learning styles, cultures, socio-economic backgrounds and parental educational levels.

Furthermore, in this author's opinion, essentialists believe in the inculcation and acculturation of children toward mandated conformity. No questions asked [Brameld, 1969, 1955, 1950; Brubacher, 1969; Butler, 1966; Horne, 1935, 1927; Broudy, 1961].

Following are their beliefs:

1. Schools are responsible for guiding children toward the Divine Unity.
2. God is Universal Mind.
3. Mind controls body.
4. The world is governed by God's predetermined order and is impeachable.
5. There is a niche for all living and non-living elements or things or humans.
6. Natural laws explain all.
7. Every cause and effect relationship can be explained through natural laws.
8. Teachers must acquiesce to the God Unity because they must help children to develop a sense of this God Unity.
9. Subject matter needs structure and planning.

10. Drill procedures produce well-trained worker-citizens [Brameld, 1969, 1955, 1950; Brubacher, 1969; Butler, 1966; Horne, 1927, 1935; Broudy, 1961].

Perennialists

Perennialists' beliefs are rooted in Plato, Aristotle, and Aquinas which advocate aristocratic and hierarchial patterns of culture. Like the essentialists, they also believe in reality, knowledge, and value, but, from a different point-of-view. Their basic doctrine is hylomorphism: the unfolding of everlasting or perennial forms that lie potentially within matter; the inherently purposeful character of all beings; supernaturalism [the existence of absolute spirit, which controls lower realms].

Perennialists believe also that knowledge unfolds in ascending levels from ignorance [lowest level] through achievements of reason and spirit [highest level] where self-evident principles and revelation are the supreme accomplishments of humans. Also, perennialists believe that value arises similarly as does knowledge with intellectual being the first level followed by moral virtues; art and prudence are virtues of both the intellectual and moral; politics is inspired by the intellectual-spiritual fountain head of metaphysics and natural intuition, but, is primarily concerned with the moral virtues. Additionally, perennialists believe that learning as a mental discipline guarantees the maximum unfolding of humans' latent rationality and that teachers are to assist children toward the development of this rationality. According to the literature, perennialism is regressive [Brameld, 1969, 1955, 1959; Brubacher, 1969; Butler, 1966; Horne, 1927, 1935; Broudy, 1961].

It is the opinion of this author that perennialists, like the essentialists, believe that only a few are capable of discovering the principles of self-evidence. It seems that perennialists believe in an intellectual minority to rule the majority. They oppose

minority criticism or descent concerning public policy. Moreover, it seems, the perennialists insist upon leadership endowed with revelatory truths and values.

Both essentialists and perennialists believe that the main goal of education is to develop acquiescent personalities that are ruled by a few aristocrats. And, by their methods of instructional and learning strategies, children will, in adulthood, become subservient for the most part. Furthermore, they oppose democracy upon the belief that the majority of people in the society is the sovereign authority. However, democracy is subject to errors made and the need for constant reflection upon its decisions, therefore, circumstances such as checking evidence, introduction of new evidence, the experimental testing of all facts and proposal, continuous public testimony from dissenting or consenting groups are requirements of this critical process of democracy. As expressed earlier, the conception of democracy attained its beginnings in Athens, Greece by **Pericles in the 4th Century B.C.** Locke revived it during the Renaissance followed by Rousseau to the **Dewey-Kilpatrick-Parker Era in the 1920s** in the United States.

Other Ethnic-Centricism

There is another trend or school of thought which criticizes the educational system of the first sentence of the section, "Multiculturalism", Harold Rugg suggested the need for adding it to the Social Studies curriculum especially an understanding of the African American. Due to the public discussions regarding the Eurocentric educational system of the United States, other ethnic-centric voices are now being reflected in the elementary school textbooks.

As an African-American raised in the multicultural state of Texas, my childhood was filled with my African and "mixing" cultures of America. We recited and sang the Irish limericks; danced the Irish jig and the Polka; danced the flamingo, the square dances; observed the festivals of other ethnic groups. Also, we were aware that Texas did

business in 26 languages. However, this author understands that in some parts of these United States, the minority community was either not educated or under educated in this country or country of origin. Those descendants of the indentured African slaves who became free prior to the Civil War in the United States have informed succeeding generations about the various cultures of our Africans who came to this country as free persons settled in the Spanish Colonies of the New World. Most of them came after the Asiento Treaty. Then there are those minorities that are of mixed slaves and free or territorial persons such as Africans, New World people or Native Americans. During the sixties some accurate information was given as a basis for expanding the multiculturalism concepts in the Social Studies. However, today the textbooks reflect our mixed cultures more than before. And, as our population increases, there are more support toward including accurate information was given as a basis for expanding the multiculturalism concepts in the Social Studies. However, today the textbooks reflect our population increases, there is more support toward including accurate multiculturalism in our Social Studies.

Social Studies and the Academic Domain

Academic domain objectives:

General competence in reading, summary writing, arithmetic, map reading skills, information-location skills and library skills.

Satisfaction of these academic objectives in the Social Studies is obvious because these are essential tools for acquiring the basic concepts, processes and skills for learning [Joyce and Weil, 1991, 1986, 1979, 1972; NCSS, 1991, 1962]. Following are listings of the communication skills in Social Studies.

Speaking and Listening Skills

According to NCSS, primary grades [1-3] children:

1. Participate in informal conversations, taking their turn, listening with courtesy, and saying something of interest about the topic.
2. Contribute to group and class discussion, showing ability to listen thoughtfully and to ask pertinent questions.
3. Ask and answer simple questions with increasing skill, determining what information is wanted, making brief statements that are to the point.
4. Follow simple directions, listen intently, noting the sequence of steps, and being sure they understand the directions before trying to carry them out.
5. Give short, clear oral reports, sticking to their subject using clear language of their own and presenting ideas worth listening to.
6. Show skill in social situations.
7. Attend a radio or television program, listening for a specific purpose [NCSS 1991, 1962].

According to NCSS [1991, 1962], intermediate grades [4-6] children:

1. Make an effort to get interesting material for conversation.
2. Speak clearly and directly, using appropriate Social Studies vocabulary with understanding and correct pronunciation.
3. Note discrepancies and gaps in the information their classmates offer orally.
4. Differ courteously with the views of others; when necessary, give evidence from authorities in support of their own view.
5. Ask pertinent questions to gain understanding and to draw out the reticent and unresponsive pupil; do not monopolize discussion.

6. Time their contribution so that it relates to what has preceded and carries the conversation forward.
7. Give accurate directions for locating a place on the globe or map.
8. Give particular attention to time expressions such as “meanwhile,” “a decade,” and “ancient” and to the location of the place being discussed.
9. Listen for important facts and ideas to be remembered; try to retain these.
10. Serve successfully as a discussion leader both of small groups and the entire class.
11. Outline and organize ideas in advance of giving oral report.

According to NCSS [1991,1962], upper elementary [7th and 8th grades] children:

1. Follow the thought of the speaker; listen with an open mind; think through and weigh ideas; grasp significant facts and ideas.
2. Use Social Studies language effectively to explain, to describe, to inform and to narrate.
3. Use materials from a variety of sources in both conversations and discussions.
4. Point out false ideas and inadequacies of facts clearly and calmly.
5. Bring discussion back to the subject by restating the problem for clarification.
6. Change the topic of conversation tactfully if it becomes unpleasant or unproductive for the class.
7. Interrupt courteously and set others on the right track when points are misinterpreted.
8. Give brief, concise summaries of what is heard.
9. Make more detailed outlines preparatory to giving an oral report.
10. Use simple parliamentary procedures efficiently.
11. Conduct interviews with adults in their home or at their place of business.

12. Organize and present the findings of interviews, giving interesting and enlightening accounts of what was learned.

Reading Skills

According to NCSS [1991, 1962], primary grades children:

1. Locate needed materials within books.
2. Understand and interpret short stories.
3. Read orally to an audience with accuracy, fluency, and understanding.
4. Read extensively with pleasure and interest simple stories containing the travel element and easy informational accounts.

According to NCSS [1991, 1962], intermediate grades children:

1. Make use of simple biographies in locating Social Studies material.
2. Locate needed references on shelves in a children's library.
3. Find sources of Social Studies materials by using the table of contents, index and list of maps.
4. Evaluate a book in terms of the purposes for which it is needed.
5. Understand Social Studies material of appropriate difficulty and interpret it correctly.
6. Follow the local organization of a simple Social Studies selection.
7. Skim and read material rapidly as an aid in selecting important ideas to remember.
8. Organize the ideas in relation to the question or other purpose of the reading.
9. Read widely with interest and understanding narrative and other materials of suitable reading difficulty, including children's literature on the subject being studied.

According to NCSS [1991, 1962], upper elementary children:

1. Find sources of material by using parts of a book including simple appendices and items mentioned in #3 immediately above.
2. Use efficiently atlases, geographic handbooks, yearbooks, and other references such as The World Almanac and yearbooks of the Department of Agriculture.
3. Locate materials through the use of the card catalog or the computer in elementary school libraries.
4. Check resources of information for reliability on such basis as competence and objectivity of the author, sources of data, etcetera.
5. Adapt their reading techniques to their purposes for reading.
6. Understand and interpret accurately tables, charts and graphs in Social Studies material.
7. Think critically concerning ideas given in Social Studies material; begin to recognize propaganda and bias.
8. Reach valid generalizations on the basis of material read; apply these in interpreting new content.
9. Synthesize information from several sources for their use; classify the pertinent facts and ideas in a desired order.

Study Skills

According to NCSS [1991, 1962], primary grades children:

1. Follow directions to locate information in classroom books.
2. Work and study successfully by themselves or in a small group as required by the study situation or the directions of the teacher.
3. Alphabetize items according to first letters.
4. Begin to use children's encyclopedias to satisfy curiosities.
5. Read simple picture maps, giving information about a place or region.
6. Interpret pictures in simple library books and in classroom textbooks.
7. See the connection between reading matter and the accompanying illustrations.
8. Interpret symbols and signs met in every day living.

According to NCSS [1991, 1962], intermediate grades children:

1. Use table of contents to see whether a book covers a broad general topic.
2. Use the index to locate specific information.
3. Use the dictionary for help in spelling and for definitions of new words.
4. Use the almanac to locate specific information.
5. Make accurate alphabetical listings.
6. Interpret pictorial maps, charts and graphs presenting facts about a country or region.
7. Consult a variety of materials to locate needed information.
8. Read the captions of pictures, charts and graphs for a better understanding of pictorial materials.
9. See the relationship between personal and individual study and the work of the group.

10. Listen carefully to study directions as they are given.
11. Make note of important items in classroom assignments.
12. Take notes successfully for future study or reference.

According to NCSS [1991, 1962], upper elementary grade children:

1. Know the more general sources of information, turn to them for needed data and uses them intelligently.
2. Distinguish between sources of information and select the proper one to locate specific data.
3. Read and use special graphs and charts.
4. Use captions and accompanying reading matter and pictorial materials.
5. Make graphs and charts to illustrate concepts and to convey information to others.
6. Begin to use adult periodicals such as magazines, to get current information on a topic; read editorials.
7. Discriminate among several newspapers with respect to reliability of news coverage.
8. Keep notes for future reference for reports and study.
9. Budget time wisely.

Library Skills

According to NCSS [1991, 1962], primary grades children:

1. Identify the letters of the alphabet and learn their sequence.
2. Arrange simple words or names by the initial letter.
3. Use alphabet books and picture dictionaries.
4. Handle books carefully in removing them and returning them to the shelves.

5. Hold books properly.
6. Turn pages correctly.
7. Use a book mark to mark their place in a book.
8. Understand a simple classification of books on the library shelves.
9. Locate these books on the shelves by the classification number on the spine of the book.
10. Recognize the title page in a book.
11. Identify pertinent information on the title page.
12. Demonstrate good citizenship by sharing books, respecting the rights of other children and by assuming individual share of responsibility for making the room a pleasant place in which to read and work.

According to NCSS, [1991, 1962], intermediate grades children:

1. Apply their knowledge of the alphabet to facilitate the use of reference books.
2. Identify the parts of a book.
3. Use the foregoing information as they seek material for assignments from their classrooms.
4. Use the dictionary to obtain information about words.
5. Show a growing understanding of the special features of the dictionary.
6. Begin to use the Dewey Decimal Classification scheme to locate books in the library.
7. Locate entries in the card catalog or computer and interpret them correctly.
8. Begin to use the classification number on the catalog card or computer printout.
9. Use children's encyclopedia efficiently in locating and gathering information.
10. Consult more than one encyclopedia to compare material on the same subject.

11. Assume greater responsibility in the care and maintenance of library resources.
12. Learn to use some of the resources of the public library.

According to NCSS, [1991, 1962], upper elementary grades children:

1. Locate place names and statistical information in atlases and gazetteers.
2. Understand the arrangement, scope and use of different kinds of atlases.
3. Use the glossary of geographical terms.
4. Use specialized maps, and charts.
5. Use the index or lists of maps in an atlas to locate the required map.
6. Use reference books that supply concise information about places, things, events, people and progress.
7. Use special indexes to locate poetry, plays, and short stories.
8. Consult current materials as a source of information.
9. Use lists and bibliographies on current subjects.
10. Discover sources of free and inexpensive materials.
11. Examine and evaluate newspapers as sources of information.
12. Consult a variety of magazines for reference.
13. Locate needed material in magazines through the use of the Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature.
14. Consult many different sources of bibliographical information.
15. Select information pertinent to a problem.
16. Record information efficiently.
17. Demonstrate maturity by their consideration of others and their independence in finding and using a wide variety of materials.
18. Use the resources of the public library intelligently.

Writing Skills

According to NCSS [1991, 1962], primary grades children:

1. Dictate ideas in such form that the teacher can record them on the board.
2. Copy written material accurately; add on original sentence or two, on occasions, to make the material her or his own.
3. Do own writing with teacher's help in deciding what to say and how to say it, in spelling words correctly, using capital letters, and simple punctuation marks where needed.
4. Contribute ideas for more ambitious forms of writing which the teacher and children together compose on the board.

According to NCSS [1991, 1962], intermediate grades children:

1. Develop a sense of order or sequence in thinking and the writing that follows.
2. Do original writing with the teacher's guidance.
3. Copy material correctly when needed.
4. Prepare good written explanations to accompany maps, exhibits and models.
5. Use suitable expressions for various purposes.
6. Make increasing use of self-help materials such as simplified dictionaries, English textbooks for matters of form, report on an interview, record of observations made, and business letter.
7. Keep accurate records for particular purposes.
8. Make adequate preparation for written reports.
9. Check her or his writing and corrects errors so far as possible.

According to NCSS, [1991, 1962], upper elementary children:

1. Cooperate effectively in the preparation of written reports working with one or more classmates.
2. Make more elaborate preparation for writing a report such as carries on wide reference reading.
3. Show less dependence on the teacher in their own composition and gradually improves it.
4. Make simple, needed bibliographies in good form.
5. Proofread habitually and corrects their own writing before submitting it to the teacher.

These foregoing skills are coupled with the Social Studies' concepts at the elementary school level. Since this study will require children to discuss their mode of expressing and conveying information, it follows, then, that the conceptual framework needed presentation at this point.

