        This document defines and discusses 34 major concepts for use in social studies
programs utilizing a concept teaching method. Discussed are 18 substantive concepts
basic to every society--e.g., concepts of power, morality and choice, and scarcity; 5
value concepts--e.g., empathy, loyalty, and freedom and equality; and 11 concepts of
method for learning the techniques of information acquisition and evaluation--e.g., the
geographic approach, causation, analysis and synthesis, and skepticism. An appendix
provides a detailed outline and discussion of the concept of conflict to guide
teachers in preparing instructional materials. [Not available in hard copy due to
marginal legibility of original document]. (MP)

MAJOR CONCEPTS FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

THE SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM CENTER

A Progress Report

NOVEMBER 1965

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FOREWORD

During the past forty years the social sciences have multiplied their offerings and triggered an explosion in research. New offerings in old disciplines, the establishment of new disciplines, and significant contributions to the study of human behavior have accompanied the exploration of vast new areas of knowledge. However, since the 1916 report of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Curriculum there has been no comprehensive revision of the social studies curriculum. The great new bodies of knowledge and the development of more specialized areas of research and teaching at the university level have failed to significantly alter the pattern of elementary and secondary education which was established before these revolutionary changes in the social sciences.

World markets and foreign production are playing an increasing role in the American economy. American men and economic aid are involved in political and military conflicts on every continent. Our historians point out the need for knowledge of Far Eastern, Latin American, and African history, and geographers suggest interpretation of physical features in terms of prevailing cultures, a direct opposite of environmental determinism. Municipal government in an age of urban explosion is undergoing agonizing reappraisal. The American Government functions in more areas of our lives than ever before. Sociological conflicts are erupting, both as a part of the revolution of rising expectations and as a part of man's rise toward equality of political and economic opportunity.

The inter-relatedness of the social science disciplines is evident in the approach to the above problems on university campuses. The study of culture, large scale complex organizations, and leadership patterns supplements earlier concepts of the political behaviorist. In addition to these areas, the historians, anthropologists, economists and sociologists are indicating increasing interest in the development of values.

The academic lag in knowledge of social science is accentuated in the field of values which is complicated by lack of a clearly defined and agreed upon value structure, and also by conflict between the values which students are taught in schools and those which they observe in practice in home, school and community. If we are to achieve our basic

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purposes we must maximize people's participation in clarification of their values and increase their capacity to appraise institutions for implementing these values.

Finally, the elementary and secondary curriculum reflects a general disregard for such social science methodology as subordination of subjective preference to objective evidence, readiness to pursue empirical data and to discard unwarranted assumptions, and awareness of the difference between solid evidence and simply informed judgments.

In the decades ahead American education must face vastly expanded knowledge, improved research techniques, new methods of communication, an ever increasing rate of technological change, a shifting American value structure, and the anticipated influx into our educational institutions. These changes call for a re-examination of the objectives of our schools and of the extent to which our curricula, instructional practices, and materials are achieving these objectives. Nowhere is this challenge issued more sharply than in the social studies.

Chapter I

PLANS AND PROGRESS

The Social Studies Curriculum Center at Syracuse University is one of a number of centers throughout the United States currently engaged in studying, experimenting, and preparing materials for possible revisions of the social studies curricula of the elementary and secondary schools.

If a widely accepted comprehensive revision does materialize, it will not come about for several years. The various centers are occupied, for the most part, with several bits and pieces of the whole. Practical limitations of funds restrict the time and staff involved in these projects. Regardless of the amount or concentration of resources, the task is proving to be exceedingly complex, involving the integration or co-ordination of six to nine separate disciplines.

As its contribution to a revised curriculum, the Syracuse Center initiated a five year project in June 1963. This project is supported by the Cooperative Research Program of the United States Office of Education through funds provided under Public Law 531.[1]

The work of the Syracuse Center is carried out by a team of faculty drawn from the Maxwell Graduate School of Citizenship and Public Affairs, the School of Education, and the public schools. This small core is supplemented by representatives of the departments of history, geography, sociology, political science, anthropology, economics, law, philosophy, psychiatry, and psychology, by still other elementary and secondary social studies teachers and supervisors, and by audio-visual and testing specialists. Consultations have also been held with representatives of the United States Office of Education and the New York State Education Department.

Each center has adopted an approach it believes will enable it to use its unique staff and position to the greatest advantage in laying foundations for a social studies curriculum revision. There are programs emphasizing child development, single disciplines, or twelve

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[1]The views expressed in this report do not represent those of the U. S. Office of Education. They are solely those of the project staff at Syracuse University.

year articulated curricula. At Syracuse we believed our unique contribution to be:

1. Identification of major concepts from the social sciences and allied disciplines that appear to be appropriate for elementary and secondary programs in social studies.

2. Examination of the major workways of these disciplines, such as organizing principles, readiness to pursue empirical data, willingness to discard unwarranted assumptions, awareness of the differences between solid evidence and simply informed opinion, and subordination of subjective preference to objective evidence.

3. Development and evaluation, at three or more grade levels, of illustrative materials for use by teachers and students that effectively translate the concepts and workways into classroom practice.

Faculty Seminar

Prior to the initiation of the project and later during the first months of operation of the Syracuse Center, a year-long series of faculty seminars was centered around the teaching of the social studies in elementary and secondary schools. These seminars were supported by the Danforth Foundation and the Esso Foundation. Participants included twelve members of the social science departments of the Maxwell School, five faculty members from the School of Education, three classroom teachers who are also department heads in their respective schools, the supervisor of social studies instruction in the Syracuse Public Schools, and the supervisor of social studies in the New York State Department of Education.

Seminar sessions were devoted to consideration of contributions from each of the social sciences. In some cases disciplines were represented bv outstanding off campus scholars such as:

Dr. Paul Ward
  President of Sarah Lawrence College (history)

Dean Floyd Bond
  University of Michigan (economics)

Professor Neal Gross
  Harvard University (sociology)

Professor Jerome Bruner
  Harvard University (education)

Other seminar sessions were devoted to:

1. The Contributions of International Studies to the Curriculum.

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2. The Citizen in the Community — Implications for Education.

3. Models for the Future in Social Studies Education.

4. The Education of Teachers.

These seminars served to acquaint contributing faculty with the need for curriculum revision, built closer relationships among members of the social science departments and the School of Education who would later consult with the project staff, and established a basis for cooperative working relationships with the New York State Education Department and the Public Schools. The seminar participants agreed that one of the most significant recent contributions to education was Jerome Bruner's *The Process of Education*. Convinced that the way to enhance understanding of any discipline is to study its structure (its basic ideas or concepts), the Syracuse faculty involved in these seminars determined to devote their efforts toward this end in the social sciences. From these symposia grew the objectives of the Syracuse project as listed above.

The Sagamore Conference

Under a separate contract with the Cooperative Research Branch of the United States Office of Education, a conference was jointly sponsored by the Maxwell School and the School of Education at the Sagamore Conference Center of Syracuse University, located in the Adirondack Mountains. This conference was held October 3-5, 1963, on the subject of *Needed Research in the Teaching of the Social Studies*. A conference report under this title was submitted to the U.S. Office of Education and later published by the National Council for the Social Studies.[2]

The Sagamore Conference was attended by representatives of 16 universities, three representatives of the United States Office of Education, teachers from public schools in New Jersey, Wisconsin, and New York, and participants from the Joint Council on Economic Education, the National Council for the Social Studies, and the Educational Testing Service. Although this conference was not a part of the contractual agreement with the Center, it did furnish one more substantial source of background material.

Position Papers

During the first year of operation, position papers were prepared by representatives of the various disciplines listed at the beginning of this

[2] Roy A. Price, *Needed Research in the Teaching of the Social Studies*. Research Bulletin Number 1, National Council for the Social Studies, Department of the National Education Association, Washington, 1964.

[3]

report. In addition to the traditional social science disciplines, papers were submitted by law, psychiatry, and philosophy. The authors were asked to describe the major substantive concepts from their disciplines without regard to whether they appeared appropriate for the social studies curriculum of the elementary and secondary schools. (This decision was to be made later by the staff and consulting teachers.) These papers, numbering more than 500 pages, were carefully studied and discussed to identify their conceptual content. In the process every attempt was made to identify concepts not restricted solely to any discipline but broad enough to make use of material from a number of disciplines. Such was the case, for example, with *Resolution of Conflict*. Other concepts, of course, were more closely associated with a single discipline, but could still draw upon the resources of other fields. The concept of power, for example, while most closely associated with political science, can easily draw upon material from sociology, history, and economics. The process of selection inevitably involved establishment of priorities.

At the close of the first year and during the early months of the second year, the Center staff prepared approximately 200 pages of identification notes and began the difficult task of narrowing the list of concepts to a manageable number. Many promising strands were explored, but all could not be included. More time than was available would be required, and some interesting facets had to be given lower priority. The final list, which still fluctuates slightly, hovers at 34.

At this point it became apparent that identification required more than labeling and extracting materials from the disciplines. Brief definitions were prepared but were not of sufficient depth to satisfy writers of classroom materials. To avoid misinterpretation and to offer a proper context for the development of instructional units for less than a complete twelve-grade curriculum, concept outlines were constructed. These outlines do a reasonably thorough job of identifying and delineating the concepts, and they serve as guidelines for the development of instructional materials. They are the indispensable link we had not originally anticipated between the scholar and the classroom. By July 1965, more than 550 pages of concept drafts had been prepared.

The 34 identified concepts have been further broken down as 18 *Substantive Concepts*, 5 *Value Concepts*, and 11 *Aspects of Method*.

The Remaining Phases

In July 1965, the staff of the Center was augmented by a group of elementary and secondary teachers with writing experience. From the outlines developed around the identified concepts and aspects of

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method, the staff and consulting writers began preparing materials for students and teachers. However, limitations of time and resources prescribe the preparation of units for selected grades only, and for only a part of the list of defined concepts. The target date for completion of sufficient classroom materials for a year of classroom experimentation is June 30, 1966.

Dr. Eric Gardner, chairman of the Psychology Department and co-author of the new Stanford Achievement Tests, Dr. David A. Payne, Assistant Professor of Education (Measurement, Evaluation and Statistics), and Richard Poole of the Psychological Research Center, Research Assistant, have begun to construct evaluative instruments and techniques to measure the effectiveness of the instructional materials. They will also develop a plan for the experimental tryout of the materials and suggest an appropriate sample of schools.

Dr. Donald Ely, chairman of the Syracuse University Center for Instructional Communications and President of the DAVI of the NEA, and Philip Morrison of the Center for Instructional Communications have already begun the development of audio-visual aids for pupil and teacher materials.

In the spring of 1966, teachers and administrators of cooperating schools will meet in seminars and workshops to prepare for the experimental offering which will begin in September of 1966. The tryout, evaluation, and revision will continue in the spring and possibly the fall of 1967. A final analysis and report will be prepared during the fifth year. The outline, instructional materials, and the results of the evaluation will be made available to all interested parties at that time.

Chapter II

SUBSTANTIVE CONCEPTS

We believe it essential that curriculum builders keep in mind that concepts are not static truths, but are open and changing. Concepts are tools to be sharpened and improved with use. Therefore, a curriculum built around concepts must concern itself as much with concept formation as concept attainment. A student should be given opportunities to revise concepts and develop new ones as well as to learn what someone else means by the concepts he uses.

The Syracuse Social Studies Curriculum Center is not attempting to develop a comprehensive conceptual structure for the social studies curriculum. While the most obvious reason for not doing so is the lack of sufficient time and resources at our disposal, it may not be the most important. A conceptual structure for the social studies may be premature, because the disciplines themselves have no reasonably agreed upon structure to offer. We are not suggesting that efforts to establish a comprehensive structure be abandoned, but our judgment is to begin with some concepts we have reason to believe are important, if not the most important, and to develop classroom materials around them for tryout at three or more grade levels. While all of the units probably would not be adopted in toto by any school, several might prove to be useful to a large number of schools.

The difficult choice of concepts to be developed and concepts to be deferred was based on (1) scope and (2) uniqueness. If a concept could be developed to include the concepts or sub-concepts recommended by several disciplines it was given priority over some important concepts limited to a single discipline. No concept was chosen merely because it was different, but if there was good reason to believe the student would probably never in any other way be exposed to a particularly important concept of a single discipline, uniqueness determined which of the several such concepts should be chosen.

Those concepts not included in the list of 34 have not been abandoned. Given more time and further resources, the Syracuse Center hopes to develop materials for concepts it has temporarily shelved.

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The cooperative team of social scientists, educators, teachers, and administrators had narrowed its first priority list of substantive concepts to 16 by December 1964. Two more were added in 1965. As in the case of the other categories of concepts, outlines to further define the substantive concepts were developed. From the introduction to these outlines, brief descriptive statements have been drawn to add definition to the concept titles. These statements have been collected below. In addition, the complete outline of one concept, *Conflict—Its Origin, Expression and Resolution*, has been included for illustration in the Appendix.

1. Sovereignty of the Nation-State in the Community of Nations

Contrary to the popular conception that nations are as old as recorded history, the nation-state, nationalism, and sovereignty have emerged since the 16th century. Closely interrelated, they are a constantly changing and developing phenomenon. Their emergence was followed by a steady development to a peak in the early 20th century. Having created their own limitations, the nation-states are now witnessing a relatively rapid giving-way of sovereignty to interdependence.

The relatively rapid change in the degree of sovereignty of the nation-state in the contemporary scene is related to the population explosion, technological advancement, the development of super-powers, and the emergence of scores of new nation-states. Military considerations, economic deterrents, and international organizations (regional and global) are making it increasingly difficult, if not impossible, for nations to take domestic or international actions without consideration of the wishes of other states.

As citizens in a democracy, students will eventually be required to choose their representatives who will determine foreign policy. It is essential that these citizens of the future understand that the role of sovereignty is changing and that the decision of 1900 cannot be applied to a situation in 1970.

2. Conflict — Its Origin, Expression, and Resolution

Conflict is characteristic of the growth and development of individuals and of civilization as a whole. Society is constantly pressured to respond to conflicting forces. Rather than to minimize conflict or shield young students from the fact of its existence, we should make them aware of the origins of conflict, and help them to develop healthy attitudes toward conflict as an aspect of reality with which they must learn to cope.

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Most important, the child should learn that for all the varieties of conflict there are culturally approved and disapproved means for resolving them. In contrast, the student must understand what happens when conflict is unresolved or resolved through means that are not considered legitimate by society. This concept is developed to assist the student to acquire satisfactory patterns of conflict resolution, whether with classmates, between individuals and the state, or between nations, to be used throughout life.

