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ABSTRACT

This general guide for teachers explains the structure, content, rationale and objectives of a social studies sequence for grades 1 and 2. Selected cultures on the theme Families Around the World point up cultural diversity, help children recognize uniqueness of culture, show that culture is learned, teach children about norms and values, and emphasize cultural universals and the psychic unity of mankind. A comparative study approach is used and the different site locations provide content for teaching physical geography concepts, as well as map and globe skills. The units for grade 1 are: 1) Hopi Family, 2) Algonquin Family, 3) Quechua Family of Peru, 4) Japanese Family. Grade 2 units include: 1) Colonial Family of Boston, 2) Soviet Family in Moscow, 3) Hausa Family in Northern Nigeria, 4) Kibbutz Family of Israel. The sequence is designed to introduce pupils to the idea of cultural change. Also included in this handbook is information for teachers on the use of the individual resource guides for each unit and ways of adapting units for specific needs. Appended are charts which show the sequential development of objectives covering: generalizations, concepts, skills, and, attitudes. The resource guide for the unit The Kibbutz Family of Israel is described in SO 001 287; related documents in this curriculum series are SO 001 275 through SO 001 287. (Author/JSB)

Chelmsford Public Schools

Chelmsford, Massachusetts

TEACHER'S GUIDE TO THE TWO YEAR SEQUENCE in GRADES ONE AND TWO on FAMILIES AROUND THE WORLD

These courses are part of an articulated curriculum for grade
by the Project Social Studies Curriculum Center at the University
special grant from the United States Office of Education. The res
following field testing in the Chelmsford Public Schools.

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FOREWORD

The basic responsibility of the Chelmsford social studies program is the development of informed citizens fully aware of the need for insuring the dignity and worth of the individual, for personal involvement in improving the society they have inherited, and for recognizing the interdependence of all peoples. In the largest sense, then, the goal of the social studies program in the Chelmsford Public Schools is to prepare students for intelligent participation in a free society.

In order to develop a program to achieve this goal a variety of materials were examined along with recent research and curriculum development in social studies education. A strong feeling developed as the result of this study, that materials finally selected for use in the Chelmsford Schools should develop concepts and skills from both the affective and cognitive domain, that the materials foster the development of the process of inquiry, and that the program incorporate the systems approach in its use of media.

Following extensive field testing in Chelmsford classrooms, materials developed at the Project Social Studies Curriculum Center at the University of Minnesota were selected to provide the curricula framework for the Chelmsford program. The resource units that accompany this guide were revised in light of classroom experiences by teams of classroom teachers working during the summer of 1968.

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These units are designed to guide the teacher in his use of the multi-media kits that are found in the classroom and in use of the 16 mm films and videotapes available through the Chelmsford media center. It is strongly suggested by the teachers who worked with the program that the classroom teacher do two things before introducing the unit to his students: read the background paper provided on the culture and then survey the unit and its related materials. Since these units are resource units, teachers are encouraged to add their own ideas for media and teaching strategies. Teachers are also encouraged to develop resource units of their own using the framework of generalizations, skills, and attitudes outlined by the program.

The Chelmsford Public Schools are indebted to Dr. Edith West, Director of Minnesota Project Social Studies, for making the Project's materials available for field testing and for her advice and counsel during the field test period. Special thanks are also extended to the classroom teachers who field tested and revised the resource units for use in the Chelmsford Schools.

Charles L. Mitsakos
Coordinator of Social Studies

August 1, 1968

GOALS FOR THE COURSES

The resource units make it clear that these courses are designed to teach attitudes and skills as well as generalizations and concepts. This section deals briefly with objectives for the two-year sequence. Charts appended to this guide indicate more specifically the way in which the specific goals are developed in a number of units.

Behavioral Goals Related to Values

The two-year sequence is designed to help pupils develop a number of the values identified by the Center's staff as goals for the entire social studies program. For example, the units are built to try to develop curiosity about social data and respect for evidence even when it contradicts prejudices and preconceptions. The choice of units at this level also indicates rather clearly the staff's concern for developing an appreciation and respect for the cultural contributions of other countries, races and religions; for helping pupils learn to accept diversity as natural; and for helping them learn to value human dignity.

Teachers working with these courses for the first time may be bothered by how to handle comments and questions which indicate that children are upset by the values and practices of people in other societies. One of the main purposes of these courses is to understand why people act differently than we do, why they believe and value different things, and to understand that to these people such behavior seems natural and right. Children should learn to accept diversity in a nation and in a world in which they must live with diverse p
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live with diverse peoples. They should learn that our ways are not the only possible ways to live and that we can learn from other peoples of the world. However, the goal is not to get children to adopt the values of these other cultures. We wish children to understand without adopting them or even thinking that all of the ways are good for the people of the other society. The idea of cultural relativity is no longer accepted by anthropologists. As one anthropologist has written "one may not accept what is as what should be on the mere grounds that 'it is so.'" Children should learn to ask themselves how other people would think and feel about things. We should not expect children to feel the same way. Nor would we really want them to, since they must learn the values and norms of their own society if they are to live in it without experiencing serious difficulties. Children must learn that diversity is not bad in and of itself, but that what others do in other societies might not be acceptable in our own society any more than our behavior would be acceptable in some other societies.