Social Studies Concepts

This author presents a brief summary of the overall Social Studies concepts for grades 1-8. The elementary school Social Studies curriculum is concerned with human communities and their activities. Primary grades children study the family community, the school community and the neighborhood community. Intermediate grades children study the city [local], county or parish and metropolitan, state, and national communities. The integrated disciplines are Economics, Geography, History, Anthropology or Sociology or Cultures, Political Science and Citizenship or Civics education. Moreover, it is the concepts from these disciplines in the integrated Social Studies that enables cooperative learning activities [NCSS, 1991, 1962].

The Moral Domain

According to Douglas Superka [1991], moral education is instruction and learning that focuses upon issues of right and wrong. And, the moral education includes the development of values which are the criteria by which people judge what is important, worthwhile and good. According to Counts, [1945], the United States has five moral commitments: the Hebraic-Christian Ethic; the Humanistic Spirit; the Scientific Method Democracy and World Peace. Each of these commitments carry a right and wrong element. At the elementary school level, children receive an inculcation of values which include fairness, honesty, justice and respect for others through their daily Social Studies activities. For they learn about the individual rights, freedoms, beliefs and responsibilities. According to the literature, elementary school children have a sense, usually, of right and wrong as they develop conscience [Kohlberg, 1973, Piaget, 1952; Resnick et al, 1989; Harris, 1960]. Furthermore, when elementary school children understand the rules they follow them adamantly.

The Personal Domain

Central to the personal domain is the individuality of one's self so that there is a productive relationship with the environments with which one interacts during one's lifetime. Also, the personal domain increases one's effective information-processing capability to one's social group [Hunt, 1970; Glasser, 1969; Perle, 1977; Schultz, 1967; Gordon, 1961; Rodgers, 1951].

The Social Studies provide opportunities for elementary school children to practice group skills by cooperative tasks. This nurtures the individual development in self-confidence, respect for others and self and allows children to assess their strengths and weaknesses. Children learn that they are useful and contributors to larger goals [Joyce

and Weil, 1991, 1986, 1979, 1972; Taylor et al, 1964; Dewey, 1960, 1946; Hullfish and Smith, 1961; Atkinson, 1966; Hansen, 1962; McClelland, 1953; Meil and Brogan, 1957]. The objectives follow:

1. The developing organization of the self;
2. The development of productive thinking capacity [including creativity, flexibility and ability to produce alternatives];
3. The developing of personal meaning;
4. The development of aesthetic meaning;
5. The development of self-teaching and problemsolving ability; and,
6. The development of motivation to achieve [Joyce and Weil, 1991, 1986, 1979, 1972].

The Social Domain

The elementary school staff allows children through the Social Studies to participate in activities that involve them in the political activities, the affairs of international organizations and their community organizations thereby developing their future commitment. Elementary school children are further allowed to help create their immediate social system [classroom] through cooperative activities. [Kenworthy, 1955; Joyce and Weil, 1991, 1986, 1979, 1972; Preston, 1956; Thelen, 1961; Crosby, 1965; Michaelis, 1980, 1963; The Glen Falls Story, NCSS, 1964]. The Social Domain Objectives are:

1. Enculturation: socializing the child and transmitting a cultural heritage;
2. Developing competence as an international citizen;
3. Developing cooperative or democratic-scientific approach, political and social activism;
4. Developing economic competence and social mobility;

5. Promoting nationalistic fervor; and,
 6. Improving human relations: increasing affiliations and decreasing alienation.
- [Joyce and Weil, 1991, 1986, 1979, 1972].

Developmental Stages

Child growth and development are important factors along with subject matter used by educators to develop the total child. Therefore, at this point, this author briefly reviews the literature concerning the child's developmental stages.

Physical Growth Characteristics

Elementary school children have an age range from six to fourteen for grades one through eight, usually. That all children in each grade are approximately in the same chronological age is the only common characteristic among elementary school children. Any group of children vary in all other characteristics. Some are tall, short, fat, thin; with various hair colors; brown, white, yellow or black skin; shy, dull, bright, average, active, quiet, restless, withdrawn, brave, loved, rejected, healthy, under nourished; gifted or talented; rich, average and impoverished backgrounds [Kagan, 1989; Baldwin, 1967; Hoffman and Hoffman, 1964; Kessen, 1965; Hanna and Hagaman, 1962].

Each child's development is influenced by heredity and the environments with which the child interacts. Children pass through the developmental stages in an orderly manner, but, the physical growth varies from child to child. Physical growth is asymmetrical and uneven: large muscles before small muscles; some organs before others. Children not only vary in physical characteristics, rate of growth, and experiential background, but, also in temperament, intelligence, interests, and sensory acuity [Kagan, 1989; Baldwin, 1967; Hoffman and Hoffman, 1964; Kessen, 1965; Hanna and Hagaman, 1962].

According to Frank [1962], elementary school children have another uniqueness due to their environmental selections. Again, according to Frank [1962], children select what is highly relevant and individually significant and may ignore all else.

According to the literature, the primary grade children are constantly in motion; accident-prone; trying out new physical skills and perfecting others. Primary grade children's large muscles are better developed than their small muscles. Some have difficulty in controlling their arm and hand muscles to write. However, by the third grade, small muscle dexterity and eye-hand coordination are developed enough for children to add cursive writing, sawing, weaving, and other handiwork. Most first graders' eyes are mature enough for reading; most are not ready for very much close work [Kagan, 1980; Baldwin, 1967; Hoffman and Hoffman, 1964; Kessen, 1965; Hanna and Hagaman, 1962].

According to the literature, intermediate grade children continue to grow slow and steady; eyes have matured enough for close work; eye-hand coordination is good and they like to work with their hands, to build, do and perform. They have boundless energy and courage, are easily over-stimulated, and need adequate rest and relaxation [Kagan, 1989; Baldwin, 1967; Hoffman and Hoffman, 1964; Kessen, 1965; Hanna and Hagaman, 1962].

Social Development

According to the literature, primary grade children range in age from five to eight years old. Primary grade children love the rules, secret language, secrets and rituals of the gang; and, play for them, too, is ritualized. These children move from being egocentric to being cooperative and playing in small groups. Peer group acceptance is based upon skill in an approved game. Even though boys and girls play together, sex differences appear in their interests and in their games. They are aware of these sex

differences. Boys and girls try to imitate men and women through their behavior. The gang is important to second and third graders. Primary grade children grow toward independence, to make her or his own way with others, to run errands, to have opinions, to select her or his own friends, and to be trusted. As the peer relationships become increasingly supportive, she or he becomes less dependent upon adults [Kagan, 1989; Elkin and Handel, 1984; Damon, 1983; Williams, 1983; Bronfenbrenner, 1972, 1970; Baldwin, 1967; Kessen, 1965; Hoffman and Hoffman, 1964; Hanna and Hagaman, 1962].

According to the literature, an important characteristic of intermediate grade children is their reliance upon the gang. Boys and girls no longer play together and girls are not allowed in the gangs which often have secret names and “hideouts” from girls as well as adults. Girls form clubs, but are usually satisfied with fewer close friends. Both boys and girls turn to their peers for support, and companionship and are less dependent upon adults for ideas and sanction. Yet, adult approval and support are essential for children need to know that they are loved, understood and accepted [Kagan, 1989; Elkin and Handel, 1984; Damon, 1983; Williams, 1983; Bronfenbrenner, 1972, 1970; Baldwin, 1967; Kessen, 1965; Hoffman and Hoffman, 1967; Hanna and Hagaman, 1962].

Both boys and girls are collectors of a variety of things from stamps to match folders. Membership in groups, such as the Cub Scouts and the Camp Fire Girls under adult supervision satisfy the need to be with their pals and improve their skills and deepen their interests. Children in the intermediate grades are more selective in their friendships, excluding some children from their gangs, are aware of socio-economic stratification in their community and may use stereotypes in assigning status to their classmates. Boys who are lacking in needed physical skills to excel in games and physical activities are considered “sissies.” Other exclusions are hard to explain, other than “We don’t like her or him.” or “She’s or he’s not one of us.” [Kagan, 1989; Elkin and Handel, 1984; Damon, 1983; Williams, 1983; Bronfenbrenner, 1972, 1970; Baldwin, 1967; Kessen,

1965; Hoffman and Hoffman, 1964; Hanna and Hagaman, 1962]. According to Trager and Yarrow [1952], children usually reflect the opinions and prejudices of the adults with whom they live and grow [their parents, their friends' parents, and their neighbors].

According to the literature, intermediate grade children have a fairly critical sense of justice, fair play, and right and wrong. There is an increase in their ability to assume responsibility and self-direction. These children are perfectionists and want to do well, but, are easily discouraged and dislike being pressured. Usually they are cooperative, friendly, responsive, and have a sense of humor [Kagan, 1989; Elkin and Handel, 1984; Damon, 1983; Williams, 1983; Bronfenbrenner, 1972, 1970; Baldwin, 1967; Kessen, 1965; Hoffman and Hoffman, 1964; Hanna and Hagaman, 1962]. According to Piaget [1952], intermediate grade children are in the "period of concrete operations: begin to think logically." These children begin to organize their knowledge, classify objects and do thought problems. Sixth graders are able to reason realistically about the future and to deal with abstractions. In other words, intermediate grade children begin to identify qualities and characteristics of objects.

These children begin to use their peers for ideas, support, and companionship. They still have and enjoy adult supervision at school, in the home, and in community activities [Kagan, 1989; Elkin and Handel, 1984; Damon, 1983; Williams, 1983; Bronfenbrenner, 1972, 1970; Baldwin, 1967; Hoffman and Hoffman, 1964; Hanna and Hagaman, 1962].

Upper elementary school children are unpredictable sometimes; secretive and want privacy and possessions respected; desire money of their own; and object to parents' rules about late hours, study, manners, punctuality, and the like. Sometimes, upper elementary school children are egocentric, defiant, uncooperative, and overly critical. Then, they vacillate toward being compliant, cooperative, and eager for adult help. This behavior is

much stronger at this level than in earlier grades. Conformity to peer standards and culture is the dominant characteristic of these children.

Mental Development

Cognitive instruction is given in every subject. Bloom [1954] and Gagné [1974] provide the theoretical basis for the forms and hierarchy of learning in all disciplines. However, some researchers give specific information concerning the types of learning skills applicable in specific subject matter context. Palinscar and Brown [1989] discuss self-regulated types of knowledge that self-regulated learners possess and the relationship between basic reading skills acquisition and this knowledge. Beck [1989] discusses the influence that a student's prior knowledge has on comprehension of the reading materials in all subjects. Kaplan et al [1989] inform practitioners that prior cognitive knowledge relates to how well the elementary school children are able to learn mathematical concepts. Hull [1989] views the basic writing skills as a complex process embedded in a social context and that writing accounts for a large share of the instructional time in school. Writing is also affected by prior knowledge. Chabay and Larkin [1989] state that science learning is dependent on prior knowledge of scientific concepts and procedures. Bransford and Vye [1989] state the optimal conditions for cognitive learning involve students' intense engagement in reasoning, elaboration, and problem solving.

According to the literature, primary children are curious about their immediate environment. Third graders are also concerned with other environments, too. Primary children begin to use abstract terms but have difficulty with abstractions. They need concrete experiences to give meaning to what they read and hear. Primary children begin to understand simple cause and effect relationships, differentiate between fantasy and reality, to take responsibility, to understand simple time and space concepts, to

distinguish between right and wrong, and to be aware of the feelings of others [Kagan, 1989; Baldwin, 1967; Bruner et al, 1967; Taba, 1967, 1964, 1952; Kessen, 1965; Bronfenbrenner, 1972, 1970; Hoffman and Hoffman, 1964; Hanna and Hagaman, 1962].

According to the literature, intermediate grade children's differences are more pronounced than earlier; girls forge ahead in their ability to use various experiences, to do abstract thinking, to generalize, and to solve problems. Abstract thinking is rudimentary and they must have many concrete and first-hand experiences from which to generalize. Their understanding of time and space concepts are still immature. They have more understanding of cause and effect relationships, can make comparisons and can anticipate the consequences of various courses of action. Many of the concepts for daily living are formed during this period [Kagan, 1989; Baldwin, 1967; Kessen, 1965; Bronfenbrenner, 1972, 1970; Elkin and Handel, 1984; Hoffman and Hoffman, 1964; Hanna and Hagman, 1962].

According to the literature, upper elementary children are able to work independently and in small groups. There is much improvement in their ability to solve problems, to generalize, to find information, to understand and use graphic materials, and to handle abstract concepts. The upper elementary school children have increased understanding of time and space concepts, but these are not fully developed yet. They like to plan and can plan for several weeks; can take responsibility and can be self-directing but need to be held to commitments. They love to argue, to question authority, to demand proof, but they do not like to listen. They can communicate their ideas and opinions easily. However, they are somewhat insecure and confused about themselves.

Thinking Skills Development

Essential to this author's investigation are the thinking skills development in elementary school children. Following is a review of the literature concerning the thinking skills which relate to this study.

Thinking is a term which is described in many ways and, therefore, appears difficult to define clearly. **Russell [1956]** defines thinking as a determined course of ideas, symbolic in character, initiated by a problem or task, and leading to a conclusion. **Russell**, also, considers thinking as a process which is on-going while learning takes place, therefore, thinking is an intermediate action rather than the final product. Moreover, according to **Russell [1956]**, thinking is a process which moves from an initiation to some conclusion or solution.

Dewey [1910] indicates that thinking is considered to be a process which involves the discovery of specific links between what one does and what happens as a result of this action. He further describes thinking as that operation in which present facts suggest other facts or truths in such a way as to induce belief in the latter upon which ground or warrant of the former. In 1989, according to **Resnick et al**, thinking is a process as described by **Russell** and **Dewey**.

A summary of the literature indicates that thinking may be considered a method of educative experience embracing a number of elements, in which the children:

1. Become involved in an experience;
2. Accumulate facts they believe pertinent to the solution of the problem;
3. Recognize and complete one or more possible solutions; determine their soundness and further clarifying their analysis of the situation [**Resnick et al, 1989; Black et al, 1962; Russell, 1956; Dewey, 1910**].

Associative thinking is a type of thinking less involved than critical or creative thinking and is more closely concerned with elements in previous experiences, recall

specific happenings, a logical succession of ideas than is critical thinking or problem solving. Associative thinking is a process which involves reaction to a specific response in surrounding conditions. It is loosely organized, therefore, it may lapse into irrelevance, return to a path or groove or even start all over again [Russell, 1956].

Perceptual thinking is the least directive of the types of thinking. Perceptual thinking is most affected by the environmental conditions and is based upon the capacity of the elementary school children's experiences. Perceptual thinking is dependent upon environmental factors, the capacity of children's receptors and their state rather than upon a definite problem or goal. Perceptual thinking is developmental in nature; the beginning progresses from a vague, generalized response to a specific response and is clearly defined [Russell, 1956]. Russell [1956] emphasizes the importance of the home and the school in the development of percepts, which are some of the materials in perceptual thinking, through providing opportunities for children in a free or permissive environment to explore, manipulate and play with toys, blocks, tools and other equipment. Also, according to Russell [1956], children need help in realizing that they cannot always depend upon what they perceive because their knowledge of concepts is immature and the experiences are limited. As they mature, increase their conceptual knowledge and interact with different environments such as home, school and community, they begin to see the reality of things.