See Appendix for complete outline of this concept.

3. The Industrialization-Urbanization Syndrome

If one were to attempt a description of the most important social trends in the world today, the inclusion of the quest for industrial development and the movement of populations to the cities would be an intellectual mandate. Because of their timely importance we include these concepts in our list, and because of their cause and effect relationships we present them together.

Historically the process of industrialization was a product of technical advance, secularization and changing political-social attitudes and entities. As science discovered new ways of making values out of nature's resources, the political structure and the social attitudes of the times had to change so as to accommodate this development. An example of the above can be found in Professor Tawney's *Religion and the Rise of Capitalism*, wherein the author describes the pressure of the commercial needs of capitalism on the traditional ideas of the medieval church. The process of industrialization has changed modern man; indeed this great transformation may well be described as the hallmark of modern man.

The industrial process was both cause and effect. It was a product of science and a new commercial age but it also set into motion several great social movements. One of the most important of these was the movement of population from the farm to the cities.

The fact that all industrial societies are also urban cultures is no mere accident. Historically industrialization has provided jobs and new ways of acquiring wealth—hence people who lived from the soil and wanted to improve their positions were drawn to the center of the industrial complex which was of course cities. The growth of an urban culture in turn stimulated industry, for the cities provided a greater market for new products. However, there is a negative side of this process. For with the growth of cities came slums with their multitude of social problems. With the advent of job opportunities came a demand for labor, and immigration and migration, with its uprooting of tradi-

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tional ties and its consequent alienation and anomy. Industrial technology brings with it the benefits and detriments of automation and cybernetics. With industrial and commercial growth came trusts and monopolies, social unrest and class hatred (which existed before but on a lesser scale). Thus the industrialization-urbanization syndrome has given both hope and despair to mankind. It at once offers him great hopes and yet has provided him with some of his most serious and dangerous problems.

As the heart of one of the most serious problems facing the world today, this concept should be a part of every student's preparation for citizenship in the world of tomorrow.

4. Secularization

Early tribes attributed productive rainfall, plentiful game, and natural disaster to their gods. The Egyptians, Hebrews, Greeks, and Romans attributed the privileges of their rulers or their entire people to a theocratic base. By the Middle Ages, the universal church was considered supreme in almost all facets of life.

As late as the turn of the century, religious institutions were responsible for most schools, hospitals, orphanages, and homes for the aged. The lending of money, regulations for guilds, and even criminal and civil law was based on interpretations of religious bodies.

The development of the nation-state, new cities, and industry were all a result and a reinforcement of the cause of secularization. Whether moving from witch doctors to prime ministers in Africa, or from a universal church over feudal fiefs to the industrial complex of the Ruhr, the change has in common a transition from sacred to secular society.

5. Compromise and Adjustment

Compromise and adjustment are the keys to successfully facing political, economic, social, and religious change and conflict. Man faces the need to compromise and adjust to his physical as well as to his social surroundings.

Culture aids man in adjusting to his environment by providing a social heritage and a process of social invention. A culture develops social norms and means of facing and solving individual and group problems. However, each culture is only a small part of a product of its own invention and discovery; rather it is the result of adjustment and compromise. Even when recognizing this, each culture has a tendency to evaluate all other cultures in terms of its own standards and to perceive its own standards and procedures as superior. An example is the disposition of Russians or Americans to examine each other's

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way of life, foreign policy, and political goals in the light of their own. International relations furnish the most colorful and plentiful illustrations for this concept, although they are but one area to which it is applicable.

Survival depends upon the ability to adjust and compromise. No wild animal, no man, no group, no nation, can take a stand in which it always refuses to compromise or adjust without eventually creating sufficient counterforce to force it to abandon its position, usually with greater loss than would have resulted from earlier compromise or adjustment. Unfortunately most persons fail to recognize compromise and adjustment as a natural evolutionary concept. There is a general tendancy to mistake compromise as a sign of weakness and to confuse it with surrender.

6. Comparative Advantage

It is impossible for any individual, political party, or nation to dictate life to such an extent as to assure total acquiescence to all its desires by all outside forces. Compromise, adjustment, and resolution of conflicts by other means become an essential part of facing reality.

When conflicts arise there often comes a time when advantages must be weighed. It even becomes advisable to permit an opponent to obtain advantages in resources, time, geographical position, morale, or public opinion in return for advantages considered of greater value in gaining a final objective.

During the Second World War, the Allies decided it was to their advantage to ship copper (indirectly) to Germany in return for desperately needed ball bearings. China was a major source for tungsten steel (required for armor plate and armor piercing shells) during the Korean War. On the basis of comparative advantage, the British sold trucks to the Chinese in return for shipments of tungsten.

Comparative advantage extends from the child deciding whether to trade a sand bucket for a sand shovel while constructing a castle on the beach to decisions regarding the exchange of prisoners of war. Without an understanding of this concept, a citizen is ill-equipped to face a world in which no one ever does achieve "total victory." Students should understand this concept in order to appreciate the need for long range consideration of goals and methods.

7. Power

The concept of power is central to political science, and it cannot be ignored as a factor in developing concepts of cultural behavior, social controls, conflict, interaction, sovereignty, the nation-state, and

comparative advantage. Power is a relationship by which one individual or group can take action which affects the behavior of another. Power relationships abound throughout society.

Power must be seen as both *a goal and an instrument for achieving that goal*. It implies sanctions as instruments of power, and is as important to economic motivation as it is to political. If a citizen hopes to comprehend political science he must appreciate that in political science the element of power is concerned with those power-relationships which have consequences through instrumentalities of government. No student can fulfill his potential role as a citizen participating in the procedure of a democracy without being aware of this concept.

8. Morality and Choice

Of all life on earth, only men exist in a situation wherein they are called upon to study moral choices and then to make a decision upon those choices. Further, men, unlike other animals, are held responsible for their choices.

The moral situation must include three elements: the individual self, his social environment, and standards of value. The *moral act* is to be viewed as a product of the interplay of these three elements. In this context, moral man must be viewed as a center for decision making. The *social environment* constructs and structures the occasion for moral deliberation. We appeal to *standards of value* when we try to justify a decision.

Any student who proposes to go through life having all decisions made for him is an ideal future citizen for a totalitarian state. To be more than a robot or a non-human animal, the citizen must deliberate upon decisions and participate in both making and effecting these decisions. Therefore, it behooves every social studies teacher to emphasize the student's position in a moral situation and his need to make and abide by moral choices.

9. Scarcity

An understanding of the concept of scarcity is prerequisite to any citizen's understanding of his government, his economic system, the development of social controls through law, and conflict between nations. It is essential that the student know what scarcity is, how it is created, the problems and conflicts it produces, and methods of overcoming or bypassing scarcity.

Economists refer to *economizing* as the general proposition that an economy ought to be as efficient as possible — that in the broadest sense it ought to get the most out of its potential. The reason economizing is

important is that there is a limit to any economy's potential, which is called the principle of scarcity.

Scarcity is a reference both to physical limitations, and to limitation relative to the wants of the people of a society. Bauxite has always been physically limited, but was not *wanted* in 1600. It is wanted so much in the 20th century as to be *scarce*. Oxygen in the earth's atmosphere is physically limited, but not relative to the need of the people, therefore it is not *scarce*.

Scarcity, both natural and contrived, relates to power, politics, government, and law as well as to the functioning of an economy. Cultural behavior, as a function of power relationships depends upon possession of differential amounts of prestige, prosperity, physical force, knowledge or some other value; a situation which cannot exist when all are in unlimited supply.

10. Input and Output

Input refers to those productive resources furnished by persons in producing a product. By *output* we mean all the products (goods and services) produced for sale during a period of time, measured according to how much money is paid for these by buyers. *Income* refers to the payments to those persons who worked or provided their property in order to produce the total output.

Basic to the physical sciences is the concept that neither matter nor energy may be created or destroyed, only its form may be changed. Coal may be burned, but it can be accounted for in carbon dioxide, smoke particles, heat, and ashes. A similarly basic principle in economics is that for any economic unit (business or professional firm, state, or country) and for any period of time (day, month, year) total income and total output, measured in money are equal.[1]

Just as we have noted that income and output are equal, so we should note that input and output are equal. To better understand the roles of income, input, and output, we recommend that the student begin by examining the factors of production. The student should expect that his reward in terms of consumption will be based largely on his value as a producer. He is rewarded for his share of input. His income should equal his output. As an individual who hopes and plans to consume, the student should be planning for his role as a producer.

11. Saving

The concept of saving is central to the analysis of problems of instability. Saving is a familiar term to everyone; it means not using up your

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[1]The basis for this concept outline is a position paper prepared for the Social Studies Curriculum Center by Dr. Melvin Eggers. This and the following paragraph are paraphrased from that paper.

extra income, and consequently it means accumulating some wealth. Our main concern in studying this concept is aggregate saving — saving for the economy as a whole.[2]

Persons provide labor and ownership services which create products in our economy. They, therefore, earn all the income. Profits do not accrue to firms, but to persons owning the firms. In order to save, these persons or households "must acquire something — some form of property." According to standard definitions, if you acquire some *product*, you are not saving, but spending or "consuming." To save then, requires that you acquire not a product but some *financial* asset. A financial asset is simply a *claim* on some other economic unit. Thus a household can save by acquiring: (1) a claim on business, in the form of a corporate bond, a checking account (a claim on a bank), or a promissory note; (2) a claim on a government unit, in the form of a U.S. savings bond, or a municipal bond; (3) a claim on some foreign persons, firm, or government, in the form of a foreign government bond; (4) a claim on some *other* household, such as a friend's IOU.

"Of course, if one family saves by acquiring a claim on another family, the saving of the first is offset by the debt of the second, as far as households *as a whole* are concerned. For households as a whole to save, they must accumulate claims on business, government, and the rest of the world."[3]

"When all households combined increase the amount of claims they hold against all *other* economic units combined, they are saving. This includes the possibility that they may increase the amount of *money* they hold."[4]

Our concern in this concept of saving is the effects of claims (savings) on the American economy, and the rest of the world. The "debt" of a corporation, individual or government is someone else's saving, and the relationship of this situation to the stability or instability of a system is important to any discussion of inflation or recession. Students must be made cognizant of the relationship of saving by one unit to the claims on another unit if they are to intelligently participate in maintaining economic stability as productive adults.

12. The Modified Market Economy

The American economy is a *modified market economy*. There has never been a completely private system of economics. In the United States the efforts of Alexander Hamilton to develop subsidies for the merchant marine were typical of the early entrance of government into one small part of the nation's economy.

[2]*Ibid.*
[3]*Ibid.*, p. 31.
[4]*Ibid.*, p. 32.

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Students should understand the free private functions of the entrepreneur and the growing role of government as a market (defense purchases) and as a source of capital (loans and grants), and the effect of this increasing role of the government in modifying the free private enterprise market economy. This should include an understanding of the position of producer and consumer, and the functions of price, cost, monopoly, competition, supply, and demand.

It is important for the students to be able to comprehend and weigh the values of freedom of economic and social action against modifications or limitations of these freedoms which justify themselves by professing to strengthen and support the remaining freedoms.

13. Habitat and Its Significance

Ecosystems are produced by areal associations of interconnected physical and biotic processes, without the interference of man. There are five groups of physical and biotic processes involved in forming those areal associations: (1) surface features; (2) climate; (3) water; (4) biota; and (5) soils. Each of these elements forms a subsystem of related parts, and each could be made the subject of a book or a course of study by itself.

A *habitat* is an ecosystem that has been more or less modified by the presence of man. Ever since man has occupied the earth it has been subject to changes made by human action. These changes were partly carried out by plan, and partly were unexpected products of his action. Primitive man set fires to aid his hunt, and these have had a profound effect on the pattern of vegetation.

Nine major habitats can be defined. Each is an areal association of inter-connected physical and biotic features; but each occupies a particular place in the concept of global patterns. Eight are related to the pattern of climate; the ninth includes high mountains which insert an element of irregularity into the global patterns of habitat.

Habitats are significant, not only because they have in part been created by human action, but also because they provide the "natural" surrounding of man's occupance of the earth. Any human society, if it is to survive for long, must form a workable connection with the earth's resources. The habitat is the resource base of man's societies. It is of the utmost importance, then, to develop a valid concept regarding the significance to man of the features of habitat. The student should not go out into life believing all his actions and his culture are determined by his physical surroundings, and that he cannot alter this relationship.

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14. Culture

In the popular meaning culture generally refers to the finer things in life such as art, literature, music, and philosophy. Culture in this respect is related to personal refinement. The "cultured" individual is expected "to prefer Bach to bebop and Beethoven to boogie woogie; he knows the difference between the philosopher Plato and the planet Pluto; his palate presumably prefers crepes suzette to corned beef and cabbage, and French champagne to corn liquor; and he would rather read Shakespeare in blank verse than Spillane in what could be mistaken for prose."[5] However in sociological usage, and the manner in which we shall utilize it in this paper, culture is a much broader concept than personal refinement. As Dr. Paul Meadows has pointed out, there are now about 257 different definitions of the word culture, each placing emphasis in a particular direction. We shall use the following definition:

> Culture is the *way of living* which any society develops to meet its fundamental needs for survival, perpetuation of the species, and the ordering of social organizations, learned modes of behavior, knowledge, beliefs, and all other activities which are developed in human association. Culture then is man's contribution to his environment.[6]

It is everything men think, do, and have *as members of society*. It should be noted that culture, for analytical purposes, is often divided into its material and nonmaterial parts. *Material culture* comprises the physical objects of the culture, including the ways in which they are used. *Nonmaterial culture* consists of values, beliefs, ideas, customs, ideologies, and social structure. Although the nonmaterial aspects of culture are less tangible, they are often the most important. In the American culture, the automobile is part of the material culture, while the belief in "equality of opportunity" is part of the nonmaterial culture.

An understanding of each individual as a part, immersed in a sea of "culture" from birth to death, may help many young people to appreciate the relationship of the society around them to themselves as individuals. This could help many youths to avoid blindly striking out in all directions in rebellion against the invisible pressures of their culture.

15. Institution

In order to fully appreciate and understand the concept of institution, it is necessary to make a distinction between the terms organization and institution. An organization refers to a *structured group*, having continuity, identity, and a name. An institution, on the other hand, is

[5]Bierstedt, R., *The Social Order*, p. 104.
[6]Rouck and Warren, *Sociology: An Introduction*, p. 8. (Italics inserted by the authors of this report.)