The teacher should try to avoid condemnation of a practice merely because she does not like it. Children can be asked to think about the consequences of different types of behavior for the people who live in the society. The teacher must be careful, however, to avoid any suggestion that a practice may make people unhappy merely because it would make her or even most American people unhappy. Most Americans would not like to live in a polygamous society. This does not mean that this form of marriage makes Hausa women dissatisfied. The question of the effects of certain practices upon people's feelings is a question which can be investi-

gated through empirical methods. For example, there is evidence that some of the Kibbutz women are not very satisfied with their role as mothers. Some couples leave the Kibbutz in part because of such dissatisfactions. However, many remain and most of the children brought up in the Kibbutz choose to join a Kibbutz movement as adults.

When children express prejudices, the teacher should make every attempt to help them understand the behavior and also understand that other people may think our ways strange. Indeed, it might help at times to give children examples of norms in our society which other peoples find upsetting or foolish. It should also help to have children discuss some of the differences which exist in behavior of different families in this country. The teacher may also need to ask children to think once again about the ways in which other people are <u>like</u> us as well as different from us.

It should not be thought that some of the attitudinal goals are neglected completely merely because there is no check against them under a specific unit in the chart on attitudinal goals. The checks indicate those units in which the goals have been kept in mind in designing specific activities and sometimes the entire unit approach. Many of the others will be reinforced in units in which they were not checked. Two of the goals are starred in the chart because they were a major reason for the focus of the courses but were not stated as individual goals within unit objectives.

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Skills

This two-year sequence is designed to develop many skills. A number of these are related to methods of inquiry. Some of the geographic skills were introduced in the kindergarten and are reviewed and developed more intensively in grades one and two. They are also taught again at later levels in the curriculum.

The chart showing the sequential development of skills in this two-year sequence is presented on pages 31-33 of this guide. It should be noted that some of these skills are not listed as objectives in more than one unit during the year (e.g. orients a map to the north). Later units give pupils opportunities to practice and improve the skill. Teachers may find that they should work intensively on the skill in a number of units. They should then list it as an objective of the later teaching units.

Some of the skills objectives should be taught in all of the units for which they are listed. These are the thinking skills related to inquiry (e.g. sets up hypotheses, classifies data, applies previously-learned concepts and generalizations to new data, generalizes from data, and tests hypotheses against data). Moreover, some of the geographic skills should be emphasized in each

unit in order to teach pupils to use them effectively and to develop the habit of using them.

Although some of the other skills are listed for more than one unit, the teacher may decide to postpone teaching the skill in the first unit in which it is listed. Or she may feel that it is unnecessary to teach it to all children in the next unit even though she may wish to work on it with a small group of children who still need help with it.

Goals Related to Concepts and Generalizations

The Center has chosen to identify important concepts and generalizations from the various social sciences and has tried to provide for sequential development of them in the K-12 curriculum. The sequence for grades one and two is interdisciplinary. It is designed to teach children important concepts and generalizations from the fields of anthropology, sociology, and geography. The concepts taught in the two courses do not constitute a structure for any one of the disciplines but are important to one of them or in some cases to several of them. The staff's point of view about structure in social science disciplines and the place of structure in the social studies program is presented in background papers #'s 1 and 2. Teachers interested in structure in individual disciplines should read the background papers on those fields. It should be pointed out that as children move through the curriculum, they will develop some structure for each of the disciplines. It was not thought wise to introduce separate structures in the first two grade levels.

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unit do not show clear ; that the procedure is designed to teach p pils about the culture concept, the teacher should keep in mind that most of the two-year sequence has been developed to do just this. Many of the details about how people eat, for example are included not because it is important to know these details. They are included to teach children that all people must eat (a cultural universal) but that what they eat and how they eat may differ from society to society (cultural diversity). Data on Algonquin utensils may be interesting in and of themselves, but they are not important except to develop an appreciation of the skills and culture of the Algonquin and to teach children someting about the difference in economic functions between Algonquin families and our own. Or some details can be used to help children learn that pictures may not be accurate and so to help them see the importance of evaluating sources of information. In other words, details about cultures are included only because they are needed to teach certain concepts, generalizations, skills and attitudes which are important goals of the program.