Inductive-deductive thinking is somewhat more directed in nature as compared with perceptual and associative thinking because inductive-deductive thinking denotes more interrelationship and a more definite conclusion.

According to Russell [1956], concept formation in children appears to be related somewhat more closely to the chronological age than to mental age. Russell [1956] cited studies which indicate that the development of concepts seems to move along a continuum from simplex to complex, from discrete to organized, and from egocentric to social.

Taba [1967] designs a series of teaching strategies to help primary children to develop their mental processes. Taba identifies three postulates about the thinking processes:

1. Thinking can be taught;
2. Thinking is an active process; and,
3. Processes of thought evolve by a sequence that is “lawful”.

In other words, Taba concludes that thinking skills should be taught using specific teaching strategies designed for those thinking skills.

Taba [1967] further describes the inductive-deductive thinking tasks as stages in the inductive thinking process. The first stage is “concept formation” [the basic teaching strategy according to Taba], the second stage is “interpretation of data”, and, Taba’s third stage of inductive thinking task is the “application of principles” as:

1. Identifying and enumerating the data that are relevant to a problem;
2. Grouping those items according to some basis of similarity; and,
3. Developing categories and labels for the groups.

Bruner et al’s “Concept Attainment” differs slightly from Taba’s “Concept Formation”. Taba’s strategy requires the pupil to form or create new categories; Bruner et al’s strategy requires the search for and listing of attributes that can be used to distinguish exemplars from non-exemplars of various categories. Both models are effective teaching and learning strategies for the entire elementary schools [Taba, 1967; Bruner et al, 1967].

Critical thinking involves the organization and unbiased examination of stimuli through comparison with relevant, objective evidence and with norms of conduct and behavior, and the formulation and verification of the hypotheses. The extent of critical thinking in children is determined by their background of information, their attitudes of acceptance or suspended judgment, their skills relating certain standards or values to the

object of issue with objectivity [Resnick et al, 1989; Black et al, 1962; Harris, 1960; Russell, 1965; Dewey, 1910].

Children in elementary school need to develop the ability to evaluate ideas, to be critical in scientific, social and personal matters for they live in a world of conversation, admonition, newspapers, books, television programs, computers, fax machines and other technological environments [Resnick et al, 1989; Russell, 1956; Black et al, 1962; Harris, 1960; Dewey, 1910].

Problem solving is the process by which children go from a task or problem as they see the task or problem to a solution which for them meets the demand of the problem. Problem solving is a recognized element of the thinking process which is composed of the application of a number of abilities such as remembering, perceiving, recalling, associating, generalizing and restructuring ideas [Harris, 1960]. With such an imposing array of abilities attached to the term, problem solving, it might be well to further define, first, what is meant by a problem, and, second, what is meant by problem solving [Harris, 1960; Russell, 1956; Dewey, 1910]. Essentially, elementary school children recognize that a situation is present in which an action or understanding is impeded. The problem may exist without the children's recognition, therefore, is not a problem until such time the children are aware of its existence [Black et al, 1962].

According to the literature, the different types of thinking follow a similar pattern of development and that the following steps may occur in the developmental pattern:

1. Children's mental activity is stimulated by their presence in the environment;
2. The orientation of the initial direction of thinking is established;
3. The search for related materials take place;
4. There is patterning of various ideas into some hypotheses or tentative conclusion;
5. The critical or deliberative part of thinking is developed; and,
6. The previously tested hypotheses is either rejected or accepted.

In 1910, John Dewey published his definitive study of the problem solving process. His work provides a basis for subsequent studies in this area of investigation. Russell [1956] substantiates the findings of Dewey with some modifications in the number of steps involved in the problem solving process and the use of terminology.

There are five broad steps which can be used to describe problem solving. They are:

1. Identification of the problem;
2. Comparison of the present problem with previous experiences;
3. Formulation of a tentative solution;
4. Testing the tentative solution; and,
5. Acceptance or rejection of the solution [evaluation]; Russell, 1956; Resnick et al, 1989; Black et al, 1962; Harris, 1960; Dewey, 1910].

Elementary school children do not always follow these steps in their thinking process. However, one of the goals of instructional and learning at the elementary school level is to direct the manner of problem solving.

According to the literature, children rely upon the trial-and-error experience while they are developing the sophisticated thought required for problem solving. Elementary school staff encourages this development by helping children to evaluate and learn from experiences. Moreover, elementary school staff can help children to learn, to use, and to condition their thinking toward an economical and effective method or strategy of solving problems [Resnick et al, 1989; Black et al, 1962; Harris, 1960; Russell, 1956; Dewey, 1910].

Creative thinking is defined as inventive thinking which explores new situations or reaches new solutions to old problems, or which results in thoughts original to the thinker. According to Russell [1956], creative thinking is a common characteristic existing on a continuum and not an esoteric ability possessed by a few. Creative thinking may treat a clearly defined problem and it usually has a high degree of personal involvement plus an individual hallmark.

According to **Russell [1956]**, these thinking skills have specific roles in the instructional and learning processes at the elementary school level. Furthermore, children are organizing their knowledge, developing their concepts out of their perceptual experiences, increasing their language skills, and minimizing their trial-and-error behavior for problem solving. These children have ability to use vocabulary. According to **Geoghegan [1989]**, their participation shows their ability to cooperate, to lead and to follow as well as to place the group task from the individual task.

Personality Development or Social Attitudes

According to **Erickson [1950]**, elementary school children face a number of basic developmental conflicts or problems. These basic conflicts or problems are not resolved completely at any stage, but enough progress has been made so that children move to the next stage of conflict or problem. Readiness for the next stage of conflict or problem developmental stage occurs when more positive aspect of the present conflict or problem stage has been incorporated into children's personality than the negative aspects. Moreover, there are dominant periods in which these developmental conflicts or problems arise. According to **Erickson [1950]**, there are five basic conflicts or problems which must be resolved favorably for children to develop healthy personalities. They are:

1. Trust -- mistrust;
2. Autonomy -- shame or doubt;
3. Initiative -- guilt;
4. Industry -- inferiority; and,
5. Identity -- role diffusion.

The trust or mistrust stage of personality development occurs during infancy. The infant gradually learns to trust those in her or his immediate environment which enables her or him to trust herself or himself later on. Failure to develop trust hinders personality

development in children. Without it children lack confidence and sense of responsibility to others [Erickson, 1950].

The autonomy or shame or doubt stage of personality development occurs during the pre-school years of children [twos, threes and fours]. At these ages, children are busy trying to convince adults that they can make choices; do things for herself or himself; and, that he or she is an individual human being. Under adults who encourage children to grow toward independence these children become “separate selves”. A lack of adult encouragement and guidance during this basic conflict or problem stage causes children to feel shame and have doubt as to their ability.

The initiative or guilt stage of personality development occurs during the early childhood years [5, 6, 7, and 8 years]. When children are in the primary grades, it is very important for the adults to allow her or him to express herself or himself in a variety of ways such as clay, paint, or crayon. The primary grades children, through play, learn about home, school, and neighborhood. They are learning how to get along with age-mates as they engage in classroom activities. As children develop good feelings about themselves because they are initiating new activities; and, carrying them out successfully. However, if children have built autonomy upon a firm foundation of trust they have a basic security which does not allow them to be shamed or guilty when they do less than their best. When the initiative or guilt stage of personality is lacking, children rely upon external approval for a sense of worth rather than for the joy of trying something and doing it [Erickson, 1950].

The industry or inferiority stage of personality development occurs during the intermediate grades [4, 5, and 6 grades]. Children learn to work, to persevere, to produce, and to take pleasure in seeing a job through to completion. Children want to succeed in spite of ability and emotional development. These children turn to peers for support and personal security. Organized games with definite rules provide children with a sense of stability and a chance to cooperate with the group. As the children gain more freedom to

make decisions, they become more independent. The children's feelings of deficiency and anxiety are conquered through group play. Adults can foster healthy personality development by helping the children see that the talents of every child is needed and that if one cannot compete in one field, he or she may succeed in another [Erickson, 1950].

The identity or role diffusion stage of personality development occurs during the upper elementary grades [7 and 8]. These children are concerned with the task of identity during this stage of personality development; understanding themselves and their role in society. They doubt their previous self-conception. They seek identification through group conformity, hero worship, crushes on adolescent idols and heroes and through career decisions. According to the literature when children have established trust, autonomy, initiative, and industry, they do not have much difficulty with establishing identity. Much depends upon how children have learned to accept themselves, their talents and limitations, to distinguish between what they can do and can not do, and the kinds of interpersonal relations he or she has [Erickson, 1950].

Children who have been too controlled or hemmed in by adult authority often like to control and order others around. But, when school staff and other community agencies help children to see that they can succeed at something more positive aspects of conflict or problems become incorporated into children's personalities. Children must know their abilities and where they can use their talents [Erickson, 1950].

According to the literature, children feel inadequacy and inferiority if their status among the group is less than his or her peers. Also, children may have been in family traumas that cause them to become hopeless concerning their tools and skills. The family trauma may cause some children to be unprepared for school life or the school may not be able to help with developing the healthy personality. Timidity, shyness, and racism could be other inadequacies which could negatively affect children of different racial backgrounds into white or black majority classroom.

Moral Development

According to Piaget [1956], children build up a sense of duty in their relations with the world around them. And, that early sense of right and wrong comes from responding to the rules inculcated by adults and older children. In other words, according to Piaget, an external conventionality is developed. However, children must pass through this stage before advancing to a higher stage of moral autonomy. In order to promote the development of moral autonomy at the elementary school level; school staff must guide their progress from the stage at which values are extremely imposed so that children make more and more of their value decisions [Kohlberg, 1974; Rich et al, 1968].

Developmental Tasks

Developmental tasks are defined by Havihurst [1952] as the tasks which arise at or about a certain period in the life of an individual, successful achievement of which leads to her or his happiness and to success with later tasks, while failure leads to unhappiness in the individual, disapproval by the society and difficulty with later tasks. According to Havihurst [1952], the age-period from six to twelve has three great outward pushes: children are sent from home into peer group; sent into the world of games and work requiring neuromuscular skills; and, sent into the world of adult concepts, logic, symbolism, and communication. The developmental tasks which all elementary school children must achieve grow out of the thrusts of growth in them. They are:

1. Learning physical skills necessary for ordinary games.
2. Building wholesome attitudes toward oneself as a growing organism.
3. Learning to get along with age-mates.
4. Learning an appropriate masculine and feminine social role.
5. Developing fundamental skills in reading, writing and calculating.

6. Developing concepts necessary for everyday living.
7. Developing conscience, morality, and a scale of values.
8. Achieving personal independence.
9. Developing attitudes toward social groups and institutions [Havihurst, 1952].

Developmental tasks are set by the pressures and expectations of the society and by the changes that take place in the individual child as a result of maturation. The social pressures are exerted by parents, social institutions and play groups in the process of socialization so that the child will be accepted and approved. Developmental tasks have certain characteristics in that all members of a society must achieve the tasks at the time when it is appropriate or they are not likely to achieve the tasks appropriate for the next level of development. Developmental tasks are interrelated and failure to achieve one such as a “wholesome attitude toward one’s self” may interfere with the development of fundamental skills.

Social Perception

The relationship between what one perceives and how one acts implies that learning is not simply a matter of changing behavior but depends upon change in perceptions. Therefore, teaching involves the creation of new awareness of a sensitivity to elements in a situation which were not “seen” previously and which did not exist as far as the learner was concerned [Frank J. Estvan, 1962].

Perceptual development proceeds in levels:

1. Simple enumeration to;
2. A consideration of the parts of a situation to; and
3. An awareness of meaningful wholes.

Elementary school children need environments which help them to acquire the relationships, materials, and encouragement for living in our democratic society.

Therefore, the Social Studies classes must enhance children's positive self-concept development. Primary children engage in Social Studies content that emphasize things and people close to them in time and space. When these units of study are closely related to the primary children's lives, they grow in self-esteem as he or she perceives the environment, interacts with the environment. These children have a variety of experiences and centers of interest because of their short attention span. These children move from being egocentric to playing and studying in small groups.

Intermediate grades children are mature enough to consider the parts of a situation such as ascribing certain characteristics to clues in a situation. At the highest level of perception children will synthesize these clues into larger and more meaningful relationships and place the situation in a context which goes beyond the immediate situation. This is the result of children's own observation as well as children's ability to note more subtle relationships [Estvan and Estvan, 1959; Bronfenbrenner, 1972, 1970; Damon, 1983; Williams, 1983; Elkin and Handel, 1984].

Perceptual development is also a matter of type. Children in the intermediate grades seem to respond to the people in a life situation for things to them are important only as they relate to human beings. Nothing is more important than the human element. Another type of perception is children's recognition of external or objective characteristics before the internal or dynamics of social situations. The general order of children's awareness seems to be first the "who" followed by the "what" [functional; Elkin and Handel, 1984; Damon, 1983; Williams, 1983; Bronfenbrenner, 1972, 1970; Estvan and Estvan, 1959].

Use of setting or field in which life situations are viewed is also a mark of perceptual development. With increasing awareness, children see situations in a space-time setting. Of the two, a consciousness of spatial background usually precedes the temporal. However, children must have practice with space-time referents to improve this social

development process [Elkin and Handel, 1984; Damon, 1983; Williams, 1983; Bronfenbrenner, 1972, 1970; Estvan and Estvan, 1959].

There are physical factors that influence perceptual development in children. At some point, however, differences in children's sensory apparatus (sight, sound, hearing, smell, and touch) which will lead to differences in their perception of social situations [Elkin and Handel, 1984; Damon, 1983; Williams, 1983; Bronfenbrenner, 1972, 1970; Estvan and Estvan, 1959].

In 1950, Bruner and Krech related personality to perception because it is a part of children's response system and therefore of their "personality". According to Blake and Ramsey [1950], personality influences perception or the nature of perception is a determinant of personality can be posited with equal vigor. In any event, characteristic mode of response to life situations are strikingly evident among children [Bruner and Krech, 1950; Blake and Ramsey, 1950].

Language development and perception development go together [Elkin and Handel, 1984; Damon, 1983; Williams, 1983; Bronfenbrenner, 1972, 1970; Estvan and Estvan, 1959; Bruner and Krech, 1950]. As children acquire more concepts, they are able to make finer and more sophisticated discriminations in their perceptions of their environments. Intelligence is, also, related to social perception. High Intelligence Quotient is associated with superiority in the ideational aspects of perception but appears to have little or no bearing on emotional or feeling tones. The brighter children have capacity to integrate more elements in constructing larger and more meaningful wholes, therefore, they reach a higher level of recognition. These children have a greater sense of orientation as reflected in their use of both spatial and temporal references [Elkin and Handel, 1984; Damon, 1983; Williams, 1983; Estvan and Estvan, 1959].

Previous discussions of elementary school children's characteristics and developmental differences have been very detailed but are essential to this study.

Therefore, a summary is presented at this point. Following is a summary of the enabling factors for children to benefit from cooperative learning.