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not a group at all but an *organized way of doing something*. It is a formal, recognized, established, and stabilized way of pursuing some major social activity. For example, Syracuse University is an organization, but education is an institution. Science, not a specific science such as chemistry, but science, is an institution, an organized way of thinking and approaching our physical environment. Economics is an institution, but a labor union or a corporation is an organization.

Defined in more detail and with a stronger stress on the normative, rather than functional aspects, institutions have been described as complex clusters of cultural meanings, norms, values, and behavior characterized by a high degree of organization and permanence, and revolving about at least one major human need. Every major institution —whether it is marriage and family, the economy, religion, or government—has specialized statuses and roles, utilitarian artifacts, ritual and symbols, and organizational pattern, and a code of either oral or written norms and specifications. Because every individual in our society is in some manner directed in his activities by our institutions, it is important to learn how they become established and how they affect us.

16. Social Control

This concept deals with the mechanisms by which society exercises its dominance over component individuals and enforces conformity to its norms. Included as mechanisms are taboos, mores, customs, and laws.

The basis of orderly human interaction is found in social systems. Norms give structure, stability, and order to society, without which social interaction would be difficult, unpredictable, and sometimes dangerous. These norms vary from everyday etiquette to formalized laws. Students should be aware of the need and existence of social controls at all levels of society.

Deviant behavior should be appreciated as a situation undermining social structures. Social controls can be judged in part by their ability to preserve structures from such undermining.

17. Social Change

Change is a neutral process; it may be "progress" or "decline" depending on the perspective of the observer. It should be noted that some societies change at a more rapid rate than do other societies, and that some institutions within a society change at a more rapid rate than do other institutions in the same society. It has been suggested that the accumulation of social and cultural phenomena is important in this respect

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because it tends to accelerate the rate of change.[7] The fact that change occurs unevenly among and within societies means that it is necessary to look not only for the external causes that channel changes in one direction rather than another but also to examine the inherent flexibility of the social structure being changed. The student of social change should recognize that any theory of change is calling attention to important *sources* of social change rather than an explanation of *the* single cause of change. There is probably no one factor or consistent set of factors that is responsible for all social change in all societies.[8] Nor could one factor, operating by itself, be considered as the *sole* cause of any one single change. (This idea is further expanded in a paper concerning the concept of multiple causation.)

Contact between cultures or the interaction of new ideas or material goods within a culture often results in a modification of knowledge, attitudes and skills of the people. The development of modern means of communication and transportation have made possible a wider distribution of cultural items and ideas. Innovation, as means of meeting the challenge of social, economic, and political problems should be understood as an important factor in social change.

18. Interaction

Throughout his life an individual enters into relationships with an ever-expanding number of individuals and groups. The character of these relationships is not chaotic, nor is the behavior of the individuals involved capricious. Rather, the ground rules for such relationships have been established by the culture or social systems in which the individuals exist.

Within a given social system, the interactions of individuals and groups follow certain common types or forms. Indeed most, if not all, of these forms can be found in all social systems. Two general types of interaction — competition and cooperation — include all the more specific forms of interaction. The basis of all human interaction is found in social systems. This specific concept becomes a part of a total conceptual picture which includes culture, society, social control, and social change.

[7]Milton L. Barron, *Contemporary Sociology*, p. 606.
[8]Arnold M. Rose, *Sociology: The Study of Human Relations*, p. 335.

THE VALUE CONCEPTS

Early in the work of the Syracuse Center it became obvious to the staff that they could not discuss, identify, and draft substantive concepts without continuing to be confronted by questions of attitudes, beliefs, and values. These were not new issues to confront the social studies. For half a century our schools have been faced with the pressure to prepare "good citizens," and the conflicting pressure to refrain from "indoctrination" and "value determination."

At the Sagamore Conference, three positions on this question were offered. They may be summarized as follows:[1]

Paul R. Hanna, Professor of Child Education, Stanford University

We are at a stage in our history where science and technology have forced us to form larger communities of men. We have been forced to invent new social technologies to operate in this larger area. Each time society enters a transition period, social invention is needed to take care of technology in the larger community. We in our time have need for more social invention, more creative effort. We need research to discover the commonality of values, and education to reinforce those values which have been built up in our society over a long period of time, and we need research on which to develop and base new attitudes and loyalties for this generation.

Charles Frankel, Professor of Philosophy, Columbia University

As teachers and citizens we have an obligation to meet the legitimate demands of our society that certain general attitudes be generated. As long as there is any element of authority in the classrcom, it is disingenuous to say that we merely invite students to make up their own minds. We are not doing *just* that and we ought to face it.

Lawrence Metcalf, Professor of Secondary Education, University of Illinois

Any attempt to inculcate any set of values invariably calls for distortion of knowledge. One is not free to choose freedom unless he is free to compare freedom with its alternative.

Society expects schools to perpetuate values. Conflict arises when the various elements of society cannot agree on the values to be perpetuated. As social scientists we are aware of the contradictory goals established for our public schools; goals which are now a part of our

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[1] Roy A. Price, *op. cit.*, p. 4. The three quotes below are summaries of views expressed by the participants.

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public stereotype of free public education. These contradictory goals of perpetuating values conducive to "good citizenship," and eliminating "indoctrination," pose questions for all teachers.

Who is to determine just what values are?

If research is required, is its purpose "simply to discover what beliefs, attitudes, and values people actually hold, or do we not also have an obligation to make inquiries about the beliefs, attitudes, and values they *ought* to hold?"[2]

The next question to logically follow concerns the subjects to be discussed. "The subjects which polite people avoid discussing in public, as we know, are those subjects where the truth is likely to sound impolite."[3]

Further questions rising from the Sagamore Conference to confront the staff of the Center were:

> Should we stress the contrasts between principles men profess and the principles evident in their conduct?
>
> How far do we really wish to go in studying beliefs, attitudes, and values in the context of alternatives?
>
> Are we prepared to accept sweetly diluted discussions of difficult social problems, or are we going to insist that the truth, the whole truth and nothing but the truth be taught?
>
> Is it appropriate to induce belief on the students' part in the strength and rightness of the society to which they belong.[4]

These are not questions with simple answers. Even a definition of values is subject to considerable argument. For the purpose of concept design, we have maintained that *values are shared conceptions of the desirable*. None of the values reviewed by the staff of the Social Studies Curriculum Center can in any way be considered absolute, for the same conception of a value may not be shared by residents of the various regions of the United States or even the urban and rural sections of a single state.

This limitation was readily observed in lengthy and complex discussions among the Center staff, who were drawn from the various disciplines and from California to New York. Even this small group could not share the same conception of what was desirable with regard to many so-called values. The consideration of values is complicated by the unchanging labels on changing values. Everyone favors *freedom*, whether in Russia, Germany, New York, Mississippi, or Cuba. The label "freedom" is idolized; its meaning is argued to the point of war. Under

[2]Charles Frankel, *Needed Research on Social Attitudes, Beliefs, and Values in Teaching Social Studies.* A paper presented at the Sagamore Conference, See Roy A. Price, *op. cit.*, p. 29.
[3]*Ibid.*, p. 31.
[4]Roy A. Price, *op. cit.*, p. 5.

such circumstances, should any social studies teacher attempt to teach such controversial and changing material?

No matter how we may react to this general question, it is apparent that social studies teachers *are already* teaching values, often unconsciously, certainly without labeling their material as values. There are those who even insist it is absolutely impossible to teach the social studies without teaching values. This is not a question of choice, it is inherent in the content of the social studies. We speak of teaching citizenship, *and citizenship is itself a value.*

If, as seems to be true, there are thousands of teachers across the country who are teaching values woven into the fabric of their social studies courses without being conscious of these values, then the time has come when all social studies teachers should pause to examine value concepts closely so they may know what they are teaching. In history, civics, sociology, economics, and geography we are constantly referring to struggles and issues of liberty, equality, loyalty, government by the consent of the governed, human dignity, conservation of resources, and similar values.

The American Constitution was drafted around values.

Jefferson and Lincoln constantly referred to values.

Wars are fought around value slogans, such as "Make the world safe for democracy," the "four freedoms," the "free world vs. the slave states," and "freedom of the seas."

We cannot escape it — the content of the social studies *is* value laden. But, just because we are teaching values does not mean we are right. We must face the question: if values are to be a part of the social studies offerings, *who are we to establish values?*

If we are unable to agree on a value such as "freedom" in a national discourse between citizens of Mississippi and residents of New York City — if there is no agreement on the interpretation of government by consent between a grocer living in The Bronx and a farmer in the Finger Lakes region of New York State — if we can't even find agreement on the interpretation of some values in discussions between labor and management in the same small town — then how can we as social studies teachers have the audacity to define and teach values to the youth of the entire nation?

We, the teachers, have an obligation. Our society has established free education for all as one of its values. It is expected that in attending school a child will be exposed to and prepared to meet the problems of a citizen in our democratic society. Therefore, creating "good citizens" has become a publicly accepted goal of the public schools. In short, the public may clamor against "indoctrination" and "value

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determination," but at the same time, under another label, it demands a value-oriented program.

If this be a program demanded by the adult public for our youth, then as teachers of the social studies, we are obligated to know what values have slipped into our offerings, and how they should be presented. We should become aware of our own personal set of values which may already be obvious to our students as a "course requirement." We must define and attempt to understand that which we already teach.

In 1934, Isaac L. Kandel wrote in *The Dilemma of Democracy*:

> No nation has a better system of education than it deserves, or, to put it in another way, every educational system reflects the character of the society which it is established to serve, a fact which is ignored by those latter-day reformers who, insisting on a new role for the school, would make it the starting point for social reconstruction. Hence it is not surprising to find that the fundamental principles of democracy are misinterpreted in the American Schools as they have been misinterpreted in American society. Liberty has been converted into a doctrine of freedom which seeks to make of each individual at all ages the measure of all things and refuses through unfounded fear of indoctrination and its supposed consequences to set up any standards or values as a guide for the growth of the individual into a free personality.

Twenty-one years later Henry Wyman Holmes wrote:

> Must the schools stand hesitant and fearful before public issues, always waiting for new Lincolns who will trust the people and help them look beyond the moment.

Education has always been under pressure to laud the past and perpetuate the present, but society's interpretation of values is constantly changing while we are left teaching the labels. Students are demonstrating across the nation. Their targets vary from racial inequality to American intervention in the Dominican Republic and Viet Nam. The demonstrations are marked by their protest *against* rather than *for* a policy. Too often these students are aware that the labels of values are employed hypocritically, and are more aware of the hypocrisy of the guardians of values than of the values themselves. As a result, youth threatens to throw out the baby with the bathwater. The time has come for the teacher to trim off the window dressing, to fit labels to values, and to strengthen the understanding of basic values themselves until they can withstand the challenges of the new age.

The Social Studies Curriculum Center has selected five basic values after two years of screening and study of position papers from each of the social science disciplines. We hope to make clear through these concepts that our differing cultures are distinguished by their differing values. Not only do these values differ in various cultures, but they are constantly changing within each culture. Students should understand

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that within this pattern of change, the concepts of value help to maintain stability by giving individuals common goals and common ideas to advance and to protect.

Brief descriptions of the value concepts from which more detailed outlines have been drafted are listed below:

1. Dignity of Man

The largest religions, and their accompanying philosophies, have developed a belief in the preciousness of human life. Hindus and Buddists so revered human life as to refuse for centuries to take another life. For fear that a human soul has by transmigration entered an animal, the Hindus even avoid crushing an insect.

In the western world the Hebrews from 500 B.C. developed a new respect for human life in the expansion of the idea of a soul. The Judaic-Christian respect for the individual life was then carried on into Islam. On the basis of this background it could be expected that most men would respect the dignity of all other men. In practice this is not the case. Non-violence, prohibition of killing, and respect for life is not the same as regard for the individual as a personality. Both democratic and totalitarian forms of government profess to exist for the benefit of their citizens. Too often, however, the state which is supposed to be the servant of the people is treated as if it were more important than its individual citizen.

Students should become aware of the importance of the dignity of every other individual. Instead of just thinking of "society," and doing things for the "good of society," the young citizen should be striving to work and cooperate with fellow *individuals*. Dignity is defined in our dictionaries as worth or merit. Human dignity should imply to every citizen the worth of all individuals. This is worth which exists because the individual exists, and not because of his achievements. In many parts of the world today there are highly intelligent people who can neither read nor write, and whose ethics or social background is such as to deny them a job, access to courts, or sufficient food for survival. In such circumstances worth cannot be judged by accomplishments or social position.

This concept includes a knowledge of those social and political instruments men have developed to preserve and enhance human dignity, especially in the western world since the Age of Enlightenment.

2. Empathy

The *Dictionary of Social Sciences* defines *empathy* as the ability to understand others through being able to call out in one's self responses

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identical with or similar to the responses of others through one's own experience and behavior. It is a basic function in society in relation to sharing the attitudes and behavior of others. Less accurately, but more colorfully, empathy has been referred to as "putting one's self in the other man's shoes."

Important in the above definition is the phrase *through one's own experience and behavior*. The extent to which one may understand the attitude or behavior of another depends on the experience and the breadth of knowledge one has of the culture and individual problems of the person he is attempting to understand. It is not possible, for example, for an American to understand why a Congolese or a Vietnamese responds as he does to current crises without first knowing a great deal about tribal customs, Buddhism, underdeveloped agrarian society, tropical climatic conditions and the history of the people and the area they occupy.

By employing empathy in the face of conflict, we are helping democratic governments to function more efficiently. Conflicts between labor and management, between school districts, or between nations have a better chance of being resolved when both parties practice empathy. However, *no one can teach empathy*; no one can teach students how to put themselves in other's shoes. Instead, we should teach the concept of empathy, as a value, with the hope that students who accept this as a value may try to put it into practice.

3. Loyalty
Loyalty is the willing devotion of an individual to a cause greater than himself, as represented by an institution, idea, or process. Loyalty goes identical with or similar to the responses of others through one's loyalty.

In the development of the concept of *loyalty* we are as concerned with the more sophisticated level of loyalty to processes and ideas as we are to individuals or states. By process we mean those means employed to achieve as ends the other cultural values of a given society. Blind devotion to a nation-state as expressed in the statement "my country, right or wrong," has led to loyal Germans supporting Hitler when he replaced the Weimar Republic and to other people supporting their governments even after they no longer represented the ideals for which the people originally had pledged loyalty. Students should learn that loyalty should go beyond symbols.