The Rationale for the Number of Objectives

These resource units differ from many units in part because of the large number of generalizations to be taught. The teacher should remember that these generalizations are reinforced at later grades also. This means that it is not necessary or wise to spend too much time clinching a single generalization in any one unit. Rather, children should generalize and hold these generalizations as tentative--as hypotheses to be tested more fully as they study other families around the world. At the end of the second grade level, they should be able to generalize more fully because they

will have studied a number of families in different cultures. They should still understand that generalizations may need to be modified later, that they should be held tentatively, always subject to change in the light of new evidence.

Because of this reinforcement and further development of concepts and generalizations, it is important for the teacher to read through the objectives of all the units for grades one and two before she begins either course. The second grade teacher should read through all of the units, not just the objectives since she will need to ask children to make comparisons with families they studied in the first grade. The charts on goals, which are found at the end of this guide, are keyed to show which were also taught at the kindergarten level.

Teaching Strategies

This course relies heavily upon an inquiry approach to teaching. For a more complete discussion of inquiry strategies in teaching, the teacher should read a number of the background papers. Background Paper #1 analyzes in more detail the Center's point of view about inquiry as a teacing strategy and what inquiry involves. Background Paper #10 examines learning theory in relation to the use of inquiry. Background papers on the individual disciplines focus upon inquiry approaches to teaching. However, they discuss inquiry techniques which might be taught to pupils in some of the courses.

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The first and second grade courses emphasize a teaching strategy which encourages pupils to find out things for themselves rather than one which emphasizes the absorption of generalizations presented ready-made by the teacher or a book. Children are asked to set up hypotheses by drawing upon previously-learned concepts and generalizations. They decide that some idea they have learned in the past might help them make sense out of this new situation. They cannot be sure, but they think that this might be so. Inquiry also involves gathering data, evaluating sources, testing hypotheses, and generalizing from their findings.

The staff does not believe, nor does the two-year sequence of courses reflect a belief that all learning must be developed by this type of teaching strategy. Some goals call for having pupils learn to gain information by watching films or listening carefully to stories or someone who is talking to them. Other goals relate to developing a value for human dignity and an acceptance of diversity. There is a place, therefore, for children to find out what others think about certain kinds of data. They may do so by listening to the teacher read a story or to a guest speaker or by seeing films. As they listen to stories, they are likely to identify with the children in the stories and so to understand their feelings and viewpoints. There are many goals of a social studies program and some would be neglected if only one teaching strategy were followed.

A careful study of the resource units will show that the kinds of telling called for in procedures is not telling pupils the generalizations suggested in the objective. For example, in the Hausa unit the teacher must tell children a good many things about the Hausa. However, what she tells them consists of concrete data about how the Hausa families live and what they are like. She does not tell them that they have similar functions to those they have found in other families or that the Hausa people are very like us in certain specified ways. The procedures in the units suggest kinds of questions which can be used to help children generalize from the data presented by the teacher.

There are many occasions in the units for grades one and two when children view pictures and are asked to make inferences about things from these pictures. Questions in the guides should help them make these guesses or inferences. Stories and other materials can be used to help them check on their guesses.

Teachers should attempt to encourage children's guesses as being as worthwhile at certain stages of thinking as statements which present a commentary on facts seen in pictures or heard in stories. At other times, children should be asked to listen to or look for things which can be used to test these guesses or hypotheses. Even at this stage, however, children should be rewarded for coming up with new ideas about possible hypotheses or for asking questions which have not been raised earlier. Whether or not pupils will learn to ask questions, set up hypotheses, and generalize for themselves depends in part upon whether or not such behavior is discouraged or rewarded by teachers. However, the teacher should not always say "yes," "that's right," or "good"

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when a child suggests an idea which the teacher thinks good. Rather, the teacher may wish to suggest that this is a new or interesting idea and ask what ideas other children have. Then children can test all of the ideas. Teachers can reward or encourage the kinds of behavior desired in many ways besides saying that the child has come up with a "correct" answer.

At times children may fail to limit generalizations sufficiently or may arrive at faulty generalizations which cannot be supported by present data and knowledge in the social sciences. If so, the teacher should not feel obligated to correct children immediately. Rather she should have pupils think of these generalizations as possible hypotheses to be tested later. Indeed, at times it is beneficial for children to over-generalize and later discover that they must modify their generalizations. Thus if they have over-generalized about the functions found universally in families, they may have to modify their generalization when they study the Kibbutz family. This experience should help them learn the need to hold generalizations tentatively.

When children arrive at generalizations which are obviously contradicted by data, the teacher needs to consider two questions. First, do later parts of this unit or later units during the year provide material to help them test these generalizations so that children should be permitted to think of them as tentative generalizations or hypotheses until then? Second, do later courses in the curriculum provide material to help them test and limit generalizations? For example, will units in grade two help

them limit a generalization which they have arrived at in one of the first grade units? Or will study of one of the communities in the third or fourth grades help them limit a generalization which they make in grade two?