Enabling factors for elementary school children to benefit from the cooperative learning activities are that the instructional and learning structure of the elementary school is designed for small groups. Early on, children are given small group tasks in their Social Studies classes. They must work together to complete each task which is a part of the whole class project. These primary children can plan ways to complete the tasks once they understand the teacher's direction.

The intermediate grades children are able to think logically [Piaget, 1965, 1952]. They are able to identify a problem or a cooperative task such as planning parts of the whole class project. They are also able to plan the strategies for completing the assignments. Each child is able to select an individual portion in accordance with her or his abilities, skills and interests. Moreover, they are able to recognize the strengths and weaknesses of themselves and their peers.

Intermediate grades children's eyes are mature enough for them to do close works such as making relief maps from salt and flour dough. Also, they can make individual sections for large maps or three dimensional quilts which represent Social Studies concepts. Then, they can assemble individual pieces into a single project conveying a theme. Also, another enabler for cooperative learning among these intermediate grades children is their eye-hand coordination which enables them to build, and do, and perform [Kagan, 1990, 1989; Baldwin, 1967; Kessen, 1965; Hoffman and Hoffman, 1964; Hanna and Hagaman, 1962].

Further, still these intermediate grades children have boundless energy and courage, are easily over stimulated, and need rest and relaxation. Boys form gangs of short duration. Girls prefer fewer friends and form clubs. These children are able to assume responsibility and self-direction. They dislike being pressured [Kagan, 1990, 1989; Elkin and Handel, 1984; Damon, 1983; Williams, 1983; Bronfenbrenner, 1972, 1970;

Baldwin, 1967; Kessen, 1965; Hoffman and Hoffman, 1964; Hanna and Hagaman, 1962].

According to **Piaget [1965, 1952]**, intermediate grades children have a fair critical sense of play and right and wrong. These intermediate grades children are perfectionists and want to do group tasks well. Not only are they able to identify the problem, they are able to discuss the problem and decide a course of action to resolve the problem. They are usually friendly, sympathetic, and cooperative. They are eager to learn and expand their knowledge. However, at this level, individual differences become more pronounced than earlier; girls forge ahead in their ability to do abstract thinking, to generalize, and to solve problems. For most children, thinking is rudimentary [**Kagan, 1990, 1989; Kessen, 1965; Resnick et al, 1989; Piaget, 1965, 1952; Russell, 1956; Harris, 1960; Hoffman and Hoffman, 1964; Black et al, 1962; Pulaski, 1980; Hanna and Hagaman, 1962, 1955; Dewey, 1910**].

According to **Piaget [1960, 1952]** and **Pulaski [1980]**, intermediate grades children are in “the period of concrete operation in which they begin to organize their knowledge and do thought problems”. This period accordingly ends about age eleven and the next period begins: “the period of formal operation in which children begin to deal with abstractions.”

According to the literature, these children have the following steps in the developmental pattern of thinking:

1. Children’s mental activity is stimulated by their presence in the environment;
2. The orientation or initial direction of thinking is established;
3. The search for related materials takes place;
4. There is a patterning of various ideas into some hypothesis or tentative conclusion;
5. The critical or deliberative part of thinking is developmental; and,

6. The previously selected hypothesis is tested for acceptance or rejection [Resnick et al, 1989; Harris, 1960; Russell, 1956; Piaget, 1965; Pulaski, 1980; Dewey, 1910; Jenson, 1960].

Furthermore, intermediate grades children have a readiness for cooperative learning activities in their Social Studies classes because of their developmental stage on the continuum of concept attainment and formation [Resnick et al, 1989; Taba, 1967, 1964, 1952; Bruner et al, 1967; Harris, 1960; Russell, 1956; Dewey, 1910]. Their perceptual thinking is emerging as they interact with their environments. They are able to identify, list and search for attributes that can distinguish exemplars from non-exemplars of various categories.

Additionally, intermediate grades children remember, recall, associate, generalize, and restructure ideas. Not only can they identify a problem, they can follow the steps of problem solving such as comparing the present problem with past experiences; formulating a tentative solution; testing the tentative solution and accepting or rejecting the solutions [evaluation; Harris, 1960; Russel, 1956; Resnick et al, 1989; Dewey, 1910].

Summarily, intermediate grades children are developing the organization of self; ability to produce alternatives; problem solving ability; motivation to achieve; skills for participation in democratic social processes through the combining emphasis on cooperative and academic inquiry skills. Furthermore, they are enculturated with our national beliefs, responsibilities, rights, freedoms, and training for social activities and skills which ensure positive human relations. And, since our beliefs, responsibilities, rights and freedoms are based upon the Hebraic-Christian Moral Code they are also developing their moral domain.

Author's Position

This literature is the essence of this author's position and practice during her twenty years of teaching at the intermediate grades level. Furthermore, the Social Studies matter concepts are most effective for integrating the academic, moral, personal, and social domains at the intermediate grades level because it also integrates the communication skills [listening, writing, speaking, and reading]; study skills, library skills, locational skills, map reading skills; group work skills; perceptual skills; critical thinking skills; problem solving skills; and inductive-deductive thinking skills. The integrated disciplines are: history, geography, political science, sociology or cultures, economics, anthropology, music, dance, and art [NCSS, 1991, 1962; Black et al, 1962; Ellsworth, 1962; Murdoch, 1962; Rehage, 1962; Witucki, 1962]. Ellsworth [1962] adds citizenship, science and safety and health to the list of interdisciplinary organization of Social Studies.

The following paragraphs present information that has been authenticated by NCSS also. Periodically, this professional organization updates and disseminates a list of grade level expectations for children in the elementary and secondary schools concerning the Social Studies. Textbooks, museums and governmental agencies structure their educational resources to accommodate the Social Studies fused curriculum thereby augmenting the children's development in the academic, moral, personal, political and social domains.

Intermediate grades children learn the basic social functions of people with an understanding that these social processes or activities are universal:

1. Protecting and conserving life;
2. Producing, distributing, and consuming food, shelter, and clothing;
3. Creating and producing tools and techniques;
4. Transporting people and goods;

5. Communicating ideas, information, and feelings;
6. Providing an education;
7. Organizing and governing groups of people;
8. Expressing aesthetic and spiritual impulses [NCSS, 1991, 1962]; St. Paul Public Schools. Social Studies for Elementary School Children, No. 71, St. Paul, MN, 1959].

Michaelis et al [1962], present seven generalizations to define the scope of the Social Studies curriculum:

1. The culture under which an individual is reared and the social groups to which he belongs exerts an influence on her or his ways of perceiving, thinking, feeling, and acting.
2. The basic substance of a society is rooted in the most persistent and important problem faced by human beings.
3. The work of society is carried out through organized groups; group membership involves opportunities, responsibilities, and the development of leadership.
4. People are interdependent and need to live in harmony.
5. Man's environment influences his way of living.
6. Living can be improved.
7. People of the past influence our way of living.

This author selects four instructional and learning methods for creating the appropriate social systems for cooperative learning classrooms. Following are those strategies with their phases, social systems, syntaxes, principles of reaction, support systems, and applications. According to **Joyce and Weil [1991, 1986, 1979, 1972]**, the syntax of an instructional and learning model is its phasing or sequence. The social system describes the roles of the teacher and pupils, their relationships and the kind of norms that are encouraged. The principles of reaction tell the teacher and pupils, their

relationships and the kind of norms that are encouraged. The principles of reaction tell the teacher how to regard the learner and how to respond to her or him. The support system describes the conditions necessary for the instructional and learning model to exist. The application of the instructional and learning model are the effects of it, direct or indirect.

Bruner et al's [1967] Concept Attainment is designed to teach concepts and to help pupils become more efficient at learning and creating concepts. **Taba's Concept Formation** is designed to help children work together to learn information, build concepts, and to solve problems. Both models are members of the Information-Processing Family. **Glasser's [1969] Classroom Meeting** is designed to help children share in the creation of a positive learning environment. The teacher and the children establish the norms by which they provide support to one another and the space for individuals to grow. The Classroom Meeting instructional or learning strategy is a member of the Personal Family. The instructional and learning strategy, **Role Playing [Schaftel and Schaftel, 1967]** is designed for children to think about their social behavior and values by analyzing enactments of problem situations or characters or people. It is also designed to open values to study, and to improve social skills while increasing cooperative behavior.

Concept Attainment Model

Syntax: Phase One: Presentation of data and identification of concept

1. Teacher presents labeled examples.
2. Children compare attributes in positive and negative examples.
3. Children generate and test hypotheses.
4. Children state a definition according to the essential attributes.

Syntax: Phase Two: Testing attainment of the concept

1. Children identify additional unlabeled examples as yes or no.
2. Teacher confirms hypotheses, names concept, and restates definitions according to essential attributes.
3. Children generate attributes.

Syntax: Phase Three: Analysis of thinking strategies

1. Children describe thoughts.
2. Children discuss role of hypotheses and attributes.
3. Children discuss type and number of hypotheses.

Social system: the concept attainment instructional and learning model has moderate structure. Teacher controls action, but it may develop into free dialogue within phase. Children interaction encouraged. Relatively structured with children assuming more initiative for inductive process as they gain more experience with the model.

The instructional and learning model, concept attainment, has the following principles of reaction:

1. Give support but emphasize hypothetical nature of discussion.
2. Help children balance one hypothesis against another.
3. Focus attention on specific features of examples.
4. Assist children in discussing and evaluating their thinking strategies.

The instructional and learning model, concept attainment, has the following support system: support system consists of carefully selected and organized materials and data in the form of discrete units to serve as examples. As children become more sophisticated, they can share in making data units, just as in phase two they generate examples.

This concept attainment model was developed by Bruner et al [1967]. Phases one and two have been used successfully with children when the desired goal is the inductive process. Phase three [analysis of thinking] is not possible with very young children. Also, this model creates a cooperative environment.

Concept Formation Model

Taba's model for inductive thinking has three teaching strategies which include overt activity, covert mental operations and eliciting questions is based upon three stages of the inductive thinking process: concept formation, interpretation of data and application of principles.

Syntax: Strategy One: Concept Formation

1. Enumeration and listing.
2. Grouping.
3. Labeling and categorizing.

Syntax: Strategy Two: Interpretation of Data

4. Identifying critical relationships.
5. Exploring relationships.
6. Making inferences.

Strategy Three: Application of Principles

7. Predicting consequences, explaining unfamiliar phenomena, hypothesizing.
8. Explaining and/or supporting the predictions and hypotheses.
9. Verifying and prediction.

The social system for the instructional and learning model, concept formation or inductive thinking, is high to moderate structure; it is cooperative, but the teacher is the initiator and controller of activities. The principles of reaction are: Teacher matches eliciting questions to children's levels of cognitive activity, determines children's readiness. The support system: children need raw data to organize and analyze. This model is designed to instruct children in concept formation and simultaneously to teach them concepts.

Classroom Meeting Model

Glasser's Classroom Meeting is a member of the Personal Family of instructional and learning models. This model is designed to develop a caring group of children, self-discipline and behavioral commitment. Moreover, it focuses upon social problem-solving. The syntax follows.

Syntax: Phase One: establishing a climate of involvement.

1. Encourage everyone to participate and speak for herself or himself. Share opinions without blame or evaluation.
2. Exposing the problem for discussion. Children and/or teacher bring up issue or problem. Give examples. Describe problem fully. Identify consequences. Identify social norm.
3. Making a personal value judgment. Identify values behind problem behavior and social norm. Children make personal judgments about norms to follow and articulate their values.
4. Identifying alternative courses of action. Children discuss specific behavioral alternatives. Children agree on which ones to follow.
5. Children make a public commitment.
6. Behavioral follow-up. After a period of time, children assess effectiveness of commitment and new behavior.

The model, Classroom Meeting, has moderate structure: the teacher controls much of the action, but in certain phases she or he shares the initiation or closure of activity with the children. The chief qualities of the classroom teacher are warm personality and skill in interpersonal and discussion techniques which is the support system. The principles of reaction: teacher behavior is governed by the following three principles:

1. Involvement;
2. Non-judgmental attitude;
3. The classroom as a whole identifies, selects, and follows through with alternative courses of behavior.

This model also creates a cooperative learning environment.

Role Playing Model

The instructional and learning strategy, Role Playing, is a member of the Social or Cooperative Family. It is designed to provide children with enactments of human-relations problems concerning their immediate social system, the classroom. This process enables children to:

1. Explore their feelings
2. Gain insights into their attitudes, values, and perceptions
3. Develop their problem-solving skills and attitudes; and
4. Explore subject matter in varied ways.

Following is the syntax. Syntax: Phase One: warm up the group.

1. Identify or introduce the problem. Make problem explicit. Interpret problem story, explore issues. Explain role playing.
2. Analyze roles. Select players.
3. Set the stage. Set the line of action. Restate roles. Get inside problem situation.
4. Prepare the observers. Decide what to look for. Assign observation tasks.
5. Enact. Begin role play. Maintain role play. Break role play.
6. Discuss and evaluate. Review action of role play (events, position, realism). Discuss major focus. Develop next enactment.

7. Reenact. Play revised roles; suggest next steps or behavioral alternatives.
8. Discuss and evaluate, as in Phase Six.
9. Share experiences and generalize. Relate problem situation to real experience and current problems. Explore general principles of behavior.

Joyce and Weil provide four types of social problems which are amenable to exploration with this model. They are:

1. Interpersonal conflicts;
2. Individual dilemmas;
3. Inter-group relations; and
4. Historical or contemporary problems.

This team presents a list of sources of problem situations:

1. Issues arising from developmental stages;
2. Issues arising from sexual, ethnic, or socio-economic classes;
3. Value (ethical) themes;
4. Difficult emotions;
5. Scripts or “games people play”;
6. Troublesome situations;
7. Social issues; and;
8. Community issues.

The social system for the Role Playing model is moderate structure. The teacher is responsible for initiating the phases and guiding children through the activities within each phase. The particular content of the discussions and enactments is determined largely by the children. The support system: role playing is an experienced-based model and requires minimal support material outside of the initial problem situation. The principles of reaction are:

1. Accept all children’s responses in a nonevaluative manner;

2. Help children explore various sides of the problem situation and compare alternative views;
3. Increase children's awareness of their own views and feelings by reflecting, paraphrasing, and summarizing their responses;
4. Use the concept of role and emphasize that there are different ways to play a role; and
5. Emphasize that there are alternative ways to resolve a problem.

Since the focus of this dissertation proposal is to investigate how Social Studies teachers use oral discussion and its five basic protocols for oral discussion as articulated by NCSS (1988), it follows, then, that these instructional and learning strategies [Concept Attainment, Bruner et al, 1967; Concept Formation, Taba, 1967; The Classroom Meeting, Glasser, 1969; and Role Playing, Schaftel and Schaftel, 1967] are appropriate because they require children to discuss in small groups as well as in the whole class.