Processes such as the American judicial system, the legislative process by which all sections of the country are represented, and the choosing of one's representatives are processes which should command more

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loyalty than symbols. Ideas such as human dignity, equality of opportunity, and freedom of speech and religion are ideas more important than symbols. If citizens can be made aware of processes and ideas which should command loyalty, it will not be possible to take these rights and freedoms from them while keeping them from objecting by demanding loyalty to symbols of a continuing state.

4. Government by Consent of the Governed

Government is the creation of man to secure the rights of the individual to safety, tranquility, freedom, and happiness. Whenever government fails to secure these rights, the people may alter it to make it a more effective instrument of their will.

By now it should be clear that each of the value concepts selected by the Social Studies Curriculum Center cannot help but overlap and support the other concepts. Empathy is an essential characteristic of individuals required before reasonably complete understanding among individuals and groups can be achieved. Dignity of man is a key value, as is equality. Loyalty to processes and ideas which guarantee the above values is required to assure these values. In turn, a government organized by men to put these processes and ideas into effective play is the last of the blocks in this interlocking structure of values.

To assure the respect for and practice of the values men choose as important to their lives, it is necessary that their governments be established and operated by the consent of the governed. If this is not assured, and the majority of the citizens are dissatisfied with the manner in which the government is handling their value structure, they can only make a change by rebelling against that government. In a government governing by consent of the governed there are elections, courts, impeachment processes and representative legislatures established through which changes may be made. Stability and the greatest guarantee of rights and values is through government by consent of the governed.

5. Freedom and Equality

Freedom refers to the relative absence of perceived external restraints on individual behavior.

In the western world equality has come to mean equality before law, equal access to suffrage, and equality of opportunity.

Taken to extremes, freedom may mean chaos, and equality may become the tyranny of the majority. In developing this concept, the student should become aware of the nature of both freedom and equality as values. The importance of each should be stressed. Eventually the

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student will become aware that, as in the case of most other values, there is conflict between them.

The student must be made aware of the progress of the concept of equality. The American Tradition is a pragmatic tradition; it is committed to few absolutes. It *is* committed to a belief in human dignity and has sought to advance that dignity by protecting the freedom of the individual with the equality of all men under the egis of a government of laws and not of men.

From this concept, students may be able to understand the necessity of making value choices. They must realize the need to relinquish some of one value in order to benefit more from another. This involves the most important choices of citizens of democracy.

Chapter IV

CONCEPTS OF METHOD

Dr. Melvin Tumin, professor of sociology and anthropology at Princeton University, stated at the Sagamore Conference:

> The question of how best to explain human similarities and differences is really an issue of how to think about human behavior — and that, in turn, immediately directs our attention to the question of how to find out whether what we think to be true is or is not true. What is the evidence on its behalf? What is the evidence for contrary points of view? What would we need to know if we wanted to be more sure we were correct or wrong? In short, the *substantive* question about proper explanations of behavior feeds directly and immediately into the methodological problem of how to find out.
>
> These reflections lead me to suggest that one does not teach social science either as method or as something else. It seems to me one teaches *social science*, and, in the process, one unavoidably teaches method. That is, one raises issues and questions regarding social behavior. One then asks what one needs to know in order to be able to answer questions. One then formulates hypotheses that direct one's attention to probably relevant factors. One then concerns oneself with the ways in which these hypotheses can most satisfactorily be tested. One then pursues these methods of inquiry, collects the relevant data, analyzes them, and asks what the data have to say about the hypotheses, and, in turn, what has emerged regarding the question with which one started.
>
> At every point along the line in the consideration of any *substantive* question, methodological considerations are of the highest relevance, and vice versa. Properly, therefore, we should be considering needed research in the teaching of social science, understanding thereby that we mean principles and methods closely intertwined at every stage in our deliberations.[1]

When we, as social studies teachers, take time to note how many ideas and "facts" we present in a single day which we have never challenged, the figure is staggering. Our "method" of acquiring information is too often simple acceptance of the written page of the established text. What was the author's method of obtaining his "fact"?

Unless we make our students aware that methodology is a part of the social science, they cannot later as citizens be blamed for blindly accepting political, social, economic, or religious statements made to them. Every thinking citizen should learn that before he can explain any social activity he must first know *how* to find the explanation.

[1]Melvin Tumin, *Needed Research On the Teaching of Social Science As Method.* A paper presented to the Sagamore Conference, see Roy A. Price *op. cit.,* p. 47.

The broader methodological concepts, which cross the lines of all disciplines despite their disciplinary labels are listed first in the definitions below. Elements of these concepts have been drawn into expanded concepts in their own right, and follow the broader aspects of which they are a part.

1. Historical Method and Point of View

History is a process, a continuing development involving constant change. It is impossible to understand the world in which we live if we assume history to be static body of information neatly compiled for all time between the covers of a textbook.

To teach an understanding of history, it is good practice to make the student act as an historian and, thereby, to require that he explain a period or an event as part of history. Even as temporary short-term historian, the student should appreciate the need for interpretation. This in turn will reveal the problems of interpretation. Every citizen who seeks an explanation for any event should be made to understand he has a *point of view*.

The historian is an observer who stands *amid the process* much as an angler standing mid-stream while casting about him for his catch. This observer must realize events are flowing by him, and that his particular place in time and space (his community, profession, church, school, etc.) are coloring and molding his thinking through moral pressure, stereotypes, and other current influences. Therefore, the observer has a *point of view* in time and space. All previous observers have received past events from other points in time and space, and their interpretations of events have been passed on to the current observer colored and molded by the influence of other time-space coordinates.

A good historian or a competent citizen should recognize that all evidence passed on to him is an *interpretation* by an earlier observer, and that he is himself re-interpreting an interpretation, limited and prejudiced as he is by his own position in time and space.

A student understanding these problems of a continually changing process can be taught something of *selectivity of facts*. He can learn respect for all evidence, and the need to doubt all evidence without becoming a skeptic or cynic. This is necessary *evalation* of evidence. Furthermore, the student can become aware of the need for continual re-evaluation of past evidence, noting the certitude of one generation often is labelled fallacious by the next. A healthy respect for *chronology* will develop better understanding of the relationships of cause and effect, and furnish an essential tool in the development of the historical method.

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It is important for all students to learn the "historical method" of recognizing and dealing with evidence, epistemology, thesis, hypothesis, point of view, selection of facts, evaluation of facts, interpretation, chronology, and causal relationships. Just as the social sciences have inherited the scientific method from the physical sciences, they have found all information in their own field is subject to the above factors, and that all social sciences to some degree employ the historical method.

2. The Geographical Approach

The eighteenth century German philosopher, Immanuel Kant, pointed out that there are just three fundamentally different ways of organizing human knowledge into manageable segments. One is to group things and events together that are alike because they have a common origin. One is to group things and events in order of occurence. And one is to group things and events together because they occur in the same part of the earth's surface. These organizing principles — substantive, chronological, and chorological — provide the conceptual structure of any field of learning.

Geography is that field of learning which undertakes to develop concepts based on the "chorological" principle. In this field, therefore, attention is focused on the areal association of things and events of unlike origin, and on the interconnections among things and events that are thus associated.

Many different kinds of processes of change are operating on the face of the earth. There are physical processes, described by the laws of physics and chemistry. There are biotic processes, described by the principles of biology. And there are economic, social, and political processes, described collectively as cultural processes, which are described by the concepts of the social and behavioral sciences. In each of the fields of study that are focused on a particular set of related processes, models are formulated regarding the operation of each of these processes in isolation. The distinctive purpose of geographic study is to develop concepts regarding the interaction of things and events, related to unlike processes, that are associated with particular areas. Traditionally geography has examined the interaction between man and his habitat (his natural surroundings); but equally significant are the studies of the interaction among diverse cultural processes, or among physical and biotic phenomena. Geography seeks understanding of the causes and consequences of differences from place to place on the earth.

Grouping events and concepts together by the area on the globe in

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which they occur becomes an orderly principle by which to approach and analyze them. This geographical approach is an important aspect of method in the development of the student's thinking.

3. Causation

The relationship of cause and effect has occupied philosphers throughout the ages. In modern philosophy we find Francis Bacon discussing this concept in his *Novum Organum* in 1620. Baruch Spinoza (1632-1677), referred to as the most important philosopher of the Renaissance, carried his mathematical approach to ethics (drafted in terms of definitions, axioms, and postulates), throughout his discussion of causation.

These philosophers, and their predecessors and successors, were concerned with causation as a part of their search for an explanation of knowledge. Today, as in the past, only a handful of individuals are consciously inquiring as to the nature of knowledge. Just as most persons accept air for breathing, stop signs for highways, and the market economy as part of everyday living without futher question, so they fail to show curiosity with regard to *knowledge*.

In the teaching of the concept of causation we aim to develop a method of thinking as well as an understanding of causes and effects around us. Causation, as an aspect of method, should be integrated with the substance of several disciplines.

Students should realize first, *causes and effects are rational*; second, *cause and effect have the character of multiplicity*. In the first instance, this means that operation of cause and effect can be understood by men if only they know enough about the factors involved in the causal chain. The second instance (subconcept) means that a single act may bring about (cause) several effects which seemingly become more *isolated* as the series of effects expands.

The main benefit to be realized from a consideration of the cause and effect major concept and its two corollaries lies in the opportunity such study affords to demonstrate the possibility of understanding the course of human events. The fact that events do not "just happen," but that they are caused appears to be basic to a grasp of the course and meaning of all social action. The alternative suggests an air of satisfaction with the idea that events occur at random, that they constitute no definable pattern, and hence that attempts to study and understand them are mere aimless pursuits. This obviously is a defeatist philosophy which promotes myth, superstition, and ignorance at the expense of organized intellectual endeavor.[2]

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[2]This paragraph is paraphrased from the position paper developed for the Curriculum Center by Dr. George A. Hoar and Dr. Richard McKey, Jr.

TECHNIQUES AND ASPECTS OF METHOD

The substantive, value, and methodological concepts we have defined to this point can be offered in the form of pupil material. Appropriate teacher guides and visual aids for the classroom can be designed to accompany these pupil materials. There are, however, certain aspects of method which, as Professor Tumin has pointed out, are a part of all substantive material. These aspects have largely been covered as separate identifiable factors in the broad methodological concepts of *Historical Method and Point of View, Causation,* and *The Geographical Approach.*

It would be a serious mistake to permit any student to assume that aspects and techniques of method such as objectivity, skepticism, interpretation, and evaluation which are presented both under *Historical Method and Point of View* and under *Causation* are limited to one or two concepts in which they are specifically labeled and described. These aspects and techniques should be emphasized by teachers in the presentation of each of the other concepts. We are, therefore, giving priority to the teaching of these aspects as a part of all concepts rather than in the preparation of specific pupil materials at this time.

In addition to the three aspects and techniques mentioned above, there are techniques we have identified as *Observation, Classification, and Measurement; Analysis and Synthesis;* and *Questions and Answers.* These techniques have not been stressed in the foregoing concepts and should receive a greater priority in the production of specific pupil materials.

1. Observation, Classification, and Measurement

Observation differs from seeing in that it is more active and focused than casual and passive seeing. No two persons will ever observe the same complete event or evidence, even when standing side by side. Experience, training, and intelligence are bound to affect observation.

Observation leads to measurement, as comparisons begin to require more precision. As soon as numbers (denoting size, age, distribution, or effect) are involved the student becomes occupied with the process of measurement.

Measurement makes classification possible. A number of units may be classified by color or frequency of occurrence. Dr. Jerome Bruner has listed five advantages of classification:

1. It (classification) reduces the complexity of the environment.

2. It is the means by which the objects of the world are identified.

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3. It reduces the need for constant learning.

4. It provides direction for instrumental activity.

5. It permits us to order and relate classes of events.

Students should learn early in their social studies how to observe, to measure, and to classify. Only through ratios or comparisons can they understand new areas brought to their attention. Whether studying the effects of a gasoline price war, voter registration by socio-economic groups, or relationships of urbanization to industrialization, it is necessary that the student observe, measure, and classify.

2. Analysis and Synthesis

The techniques of analysis and synthesis are common to all of the social sciences — indeed, perhaps to all inquiry of any kind. Analysis is the process of separating a whole into its constituent parts in order to examine each independently and to determine its relation to other parts and to the whole. Analysis is the basis of much which comes under the heading of scientific method. The presumption is that by working with smaller and smaller parts less complex than the whole, we can increase our understanding to the point where the complexity of the whole begins to be understood.

Analysis takes many forms. It may employ the tools of logic to examine the structure of a group of ideas to determine which ideas are entailed by others, or it may make use of statistical techniques to determine empirical relationships among occurrences. It is as applicable to the structure of language as it is to the structure of a molecule.

Analysis is a particularly important skill in the examination of problems. Students need to learn to break a problem into those questions which are essentially factual in nature, those that are definitional, those that are questions of logic, and those that are normative questions. They must learn, of course, that any such breakdown is in a large measure artificial and that its value is derived from its utility in promoting understanding.

Synthesis is the construction of wholes out of parts. It is not merely the opposite of analysis, for that would imply a simple reversal of the steps in analysis like taking a toaster apart and putting it back together again. Synthesis adds an element of originality or creativeness which permits the construction of new wholes out of old parts; that is, parts which are already available from past experience.

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Bloom and his co-authors[3] describe three different categories of synthesis based upon the products that result. The first of these refers to a unique communication. Synthesis in this sense then, may result in a book, play, poem, musical composition, painting or any other such products. The second outcome of synthesis may be a plan in a proposed set of operations. The plan for a research study, teaching unit, an urban renewal program, a computer program, or a summer cottage represents this form of synthesis. Finally, synthesis is also described as a set of abstract relations. Such relations may be derived from empirical data and represent a theory about the inter-relationships among a group of events, processes, or test scores, or they may be derived from the manipulation of symbolic systems such as mathematics, logic, geometry, etc. Since synthesis is a very complex process, it frequently requires the use of analysis, interpretation, evaluation, and the other techniques that have been outlined in this chapter.

3. Questions and Answers

Stated simply, social science inquiry is the asking and answering of questions. To accept this definition is to acknowledge the need for improvement in the ways of asking questions and the methods for seeking answers.