If the answer to either question is "yes," it may be wise to let pupils hold these generalizations tentatively but to remind them they should think of them as hypotheses to be tested in later units. This is probably the procedure to use if the generalization represents an over-generalization which does not take into account some of the more sophisticated limitations which a social scientist or even an older child might place upon it.

In the other hand, suppose the answer to both questions is "no." Or suppose that the generalization is not just too broad but is obviously contradicted by data which children have already come across or which could be presented to them in an understandable form within the unit being studied. The teacher should then spend more time helping children test their generalization at this time. Rather than merely telling children that their generalization is wrong or needs to be limited, the teacher might confront children with data. For example, she could read excerpts from books, tell stories, show pictures or films or merely relate certain facts. This data should be such as to lead children to modify their generalization or arrive at a better generalization without the teacher telling them what is wrong.

THE FOCUS OF THE TWO-YEAR SEQUENCE

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from different societies, including a family from a non-western culture at each grade level. They will be asked to make comparisons with their own families. At the end of each year, they will look back over the families they have studied and will be asked to generalize about families in their own community as well as around the world.

The family is being used as a vehicle to teach a series of important social science concepts related to culture, social organization, social process, and site. (See pp. 27-30.) The families studied have been selected carefully to point up cultural diversity, to help children recognize the uniqueness of culture, to show that culture is learned, to teach children about norms and values, and to emphasize cultural universals and the psychic unity of mankind. The selection of families with very different structures and role differentiations will help to emphasize the variability of human behavior. The study of these families should also teach ideas about structure, role, role differentiation, and function. Despite the diversity, children will notice cultural universals. They will note that all people have to satisfy certain basic needs, but that they satisfy them differently. They will learn that all societies have families and some ways of socializing children.

The families to be studied have also been chosen with a view to teaching pupils different site concepts. (See pp. 8-11.) Consequently, children will study families in different types of physical environments, including mesas in a desert area, forested areas, a high plateau in a mountainous area,

a flood plain, a grassland area and a seaport. They will study families in large cities and in small towns and Indian villages. Each unit begins with some study of the site characteristics of the place where the family lives. Children will also review and extend their map and globe skills as they study each unit.

The two-year sequence has also been designed to introduce pupils to the idea of cultural change. Children study a colonial family in Boston. This unit is included to show how the functions of American families have changed. The Hopi, the Algonquin, and the Japanese units contrast families in these cultures in two different periods. By showing change among the same group in the same area, the units also contribute to the idea of the cultural use of the environment rather than the deterministic viewpoint which at one time dominated the teaching of geography.

The purpose of having children study more families than those included in grade one is to make sure that they will be able to generalize about cultural diversity, uniqueness and universals. Time should be saved at the end of the second grade for a culminating period in which children will fit together all that they have learned about families and about culture, social processes, and social organization.

Children do not get bored by this two-year sequence on families, since each unit focuses upon a very different culture. Children are not just studying the family as an institution for two years. It is important to note that this is not the last time that children will study the concepts and generalizations identified for these two courses. This two-year program

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is part of a K-12 curriculum which has been planned to provide continuity and sequence in the development of concepts, generalizations, skills and attitudes. Therefore, these concepts are introduced in grades one and two but are reinforced through other content at later grade levels. As children advance in school they will become more sophisticated in their understanding of the concepts and generalizations and will increase the number of their generalizations about each concept.

The teacher could substitute different families for those chosen for this course. As other curriculum projects develop materials on families around the world, and as films, filmstrips, and children's books become available on other families, a teacher may wish to make substitutions. She should be very careful in doing so, however. At least some of the families chosen should illustrate rather dramatic differences in family structure, functions, values, and roles. The families chosen should continue to provide opportunities for study of varied types of site characteristics. Moreover, if different families are substituted, the teacher should handle the units so as to teach the same concepts and generalizations as those identified for the present program.

The teacher could have very able second graders find out about other families than those studied by the class. These children could tell the class about differences and similarities between the families they have read about on their own and the ones studied by the class.

GENERAL OUTLINE FOR TWO-YEAR SEQUENCE

The units for the two-year sequence are listed below, with brief descriptions of some of the characteristics of each type of family and site.

Grade One

Unit 1 - The Hopi Family

The study of the Hopi in the early 20th century provides an example of a culture in which roles in the family are differentiated in a very different fashion from the ways we assign them. Thus it provides an excellent example of the possible variability in human cultures. The family structure among the Hopi was a matrilineal extended family. It included more than one nuclear family of mother, father, and children. It often included several families of married sisters, plus grandmothers and maternal aunts and their husbands all living together as a residence group and cooperating for many purposes, some of which are not the responsibility of the family in our society or are functions of our families to a much lesser degree. Certain relatives such as the child's mother's brother had responsibilities for socialization of the child which belong to the child's own father in our society. Productive tasks among the Hopi differed in assignment by sex from our own. For example, men wove cotton cloth and made clothes for their brides and other members of their families.