Summary

Summarily, the position is that children and staff at the elementary school level are participants in the teaching and learning processes as they develop the understandings of the problem domain, namely, Social Studies, simultaneously developing the moral, personal, political, and social domains in children. What do staff members learn? Staff learns which child responds to which set of instructional and learning models. Staff learns how to blend the supportive materials into meaningful support systems for enhancing the children's learning. Staff learns that the integrative method of teaching at this level is the best method to cover the academic, moral, personal, political, and social domains and affords opportunities for children to practice these attitudes, skills, and abilities.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

It was the purpose of this study to explore the effective use of five protocols for oral discussion and debate as articulated by NCSS [1988] in promoting cooperative learning in the integrated Social Studies classrooms. The five basic protocols for oral discussion are:

1. Giving one's individual ideas during discussion;
2. Listening to ideas of others during discussion;
3. Planning one's work with the group;
4. Presenting the group project; and,
5. Discussing how the group worked.

Data Gathering Techniques

The study was conducted in two stages: 1) Interviews with administrators about cooperative learning; 2) Nonparticipatory direct observation of elementary school children in grades three through six. The first stage involved the interviewing of city-wide and local administrators of the public schools, the independent private schools and parochial schools of the greater Boston area. The purpose of these interviews was to determine if the instructional learning strategy , cooperative learning with its hallmark, oral discussion and debate with their five basic protocols for oral discussion, is used in the integrated Social Studies classes. The administrative interviews were conducted by telephone with a follow-up personal visit.

Administrative Interviews

Following is the specific procedure for conducting the administrative interviews:

1. This author telephones the office of each administrator; states her name and the purpose of her call ascertains the name and specific title of the administrator; requests to speak with the administrator.
2. This author requests permission to ask the interview questions and for a follow-up visit.
3. The author asks the interview questions; records the important facts of the conversation for the study; thanks the administrator.
4. This author requests permission to visit schools recommended by the administrator at the follow-up personal visit in order to observe children as they practice the five basic protocols for oral discussion and debate, and problem solving through discussion and debate.
5. This author confirms the information given via the telephone interview.

The interview questions are:

1. Do your schools have cooperative learning in the Social Studies classes? Does your school have cooperative learning in the Social Studies classes?
2. Is this teaching technique, cooperative learning and effective tool for developing the academic, moral, personal, political and social domains in elementary school children? and,
3. Are the five basic protocols for oral discussion practiced? Such as:
 - a. Giving individual ideas;
 - b. Listening to the ideas of others.

- c. Planning individual work with the group;
- d. Presenting the group project; and,
- e. Discussing how the group worked.

The results of the first stage of the study are on Table 1 in the appendix.

Subjects

The second stage of the study was the nonparticipatory direct observation of elementary school children as they practiced the social participation skills during debate and discussion in their integrated Social Studies classes. Seven hundred eighty-six elementary school children attending twelve elementary schools in the greater Boston area participated in the direct observation stage of the study.

These elementary school children live in an urban area which is known for its cultural elements and events. Their families differ in education and socio-economics. These subjects represent every continent. Therefore, in their cooperative Social Studies classes, these elementary school children display varying abilities, attitudes, skills, cultures and values. They also bring various levels of the developmental stages to their schools.

However, these individual characteristics seem to have a positive effect upon the social participation skills development in the Social Studies classes. According to the literature, children's involvement is highest in cooperative classrooms [Graybeal and Stodolsky, 1985].

According to Frank [1962], elementary school children make environmental selections which are highly relevant and significant to them. It is this author's contention that peer relations are important to these elementary school children; therefore, cooperative learning is a natural for them. A further contention of this author is that as children practice the five basic protocols for oral discussion and debate as articulated by

NCSS [1988], they are fully grasping the social meanings and complexity of social issues; developing skills and processes for cooperative problem-solving and the social participation skills while simultaneously developing their academic, moral, personal, political and social domains.

Data Analysis Techniques

This author uses the educational case study method to analyze the data from the study because the case study method is very similar to the anecdotal records which every elementary school teacher is required to prepare for each child. Anecdotal records describe the behaviors of children such as academic, moral, personal, political and social development progress annually.

According to the literature, fieldwork is that process of gathering information through interview and observation. As stated earlier, this study was conducted in two stages:

1. Interviewing city-wide and local administrators to determine if cooperative learning is part of the instructional strategies in their Social Studies classes and to negotiate access to observe children as they practice the social participation skills during discussion.
2. Observing elementary school children in cooperative Social Studies classes in order to determine if children follow the rules for oral discussion in small groups and whole class meetings.

As a nonparticipant observer, this author saw how children assigned individual responsibility such as group leader, group scribe, group presenter, approach decision-making, problem solving, and select the whole class issues. This author recorded the behavioral response to the protocol on the checklist which is on page 76 of this dissertation.

Also, the Social Studies concepts which were being studied were noted to determine if children were attaining and forming concepts. **Kaltsounis' Seven Strands of Citizenship** are reflected in the Protocols Checklist. The observations determined that children do, in fact, help to create the cooperative learning environment through cooperative learning activities. Moreover, through observation, this author determined that:

1. Teachers use cooperative learning to promote problem solving, self organization, oral debate and discussion; and,
2. The five basic protocols for oral discussion and debate as articulated by NCSS [1988] promote cooperative learning in the Social Studies.

Usually, the teacher divides the pupils into small groups with each group deciding to assume responsibility for a task. For example, at the sixth grade level, if the concept is the beginning of cities, then children may create an ancient city or a city of today. To create a city, one group may collect information and pictures of how churches look or looked; another group may draw pictures of how churches look or looked; another group may gather materials such as clay, paper mache, or cardboard to build churches; and another group may construct the churches. It is this type of group task completion and the behavior of pupils during the execution of their responsibilities within the group that is of concern for this author. Another concern for this author is the promotion of cooperative behavior based upon the five basic protocols for discussion and debate as articulated by NCSS [1988]: Giving individual ideas: listening to ideas of others: planning one's work with the group; presenting the group project; and, discussing how the group worked.

The instructional strategy is discussion. Under the above conditions, these children are practicing the social participation skills as they develop their academic, moral, personal, political and social domains.

This author's written report concerning the study is in Chapter Four. The report describes the children's behavior during their discussion concerning their group tasks which express a Social Studies concept; their practicing the five basic protocols for oral debate and discussion as articulated by the NCSS [1988]; and, the Classroom Meetings [Glasser, 1969]. The report covers 786 elementary schools children in 12 elementary schools. The criteria for analyzing the report is Bloom's Taxonomy of Education Objectives.

TABLE 1

Results of Small Group Usage of the Five Basic Protocols
for Oral Discussion

# Schools	# Children	PROTOCOLS CHECKLIST				
3 Parochial Schools	264	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
6 Public Schools	414	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
3 Private Schools	108	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
<p>✓ Behavioral Response</p>		GIVING ONE'S IDEAS	LISTENING TO IDEAS OF OTHERS	PLANNING ONE'S WORK WITH THE GROUP	PRESENTING THE GROUP PROJECT	DISCUSSING HOW THE GROUP WORKED

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF THE DATA

The data collected for the study are shown on Table 2 of this chapter and Table 1 is in the appendix. Table 2 shows the three groups of schools and the number of elementary school children at the schools who participated in small group discussions and a summary of the results of using the five basic protocols for oral discussion and debate as articulated by the NCSS [1988]. Following is a descriptive case study of the study.

The Study

The primary ambition of this study is to investigate how Social Studies teachers use cooperative learning in their classes through noting their use of oral discussion and debate and their five basic protocols for oral discussion and debate as articulated by the National Council for the Social Studies, [NCSS, 1988]. This author found that cooperative learning with its hallmarks of discussion and debate and the five basic protocols for oral discussion and debate is used daily in the Social Studies classes at the elementary school level in the schools studied. Moreover, it is within the small group discussions that every child observed these protocols. During the whole class meetings under teacher facilitation, most children seem to be involved in the discussions by either appearing to be listening or by actually participating in the discussion. The listening is confirmed when in the small group for these pupils participate fully in discussing their group task. The study was conducted in the greater Boston area during Spring 1992 in grades three through six. It involved 786 children in 6 public, 3 parochial, and, 3 independent private schools; 4 city-wide administrators; and, 12 local administrators.

Three assumptions were made concerning the study. They are:

1. Cooperative learning activities develop the academic, the moral, the personal, the

political and the social domains in elementary school children; 2. Cooperative learning enables every child to: Develop the social participation skills; think critically; experience positive interdependence; develop individual accountability; and, develop group processing skills. 3. Cooperative learning at the elementary school level involves history, geography, economics, government, citizenship, art, sociology, music, writing, reading, and, language arts.

This study was conducted in two stages: Interviewing the administrators and the nonparticipatory observation of the 786 children as they practiced the social participation skills during oral debates and discussions in both whole class and small groups. The administrative interviews were conducted by the telephone method with follow-up personal visits to confirm the previously given information concerning the usage of cooperative learning and to request permission to make non participatory observations at the schools. School selections were made by the administrators. The city-wide officer for the Boston Independent Private Schools Association was not interviewed, but, arranged for this author to make observations in the independent private schools that welcome graduate students to see their non-competitive classes.

The whole class discussions and debates utilized Glasser's Classroom Meeting as the instructional and learning strategy to discuss and debate the whole class projects, to assign the small group tasks, and, to attend to the classroom social issues. The small groups used role playing, concept attainment, and concept formation as the instructional and learning strategies to develop their projects. Debate and discussion with their five basic protocols as articulated by the NCSS [1988] seemed to be comfortable for all children in both whole class and small groups. This cooperative technique began in first grade for these children. These instructional and learning strategies created cooperative social systems in the classrooms while attending to information-processing and information presentations.

Moreover, during the nonparticipatory observations, this author saw children demonstrating their abilities to process information such as using Social Studies concepts

as tools for organizing the information needed for the whole class projects; and, the individual tasks which are the elements of the small group projects. For example, prior knowledge of the Social Studies concepts enable the children to develop the appropriate dramatizations, biographies, poetry, short stories, role playing, and, other media to convey accurately these concepts to viewers, readers, and listeners.

Additionally, these elementary school children wrote haikus and cinquains, which were read aloud to their classmates, about past people and places that contributed to the continuing human experience. They enacted dramatizations. These elementary school children built appropriate scenery and paper costumes to illustrate people and places of long ago. They built cities of today and long ago to compare and contrast now and then. The discourse contained the "in" elements of the eras in accordance with their imagination. Reference books, encyclopedias, textbooks, film, and, filmstrips were used to authenticate their work. Concepts such as children in family, school, church and community settings were included in prose, poetry, drawings, dioramas, scenery, replicas, and, the illustrated short stories.

These elementary school children made historical timelines, diagrams, tables, pictures, films, videos, filmstrips, and, drawings of past civilizations such as cities, city jobs, industry, daily living, burials, births, marriage, education, children, customs, values, and family. They showed comparisons of past inculcations and acculturation with today's inculcation and acculturation. Weddings, baptismal rites, church ordinations, hospitals, and court trials were among their demonstrations. Fifth and sixth graders included the Salem Witch Trials which occurred in the United States 300 years ago.

For the multicultural activities, these elementary school children located visuals such as fine art reproductions, films, pictures of artifacts, photographs, filmstrips of ethnic celebrations and scenes of diverse countries represented in their classrooms. Another visual was a class made quilt. For this whole class project every child in grades 3-6 in the cooperative section of the school made a block to convey the concept of children during

Colonial Times in the United States in their homes, churches, at play, and, at school as well as the town commons. Some children attended to the ethnic art, music, literature, and, government. It was very inspiring for this author to hear these children imitating Billie Holiday and singing an Irish limerick.

These children used salt and flour dough to convey geographical concepts such as location geography [absolute location and relative location]; place geography [physical and human characteristics]; human-environment interactions geography [affect of the environment upon humans and the affect of humans upon the environment]; movement geography [transportation systems and communications systems]; and, regions' geography [unifying the physical and human characteristics of an area]. These projects had written facts also.

These elementary school children explained the geographical themes thusly: Absolute location is determined by latitude and longitude; relative location is the specific relation of a location to its surrounding.

An example of absolute location is: The capital of Ethiopia is 9° N/ 39° E. It is read: nine degrees north latitude and thirty-nine degrees east longitude. This absolute location tells one that the capital of Ethiopia, Addis Abba, is approximately 630 miles north of the equator; 2,730 miles approximately east of the prime meridian; and, Ethiopia is in the Eastern Hemisphere. An example of relative location is Brookline or any other town in the greater Boston area. Communication systems include word-of-mouth, televisions, radios, newspapers, and, letters.

The regions' geography refers to areas which have unifying physical characteristics, human characteristics, and, relative location. For example, climate, soil, vegetation, land forms, river systems, and, animals are very similar. These physical characteristics are manipulated by the humans into cultural, economical, social, and, political arenas to benefit humans. Some land areas are relatively located because of their proximity or absolute location: Latitude and longitude. These elementary school children used the Atlas, the

Gazetter, and, the Dictionary of Places as well as textbooks as models to create the following maps from salt and flour dough: relief, physical, political, product, population, historical, and, transportation.

During this study 786 children were observed in 12 elementary schools apparently developing their academic, moral, personal, political, and social domains. The children discussed the Social Studies concepts from geography, history, government, economics, culture, citizenship, and, sociology. Also, they demonstrated their abilities to use accurately the content related skills:

Map and globe; chart and graph; time; thinking; reading; writing; interpersonal; social participation; political participation; good work habits; and, citizenship. During these discussions, they demonstrated their acquisition of the concepts by recalling, stating or paraphrasing information in language appropriate for their ages and grade placements. Thus an example of developing their academic, moral, personal. political, and, social domains.

During these discussions, as they practiced the five basic protocols for oral discussion and debate as articulated by NCSS [1988], they were demonstrating their ability to follow the rules for discussion which is the developing of the moral domain. Those rules are: 1. Giving one's ideas; 2. Listening to the ideas of others; 3. Planning their individual work with the group; 4. Presenting the group project; and, 5. Discussing how the group worked. The moral domain also requires the children at this level to participate in the democratic process which enables the group to build a sense of cohesiveness. These children demonstrated their moral behavior by engaging in cooperative learning to achieve 100% tasks completion.

In the personal domains these children accepted responsibility for setting individual and collective goals. Moreover, they were able to make plans for achieving the tasks' completion. They were able to demonstrate problem solving ability through discussion to decide how to develop the plan to best utilize the talents within the group. At the discussion

level, they decided who would do what, then, each child informed the group about the construction of his or her piece for the group project. They affiliated themselves with the cooperative problem. They recognized their multiculturalism by comparing and contrasting cultures when appropriate. Another support for the developing personal domain is that each child had to organize him or her self to complete his or her work on time and develop the individual work so that it complemented the group task.

During the whole class discussions, these children demonstrated their political development discussing the forms of government in the United States such as city, county or parish, state or commonwealth, and, federal. They also discussed the concept of representative democracies: United States, Canada and Mexico. They also discussed our national symbols such as the American flag and its etiquette, the Liberty Bell, the American Creed, the Pledge of Allegiance, and, the Statue of Liberty. Another support for developing the political domain is the discussion of shared responsibilities, including being loyal to our country; obeying the law; and, paying taxes. Laws and systems of government from ancient Greeks and Romans were also topics for discussions.

Support for developing the social domain is that the children's Social Studies classes are miniature democratic societies. Each child has equal opportunities for participating in the discussions and debates of the whole class and the small groups. They engage in cooperative behavior and problem solving such as deciding who does what individually in order to achieve the group success. Following the rules positively affects their human relations. Another example is their assigning group tasks such as group leader, group presenter or group reporter, group recorder, and, individual tasks.