One goal seems to stand out above all others, namely helping the child to see the importance of asking and answering his own questions. One of the important goals of the discovery method of teaching is to encourage children to ask questions — all kinds of questions — and to learn the enormous difficulties involved in obtaining adequate answers. We may expect the questions to be trivial at first and the answers to be naive, but if the questions are important to the student, he will not be content with naive answers. He will continue to refine the questions asked and the means for acquiring answers, and eventually he will refuse to accept the neat stereotypes with which society abounds.

As future citizens, students should learn to depend upon themselves as sources of answers, and not rely on "authoritative" sources entirely. This is an essential responsibility of citizens in a democracy.

4. Objectivity

Objectivity is an ideal man has never yet attained, but this in no way lessens its importance. As noted in *Historical Method and Point of View* and in *Causation*, all men are biased by the values established in their cultures, by their position in time and space, and by their individual tastes and prejudices.

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[3]Benjamin Bloom et al., *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives Handbook I; Cognitive Domain,* New York: Longmans Green, 1956, p. 162-65.

Man can never become fully conscious of all these biases. Where he is aware, however, he should learn to recognize the effects they have on his thinking. Therefore, recognition of factors which bias one's judgment becomes a first step in striving toward objectivity. Seeking out our biases must become a constant effort by all citizens. Only to the degree that the student is successful in recognizing this need is he ever going to become more objective than his animal fears, appetites, comforts, and discomforts.

5. Skepticism

Skepticism may be defined as an attitude of suspicion, alertness or critical doubt which is brought to bear upon all phases of inquiry. It asks whether a problem is what it appears, whether evidence is reliable and valid, whether conclusions drawn are warranted. In short, it accepts nothing as evident without a careful examination of the circumstances.

Perhaps a word on what is *not* meant by skepticism may help to clarify it. Skepticism is not cynicism. It does not imply that a student should learn to criticize for the sake of criticism or to do so in an irresponsible manner. It intends, rather, that the coin of criticism has both its negative and positive side, showing at one and the same time a critical stance with regard to what is and a willingness to suggest how it might be improved.

6. Interpretation

As noted in the development of the concept on *Historical Method and Point of View*, interpretation is both an essential *part* of and a *result* of a point of view. Again the position of the observer in his culture will affect his interpretation. Allan Nevins has written:

> It is almost impossible to name a political, economic, or social preconception which is not molded by history. It is equally impossible to name a piece of real history which is not molded and colored by political, economic, and social beliefs.

If for history we substitute *man's knowledge of the facts of man's life and the significance of those facts to him*, we find interpretation woven throughout all knowledge. Interpretation involves making judgments which frequently are judgments of earlier judgments. It is an attempt to select from knowledge that which is meaningful and to show its meaning.

The value of this aspect to the student is not the definition of interpretation, but the recognition of the impossibility to attain or pass on any evidence without interpreting it, and, therefore, the need for a cautious awareness of the process of interpretation.

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7. Evaluation

Facts, ideas, and evidence must be weighed as to their relative value and position in a chain of events. As noted under the concept of *Causation* as well as under *Historical Method*, the relative importance of one or several contributing causes of a noticeable effect is basic to any explanation of cause and effect.

Evaluation is closely allied to selectivity of facts. Primary and secondary sources of evidence must be weighed as to their reliability. Some evidence must be discarded because it plays so small a role as to confuse and diffuse rather than to clarify a problem. Techniques of evaluation are a part of the study of all questions and problems in the social studies.

8. Evidence

Evidence is any item of established information which is put forward as being relevant to the solution of a problem, the making of a decision, the answering of a question, or the testing of a hypothesis. It may vary from a statement made by an expert to a reading from a barometer.

Evidence is a thread which weaves through all aspects of method. Interpretation is important in its relation to evidence. Objectivity, skepticism, evaluation, observation, classification, measurement, analysis, and synthesis are all connected through the very purpose for their existence, their treatment of evidence.

Evidence is never static, as it is subject to all the above variables. It is considered an aspect of method only in the total manner in which it is treated before acceptance. As the basis for all statements of fact made by the teacher of social studies, evidence and its treatment should be constantly emphasized.

Chapter V

CONCLUSION

The selection of 34 concepts by the Center does not mean the staff has agreed that these are the only 34 concepts worthy of development. It does not necessarily mean these are the most important concepts, for there are likely to be other individuals or groups who would omit one or more of the 34 in order to substitute other concepts which appeared to them to be more important. The Center hopes to be able to develop several further concepts concurrently with the later phases of the project. For example, until April 1965, the staff intended to include the substantive concept of *Identity* (awareness of self). This concept has not been discarded, but was temporarily set aside to make room for another concept. Such decisions have been made when the staff believed the postponed concept was already touched upon to some extent in the development of other concepts, and when the substituted concept was not dealt with elsewhere.

In addition to the obvious merits in teaching concepts and conceptual structure, the Center believes there is another advantage in this approach. Teachers and administrators from elementary and secondary schools have reported their view that this type of program permits considerable flexibility in teaching. If the Center had prepared a K-12 curriculum, or even a course for two or three selected grades, schools would be faced with abandoning their present programs altogether and using a program prepared by outsiders. From Mississippi to Vermont there would be little opportunity to apply local illustrations or to react to regional or individual ideas.

The concept approach adopted by the Center permits a teacher to employ all concepts or only those which can fit into the course without sacrificing material he personally considers more important for his particular class. In other situations the teacher may prefer to tie the concept to a particular unit of the course, thereby covering it without using a large package of class time. For example, a teacher could decide to use the reasons for American entry into the First World War as an illustration of multiple causation, and in this manner continue to con-

centrate on the First World War during a particular week. Only at the end of the unit would it be necessary to devote some additional time to a conclusion emphasizing the related concept.

This approach, employed by the Social Studies Curriculum Center, provides an open end. Development of new concepts and expansion of the original concepts may continue beyond the original five year project without necessitating a discarding of previous developments as would be the case in redoing a fixed curriculum. Even as the Center hopes to operate an open ended contribution, every individual or group interested in social studies can likewise add to this contribution.

The nature of the concept approach is such as to encourage local teachers, social studies departments, and state education departments to continue to add their versions of new concepts or to exercise initiative in strengthening the above concepts. We hope the contributions of the Social Studies Curriculum Center will not be looked upon as only a set of classroom materials for students, but as an opening through which all social scientists may, if they so choose, take part in meeting the challenge of the remainder of the 20th century.

APPENDIX

The outline, discussion and elaboration of a concept which follows, is included to guide those who will write instructional materials in the meaning the center staff assigned to concepts.

Identification became more than the selection of labels or titles. Definition of sub-concepts, limitations of scope, and other factors of identification and delineation became subjects of lengthy staff research and discussion. In order to preserve and pass on to the writers of classroom materials the final packaged concept which the staff eventually adopted, outlines were drafted to provide a base from which to view the concepts. Therefore, these outlines are more complete identifications of concepts than provided in the foregoing chapters. They are *not* teaching materials, or even outlines for teaching materials. They are springboards from which teaching units will be selected and launched.

The outline selected for inclusion as an appendix is from the group identified as substantive concepts.

THE CONCEPT OF CONFLICT ...
ITS ORIGIN, EXPRESSION, AND RESOLUTION

There is no period in the life of individuals, groups, or nations which is entirely free of conflict. Conflict has been a basic and fundamental factor in civilization's growth and development. It has affected every individual and every institution in recorded history. The influences of wars, of judicial interpretations, of class strife, of political campaigns, of religious differences and even of ideological struggles can not be overestimated. It is a continuing battle, never ceasing, existing on all fronts and in all geographic areas and constantly pressuring society to respond to the conflicting forces.

To ignore conflict as a social force worthy of recognition in curricular revision is an unrealistic view of how man's destinies have been shaped. Conflict has been a powerful if not the MOST powerful force in structuring the world of today. It is ever present and ever operative in society. Whether the conflict is within one's individual self, or between

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individuals in the same or different groups, or between groups is not the basic question. Rather, it would seem that the emphasis in the social studies curriculum should be upon examining conflicts, in better understanding how they originate, and in exploring mechanisms which society has for resolving those conflicts which have impeded or are now impeding man's progress.

In order to do this, it is necessary for the individual to understand how conflict arises, the effect it has upon his own personality and on the personalities of others, and their probable reaction to the conflict as they are involved. To have today's youth examine these problems as part of his social studies class in order to gain insight as to the way in which conflict affects individuals and society may be novel, but basic facts suggest the need for such an innovation.

Today's social forces — nuclear power, automation, population explosion, racial integration, urbanization, to name only a few — are greatly altering man's way of living. Every social force results in increased problems — problems which contain the conflicts that must be resolved by society. Hence, whether the conflict is reflected in a rumble between local groups of hoods, or the increased unemployment resulting from automation, or the rising spirit of nationalism as the symbol of an awakened Africa and Asia is not the important point. The crucial point is that man must make every effort to resolve each and every conflict. Therefore, it is urged that the social studies not stress only knowledge of past conflicts, but that teachers should provide youth with definitely planned opportunities to understand better how the pressing conflicts of today arise, how individuals and groups react to them and what mechanisms are available or can be made available for resolving them. In today's world such understanding is crucial for continued progress.[1]

OBJECTIVES

The Overall Objectives For Instructional Units On Conflict Are:

1. To give the child some insights into the causes of conflict formation.

2. To help the child develop healthy attitudes toward conflict as an aspect of reality with which he must learn to cope.

3. To acquaint children with the varieties of conflict and the culturally approved and disapproved means for resolving them.

4. To demonstrate what happens when conflict is unresolved or resolved through means that are not considered legitimate by society.

[1]The foregoing paragraphs are drawn from a paper prepared for the Social Studies Curriculum Center by Dr. Gerald Snyder, Professor of Education, State University College at Albany.

5. To help the child acquire satisfactory patterns of conflict resolution, to be used throughout life.

I. THE ORIGIN AND EXPRESSION OF CONFLICT

A. Definitions of Conflict.

1. Conflict is conscious competition in which the competitors become self-conscious rivals, opponents, or enemies.[2] However, some social scientists have made a further distinction between competition and conflict and have indicated competition is a milder form of rivalry than conflict.[3]

2. Conflict is a process-situation in which two or more human beings or groups seek actively to thwart each other's purposes, to prevent satisfaction of each other's interests, even to the extent of injuring or destroying each other.[4]

3. Three loci of conflict have been suggested.[5]
   a. Conflict exists within an individual's own personality.
   b. Conflict exists between individuals in the same or different groups.
   c. Conflict exists between groups.

B. Reasons for conflict within an individual.

1. Conflicts result from organic drives.

2. Conflicts result from habits formed relative to these drives.

3. Conflicts result from acquired or learned values.

4. Elements of conflict exist in all situations (sports, labor-management, race, religion, political, social, and nationalistic), but may be entirely within the mind with no apparent outward expression.

C. Conflicts between groups and individuals.

1. The causes are numerous.

2. Conflict emerges as soon as two or more persons or groups demonstrate an interest in the same object. This can develop into cooperation or more serious conflict.

D. Conflicts may be symbolic.

1. The open or obvious contest or conflict may be a symbol of deeper conflict.

2. The race for the moon is a conflict in which the moon is a symbol; prestige in the cold war is the real goal.

E. Conflicts may be resolved; they are almost never solved. We must, therefore, concentrate on determining the best means of resolution.

[2]*Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences*, p. 194.
[3]The position of the Social Studies Curriculum Center is to treat competition and conflict as separate concepts.
[4]Fairchild, *Dictionary of Sociology*, pp. 58-59.
[5]Barnard, *Introduction to Social Psychology*, p. 507.

II. THE INDIVIDUAL FACES CONFLICT

Conflict takes place whenever the needs of living things are not satisfied.

Designed for the primary level, this section will help the child to realize that man is continually struggling with his natural environment, with himself, and with his fellow men. Hopefully, the child will come to see such struggles as an inevitable part of life. A second and equally important goal is to help the child to acquire a set of appropriate responses to resolve those personal conflicts with which he will be confronted throughout life.

Although the main objectives of this section are expressed in terms of human conflict, the young child will be introduced first to conflict situations in the lives of animals. Once he sees conflict in the relatively neutral context of the animal world, human conflict situations will be presented.

A. Conflict in the Animal World.

Since children in grades 5-8 have a natural interest in animals, it seems appropriate to begin a study of conflict at this level with illustrations from the animal world. The need for food, shelter, and protection are important sources of conflict in the animal world. A unit on each of these is outlined below.

1. Without food animals become sick and even die.
   a. Show pictures of animals that do not get enough food. Compare animals fed on minimal diet with others fed on richer diet.
   b. Show winter kill of deer and other animals unable to get enough food.

2. If all animals ate the same food there would not be enough for all of them. But different animals eat different foods.

3. When food is scarce animals do different things to obtain it.
   a. In winter birds fly to places where food is abundant.
   b. Some animals put away food in the fall in preparation for winter.
   c. Some animals live off the fat of their own bodies.
   d. Animals eat different things when they can't find the food they usually eat.
   e. Animals are given food by kind people.

4. Animals need shelter for many reasons.
   a. They need it to keep warm and to protect themselves from the weather. Ask children to imagine what it would be like without shelter.
   b. Some use it to protect themselves from their enemies.
   c. Some use it to keep their young from harm.

5. Animals build many types of homes.

6. Animals need to protect themselves from their enemies.
   a. Some protect themselves by hiding.
      (1) They change colors.
      (2) They hide in holes and stumps.
   b. Some animals have ways of defending themselves.
      (1) Armadillos and turtles have special armor.
      (2) Skunks and wolverines have offensive odors.
      (3) Porcupines have quills.
      (4) Tigers and cougars have sharp teeth and claws.

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B. *Conflict Among People.*

1. People face some of the same problems that animals do.
   a. Using cartoons or realistic representations of early man, show how he faced the same problems of food, shelter, and protection from enemies.
   b. Show how people throughout the world still are hungry.
   c. Illustrate how many people must cooperate to obtain food today.
   d. Show fires and fire drills involve conflict.

2. People have problems animals do not have.
   a. They experience conflict with peers.
   b. Conflicts with adults are experienced by all children.
      (1) Going to bed frequently involves conflict.
      (2) Obeying rules obviously involves conflict.
      (3) The importance of honesty creates conflict. The difference between tall tales that are told for fun and attempts to deceive is difficult to understand.
   c. Conflicts among peers and adults are common.
      (1) Conflicts emerge from misunderstanding the actions of others.
      (2) Conflicts arise from differing beliefs.
      (3) Conflicts arise from lack of information about a situation. (Fear of unknown, such as going to the hospital.)