Hopi ethics and values stressed many qualities which are analagous to our own, but in other ways they were quite different. They emphasized the avoidance of violence and disputes. The Hopi rarely engaged in physical violence of any sort. They approved of non-

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aggressive behavior even when provoked to a point we would consider extreme. Hopi rules for behavior were different enough from our own to provide a contrast for teaching about concepts of cooperation and conflict and for teaching about rules and positive and negative sanctions as universal aspects of human society.

The Hopi lived on plateaus on top of mesas in the desert region of northeastern Arizona. The unit can be used to teach children about plateaus, mesas, cliffs, canyons, streams, springs, and irrigation. Children also learn about one type of primitive farming.

The unit also includes material on the Hopi of today. This contrast with the Hopi of the early 20th century permits pupils to generalize about cultural change and continuity.

Unit 2 - The Algonquin Family

This family provides a contrast with the children's own families in terms of the independence of the family unit and the many functions of the family fulfilled on its own. The Algonquin family unit of mother, father, and children provided almost all of their raw materials and processed materials for food, clothing, shelter, medicine, etc. It provided almost all training for the child's future life.

This unit focuses upon life in southern New England. Children will study concepts such as softwood and hardwood forests, lakes, rivers, swamps, and the seashore.

Unit 3 - The Quechua Family of Peru

The Quechua are the modern descendants of the Inca - the South American Indians whose empire extended over much of modern Peru, Bolivia, and Ecuador until they were conquered by the Spanish. "Quechua" designates the language still spoken by these people who number several million at the present time.

The highland Indians live in peasant communities which are fairly isolated, autonomous, and cut off from the intimate contact with the larger society of which they are part. They produce their own food and most other things they use. However, they also sell a small amount in the market to acquire cash for the things which they wish to buy. They are largely self-sufficient and self-contained and suspicious of the outside world.

The peasant community generally consists of several extended families which are related through marriage (the ayllu). In contrast to our system, the whole community or ayllu is essentially a family group. An individual has some sort of kin relationship with reciprocal responsibilities and norms of etiquette with everyone else in his community.

The Quechua nuclear family group makes up the household. It provides an excellent example of children's roles which differ from those in our society. For example, male children begin to work in the fields at the age of five or six. Girls can often do most of the essential household tasks by the time they are the age of the average first grader in this country. Sexual differentiation of roles is very marked even by this age in contrast to our own society where boys and girls often do many of the same tasks and play similar games. Among the Quechua there are very

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The Quechua also offer a good example of a culture in which a relatively great amount of outward expression of conflict is permitted in relationships both within the family and within the community. They thus offer a useful contrast to the attitudes toward conflict found among the Hopi.

The Quechua provide a colorful example of a people who live on a very high plateau in the mountains. Children can learn about a number of site concepts such as mountains, valleys, plateaus, vertical climatic differences, and terracing.

Unit 4 - The Japanese Family

This family was chosen because of certain marked contrasts with the other families studied. The traditional Japanese family system is characterized by an extended patrilineal and patrilocal family. That is, descent is traced in the male line and brides at marriage go to live with their husbands, who, if they are the family heir, continue to live ideally with their parents. The Japanese household is a corporation that ideally has perpetual existence. Once established, a household line should not be allowed to lapse. The household group contained in the past and often still contains more than one nuclear family. Even when married sons live elsewhere, as non-heirs usually do, they often act as members of the family group. The household includes departed deceased members, as well as living members. All regular household members are enshrined at the family altar and continue to function as family members in several

ways. For example, Japanese children are taken before the household shrine and asked: "Do you think you can give the ancestors any excuse for doing that?"

Outside of such a family group a human being in Japan would be said to be socially non-existent. Within the group he is a member perpetually, even after death. Thus the household group provides an atmosphere of psychological security which the family system of our society does not provide, since our system emphasizes the husband-wife relationship and the establishment of new nuclear families by its children.

The Japanese family is also a religious unit, providing the congregation for ritual recognition of ancestors.

The structuring of relationships among living members differs considerably from those of our families. For example, the position of aged members was and is one of authority and prestige. Moreover, new brides are brought into a family at the bottom of the rank order of authority in most situations. Although the focus of this unit is on the traditional family, the unit attempts to show change in the family and its ways of life in the modern day.

Most of this unit deals with family life in a village on a flood plain surrounded by mountains in the interior of one of the Japanese islands. However, the unit also presents a brief contrasting picture of life in a fishing village along the coast and life in a modern city. The unit can be used to teach geographic concepts such as the ocean, islands, mountains, hills, floodplains, rivers, terraces, rice paddies, farming, fishing, villages, cities and population density.