Moreover, these elementary school children demonstrated their knowledge of speaking and listening skills; study skills; library skills; writing skills; and, reasoning and thinking skills as articulated by the NCSS [1992, 1962] in accordance with their ages and grade placements. A common skill for every grade from the speaking and listening skills is the expressing of one's ideas or point-of-view. This skill is the same as the first basic protocol

for oral discussion and debate as articulated by NCSS [1988], namely, giving one's ideas. Another common skill for all grades is debate or discussion. This skill, debate or discussion, is the encompassing element of the protocols process, namely, the teaching technique: discussion. The skill, expressing ideas or points-of-view, is also a thinking and reasoning skill. Once a point-of-view becomes the final one, it follows, then, that it deserves one's defending it. These elementary school children did defend their ideas. Their defense is also a thinking and reasoning skill.

These elementary school children read and selected materials in terms of the purposes for their projects. They understood Social Studies material of appropriate difficulty and interpret it correctly. They seemed to see relationship between the work of the group and their tasks. These children demonstrated reading in the content area skills effectively.

Every school used moderate classroom structure to guide these children toward developing self-confidence, self-competence, sensitivity and responsiveness to others, constructive ways to meet their concerns, and, the concerns of others. Children worked daily in small groups and, when necessary, with the teacher under whose guidance they learn. Moreover, the school environment is a non-competitive one for the shy, timid child as well as all other children, rather, it is a team cooperative environment. Therefore, these children are able to express themselves, understand respect for work and play, for self-discipline, and the differentiation of their abilities competencies and skills. Furthermore, these children are examples of the dynamics of interpersonal cooperation and team competition as described in the literature [Johnson et al, 1990; Slavin, 1990; Kagan, 1989; Sharan and Sharan, 1981; Johnson and Johnson, 1981].

These elementary school children demonstrated their cooperative behavior as they learned traditional Social Studies concepts. Moreover, they participated in the democratic process by discussing the social issues relating to their immediate social systems: classrooms. These discussions require the five basic protocols for oral discussion as articulated by NCSS [1988]. Their citizenship education section of the Social Studies

require them to conduct debates and discussions conduct mock trials such as the Salem Witch Trials, develop American values and developing skills in interdependence. The result of the children's use of the five basic protocols for oral discussion and debate is recorded on page 81.

As expressed earlier, the goal of this dissertation is to investigate how teachers use cooperative learning with its hallmark discussion and its five basic protocols as articulated by NCSS [1988] in their Social Studies classes at the elementary school level. This author presents data showing 786 children observing these five basic protocols during their discussion in both whole class meetings and small group discussions. However, there are specific conditions under which this 100% was obtained through the nonparticipatory direct observations. These 12 elementary schools were selected by city-wide administrators because they participate in graduate research studies, therefore, they are rewarded for demonstrating their cooperative behavior.

Were this condition non-existent, the results of this study may not have been 100% toward giving one's ideas; listening to others; planning one's work with the group; presenting the group project; and, discussing how the group worked. Another contributing factor toward these behavioral responses is that these elementary school in grades three through six begin their cooperative learning in first grade which enhances their ability to improve their development of cooperative social problems in their classrooms.

Nonparticipatory Direct Observation

As earlier expressed, this study was conducted in the greater Boston area. The 786 participating children of the study were very, very diverse. The ethnic groups in the study are: Asian-Americans [Vietnamese, Loatians, Chinese, East Indians, Cambodians, British Hong Kong]; Australian Americans; African-Americans; Mexican-Americans; Haitian Americans; Latin America Americans and Pacific Islanders. Another element of this

diversity is the Chapter 766.4 children are mainstreamed into these Social Studies classes. Still, this author observed these children whose cultures, parental socio-economic backgrounds and educational levels are discrete yet, in these cooperative Social Studies classes, there is cooperation and high involvement of each child.

During this author's nonparticipatory direct observation, she saw children's faces expressing self-confidence as their actions and behaviors demonstrated cooperation. These children had prior experience with the cooperative learning because each of these 12 elementary schools have cooperative learning as the school theme except for 3 public schools. At these 3 schools, cooperative learning shares with the traditional elementary classroom at parental request. During the discussions, children observed the five basic protocols for oral discussion, namely: 1. Giving one's ideas; 2. Listening to the ideas of others; 3. Planning one's work with the group; 4. Presenting the group project; and, 5. Discussing how the group worked. None of the children were shy or timid in during their cooperative learning activities.

As expressed earlier, the goal of this dissertation is to investigate how teachers use cooperative learning with its hallmark discussion and its five basic protocols as articulated by NCSS [1988] in their Social studies classes at the elementary school level. This author presents data showing 786 children observing these five basic protocols during their discussion in both whole class meetings and small group discussions. However, there are specific conditions under which this 100% was obtained through the nonparticipatory direct observations. These 12 elementary schools were selected by the city-wide administrators because they participate in graduate research studies, therefore, they are rewarded for demonstrating their cooperative behavior.

Were this condition non-existent, the results of this study may not have been 100% toward giving one's ideas; listening to others; planning one's work with the group; presenting the group project; and, discussing how the group worked. Another contributing factor toward these behavioral responses is that these elementary school in grades three

through six begin their cooperative learning in first grade which enhances their ability to improve their development of cooperative behavior and resolving cooperative social problems in their classrooms.

CHAPTER V

THE CONCEPTS OF THE STUDY

This author set out to explore the effective use of the five basic protocols for oral debate and discussion as articulated by the NCSS [1988]. However, in addition to the two stages of the study, namely, 1) Interviewing administrators concerning cooperative learning and 2) The nonparticipatory direct observation of children as they practiced they practiced the social participation skills, a third component emerged. That component relates to curriculum and instruction. Following are the concepts which are arranged by disciplined and grade level. These concepts were derived from the small group discussions in which the basic protocols for oral debate and discussion were being practiced by every group member. These concepts are a collection of the individual schools rather than every concepts is the quantitative element of this study and represents excellent lesson plans for each grade level and discipline.

Following are those concepts which are the central knowledge base of this study. The concepts are arranged by grade and disciplines. Included are the children's representations of these concepts and a discussion relating these representations of these concepts to Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives.

History [Third Grade]

Third graders study communities of the earth in their Social Studies classes. During this study they are comparing and contrasting ancient communities with today's communities. These elementary school children include elements of the present day communities such as housing developments, apartment complexes, condo developments, suburbs, city, inner city, tent cities for the poor. The social services, city services, the police, nurses, hospitals, doctors, soldiers, cars, jails, businesses, postal services,

railroads with trains, churches, temples, car dealers, synagogues, cemeteries, schools, funeral parlors, busses, museums, rivers, dressmakers, men's suit makers, dressmakers, firemen, commuter rails, trolleys, subway trains, telephone companies, furniture makers, hair salons for men, women, and children, restaurants, libraries, and community government places such as the selectmen or councilmen.

Geography

Third graders study the earth's natural resources, land forms, and climate. They use maps and globes to locate these features on earth. These elementary school children use flour and salt dough to make maps showing the land forms such as mountains, volcanoes, rivers, and other bodies of water such as the oceans and valleys. They make drawings to show how humans are affected by the different climates. Drawings show the different shelters, clothing, food crops, and the seasonal changes. They make charts to compare rainfall, snowfall, precipitation, and temperature. Other representations include the main ideas of the communities of the world. and the effect of humans upon their natural environment, natural resources, land, water and ways to make a living.

Government

Third graders study the government of the United States including local, county, or parish, state or commonwealth, and federal governments. Additionally, they study the reasons for having laws and the leaders who make decisions for the community in which they live. The curriculum includes voting as a way of making decisions, choosing leaders. And that government provides many services which are paid for with taxes that are collected from the citizens.

After discussion in small groups, these elementary school children conduct a mock election according to the information given in their Weekly Reader. They write and post classroom laws and the punishment for violating the laws. They draw pictures of presidential candidates, gubernatorial candidates, and local candidates.

Economics

Third graders study the value of money to purchase goods and services. They are taught about community producers and how they depend upon each other. That the kinds of jobs depend upon the resources found in a region or community also. These elementary school children make pictures to illustrate these concepts such as factories, banks, mailmen, grocery stores, credit unions, check cashing places, farmers who send their products to the cities, transportation systems linking the producers and consumers, the governmental money making mint.

Sociology or Cultures

Third graders study that the ways of life shared by a group of people includes similar kinds of food, clothing, shelter, music, dance, sports activities and celebrations. Also, trade, travel, and modern systems of communications affect how people live and how they become similar to each other. These children collect pictures of different communities to develop exhibits to illustrate the similarities between groups of peoples. Their pictures include weddings, marriages, burials, baptism rites, birthday parties, school graduations and retirement parties. Also, included in their exhibits are televisions with and without cable programs. They demonstrate how to do certain dances and some ballet steps.

History [Fourth Grade]

Fourth graders study the history of cities and regions. They study explorers and early settlers of regions and cities. Included in their study are the groups and individuals whose actions and influences changed the course of history; ancestors of Americans, and the Revolutionary War. During this study, the children research the early explorers of American cities and regions; and, the clothing, food, shelter, jobs, and tools of Americans. They collect books from the library to compare the pictures in these books with the pictures in their textbooks and room library books. They select time appropriate clothing, houses, furniture, transportation vehicles such as horses, wagons, and buggies; churches, automobiles, the explorers and early settlers of America. They also make dioramas of schools, the commons, and sod houses with flowers growing on the roof.

Geography

Fourth graders study how volcanic eruptions, earthquakes, and water movement change the earth's surface. Rivers change over time. Natural regions are large areas that have natural features in common. Each region on earth has a particular combination of natural resources. Such natural regions as plains, deserts, mountains, and river valleys are found in many parts of the world. Latitude, land forms, and ocean currents influence regional climate. Different environments have different animals and plant life. Climate influences how people live and work in a region. Growing season, temperature, and precipitation determine the kinds of crops to be grown or livestock raised in a given region. People modify elements in the environments to help them fulfill needs and wants. Major regions of the United States are the Northeast, the Southwest, the Great Lakes states, the Plains states, the Southeast, the Mountain states, and the Pacific states. China, Peru, Israel, and Argentina each have unique geographical features. The earth has limited amounts of natural resources which are not renewable.

Newspapers and magazines are used to show the effect upon humans living in these different regions of the world. These elementary school children use salt and flour dough and drawings to illustrate these natural regions. They make charts and graphs to compare the regional growing seasons, temperatures, climates, precipitation, snowfall, rainfall, and droughts. They list the waterfalls, rain forests, crops and bodies of water in the world on construction paper. They draw maps showing the ocean currents that affect climates; citing the latitudes. They trace the Gulf Stream, a wind originating in the troposphere above the Gulf of Mexico causing temperature to drop and the North Atlantic Drift, a wind resulting from the merging of other warm currents which keeps winter temperatures warmer on the western coast of Europe. They show how elevation affects the climate: sea level is warmer than mountains. They make cut-out vegetation to represent the different regions. Then mount them upon tongue depressors and place them into salt and flour dough land of the appropriate region.

Government

Fourth graders study the governmental structure of the United States more in depth than the third graders. The United States is a democracy in which people are free to make choices about their lives. Government in the United States operates at three levels: federal, state, and local. Americans have many rights, including the right to choose leaders, to express opinions about government, and to own property. Americans also share responsibilities, including being loyal to our country, obeying the laws and paying taxes. Each level of government handles different kinds of problems and functions through three separate branches: the legislative, the executive, and the judicial. Americans believe in the importance of cooperating, sharing ideas, working hard, and being fair. Symbols such as the American flag, and the Statue of Liberty, unite Americans in a common idea of America together.

These elementary school children represent these concepts through drawings except the American flag which they purchase. Another form of representation is the role playing of candidates for city mayor, state senator, state representative and state governor. The pictorial representations show the city, state, and federal court systems. They do not include the appeal courts. They draw charts to show the costs of apartment living in the city and suburbs, buying and renting single and three family homes, state and federal congressional meetings as well as the meetings of the city councils.

Economics

Fourth graders study the use of natural and human resources to develop economic systems. Three distinctive activities of an economy are the production of food, the manufacturing of goods, and the provision of services. Commerce is the sale or exchange of raw materials, goods and services. Cities are the centers for commerce and manufacturing. Transportation and communication systems allow goods and materials produced in different places to be exchanged. The development of advanced technology has helped people to become more productive. Most people are both producers and consumers: producers and consumers depend on each other. The American free enterprise system allows individuals to make economic decisions. In some nations, almost all economic decisions are made by the government.

To demonstrate their knowledge of the economic concepts, these elementary school children decide to have grocery stores, banks, department stores, car dealers, and a food distribution center that exchanges food products for money with the retail grocery stores. The children use play money. They are employers and employees. In each of these mock facilities are managers who pay the workers their salaries and bonuses.

Sociology or Cultures

Fourth graders study the following concepts. All groups work together to satisfy the same basic needs of food, clothing, and, shelter. Culture groups develop distinctive foods, clothing, styles and shelters which suit the natural environment. Customs vary from region to region in America and throughout the world. Improvements in communications and transportation increase the interdependence of people.

To demonstrate these concepts, the children collect pictures from old National Geographic Magazines to show children and adults in different cultural settings. Included are the family celebrations, festivals, houses in different places such as on mountains, level land, on water, on stilts, folk dancing, in churches, temples, synagogues, and animals from the world regions.

History [Fifth Grade]

Fifth graders continue the study of American history which began in first grade. Some of these historical concepts follow. American History can be divided into major time periods. A study of the past shows how the ideas and experiences of people affected the present. The study of the past shows the development of important ideas such as liberty and democracy. The form of government in the United States evolved from a long tradition of people making laws through electing representatives, from people's experiences in settling a new country, from experiences from past forms of government, from a belief that people are born equal, and that government was formed for their well-being. Changes in the past have been brought by wars, by the migrations of people, by technology, by the motivation for freedom and opportunity, and by the contributions of individuals. The United States has exercised far-reaching influence in the world during the 20th century.

These fifth graders draw pictures to illustrate America's history beginning with the Stone Age and continuing to our present technological day. They make time lines and diagrams to the dates of important events in American history. One time line is designed to explain the concept measuring on a time line: years, decades and centuries. They write dramatizations and make oral reports.

Geography

Fifth graders study different kinds of maps convey different information. North America has a variety of climates, land forms, resources and bodies of water. Climates, land forms and natural resources affect settlement patterns and economic activities, including agriculture and manufacturing. Technology affects the way people live and use their natural environment. Modern technology has presented both challenges and solutions to protecting the environment. To demonstrate their knowledge of these concepts, they draw maps such as population, rainfall, snowfall, precipitation, crops, manufacturing, bodies of water in North America, natural regions of the United States, Canada, and Mexico. Salt and flour dough is used to make the land forms of North America.