III. CONFLICT RESOLUTION IN COMPARATIVE CULTURES

In this section of the *Resolution of Conflict* the objective is to illustrate that various cultures have developed diverse ways in which to deal with conflict.

A. *Eskimo Culture*

The Eskimo culture has not developed a formal governmental or legal system to mediate conflict. Instead many conflicts are resolved on an individual basis. This does not mean, however, that no formal means of mediation have been developed. E. A. Hoebel writes:

> "Boxing and butting are apparently available as means of settling all disputes except homicide. Wrestling serves much the same function, though it may have a more deadly outcome in Baffinland and Labrador, where the loser may be slain by the victor. The wrestling duel is occasionally used as the means through which blood revenge may be carried out."

Hoebel goes on to comment that the most interesting means of resolving conflict is found in the *nith* songs of the eastern and western Eskimos.

> "Elevating the duel to a higher plane, the weapons used are words — 'little sharp words, like the wooden splinters which I hack off with my ax.' Song duels are used to work off grudges and disputes of all orders, save murder. An East Greenlander, however, may seek his satisfaction for the murder of a relative through a song contest if he is physically too weak to gain his end, or if he is so skilled in singing as to feel certain of victory. Inasmuch as East Greenlanders get so engrossed in the mere artistry of the singing as to forget the cause of the grudge, this is understandable. Singing skill among these Eskimos equals or outranks gross physical prowess.
>
> The singing style is highly conventionalized. The successful singer uses the traditional patterns of composition which he attempts to deliver with such

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finess as to delight the audience to enthusiastic applause. He who is most heartily applauded is 'winner.' To win a song contest brings no restitution in its train. The sole advantage is in prestige.

Among the East Greenlanders song duels may be carried on for years, just for the fun of it. But elsewhere, grudge contests are usually finished in a single season. Traditional songs are used, but special compositions are created for each occasion to ridicule the opponent and capitalize his vulnerable foibles and frailties."

Households may also join in and support an individual, thus creating somewhat of a feud between different clans.

Obviously, the strategy behind this resolution technique is to submerge the basis of the conflict through the artistry of the singing.[6]

B. Ifugao Culture

The Ifugaos are mountain-dwelling head-hunters of Luzon who possess no formal government. Conflict situations are handled in an interesting manner.

"A man with a grievance or a claim tries first to exact a satisfactory settlement from the opposite party. Failing this, he must go to a *monkalun*, a man of the highest social class, who has a reputation as a man of affairs and a number of enemy heads to his credit. The *monkalun* hears his story. Next he accosts the defendant with the charges. The defendant in turn pleads his cause. Meanwhile, both plaintiff and defendant are marshaling their fighting relatives — just in case. The *monkalun* shuttles back and forth between the two parties, wheedling, arguing, threatening, cajoling — attempting to induce them to give ground so that they may meet on terms acceptable to each. The existence of the *monkalun* represents a first step in the development of juridical institutions. He explicitly expresses the general societal interest in clearing up of tensions, the punishment of wrongs and the reestablishment of social equilibrium when the normal balance has been disturbed by an alleged illegitimate act. He is to be recognized as a quasi public official: the 'disinterested' third party who represents the public interest in seeing that justice is done. He is not an outright public official, because his office is not explicit; he is a *monkalun* only when acting as a *monkalun*, and he is not chosen by the public to serve in that post. He is not a judge; for he makes no judgments. He is not an arbiter; for he hands down no decrees. He is merely a forceful go-between — an administering mediator of limited authority but of usually persuasive effectiveness."[7]

C. Kwakiutl Culture

The manipulation of wealth among these Indians of Northwestern United States was in many ways a parody on our own economic ideology. These tribes did not use wealth to get themselves an equivalent value in economic goods, but as an index in a life long contest.

"The ultimate reason why a man of the Northwest Coast cared about the nobility titles, the wealth, the crests and the prerogatives lays bare the main-spring of their culture: they used them in a contest in which they sought to shame their rivals. Each individual, according to his means, constantly vied with all others to outdistance them in distributions of property. The boy who had just received his first gift of property selected another youth to receive a gift from him. The youth he chose could not refuse without admitting

[6]A complete description is given in Hoebel, E. A., *The Law of Primitive Man*, pp. 92-99, and Hoebel, E. A., *Man in the Primitive World*, pp. 472-474.
[7]Hoebel, E. A., *Man in the Primitive World*, pp. 475-476; *The Law of Primitive Man*, pp. 114-126.

defeat at the outset, and he was compelled to cap the gift with an equal amount of property. When the time came for repayment if he had not doubled the original gift to return as interest, he was ashamed and demoted, and his rival's prestige correspondingly enhanced. The contest thus begun continued throughout life. If he was successful he played with continually increasing amounts of property and with more and more formidable rivals. It was a fight. They say, 'We do not fight with weapons, we fight with property.' A man who had given away a copper had overcome his rival as much as if he had overcome him in battle array."[8]

D. Dobu Culture

This tribe of eastern New Guinea is described as "low and treacherous." "Every man's hand is against every other man." The most common means of mediating conflict is through use of *Disease Charms*.

"The disease-charms have a malevolence all their own. Every man and woman in the Tewara village owns from one to five. Each is specific for a particular disease, and the person who owns the incantation owns also the incantation for removing the same affliction. . . . The incantations give their possessors an opportunity for the most explicit expression of malignity the culture allows. Ordinarily such expression is tabu. The Dobuan does not risk making a public challenge when he wishes to injure a person. He is obsequious and redoubles the shows of friendship. He believes that sorcery is made strong by intimacy, and he waits the opportunity for treachery. But in placing his disease-charm upon his enemy and in teaching his charm to his sister's son he has full license for malevolence. . . . When a person finds himself the victim of a disease, he sends to the person who has put the disease upon him. There is no other way to ward off death. The disease can only be cured or ameliorated by the corresponding exorcism owned by the same sorcerer."[9]

E. Hopi Culture

Conflict in the Hopi culture is of very low key; great pains are taken to keep conflict situations from disrupting the peaceful atmosphere that surrounds daily life. Since conflict is so sublimated, opposing points of view, when they do occur, often lead to irreconcilable conflicts.

"When this happens, the Hopi system has no solution except to let the community split in two, each part going off to become an independent village. As a matter of fact, many Hopi villages owe their origin to just such a break up.

One of the last such splits occurred as late as 1900, when the United States government, pursuing a policy of 'Americanizing' the Indians and of doing away with their native culture, ordered all the Hopis to send their children away to government boarding school. In the eight hundred year old village of Oraibi there was unanimous disapproval of this harsh and high handed measure, but two factions developed around the question of what to do about it.

One side felt that this threat to the Hopi way of life must be resisted by civil disobedience; this side came to be called the faction of Conservatives or Hostiles. The other side — Progressives or Friendlies — felt equally strongly that it was more correctly Hopi to give in and not risk a violent clash with government troops that were standing by to enforce the order. There was no question of voting and letting the majority decide. It would not have seemed sufficiently democratic to the villagers to let one party impose its

[8]Benedict, *Patterns of Culture*, pp. 168-180.
[9]Benedict, *Patterns of Culture*, pp. 135-139.

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will on another, to let either the larger or more numerous clans bully or dictate to the smaller.

So it was solemnly agreed, in the typically peaceable Hopi way, that the two factions should hold a tug of war in the plaza, the losing side to leave the village. The Hostiles lost, and they left to found the new sovereign village of Hotevila not far away."[10]

IV. GROUP OPINION

Group opinion, referred to in larger groups as public opinion, is an increasingly effective means of resolving conflict. The development of an opinion in or by a group may bring about a collective pressure for a decision or an action which will resolve a conflict.

A. *The civil rights struggle is an example of conflict whose resolution is being pressed and determined by concretized opinion and the expression of that opinion by a majority of the American public.*

1. From 1900 to 1945 the improvement of the status of the American Negro was painfully slow.

2. During this period the average white American was relatively unaware of the relationship of the Negro to those civil rights taken for granted by most white citizens.

3. Improved communications, and a Negro minority exposed to other than routine daily existence by the Second World War, migration to northern cities, and some increased educational opportunity began to make the plight of the American Negro known to the white public.

4. Majority opinion developed in sympathy with the cause of the Negro. This opinion could express itself at the polls and in economic boycott. The result was an acceleration of reform.

B. *The so-called "white backlash," a temporary phenomenon during the summer of 1964, demonstrates the importance of public opinion in the resolution of this conflict.*

1. When public opinion in certain cities shifted from support of the Negro to support of the white opponents of equal rights it was in part due to an association with the shifting idea of the "underdog." Psychological association with "underdog" should be explained.

2. This new public opinion caused political candidates to shift their platforms and resulted in adverse pressures on civil rights leaders and sympathizers.

3. A shift away from this "backlash" became apparent as civil rights pressures changed during the autumn of 1964. Public opinion again supported the Negro in the more populous states.

4. Do not ignore public opinion or group opinion in southern states, as an expression of a national minority opinion which is at the same time a regional majority opinion calling for a different form of conflict resolution.[11]

[10]Litizky, *Four Ways of Being Human*, pp. 238-240.
[11]See: Lippmann, Walter, *Public Opinion*, for illustrations.

V. DYNASTIC SUCCESSION

The objective of this section is to demonstrate how formal organizations (governments) resolve the problem of transition of power.

Replacement of a ruler, governing group, or national official naturally poses problems. In all cases some degree of conflict is evident in choosing a successor. These conflicts have been resolved in the past by:

1. Inbreeding — the divine family

2. Civil War

3. Passing on equal rights to all sons of a ruler.

4. Primogenture

5. Election of peers

6. Parliamentary approval

7. Majority rule — popular election

A. The Divine Family — Inbreeding

The Egyptian dynasties developed this idea for protection and preservation of their position.[12]

1. Explain the custom of matrilineal descent.

2. Marriage within the family to preserve the "divine line" prevented rival groups from ever inventing a legitimate divine rival.

B. Civil War

The most common cause of civil war has been the struggle between rivals for the throne, tribal leadership, or control of the modern state. The problem of transferring power at the death or retirement of a leader or ruler has frequently been resolved by open warfare between the supporters of rivals for that power.

1. The struggle among the generals of Alexander the Great is a typical case in point.[13]

2. Rivalry for the throne of the empire among Roman generals offers another good illustration.[14]

3. A contemporary example is apparent in the continuing civil war which began with the death of Patrice Lumumba in The Congo.[15]

4. Civil strife, verging on war, determines the ruling faction in South Vietnam.[16]

5. Note how the newly developing powers are passing through a form of conflict resolution abandoned by other nations in favor of various forms of election.
   a. In Russia there is an election by the power structure.
   b. The British choose their executive through parliamentary election.
   c. Americans employ popular elections.

[12]Breasted, *History of Egypt.*
[13]Durant, *The Life of Greece,* pp. 552-561.
[14]Swain, *The Ancient World.*
Gibbon, *The Rise and Fall of the Roman Empire.*
[15]For reference to The Congo see: *The Reporter Magazine,* September 1, 1960; March 16, 1961; December 17, 1964; March 30, 1961; November 23, 1961. *Time,* December 22, 1961.
[16]For reference to continuing civil struggle for control of the South Vietnam government see: The New York Times, News of the Week, from 1963 through 1965. Schuman, F., *International Politics,* p. 557.

C. From Equal Rights for all Sons to Primogeniture

An excellent illustration is available in following the problems of dynastic succession through the Caralingian and Capetian kings.[17]

1. Clovis divided his kingdom (the Franks) among his four sons (Merovingian kings).
2. The kingdom immediately began to deteriorate.
3. Pepin, mayor of the Palace, made the position hereditary. This is a real strength-making-up for weak kings.
4. Charles Martel then expanded the empire.
5. Charlemagne built the Holy Roman Empire.
6. The Empire broke down under the rivalry of sons of Charlemagne's successors. Constant conflict resulted from inadequate means of transferring power.
7. Election by peers sought to resolve the problem. Hugh Capet was elected king in 987.
8. Primogeniture developed to prevent the kingdom from breaking into warring segments upon death of the king.
9. In the beginning, the oldest son was named co-king before his father's death in order to obtain acceptance of the idea.
10. Primogeniture became the pattern of succession for most ruling families of Europe.

D. From Feudalism to Strong Kings — By Way of Parlimentary Approval[18]

1. The methods of resolving the problem of succession to the throne in B and C above demonstrate important weaknesses.
   a. There were no static solutions (no solution could create a static situation.)
   b. Assuring a family line of succession created new problems such as the entrenchment of weak French kings, and too much power in the hands of bad rulers (Frederick II).
2. Feudalism was the result of the collapse of urban society and the middle class. It was a product of a rural society.
3. The rise of a new urban society was accompanied by development of a new middle class.
   a. Feudalism could not cope with urban conditions.
   b. Evolution of a middle class brought a gradual ascendency of emperors and kings.
4. The new era of post-feudal kings re-introduced the problem of guaranteed transition of power versus entrenchment of bad kings.

E. Parliamentary Approval of Kings Evolves.[19]

1. Henry VIII through James I, 1485-1603, marks the development of a new system.
2. The right to name successor shifts to parliament in the Glorious Revolution.
   a. Rulers assumed the throne by parliamentary invitation.
   b. William and Mary, 1688, are the first to be invited.
   c. The Bill of Rights, 1689, strengthens the powers of the electors.
3. An era of peaceful transition of power evolves.

[17]See: Strayer and Munro (Fourth Edition), *The Middle Ages*, pp. 86-106, 172-178.
[18]See: Munro and Strayer, The Middle Ages, pp. 195-205.
[19]See: Hall and Albion, *History of England and the British Empire*, Chapters IX, X, XI.

F. Development of Rule by the Majority.

   1. Explain the development of the American system of electing officials.
   2. Is there a developing middle-class "class consciousness"?
   3. See the role of political parties in X below.
   4. The United States presidential succession between elections is a good illustration of resolution of the problems of succession by established procedures.