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Grade Two

Unit 1 - The Colonial Family of Boston

This unit provides children with data from which they can generalize about changes and cultural continuity in the American family. It illustrates very clearly, for example, changes in economic functions of the family. The colonial family provided most of its own food, clothing, shelter, and utensils. The unit also illustrates great changes in material possessions from colonial times until now. The colonial family illustrates very different norms and attitudes (about table manners, behavior on Sundays, unmarried people, etc.). However, children will recognize a number of ways in which relationships between parents and children resemble those of today.

This unit permits pupils to study the concepts of harbor, peninsula, and seaport and ways in which man has changed his physical environment (for example, by filling in large areas of water around the original peninsula on which Boston was built). Children can also review site concepts such as rivers and hills.

Unit 2 - The Soviet Family in Moscow

This unit provides children with opportunities to study family life in a large city in which life differs in many ways from life in American cities. However, family structure is much like that in the United States, although wives are more likely to be working. The Soviet family is affected in many ways by the Soviet political and economic system. Children will see these

differences in such concrete terms as housing, stores, government services, nurseries, youth groups, socialization, role of women, etc. This unit also provides a sharp contrast with some of the other families children study in the first two grades.

Moscow is located on a river in an area which has very cold winters. The city illustrates the way in which cities are divided into a number of sections which differ from each other in terms of types of buildings and functions.

Unit 3 - The Hausa Family in Northern Nigeria

The Hausa family has a very different type of family structure than any which children have studied earlier. The family is polygamous, with the man having more than one wife. Each wife has her own house within a larger compound. The attitude toward women differs markedly from that in our own society.

The Hausa have a settled agriculture rather than the slash and burn type practiced in many parts of Africa. They also have important trade relations with other people. They produce goods for market in order to buy goods which they do not produce themselves.

The Hausa live in northern Nigeria in a grassland area of scanty rainfall. The area has more precipitation than that found in a desert region. The unit can be used to teach pupils about the effects of oceans upon rainfall and temperature and the effect of precipitation upon vegetation within the different regions of Nigeria.

Unit 4 - The Kibbutz Family of Israel

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a family with about as few functions as can be found anywhere. The family members do not all live together in one home. Children are brought up from babyhood in nurseries and in homes for children. They are separated by age groups and receive much of their socialization from women who are not members of their family. The community provides the food, clothes, and other things which families need. However, a study of the Kibbutz family shows that some family functions remain. The family has an important affectional and emotional support function. It retains some of the socialization function. Although the individual family has lost the usual economic function found even in industrialized societies, parents contribute to the community economy which then provides for community members. Of course, the family also retains the procreation function. This unit, like that of the Hausa, can be used to teach children a number of economic concepts (division of labor, interdependence, etc.). Children will learn that in one sense the entire Kibbutz community is like an extended family. Since children study the community to study the family, this unit provides a useful transition to the course on "Communities Around the World" in grade three.

The Kibbutz on which this unit focuses is located in a Mediterranean climate of hot, dry summers and wet, cool winters, although children will find out that others are located in desert areas. Children will learn much more about irrigation as they study this unit.

THE PLACE OF THE SEQUENCE IN THE ELEMENTARY CURRICULUM

It is important to note the way in which this two-year sequence fits into the entire elementary curriculum. It follows a kindergarten program which is designed to acquaint children with the general idea of varied peoples in the world and with simple geographic concepts and skills. Children will have studied their own neighborhood, learned something about directions and distances, made simple maps and learned to use simple globes and maps. They will have found out that communities and countries are dependent upon each other for many goods and resources. They will also have been introduced to the idea of change in the environment which results both from natural forces and from man's activities.

It seems appropriate to have children begin their study of culture by focusing upon only one institution--an institution which is close to their lives. The two-year sequence of "Families Around the World" does introduce several other institutions in a simple way as children focus upon the family. Children will notice differences in education and to some extent in religion. They will be introduced to simple economic concepts, such as specialization and economic interdependence. However, they will wait to study other institutions in greater depth until grades three and four.

Grade three uses the theme of "Communities Around the World" to introduce children in more detail to social and politcal institutions. Again some economic concepts are developed, but the major focus upon economic institutions does not come until grade four.

The fourth grade course uses the same theme of "Communities Around the World" to introduce

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contrasting economic systems. Children will spend a large portion of their time finding out in simple terms how our own economic system operates. However, they will discover that in some societies the government plays a much greater role and that traditional reciprocal relationships among people are more important for exchange than our type of market relationship. They will see how the total way of life, including cultural values, affects economic systems.

In each of these grade levels, institutions are added to a study of other institutions which pupils have examined earlier. That is, as children look at the Manus or Paris community in grade three, they will also notice some things about the family life in these communities. As children look at economic life in the village of India in grade four, they will find out much about the family life and the social and political life in an Indian village. In this fashion, children study more institutions in each grade level until they are able to look at total cultures without too much confusion.