Government

Fifth graders study the representative governments of the United States, Mexico and Canada. Mexico and Canada have a different form of representative government from the United States. Canada has a Parliament with two houses: the House of Commons and the Senate. The 282 members of Parliament are elected every five years. The United States has two houses: the Senate and the House of Representatives known as Congress. The Senators of the United States Congress are elected every six years. The representatives are elected every two years. The United States Congress has 535 members: 100 in the Senate;

435 in the House of Representatives. The monarchy of England is Canada's Chief of State who is represented by an appointed Governor General. However, it is the Prime Minister who heads the executive branch of the government. In the United States and Mexico, the chief of state is the President who's is elected nation-wide. Presidents of these countries head the executive branch of government. The President of the United States is elected by the electoral college which usually follows the popular vote. The President of Mexico is elected by the people. Canada's Prime Minister is elected by the majority party in the House of Commons. Canada, Mexico and the United States have three branches of government: legislative, executive and judicial. In Canada, people who head the departments of government are ministers. In the United States, people who head governmental departments are secretaries. Mexico has a federation of 31 states; the United States has 50 states; Canada has 10 provinces and 2 territories. The President of Mexico has stronger powers than the Prime Minister or the President of the United States.

Fifth graders make charts comparing and contrasting these representative democracies. One chart contains the following information: 50 states arranged alphabetically for the United States, 31 states for Mexico also arranged alphabetically, and 10 provinces and 2 territories alphabetically arranged. At the top of the chart and above the appropriate country is the name and picture of the Chief of State. Another chart compares the United States Congress with Canada's Parliament. A photographic essay shows the United States the United States Congress and Governors. They make timelines to compare the important governmental events such as the adoption of and changes in the constitutions of the United States, Mexico, and Canada. Another set of timelines shows the Revolutionary Wars for the United States and Mexico.

Economics

Fifth graders study the relationships between economic causes and results to historical events. The availability of land, natural resources, labor, and technology affect economic patterns. Transportation and communication systems encourage economic growth.

Specialization encourages trade. Supply and demand determine value. Most enterprises seek to make a profit. People may collectively share in an enterprise as stockholders. Manufactures need a source of raw materials and a market for finished products. The American free enterprise system allows individuals to make economic decisions, but, the government may put restrictions on businesses for the benefit of the public. The economic well-being of society can vary. Inflation, depression and prosperity describe economic states. The dignity and reward of labor are important to our way of life.

These fifth graders draw pictures of the rounding partners of the Hudson Bay Company of Canada in the forms of their nicknames: "Mr. Radishes" and "Mr. Gooseberry" instead of Pierre Radison and Medard Groseilliers. They draw land use and product maps for the United States, Mexico and Canada: The American land use and product map contains the following information: the location of manufacturing, farming, dairy farming, livestock ranching, lumbering, commercial fishing, underdeveloped land, coal, iron, oil, natural gas, and silver. The land use and product map for Mexico contains the following information: coal, copper, iron, oil , natural gas, silver, beans, coffee, corn, cotton, fish and shellfish, sugar cane, wheat, crop land, forests, wood land, and manufacturing. The land use and product map for Canada contains the following information: livestock raising, hay growing, fishing, animal raising for fur [foxes, minks, and raccoons] chicken raising, dairy cattle, fruit growing, wheat, forests, manufacturing, production of hydroelectric power, oil, natural gas, coal, lead, nickel, uranium, copper, iron, and asbestos.

Sociology or Cultures

Fifth graders study that cultural groups learn from each other. Agriculture and specialization make possible advanced cultures and civilizations. Works of literature, architecture and art reflect the ideas and ways of life of the people who create them. New

tools, trade, and technology can bring about cultural change. American Indians developed a variety of cultures, some rich and complex, before the European settlers arrived.

American society reflects the contributions of men and women of different races and ethnic groups. Religion has been an important influence in American history. Important documents like the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution and the Gettysburg Address assert the equality and dignity of all people.

These fifth graders use pictures and illustrations in their textbooks, room library books, and other library books to develop a photo essay of the past cultures of the United States: the Hopewell Indians, the Mississippi Indians, and the Cahokia Indians who were mound builders. They make drawings of the Hohokam and Anasazi Indian cultures. They make cultural maps of the Indian cultures of North America to show where these Indians lived. Their cultural maps show the locations of these Indian cultures from the Arctic Circle to the Yucatan peninsula. The following cultures are included. Arctic Indian cultures are: Algonquin, Blackfoot or Sissika, Chipewa, Chipewyan, Chippewa or Ojibwa, Cree, Eskimo, Haida, Huron, Kutenai, Nootka and Tlingit. The California Indian cultures are: Chumash, Modoc and Pomo. The Columbia Plateau Indian cultures are: Cayuse, Flathead, Klamath, Nez Perces and Yakima. The Great Basin Indian cultures are: Oaiute, Shoshone, and Ute. The Middle America Indian cultures are: Aztec and Maya. The Southwest Indian cultures are: Apache, Hopi, Huichol, Navaho, Pueblo, Seri, Yaqui, Yuma, and Zuni. The Plains Indian cultures are: Arikara, Arrapaho, Assinboin, Cheyenne, Comanche Crow, Kansa, Iowa, Mandan, Osage, Pawnee, Sioux or Dakota, Waco and Wichita. The Northwest Coast Indian cultures are: Alutic, Chinook and Coos. The Eastern Woodland Indian cultures are: Caddo, Cherokee, Chickasaw, Choctaw, Delaware, Illinois, Iroquois, Massachusetts, Miami, Narraganset, Natchez, Pequot, Potawatomi, Quapaw, Sauk, Seminole, Shawnee, and Tonkawa.

These elementary school children draw pictures to show family celebrations as they imagine them to be. They use clothing, teepees, longhouses, wigwams and canoes to date

their pictures. Other drawings show deer, elk, bears, opossums, birds, muskrats, squirrels, beaver in forests, beadwork, weaving cloth, pottery, and wigwam. A chart lists words in the American language that are Indian words: squash, woodchuck, hickory, opossum, raccoon and skunk. Another representation is an Eskimo village of igloos.

History [Sixth Grade]

Sixth graders study that all countries have a history. There have been major civilizations in the past. Civilizations are marked by large cities, complex government, and highly developed arts and sciences. Achievements of past cultures and civilizations have contributed to our civilization. The earliest civilizations developed in Mesopotamia and along the Nile River in Egypt. Geography, trade, technology, migrations of people and cultural patterns can affect civilizations' development. Western civilizations today have been influenced by the Greeks, the Romans, the Middle Ages and the Renaissance. India and China have civilizations that date back more than 4,000 years. In the past, Africa, South America and North America have developed high cultures and civilizations. European influences have both helped and hindered African emergence into the modern world. Material wealth and land attracted Europeans to the New World, where they established societies influenced by both European and Indian heritage.

These sixth graders demonstrate their knowledge of these concepts by drawings, charts, timelines and dramatizations of past and recent history. They draw timelines that show dates from the Mesopotamian culture to the present day. They enact the Martin Luther King Jr.'s Washington D.C. march and speech. These children illustrate historical fiction such as Endiku, Ivanhoe, The Adventures of Odysseus, Julius Caesar, Ann Frank's Diary, and the Anansi Tale; "How Wisdom Was Spread Throughout the World" They develop a collage of the contributions of ancient civilizations to today's world. The collage contains: the Sumerian writing system, Sumerian boys in school, the Sumerian ziggurat,

King Hammurabi and his code of laws, Egyptians' making paper from papyrus, Egyptians' calendar based on the sun, Egyptians' ideas that stealing, lying, and greediness are wrong [morality], the Hebrews' Ten Commandments, Moses the Lawgiver, Greek gods and goddesses, the Trojan Horse, Pericles and his democracy, museums, gymnasiums, schools, universities, Socrates, Plato, Aristotle, Phidas and the Parthenon, slaves, Greek columns [Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian], amphitheaters, ancient and modern Olympics, Romulus and Remus, Roman patricians and plebeians, Roman alphabet, the Roman senate, Roman dictators, Aryans, and their horse-drawn chariots, Buddha, Chinese writing, Confucius, Gutenberg and his printing press, Martin Luther King Jr., Nelson Mandela, and President Bush's 1000 points of Light.

Geography

Sixth graders study that the world has a variety of climates, land forms, resources, and bodies of water. In any natural environment, all living creatures use other animals and plants in that environment for food. Different natural environments support different kinds of wildlife. Latitude, altitude, physical features, and ocean currents affect climate. Climate can change over time. Climate affects cultures. Fertile plains regions allow people to grow large amounts of staple crops. The development of advanced cultures depends on agricultural surplus and specialization. Rain forests and mountain regions generally do not support large populations. Physical barriers such as mountain ranges can isolate cultures from each other, causing them to be quite different. People can adapt differently to the same environment. People may change the environment. The resources of an area may be the source of conflict between competing groups. The population growth rate indicates how many people will be depending on a nation's resources in the near future. The planet Earth is a system that supports the web of life.

These sixth graders make climographs to compare and contrast the average monthly temperatures, rainfall, and the following cities: Minneapolis, London, Warsaw, Bergen, Libreville, Beijing, and Tokyo. The climographs include the latitude and longitude for each city: Minneapolis, 45°N/93°E; London, 52°N/0°long.; Warsaw, 52°N/21°E; Bergen, 60°N/5°E; Libreville, 30°N/9°E; Beijing, 40°N/116°E; and Tokyo, 36°N/140°E. They include the countries of these cities: the United States, England, Poland, Norway, Gabon, China, and Japan. Rainfall is measured in centimeters. Precipitation is also measured in centimeters. Temperatures are measured by both thermometers, Celsius and Fahrenheit. Other graphs present the following information: Total land area of the world; land area of the seven continents; world population growth; population density; world's most populated countries: China, India, former Soviet Union, the United States, and Indonesia; longest rivers in the United States, former Soviet Union, Africa, and China; land areas of the world's largest islands: Greenland, New Guinea, Borneo, Madagascar, and Baffin Island; the major religions of the world; and the highest mountain on each continent: Mt. Everest (Nepal-Tibet), Mt. Aconagua (Argentina), Mt. McKinley (Tanzania), Mt. Elbrus (former Soviet Union), Vinson Massif (Australia), and Mt. Kosciusko (Australia). The map representations are: oceans, seas, straits, gulfs, continents, world average annual temperatures, annual world precipitation, world vegetation regions, world time zones, world forests, world climate regions, world wheat and rice regions, the Gulf Stream and the North Atlantic Drift currents, world political, world physical, monsoon wind patterns, and early East and West Africa.

Government

Sixth graders study the following concepts concerning government. Forms of government have included tribal government, city-states, monarchies, empires, feudal societies and national states. Today's nations have forms of government that range from democratic to totalitarian. The form of government a nation has can reflect the

nation's cultural heritage. Past codes of law and documents are often reflected in the laws of modern government. The ancient Greeks and Romans established laws and systems of government which influenced the development of American law and government. Our American political system also shows the influence of British traditional legal system. The United States Constitution provides for the orderly expression of political beliefs. Today's nations of western Europe have democratic governments that allow the individual broad economic, political, and social choices. Economic upheavals or new political ideas can bring about changes in government. Groups with different beliefs or interests may struggle for control of a nation. Negotiations and compromises can be an effective way of settling disputes.

These sixth graders use drawings to show the feudal society of England. Their drawings present the following information: the manor house in which the knight, or lord, or noble lived, the well for water, the workshop, the pasture, the houses of the serfs, the inn for guests, the barn and the first, second, and third fields. A graphic organizer shows the king giving land to nobles in exchange for a military force. The nobles in turn gave land to freedmen who agreed to fight for the king. These land grants from nobles made the nobles lords. The recipients of these land grants became knights, the military. The remaining freedmen were peasants. The serfs were not free, but could not be sold as slaves were and needed permission from the noble or lord to leave the manor. Manors also had churches. Another graphic organizer shows the following hierarchy thusly: King, lords, lesser lords, knights, freedmen or peasants, and serfs. They use role playing to interview each of these levels about the system and their quality of life. The questions are designed to explain their societal status, and opinions about the society and societal benefits. They use construction paper to make castles with crests on doors and moats to surround the castles.

Another role playing dramatization enacts the Kenyan black and white conflict concerning the use of the highlands with Jomo Kenyatta leading the black Kenyans. They conduct Meet the Press-type interviews with Socrates, Aristotle, Plato, and Jesus concerning their ideas about societal governments.

Economics

Sixth graders study the following concepts. As people work they put to use skills and resources to improve the quality of life for one another. Nations have different systems for producing and distributing goods. Nations trade with one another to obtain needed raw materials and goods. The United States and many noncommunist nations use central planning. Economic development is affected by a region's trade, resources, population, technology, government, and cultural patterns. Economic progress often comes from efficient manufacturing processes. Science and technology can affect the availability of new resources. Modern economic problems include inflation and unemployment.

These sixth graders develop the following representations of these concepts. Maps show: Western Europe's wheat production, and Eastern Europe's coal, former Soviet Union's and Eastern Europe's coal, oil, and minerals; Middle East's and North Africa's oil, phosphate, and manganese; world forests, world oil and natural gas; world climate regions.

Charts show: Forest products (lumber, nuts, plywood, turpentine, charcoal, animal feed, paper, and maple syrup); date palm tree products (sugar, date palm tree fruit, bowls, cooking oil, mats, sandals, bowls, medicine, baskets, string, and animal feed); Petroleum produces (heating oil, asphalt, tires, wax, fibers, chemicals, medicines, kerosene, lubricants, gasoline, diesel fuel plastics, and fertilizers); Peanut products (ink, flour, margarine, cosmetics, furniture polish, paint, peanuts, and peanut butter); Sheep products (wool for clothing and blankets, food, leather, soap, tennis strings, glue, and fertilizer).

Graphs show: Five nations with highest gross national product: the United States, Japan, former Soviet Union, West Germany, and France; South and East Asia coal production: China, India, North Korea, South Korea, and Japan; leading gold producing nations (South Africa, former Soviet Union, Canada, United

States, and China]; Leading countries of rice production [China, India, Indonesia, Bangladesh, and Thailand]; Leading cacao producing nations [Ivory Coast Brazil, Ghana, Malaysia, and, Cameroon]; Mineral production in Africa South of the Sahara [79% diamonds, 18% bauxite, 47% gold, 6% iron ore, and, 35% uranium]; and the Leading steel producing nations [former Soviet Union, Japan, United States, China, and West Germany]. A very unique graph shows the exports of every nation in the Eastern Hemisphere which was used in an enactment of nations negotiating the trading of their products with each other.

Sociology or Cultures

Sixth graders study the following cultural concepts. The culture of a society includes customs and religious beliefs. Elements common to most cultures include agriculture, tools, trade and government. Additionally, high cultures or civilizations have writing, art, and architecture. The development of writing encouraged the development of laws, education, trade, and other aspects of civilization. Works of literature, art, and architecture associated with a particular time or culture share stylistic attributes. The values and beliefs of a culture influence its growth and development. Trade, warfare, and migrations of people cause diffusion of cultures. New cultures may form from cultural contact or conflict. Modern cultures can be different from each other. The United States has been influenced by western culture. The behavior of people in any society is influenced by the society's heritage and its unwritten rules of behavior.

These sixth graders developed the following representations of these concepts. They collect pictures from magazines to display the Roman amphitheaters with people watching plays, clowns, jugglers, acrobats, fights between wild animals, fights between gladiators and wild animals, fight between gladiators, family and community celebrations, church services and women mountain climbers.