VI. INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

International relations embraces cooperation, conflict, and conflict resolution among nation-states and other units to which we have alluded. Some students of the subject focus on one of these areas of relationship, some on another; properly, all belong within the scope of the disciplines. There has recently been some inclination to depict international relations as conflictual and to view the fragmented world as the cockpit of the war of all against all, each state selfishly seeking survival as a minimal goal and territorial, economic or ideological aggrandizement, to varying degrees of satiety, as the maximal objective. This is the Hobbesian perspective; the guide book for negotiating the landscape is supplied by Machiavelli. Although proponents of this viewpoint have probably presented us with a caricature of the imperatives of self-interest and survival and have almost certainly been presumptuous in appropriating for their theories the label of "realism," it is important to keep in mind the centrality of conflict in international relations. War is its extreme manifestation, and has always been a staple subject within the discipline. But conflict assumes other forms as well, including economic competition, propaganda, guerrilla and para-military activities, and a host of other devices. We have in the study of international conflict a very valuable approach to an understanding of the relationships of the many units which comprise this decentralized world.

If conflict is well-nigh universal in time and place, the management and resolution of conflict are equally a part of international relations. As I. L. Claude notes in the main thesis of a recent book, although power may not be banished it can and must be managed. In other words, the basic problem of international relations is that of establishing and maintaining reliable control over the exercise of power. In a world in which power is notoriously decentralized, this is no mean task.

Although not all conflicts are peacefully resolved, many are, and the student of international relations is concerned with the mechanics of and the motivation of such settlement. In a sense, much of international relations is devoted to the unraveling of conflict at points of friction between nation-states, to its abatement or suspension, with the temporary relief and the mitigating influence provided by a variety

of institutions and strategems. The quest for substitutes for war and for objective conditions which will render war impossible is part of this conflict resolution effort, perhaps the most spectacular part. Arms control and disarmament are now and will continue to be important features of this effort. The balance of power, even if a much misunderstood concept, is a device for the moderation or suspension of conflict in that it represents the quest for ultrastability in a world in which power and destructive capacity are decentralized dangerously if perhaps inevitably.

Resolution of conflict is a principle concern of both international law and international organization. Each seeks to create channels which will divert nation-states from collision courses, and even where war is unlikely, to moderate the tensions which exacerbate international relations. Diplomacy, conflict resolution, is widely considered to be a principle mode of settling or deferring conflict, making it one of the major themes in any treatise on international relations.

In this unit our objective is to indicate methods adopted by nation-states to find a solution to conflicts with other nation-states. Some sources of conflict to be illustrated are: rights at sea, rights of citizens abroad, access to resources, access to and protection of markets, preservation of status, and military position (self-protection).[20]

Some measures for resolving conflict between nations which have been attempted are:

1. Show of strength.

2. Threat of War.

3. War.

4. Alliances (Balance of power).

5. Treaties.

6. Negotiation (diplomatic channels).

7. Arbitration.

8. Ajudication.

9. International organization.

A. *Show of Force.*

    1. Use the Venezuelan Affair, 1902, as an illustration.[21]

        a. From 1885 to 1902, the British do not bother to present their side of the dispute to the American people.

        Large segments of the American public were anti-English (Irish, free silver advocates, etc.).

[20] The introduction to VI is paraphrased from a Social Studies Curriculum Center source paper prepared by Dr. Frank Munger and associates.
[21] Bailey, A Diplomatic History of the American People, (4th edition) pp. 477-492; 550-553.
Bemis, A Diplomatic History of the United States, (4th edition) pp. 415-421; 522-525.

b. Venezuela refused arbitration with Germany in 1902 (although she had requested arbitration with British in earlier years).

c. Germany, Great Britain, and Italy instituted a blockade of Venezuela in December 1902.

d. Castro, the Venezuelan dictator, bowed before a threat of force. On February 17, 1903, he agreed to arbitration. The dispute was settled in Hague Court in 1904.

2. The United States Fleet Sailed Around the World in 1907.[22]

a. Theodore Roosevelt pressured California to accept a compromise on Japanese immigration.

b. He intended to demonstrate to Japan that this is not a weakness and that the United States would and could fight if Japan "bullied" the United States. The fleet was sent around the world, with a call at Japanese ports to impress the Japanese with American power and its mobility.

3. The presence of the United States Seventh Fleet at times of crisis in Formosa, Vietnam, and Laos provides a contemporary example.

B. The Threat of War.

1. The Baltimore Affair may be used as an illustration.

a. Trace the background of the conflict between Chile and the United States. There was already hard feeling prevalent in 1891.

b. Two American sailors were killed in a barroom brawl and the resulting riot in Valparaiso, Chile.

c. An official apology was demanded, but Chile indicated lack of confidence in the motives of President Harrison.

d. Both countries were on fire with war fever.

e. United States Navy Yards worked overtime. The President sent a message to Congress inviting a declaration of war. The Navy went to sea.

f. Chile apologized and paid an indemnity.

g. Other motives for President's actions must be recognized. (Election year).

2. Escalation As A Deterrent.

The possibility of any action by one nation-state pushing a second nation-state to further action acts in itself as a deterrent to action. A chain of actions can escalate to the point of open warfare. At a certain point escalation can become so rapid and so dictated by events as to pass beyond the point where it can be halted. Realization of the danger in escalation acts as a deterrent in determining new actions.[24]

Game theory should be explored as it relates to the risks and rewards of escalation (the deterrents and encouragements).

a. The decision by the United States to build fallout shelters cannot be made without consideration of its effect upon the Soviet Union.[25]

b. The aim of fallout shelters is to save lives *in event of total war.*

c. This American acceptance of total war could not be ignored by Russia. She in turn would need to contruct facilities for total war.

d. The deterrent of mass annihilation having been made less effective, further steps to neutralize bases for such a war would be required.

e. Escalation could lead quickly to war.

f. Fear of such escalation to war has been a major deterrent to the construction of shelters. Thus escalation has become a deterrent to the removal of deterrents to escalation.

[22]Bailey, A *Diplomatic History of the American People,* pp. 568-575.
Bemis, A *Diplomatic History of the United States,* pp. 674-675.
[23]Bailey, A *Diplomatic History of the American People,* pp. 452-455.
[24]See example of escalation in A. 5 of concept paper on *Multiple Causation.*
[25]Daedalus, Fall 1962: Brodie, Bernard, *Defense Policy and the Possibility of Total War,* pp. 733-748.

C. War.

During the 20th Century, war is increasingly the result of the misapplication of B. above.

1. The War of the Spanish Succession, 1701-1713, was fought to preserve the balance of power (reason for entry of Great Britain).

2. The Seven Years' War, 1756-1763 developed when Frederick tried to take Silesia from Austria for its *resources*, location and people.

3. The War of 1812 was a war over boundaries and rights at sea.

4. The Russo-Japanese War was a war for territory and its resources.

5. World War I became a world war owing to the miscalculation of the effects of general mobilization and other measures immediately preceding the war. Germany believed her actions would deter France and Russia from entering a new European War.[26]

6. World War II was another miscalculation by Germany. German attempts to retake former resources to connect divided territory, and to open way to further resources in Russia led to unexpected intervention by Great Britain and France.

7. The Korean War was the most recent miscalculation. The United States originally believed a show of force and a threat of full scale war would deter North Korea and her allies. War became the instrument for resolving the conflict. Conflict still existed at the end of war.

D. Alliances (Balance of Power).

1. Explain the Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente.
   a. Germany developed Triple Alliance (Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy) to assure peace so unified Germany could develop strength.
   b. France, Great Britain, and Russia formed the Triple Entente to balance the power of Europe as a reaction to the Triple Alliance. They believed this would resolve the conflict between a powerful alliance and single nation-states.[27]

2. NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organization) is a contemporary illustration.
   a. From 1946 through 1948 the Soviet Union and eastern Europe were more closely united than the rest of the western world. This represented a bloc of power able to confront any one nation.
   b. Twelve western nations sought to prevent conflict from expanding and if possible to gain a position for resolving conflicts, by uniting as a counter bloc. This group became NATO.

E. The Role of Diplomacy and the Diplomat.

The diplomat, of course, is involved in each of the foregoing measures for resolving conflict as well as in those which follow. At this point, however, it would be well to demonstrate the applicability of game theory to diplomacy.

1. Treaties are employed as instruments to resolve conflicts.
   Examples: Briand-Kellogg pact, Hay-Pauncefote, and Lansing-
   Ishii Agreement.[28]

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[26]See: Fay, *The Origins of the World War.*
   Benns, *Europe Since 1914,* (eighth edition), pp. 3-36.
[27]See: Benns, *Europe Since 1914,* pp. 9-12.
[28]Bailey, *A Diplomatic History of the American People,* Chapter XLI.
   Benns, *Europe Since 1914,* pp. 153-155.

2. The Algerciras Conference is an example of a meeting between nations to settle the type of territorial dispute which in earlier years had led to war. Germany, England and France, among others, settled the Morrocan question at this time.[29]

3. The Reciprocal Trade Agreements of the 1930's removed or lowered trade barriers which had been a serious source of bad feeling among nations. Although only partially effective, these agreements demonstrated the use of diplomatic channels to develop economic and political agreements aimed at removing sources of conflict. This was a six year effort on the part of the Department of State and its representatives abroad.

4. The Munich Four Power Conference of 1938 demonstrates the use of diplomatic channels and conferences to remove a source of conflict even though in this case the resolution resulted in greater conflicts at a later date. Recent evidence indicates the French and British were concerned that a war between Czechoslovakia and Germany would result in Russian intervention and domination of eastern Europe. This led France and Britain to resolve the Sudetan conflict in such a manner as to preserve Germany as the "bulwark against Bolshevism."

5. The Nuclear Test ban negotiated among the major powers and signed by numerous other powers in 1963 is an example of long and difficult negotiating through diplomatic channels prior to agreement.

6. Each year the role of the diplomat is further influenced by the improvement of communications with his home office, the addition of computers (game theory) to decision making in the foreign office (Department of State), and by the increased expression of public opinion in an era of mass communication media. The disappearance of secret negotiations is making bargaining almost impossible, because any concession is immediately relayed to the public and is interpreted as a defeat. Compromise and adjustment are becoming extremely difficult in an age when political constituents speak of total victory or total defeat.[30]

F. Arbitration.

1. In 1798 a mixed commission established the identity of the St. Croix River, the principal issue in the boundary disputes with England. Modern arbitration is said to have originated with this pact.

2. The settlement of the American Claims against Great Britain for damages incurred by the confederate raider *Alabama* was made by a joint high commission in 1871. This is an excellent example of arbitration succeeding when both sides have much to gain from the establishment of a precedent in the resolution of this type of conflict.

3. The Newfoundland fisheries dispute between Americans and Canadians, which lasted from the days of the American Revolution until 1909, was finally settled by arbitration in the Hague Court in 1909. This is an illustration of the use of formal, permanent arbitrary bodies to resolve international conflicts. It also points up the development of arbitration procedures since 1798.

4. The Chamizol dispute between Mexico and the United States concerned territory claimed by both nations. Referred to arbitration in 1910, the territory was split between the two powers by the arbitral award. Although having signed an arbitration treaty in advance, agreeing to abide by the decision, the United States refused the award. In 1963-1964, the United States turned

[29]Bailey, *opus cit.*, Chapter XXXIV.
[30]*Research Frontiers in Politics and Government,* The Brookings Institute, 1955.
Snyder, Richard, *Game Theory and the Analysis of Political Behavior.*

title of the awarded territory over to Mexico as part of its policy to build good will in Latin America.

5. When and why does arbitration succeed? This is an important question for students to discuss. See the chapter on arbitration in Schuman's *International Politics* for background material. Arbitration is usually undertaken if one side is so weak it may be coerced into accepting arbitration as in the Venezuela Affair in A. above, or when both sides believe a resolution of the conflict will provide good precedent or will otherwise be mutually beneficial.[31]

G. *Ajudication*.

1. The Central American Court of Justice was established in 1907.[32]
   a. It was the first genuine international court, and United States' efforts founded it.
   b. The court collapsed after the Nicarauguan case in 1916, when the United States refused to abide by the court's decision.
2. The Permanent Court of International Justice was organized in 1919.[33]
   a. 130 agreements were reached from 1919 to 1939.
   b. Examples may be found in Schuman, *International Politics*.

H. *International Organization*.

As in the case of F. 5 above, international organizations work when major powers, or powers of like size, find self-interest satisfied. We must be realistic; organizations cure or solve nothing in and by themselves. Note, when all powers have much to gain and little to lose, as in the postal union below, the organization functions smoothly; on the other hand, the League of Nations collapsed. This element of reality should become a part of the discussion of *any* of the organizations listed below which *may* be selected for classroom discussion.[34]

1. Greek city-states.
2. Indian and Chinese state systems (actually early confederations or loosely knit organizations of many smaller states).
3. Universal Postal Union, 1874.
4. International Bureau of Weights and Measures, 1875.
5. International Red Cross, 1864-1868.
6. Pan-American Union, 1907.
7. League of Nations, 1919.
8. United Nations, 1946.
   a. Describe the sub-organizations.
   b. Explain the potential for the future.

VII. ECONOMIC CONFLICTS

Conflicts rise from the scarcity of goods, services, and land. The scarcities may become a part of policies through their relationship to power. However, such conflicts are first or at the same time economic conflicts.[35]

[31]Schuman, *International Politics*, pp. 152-157.
  Bailey, *A Diplomatic History of American People*, Chapter 34.
[32]Schuman, *International Politics*, Chapter V, Section 4.
[33]Benns, *Europe Since 1914*, pp. 139-143.
[34]Schuman, *International Politics*, Chapter VII.
  Benns, *Europe Since 1914*, Chapters 6, 7, and 19.
[35]See concept outline for the *Concept of Scarcity*.

A. Guilds.[36]

1. Guilds were created to keep prices high and non-competitive.
   a. Guilds were a method of overcoming opposition.
   b. Non-members could be punished for entering the field.
   c. Members who failed to conform to guild prices or policies were dealt with severely.
   d. Members were even allotted a standard of quality which each man by his location or seniority could produce. He could not produce above or below his quality position.
2. In the middle ages business was viewed as relatively fixed. The market, source of supply, and labor were thought of as inflexible to the point where conflict was inevitable.
3. The "ideal" was believed to be a monopoly for the community.