In grade five, children study in much more detail how different cultures or the same people over time use the same physical environment. The focus is upon the geography of the United States, Canada, and Latin America.

THE FORMAT OF RESOURCE UNITS

The main body of each resource unit is set up in a double-page format to help teachers to see the relationships among objectives, content, teaching procedures,

and materials of instruction. The first column of objectives on the left-hand page answers the questions: Why should we use this procedure or teach this content? What should be the focus of the procedure? The second column on the left-hand page presents an outline of content which answers the question: What topics should we teach? The first column on the second page includes teaching procedures. It answers the question: How can we teach these objectives and this content? The last column on materials of instruction answers the question: With what materials can we teach the objective and content and handle the procedure?

In the objectives column generalizations are preceded by a G and are in plain type. Skills are preceded by an S and are underlined. Attitudes are preceded by an A and are in capital letters. If no objective is found in the left-hand column for a particular procedure, the teacher should look at the last objective(s) listed in the column for a single procedure. An objective is not repeated until a different objective intervenes. Most of the generalizations to be developed are presented in the terms of the social scientist. No attempt should be made to have children learn the statements as presented here. Rather, they should be asked to generalize in their own words.

It should be noted that any one teaching procedure may help develop several generalizations, one or more skills, and one or more attitudes. Indeed, the most useful procedures are frequently those which help achieve several types of objectives.

By knowing what generalization(s) are listed for a particular procedure, the teacher can direct his handling of the procedure to appropriate ends. However, he should not feel that

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children should learn a generalization as the result of this one procedure. The procedure should help lead to the development of the generalization but is almost never the only procedure aimed at accomplishing this end. For example, within the Hopi unit, activities #19 and 26-28 are all designed to help teach the generalizations that all people have certain basic drives, although they satisfy them differently. Moreover, each of the other units in grades one and two have activities to develop this generalization further. In the Hopi family unit, children can only generalize that the Hopi have the same basic drives as we have and that they satisfy them differently than we do. They can hypothesize that the same thing might hold true of other peoples of the world. They can generalize more completely after they have completed the second grade course. The chart on pages 17-27 indicates which units have activities to teach each generalization.

The materials column does not include complete bibliographic data. This data can be found in the bibliography at the end of the unit. The bibliography includes many other books which will also prove helpful in teaching the unit.

ADAPTING RESOURCE UNITS TO SPECIFIC CLASSES

The units provided by the Center are resource units. Naturally, teachers are expected and encouraged to add their own ideas for materials and teaching procedures. These units are intended to suggest possibilities, not to present a cut-and-dried course.

Since these units are resource units,

teachers are not expected to use all of the suggested procedures. Indeed, they could not do so in any one class. Rather, he should select and add procedures which are most suitable for each class. They should consider a number of factors as they make this selection:

1. The objectives which they wish to emphasize in the unit.

   Suppose the teacher discovers that children need much more help on certain map-reading skills. She may wish to add some objectives which are not included in the resource unit. On the other hand, suppose she discovers that children have developed considerable ability to use a specific map-reading skill. She may then wish to omit this skill as an objective or at least merely review its use rather than using all of the activities designed to teach it.

2. The general ability level of the class.

   For example, in a class of largely low-ability children the teacher may wish to spend more time on some of the activities which call for making concrete items, manipulating things, or drawing.

3. The differing abilities and interests of class members.

   This criterion is particularly important in selecting individual and small group activities.

4. Previous experiences of children.

   The selection of objectives, content, procedures, and materials will depend in part

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upon: (a) previous experiences outside of school, such as trips, visits to museums, where children have lived before coming to the community, socio-economic background of children, etc., (b) earlier school experiences, including whether or not children have come through earlier courses in the curriculum.

5. The rest of the school curriculum, both in social studies and in other fields.

The teacher will need to consider questions such as the following: What are children learning in their science and mathematics units which might help them in social studies? For example, are they learning anything about maps in one of the new math programs? Does the math program call for teaching them something about sets which might be applied in studying families? Does any of the work in science help them understand globalism or climate, etc.?

6. Materials available for the course.

Some procedures will have to be omitted if needed materials are not available or if other materials cannot be substituted. (However, the teacher can attempt to obtain such materials for another year.)

THE PREPARATION OF THESE MATERIALS

The Curriculum Center at the University of Minnesota had as its major goal the development and try-out of a new curricular framework for grades K-12. The basic assumptions of the staff and the criteria for selecting topics are discussed in the Center's Background Paper #1. A tentative curricular framework was used in developing a series of resource ts and sample pupil materials at various els where they were needed. No attempt was de to develop a complete set of materials for children. Rather, the aim was to try out the curriculum, using as many materials available from other sources as possible, and supplementing these materials with a few developed by the Center only where they were needed in order to teach the units.