As expressed earlier in chapter three of this dissertation, the six levels of cognitive development according to Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives is the criteria for analyzing this study. By virtue of the children's concept formation of each discipline, these elementary school children illustrate Bloom's six levels of cognitive development: Knowledge, comprehension, analysis, application, synthesis, and evaluation. This concept formation is the first level of cognitive development, knowledge, according to Bloom. The children's accurate representations of the concepts indicate their understanding of the concepts which is the second level of cognitive development, comprehension according to Bloom. Their use of sequential and hierarchical arrangements of their concept formations indicate their ability to "see" the relationships and characteristics among concept formations is the third level of cognitive development, analysis, according to Bloom. The representations, including the enactments, indicate their abilities to apply their conceptual knowledge. These representations are the fourth level of cognitive development, application, according to Bloom. The developing of visuals and oral discussions within the small groups as integral concepts of the major concept [whole class project] suggest the fifth level of cognitive development, syntheses, according to Bloom. As the children examine the finished product for appropriateness to the disciplines, the language, and accuracy of information as well as the fifth protocol for oral debate and discussion [discussing how the group worked to complete tasks], they are demonstrating the sixth level of cognitive development, evaluation, according to Bloom.

Critical points and analysis are in Chapter VI.

SUMMARY, SUGGESTIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL PRACTICES,
FURTHER RESEARCH AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary

The chief ambition of this study is to explore the effective use of the five basic protocols for oral discussion and debate as articulated by NCSS [1988], as a basis for promoting cooperative learning in the Social Studies classrooms [grades three-six]. Social Studies is especially suited to cooperative problem solving and the social participation skills. Children must engage in discussion of the social issues in the classrooms in order to fully grasp their meaning and complexity. And, it is in this setting that cooperative learning is especially appropriate, since discussion is a prime means of developing and teaching thinking and analytical skills.

This study was conducted in two stages:

1. Sixteen administrative interviews; and,
2. Nonparticipatory direct observations of 786 children.

During these observations, every child observed the five basic protocols for oral discussion and debate as articulated by NCSS [1988]. They are:

1. Giving one's ideas;
2. Listening to the ideas of others;
3. Planning one's work with the group;
4. Presenting the group project; and,
5. Discussing how the group worked.

Moreover, these rules were adhered to during the classroom meetings and small group discussions and debates.

The reader may recall that it was earlier cited that democracy is the theoretical impetus for this study. Due to our growing population over the past centuries, both state and federal governments are identified as representative democracy.

During Colonial America and until the Dewey-Kilpatrick-Parker era [1920s], the educational system in the United States was under the European influence which was militaristic, mechanical, and, authoritarian. However, in 1762, Rousseau's work began the evolution of the educational system in the United States giving rise to or laying a foundation for today's cooperative classrooms at the elementary school level. This cooperative learning and problem solving provides elementary school children with their developmental foundation for effective adult society. The Dewey-Kilpatrick-Parker era implemented the use of child development group discussions, organized instruction, and, knowledge of subject matter to improve teachers' ability to develop the total child. Two institutions, University of Chicago and Teachers' College at Columbia University as well as one public school system, Quincy, Massachusetts, trained many teachers for the democratic classroom while the public school system held continuous "open house".

As expressed earlier, historically, societal educational systems are based upon the society's values, mores, and, goals. Furthermore, the primary ambition of educational systems universally is the inculcation and acculturation of societal youth, thereby, assuring that the society has a continuous flow of well-informed and competent adults to perpetuate the society.

In this post-Cold War era, our world is becoming a world of increasing democratic nations, therefore, this author's general conclusion is that cooperative learning in the Social Studies classes is "dress rehearsal" at the elementary school level for children's adult community activism. It is this author's position that the teaching technique, oral discussion and debate with their five basic protocols for oral discussion and debates, as articulated by the NCSS [1988], affords every child the opportunity to participate equally in both the whole class discussions and the small group discussions and help to make the final decisions concerning the tasks' completion.

Since educational systems are related to the type of society in which it exists, the educational system of the United States prepares children to live in a democratic society.

Democracy is designed to protect the individual's freedom to make choices about the individual's living and to participate fully in the societal decision making process. In the United States, democracy means that all citizens, residents and visitors are entitled to certain rights and privileges as long as they obey the law and carry out specific responsibilities. These entitlements known as the **Bill of Rights** were written in 1789 by **George Mason**, a delegate from Virginia to the first session of the First Congress of the United States held in the City of New York September 25, 1789 where they were submitted to the following states for ratification by the state legislative bodies. Some of the original colonies showed their concerns for a democratic society by ratifying these individual rights, responsibilities within three years of the First Congress of the United States. They are: New Jersey [1789], Maryland [1789], North Carolina [1789], South Carolina [1790], New Hampshire [1790], Delaware [1790], Pennsylvania [1790], Rhode Island [1790], Vermont [1791], Virginia [1791], Massachusetts [1939], Georgia [1939], and Connecticut [1939].

In our democracy, the individual can freely participate in religious organizations or not participate. Neither our person, nor our houses and places of businesses can be searched without our permission. In this democratic society one can keep firearms with permission of the police. Our private property can not be taken from us for the public welfare without compensation. If we are charged with a violation of the law, we are given a speedy trial and if we are indigent, a lawyer is provided with no costs to us. We are entitled to a trial by a jury of our peers. Democracy is designed to equalize the common law, bails, fines, and punishment for the citizens. Under the democratic constitution are certain powers for all people. Democracy for the individual to effectively respect and explore the majority and the minority views within the society without penalty. Furthermore, democracy is designed for the individual to examine periodically the society's rules of behavior, values, mores, beliefs, customs, and laws and change them when appropriate. Moreover, democracy is designed for the cooperation of individuals whose cooperative behavior restructures society

in accordance with the societal needs such as norms for each societal level such as lower-lower class; middle-lower class; upper-lower class; lower-middle class; middle-middle class; upper middle class; lower-upper class; middle-upper class; and upper upper class. Democracy affords the individual upward mobility in these classes through education's and economics. However, these classes in a democracy unite across classes to cooperate toward the improvement of all citizens in the society. In this democracy, there is a balance between giving and receiving as well as leading and following. Summarily, democracy is designed for individuals to control their individual lives, operate their business, and, to relate to government such as electing representatives.

During the discussions, debates, and the making of the conceptual representations, these elementary school children, all 786, are demonstrating the six levels of cognitive development according to Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: Knowledge, comprehension, analysis, application, synthesis, and evaluation and cooperative problem solving. The first two basic protocols for oral debate and discussion as articulated by the NCSS [1988], giving one's ideas and listening to the ideas of others during oral debate and discussion, are examples of common courtesy and civil conversation. The third basic protocol for oral debate and discussion, planning one's work with the group, is an example of cooperative behavior and cooperative planning. The fourth basic protocol for oral debate and discussion, presenting the group project, is an example of cooperative planning, cooperative decision making, cooperative behavior and group cohesion. The fifth basic protocol, discussing how the group worked to complete its tasks, is an example of evaluation.

As expressed earlier, two instructional and learning strategies are presented as members of the Information-Processing Family of teaching models [Joyce and Weil, 1991, 1986, 1979, 1972]. They are Concept Attainment [Bruner. et al, 1967] and Concept Formation [Taba, 1967]. Both models are designed to enhance children's abilities to learn concepts, build or form concepts, relate concepts, organize concepts, sense

problems and generate solutions for them and develop language or graphics for conveying concepts. Also, both teaching and learning models generate a demographic social system in the classroom, but, differ in classroom structure.

Concept Attainment has moderate structure. The teacher controls the action, but, tends to develop into a phase where children assume more initiative toward decision making regarding whole class projects. During this study, Spring 1992, the children decide individual small group tasks which are integral concepts of the major concept which is presented by the teacher controls and initiates activities, but, it also generates a cooperative social system.

Another teaching and learning model is the Classroom Meeting [Glasser, 1969], a member of the Personal Family of teaching and learning strategies. This model is designed for developing the individual's ability to achieve meaning and strength for self-responsible self-determination. This model has moderate structure. The teacher provides the leadership for guiding the interaction through its phases, but, the children initiate the topics for discussion. Although the leadership remains with the teacher, moral authority rests with the children. This teaching and learning model is also designed for social problem solving. The children face reality, fulfill their needs without depriving others, and are intensely involved through discussions. This model also generates a cooperative environment. All children are encouraged to participate and express themselves.

The remaining teaching and learning model is the Role Playing [F. and G. Schaftel, 1976]. This model is a member of the Social or Cooperative Family of teaching and learning strategies. It is designed to increase children's social participation skills and understanding of problems that they must solve together. Additionally, this teaching and learning model transfers to allow children to role play events, situations and people or anything else they so desire such as numerals. It also has moderate and generates a cooperative social system. During this study, children enacted historical events and the economic concept of international trade.

Suggestions for Educational Practices

This study, while complete as far as it goes, is principally suggestive of future educational practices and research in the inner city, suburbs, special education including the talented or gifted add any type of family structure such as the culturally deprived, disadvantaged, new immigrant with language barriers, functional illiterate, illiterate, or dysfunctional among other types. This section of this dissertation suggests the following educational practices for successfully enabling all children to achieve in accordance with their individual abilities, competencies, and skills.

However, for the effective use of cooperative learning with its hallmarks, discussion, debate and the five basic protocols for oral discussion and debate, in the Social Studies classes conditions must be met in order to successfully create a democratic classroom. These conditions are the responsibility of the classroom teacher. However, these suggestions are based upon the partially self-contained or self-contained classroom. The partially self-contained classroom is one in which the homeroom teacher provides instruction in the Social Studies, Science, Mathematics, the total Language Arts including reading, grammar, spelling and vocabulary development, and Health. The self-contained classroom is one in which the homeroom teacher teaches all subjects. The self-contained classroom is homogenous while the partially self-contained classroom includes children from the special education who are mainstreamed into the Social Studies and Science classes. The group task completion and the whole class task completion.

The teacher must also pace the instructions concerning the concepts so that every child is able to form concepts in accordance with his or her abilities. The five basic protocols for oral debate and discussion as articulated by the NCSS [1988] must be reviewed daily. These conditions are a few of the conditions which enable effective use of cooperative learning.

Further Research

Since there is a vast repository of literature concerning elementary school Social Studies classes, very few studies have been done about these five basic protocols for oral discussion and debate during classroom discussions and debates in the Social Studies classes, more studies must be done to inform us about the effectiveness of cooperative learning with its hallmarks.

Democracy in the classroom does not guarantee "quality" education, i.e. higher test scores, college students or graduates, more productive adults or well informed people. In fact, it could be almost said that the contrary is true. In the confines of this study are children who come from the inner city who sit in Social Studies class with their suburban counterparts helping to generate democratic societies in these classes. This study does not inform whether this democratic teaching model is applicable with the same results when classes are chosen randomly. Some unanswered questions are: 1) What happens in a democratic type classroom if only teachers and children do not expect graduate researchers? and, If the researcher chooses the schools and classes instead of the choices being made by administrators. This author suggests that the participation of every student would be greatly reduced from the 100% obtained in this study.

Conclusion

In all cases, these elementary school children participated eagerly in the democratic process. Moreover, these children helped to create and maintain their democratic classrooms by following the rules for oral discussion and debate as articulated by the NCSS [1988]: Giving one's ideas; Listening to the ideas of others; Planning one's work with the group; Presenting the group project; and, Discussing how the group worked. Their conceptual representations reflect the multicultural nature of our society and their

classrooms. Their concept constructions are examples of their continual developing of the academic, the moral, the personal, the political, and, the social domains. These elementary school children with discrete abilities, competencies, backgrounds, and educational classifications were able to collectively develop accurate conceptual representations. Therefore, if elementary school teachers use cooperative learning in their Social Studies classes, all children can achieve. However, the classroom must be cooperative with the teacher and the children becoming educational partners in the planning of cooperative learning activities at the end of every Social Studies unit. The classroom must have moderate structure with a gradual move toward the low structure classroom, usually, the last five or six weeks of the school year. The Social Studies conceptual curriculum must be a disciplinary curriculum including, among others, history, geography, government, economics, and cultures.

Under these conditions, the following skills are involved. The academic skills are: Reading skills, comprehension skills, interpretation skills, cognitive skills, speaking and listening skills, map and globe skills, graphic skills, graphic organizing skills, writing skills, vocabulary skills, library skills, study skills, and, reference skills. The interpersonal skills are: Being courteous to others, developing respect for others, developing friendships, accepting and giving constructive criticism, listening' to differing views, participating in group discussions and debates, showing a willingness to follow, six, owing skills in discussing, debating, and, negotiating. The citizenship skills are: Respecting the multicultural nature of our society, social participation skills, political participation skills, recognizing individual responsibilities, developing pride in one's own work, developing good work habits, developing an awareness of and skills in interdependence, developing an awareness of and skills in resolving the social issues in the classroom, and participating in the democratic process.

APPENDIX: RESULTS OF ADMINISTRATIVE INTERVIEWS

ABOUT COOPERATIVE LEARNING

Table 2

Results of the Administrative Interviews

	#1	#2	#3
Social Studies Coordinator	yes	yes	yes
Director of Curriculum and Instruction	yes	yes	yes
Director of Curriculum and Testing	yes	yes	yes
Public School A: Principal	yes	yes	yes
Public School B: Principal	yes	yes	yes
Public School C: Principal	yes	yes	yes
Public School D: Principal	yes	yes	yes
Public School E: Principal	yes	yes	yes
Public School F: Principal	yes	yes	yes
Parochial School G: Principal	yes	yes	yes
Parochial School H: Principal	yes	yes	yes
Parochial School I: Principal	yes	yes	yes
Private Independent School: Headmistress	yes	yes	yes
Private Independent School: Headmaster	yes	yes	yes
Private Independent School: Headmaster	yes	yes	yes

1. Do your schools have cooperative learning in the Social Studies Classes? Does your school have cooperative learning in the Social Studies classes?
2. Is this teaching technique, cooperative learning and effective tool for developing the academic, moral, personal, political and social domains in elementary school children? and,
3. Are the five basic protocols for oral discussion practiced? Such as:
 - a. Giving individual ideas.
 - b. Listening to the ideas of others.
 - c. Planning individual work with the group.
 - d. Presenting the group project; and,
 - e. Discussing how the group worked.

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AND THE LORD APPEARED TO SOLOMON BY NIGHT,
AND SAID UNTO HIM I have heard thy prayer
AND HAVE CHOSEN THIS PLACE TO MYSELF FOR A HOUSE OF SACRIFICE
IF I SHUT UP HEAVEN THAT THERE BE NO RAIN,
OR IF I COMMAND THE LOCUSTS TO DEVOUR,
IF MY PEOPLE, WHICH ARE CALLED BY MY NAME,
SHALL HUMBLE THEMSELVES, AND PRAY,
AND SEEK MY FACE, AND TURN FROM THEIR WICKED WAYS;
THEN WILL I HEAR FROM HEAVEN, AND WILL FORGIVE THEIR SIN,
AND WILL HEAL THEIR LAND.

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