B. Mercantilism and Trade Barriers.[37]

1. Mercantilism has been explained as the "economic counterpart of the political processes by which the national states were being built up."[38]
2. A working definition is: "Mercantilism is the name given to that group of ideas and practices particularly characteristic of the period 1500 to 1800 by which the national state acting in the economic sphere sought by methods of control to secure its own unity and power."[39]
3. By definition, mercantilism implies conflict.
4. National economic policies of the mercantilists sought to strengthen the home industries by restricting foreign competition. This was not only achieved by tariff barriers, but by prohibiting purchases in certain countries altogether.
5. These extreme mercantilists believed in bullionism. To them the way for a nation to become wealthy and strong was to obtain and hold as much gold and silver as possible.
6. Force, including war, was employed to build and break down mercantilist barriers. Attention should be given the French, British, and Spanish colonial wars.
7. Most barriers resulted in counter barriers.
8. Imperialism was attempted as a form of conflict resolution.[40]
   a. Colonies were sought as guaranteed non-competitive markets.
   b. Colonies were looked upon as closed sources of raw materials.
   c. The colonies provided a stimulus to the transportation and communications industries of the mother country.
   d. Colonies were places to invest without competition from other nations. Fantastic returns were achieved.
9. The Reciprocal Trade Agreements of the 1930's were attempted to resolve the tariff conflicts of modern mercantilism.
10. The Lend Lease Master Agreement, Article VII, was an attempt to establish and guarantee post-war free multilateral trade.
11. The Common Market is the latest attempt to resolve the conflicts arising from trade barriers.

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[36]Clough and Cole, *Economic History of Europe*, pp. 27-30.
[37]*Ibid*, Chapters VII and X.
[38]*Ibid*, p. 197.
[39]*Ibid*, p. 197.
[40]Moon, *Imperialism and World Politics*, pp. 25-32.

C. *Imperialism, an attempted resolution of conflict which itself becomes a source of further conflict.*

1. Most attempted resolutions, such as counter-embargoes and counter-tariffs only create further conflict.
2. Imperialism is an excellent example of attempted resolution fostering even greater conflict.
   a. There was conflict with the colonies.
   b. Conflict arose with other imperial powers.
   c. The inevitable end of colonies rose through conflicts born of colonialism, as colonies struggled for independence and the nation-state status of the mother country.[41]
   d. As the economy and productivity of the people of a colony were improved to bring more income to the imperial power, the people of the colony developed more desire and ability to be independent.

D. *The Industrial Revolution.*

1. The Industrial Revolution was an outgrowth of man's conflict with nature. He developed better means of handling his resources, dealing with his habitat, and meeting his needs.
2. The Industrial Revolution, however, spurred conflict between industrial powers, between labor and employer, between government and industry, and between competing industries.

E. *Capitalism — The Market Economy.*[42]

1. Scarcity is a key to conflict.[43]
2. Prices breed and attempt to resolve conflict.
3. The American movement to the west was a result and a source of economic conflict.
   a. Settlers left crowded farming areas or undesirable city jobs to seek their fortune in the west.
   b. Western farmers were in conflict with the south by 1860. Later, silver interests fought the eastern financial leaders.
4. The development of a large labor force has resulted in such past tragedies as the Haymarket and the Pullman riots. Today labor negotiations are handled on a more sophisticated plane, seeking non-violent resolution of conflict.
5. There is a new conflict of ownership versus management.
   a. The stockholder employs professional management.
   b. The good of the corporation versus distribution of earnings is a new form of conflict.
6. Markets are a means of resolving conflict. The buyer and the seller resolve their conflicts in the competitive market.
   a. The buyer seeks the price and quality he finds most suitable, rather than haggling with one seller.
   b. The seller aims to meet competition rather than to fight his customer as in a monopolistic situation.
7. Capital and industry have come into increasing conflict with governments. The government attempts to resolve conflicts between the public and labor on the one hand and industry on the other as in the case of the Kennedy move to prevent a rise in steel prices. This, however, creates a government vs. industry conflict while easing the other conflict.

[41]See Center paper, *Concept of Sovereignty and Interdependence.*
[42]See Center paper on the *Concept of the Modified Market Economy.*
[43]See Center paper on the *Concept of Scarcity,* for both economic and political conflict.

F. Communism.

1. A supply and demand conflict is resolved by government control of the means of production and distribution.
2. Conflict between producer and consumer may be partially resolved, but only by replacing it with conflict between the consumer and the government.
3. In an attempt to resolve conflicts, incentives have been urged by Soviet leaders in 1964 and 1965.
4. Communism may have temporarily resolved conflicts of underdeveloped and starving people by increasing production, but it has only deferred this until it takes form as more sophisticated conflict. Communism still faces the same problems of industrialization which face capitalism whenever it reaches the same levels of productivity.

VIII. THE JUDICIAL PROCESS

The essence of the judicial process is the resolution of conflict under the egis of law. This is the oldest function of government. From the beginnings of civilization, men have felt the need for a means of settling conflicts. Combat was the early method of settling conflict, but as men saw that force was neither just, nor rational, nor constant, nor humane, they developed a structure wherein two interests could present their case and secure justice.

The judicial process in the United States is built upon the following concepts: 1) rule of law; 2) due process of law; 3) equal protection of the laws; 4) the separation of powers; 5) Federalism; 6) and limited (constitutional) government.

A. Case studies showing Resolution of Conflict by the Court.

1. *Marbury vs. Madison* is a conflict between Marshall and Jefferson, between the Judicial and Executive branches of government.
2. *McCulloch vs. Maryland* demonstrates a conflict between the states and the federal government.
3. *Luther vs. Burden* illustrates a political conflict between factions in the states that the court could not or would not resolve.

B. Conflicts of individuals with the government over the issue of freedom of speech are illustrated by the following cases:

1. Gitlow vs. State of New York.
2. Shenck vs. United States.
3. Abrams vs. United States. (Also includes the dissent of Holmes.) (Note: the closing argument against Marshall was made in *Eakin vs. Raub*, (1825) by Justice Gibson of the Pennsylvania Supreme Court.)

C. Conflict as it is resolved in the courts may be viewed over time where one can see the law change and grow. We would do well to remember O. W. Holmes' words, "The life of the law is not logic, it is experience." (From the *Common Law*)

D. *The cases below demonstrate conflict of segregation practice and the equal protection of the laws clause of the federal constitution.*

1. *Plessy vs. Ferguson* — (1896) This case established the doctrine, separate but equal.
2. *Missouri ex nel* — Gaines vs. Canada — (1930).
3. *Lipuel vs. University of Oklahoma* — (1948).
4. *McLaurin vs. Oklahoma State Regents* — (1950).
5. *Sweatt vs. Painter* — (1950).
6. *Brown vs. Board of Education* — (1950) This case established the legal basis of our recent Civil Rights Law.

IX. THE LEGISLATIVE PROCESS

The Legistative Process is a policy making or lawmaking process. The legislative process is a struggle for power under the egis of law. As one experienced Washington observer noted, on the legislative scene one found an almost infinite number of groups which join together in ever-shifting coalitions in order to control congressional action. The legislature, its organization and procedure, merely gives a structure and order to the struggle for power.

A. *Functions of Congress.*

1. Describe the law making functions.
2. Note the non-law making functions.
   a. Congress determines the election returns and qualifications of its members.
   b. Congress disciplines and expels members.
   c. It has the power of impeachment.
   d. It controls administrative management.

B. *Organization and Procedure.*

1. There is a constitutional requirements for annual sessions.
2. Officers are provided by law.
   a. The Vice President of the United States is the presiding officer of the Senate.
   b. The President *pro tempore* is elected from and by the Senate membership.
3. There are nineteen committees in the House and fifteen in the Senate. (Note: about ninety percent of all work of Congress on legislative matters is carried on in these committees. Students should be aware of partisan control of these committees.)
4. The House organizes itself. At noon on January 3, or thereabout, at the beginning of the new Congress, the House assembles and begins its formal activities.
   a. A speaker is elected.
   b. Officers are elected.
   c. Rules of procedure are adopted.
   d. Standing committees are elected.
5. The Senate is also organized.
   a. Continuity is guaranteed. The Senate never requires a complete organization; it has been organized since its first meeting in 1789.
   b. Committees are assigned under partisan control.

[5S]

6. Operational features of the Congress are important instruments of conflict resolution.
    a. The Speaker has powers of:
        (1) Recognition.
        (2) Interpreting rules.
        (3) Appointing select committees.
        (4) Party leader.
    b. The President of the Senate has powers to resolve conflicts among members.
    c. Party caucuses resolve intra-party conflicts.
    d. Floor leaders of each party attempt to resolve conflicts within the party and with each other.
    e. Steering committees attempt to avoid as well as resolve conflicts.
    f. The House Rules Committee resolves conflict by determining legislation to be presented to the members.
    g. Standing committees have similar functions.
    h. Conference committees attempt to resolve conflicts between the House and the Senate.

7. The enactment of legislation involves conflict and its resolution.
    a. Bills may originate with:
        (1) Congress.
        (2) lobbies and pressure groups.
        (3) presidential leadership.
        (4) private citizens.
    b. Explain the introduction of a bill.
    c. Follow its reference to a committee for:
        (1) action.
        (2) pigeonholing.
    d. Describe the House action through:
        (1) reading.
        (2) committee of the whole.
        (3) voting.
    e. Trace Senate action.
    The House procedure is substantially repeated. There are, however, some procedural differences between the two houses.
        (1) Explain filibustering.
        (2) Explain cloture.
    f. Presidential action.
    All legislative acts begin as desires of private citizens or interest groups, or governmental officials. All bills must go through the process outlined above. The success or failure of any bill is a function of 1) the power structure in the Congress, 2) the amount of power behind the bill. The example of the Medicare bill is a case in point. To understand the evaluation of this bill the student should:
        (1) know what interest groups were for and against it.
        (2) see how the Congressional organization and procedure effected the success and/or failure of the bill.
        (3) compare the voting record of the two houses on past attempts to pass a Medicare bill.
        (4) compare the voting record of the 1962, 1963, and 1965 Congress on this bill, and attempt to explain these votes.
        (5) the student should attempt to make and explain an input and output model of this (Medicare) or any Congressional bill.

X. POLITICAL PARTIES

There are two ways in which the political party can resolve conflict. Firstly, the party provides an agency through which given interest groups may unite and thus influence the course of public policy. Secondly, the party actually undertakes to run the government in such a way so as to keep faith with the voters and its own basic principles. In summary we may note the following important functions of the political party:

1. Stimulating public opinion.

2. Define the political issues of the day.

3. Present to the voter candidates who are committed to announced positions.

4. The winning party forms an evaluation, thus enabling diverse elements of the population to provide a majority upon whose base the government can be operated and various groups represented.

A. *The Madisonian System: Any explanation of the resolution of conflict via political parties must begin with the Tenth Federalist Power by Thomas Madison. It is here that the theoretical basis and rationale of the American political process begins.*

    1. Explain the nature and existence of interest groups.
    2. Describe the structure of coalition politics.
    3. Note the pluralistic nature of the American political and social system.

B. *The essence of the political party is its ability to resolve political conflict. The political party is composed of various interest groups who within the party structure attempt to win support for their position. Out of the coalition and combat comes the political decision.*

C. *The history of the party system.*

    1. Conservatives dominated from 1896 to 1912.
    2. There was a brief Democratic interlude from 1912 to 1920.
    3. The period of normalcy followed World War I.
    4. Since The New Deal, conservatives have been unable to dominate.

D. *Describe the nature and function of the party in the two party pattern.*

    1. Describe state parties.
    2. Explain the congressional parties system.
    3. Note the presidential party system.

E. The politics of sectionalism.

1. The South has functioned as a unit.
2. Cities and suburbs oppose rural policies.
3. Class politics cross sectional lines.
4. Minor parties may balance, weaken, or control a region.
   a. There have been parties of economic protest.
   b. Secessionalist parties have existed briefly.
   c. Coalitionist groups may form minor parties.

F. Party organization.

1. Formal organization.
2. De facto organization.
3. Party disciplines.

G. Party machine as interest group.

1. The patronage system.
2. Legislative policy.

The political party is not a static entity. It must be conceived of as a circulation of power. In order to see how the political party resolves a given conflict the student should take a historic conflict and trace its development. The civil rights problem of the Negro is suggested. Beginning in the post-civil war period and noting the above named factors the student should follow the development of the civil rights laws from the 1860's to the present, and attempt to explain why they developed when they did.

XI. THE POWERS OF THE PRESIDENCY AS A FACTOR IN RESOLUTION OF CONFLICT

A. The President is the Chief of State, the symbolic leader of the nation. From this role is derived much of the President's power over public opinion.

B. The President is the chief executive.

1. He has power of appointment.
2. He has power of removal.
3. He is responsible for the actual administration of the nation in law if not in fact.
4. He is responsible for the enforcement of law.

C. The President is the chief diplomat. Note: this power is shared with Congress, especially the Senate. However, in recent years the President's control over foreign affairs has increased as the need for rapid direct decision increased, e.g., the "hot line."

1. The national power over the conduct of foreign affairs is complete and total. No state or group of states may conduct its own affairs with a foreign state.
2. Authority over foreign affairs is divided.
   a. The President is the sole channel of communication between the United States and foreign states. He alone speaks for the nation.
   b. The President receives or refuses to receive foreign emissaries.
   c. The President, with the advice and consent of the Senate, makes treaties with foreign states and appoints emissaries to those states.
   d. The executive agreement is a means of getting around Senatorial approval of foreign agreements.

D. The President is Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces of the United States and the several states. The "war powers" of the President have increased since World War II. However, during any war the Presidential power increases. A study of the Presidential war power could include a comparative study of Lincoln, Wilson, and F.D.R. The student should note: 1) the need for resolution of internal conflict, 2) the way the conflict was resolved, 3) the problems of a democratic state maintaining freedom and unity during a crisis.

E. The President is the leader of a political party. Most of the "strong Presidents" used this position to advance their policies. This process necessarily includes discipline and reward. The Presidential power to appoint minor officials, or his power over public opinion may be brought to bear on a given problem as may the veto power. The student should be reminded however, that this power is a function of the Presidential personality and the times. Many Presidents were able to control their party and the Congress, others were not. Two attempts to "purge" the Congress (Wilson and F. D. Roosevelt) failed.

F. The President is a legislative leader. The separation of power, and the different electoral base between the President and Congress, are not conducive to cooperation between the executive and legislative branches. Said cooperation is essential in the modern world. Explain:

1. The Message Power.
2. The Veto Power.
3. Control of the sessions of Congress.
4. Presidential contracts with congressional leaders.
5. Public opinion.
6. Use of patronage to influence Congress.
7. Promise of Presidential support or opposition at the polls.

All these powers may be and have been used by the "strong" Presidents in order to lead or attempt to lead Congress and to resolve conflicts between the executive and legislative branches.

The executive power of the American national government is growing today because the conditions in which it must function have changed and are changing. The Presidential office is one of action; it is a source of power that must be used to resolve conflict at home and abroad.