The resource units and stories for children were developed by a number of people. Shirley Holt, Jennette Jones, and Genevieve Berkhofer wrote the background papers for those preparing the units. These papers are attached to each unit to help teachers build their own background. Teachers are not expected to and should not try to teach all of the ideas contained in them.

Following a period of field testing in the Chelmsford Public Schools, the units were revised by teams of Chelmsford teachers during the summer of 1968. Mary Priest and Maureen Sanders revised the first grade units while Claire McCrady, Patricia Simonson, Margaret Kane, and Jane Markiewicz revised the second grade units.

CHART SHOWING UNITS IN WHICH GENERAL

	Grade		
	Hopi	Algon-quin	Qu
1. Things can be located at specific points on the earth's surface.	X	X	
2. Places can be located in relationship to where we live in terms of their distance and direction from us	X	X	
3. No two places are exactly alike. Each place looks somewhat different from other places.	X	X	
4. Temperature is affected in part by elevation; air is cooler at higher elevations than at lower elevations if latitude and distance from the sea are the same.			
5. Temperature and seasonal differences are affected in part by distance from the equator; temperature ranges are smaller near the equator than further from it; seasons change very little near the equator.		1st part #	
6. Vegetation is affected in part by temperature and rainfall.			
a. Trees need more water than grasses do in order to grow.			
b. Deserts may be caused by too little rain.			
7. Soil is affected in part by the type of vegetation in the areas.		X	

X means that it is stated as an objective.

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* means that one aspect of it or part of it was intr

CHART SHOWING UNITS IN WHICH GENERALIZATIONS ARE TAUGHT

	Grade One				Grade Two			
	Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech-ua	Japan-ese	Colo-nial	Soviet	Hausa	Kib-butz
an be located at specific n the earth's surface.	X	X	X	X	X	X	#	#
an be located in relation- where we live in terms of stance and direction from us	X	X	X	X	X	X	#	#
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ure is affected in part by n; air is cooler at higher ns than at lower elevations ude and distance from the the same.			X				#	
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		Grade One		
		Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech-ua
*	8. Some things can be produced better in one place than in another because of climate, resources, access, people's skills, etc.			#
	a. Some types of crops require much more human labor than other types do.			
	b. Different crops need different amounts of water.			
	c. Some crops need longer growing seasons than others do.		g.seas X	temp. X
	d. High mountain plateaus can be used more easily for grazing than for growing crops.			X
	9. The people of the world are inter-dependent.			
*	a. People in most societies of the world depend on people who live in other communities and countries for certain goods and services.			
*	b. The people who live in one community depend upon each other for different goods and services and for markets for goods and services.			X
	10. Certain physical features of site are more desirable than others for the development of a port city.			

X means that it is stated as an objective.

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	Grade One				Grade Two			
	Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech-ua	Japan-ese	Colo-nial	Soviet	Hausa	Kib-butz
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Grade One

		Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech-ua	Ja
*	11. Both man and nature change the character of the earth.		Man X	X	
	a. Irrigation makes it possible to grow crops on land which otherwise would be too dry.			X	
	b. Terracing enables man to grow crops on steep slopes and also slows down water erosion.			X	
	12. A division of labor makes it possible to increase production.				
	13. Machinery and power make possible greater production per person and more complex products.		X		
	14. People living in the same physical environment or in the same type of physical environment use it differently, depending upon their cultural values, perceptions, and level of technology.		X	X	
	15. Airplanes can follow the shortest distance between two points more easily than can other types of transportation because they can fly over both land and water and over hindrances to land transportation such as swamps, mountains, or ice. They are also faster than land transportation.				
*	16. The earth's rotation produces night and day.	#	X	X	

X means that it is stated as an objective.

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	Grade One				Grade Two			
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Grade One

	Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech-ua
* 17. Ways of living differ from one society to another and within the same society. (They differ from one time to another within the same country; the society is not the same.) Each culture is unique.	#	X	X
a. Families differ widely from society to society as to how they are organized (in their structure).	X	X	X
b. Families in the same country differ from one period to another; the society is not the same.			
c. Each family has ways of doing things which are unique, although most of its ways are shared with other families in the same society.			
d. Although certain family functions are found in all societies, other functions of the family vary widely from society to society.	#	X	X
1) Families usually have some economic function, but the economic function differs greatly from one society to another.		X	X

X means that it is stated as an objective.

means that it is taught even though not stated as an ob

* means that one aspect of it or part of it was introduce

	Grade One				Grade Two			
	Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech-ua	Japan-ese	Colo-nial	Soviet	Hausa	Kib-butz
rom one within the ffer from in the same not the unique.	#	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
ely from as to how (in their	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
e country iod to y is not the					X			
s of doing ique, al-ways are milies in				X				X
nily func-ll societies, the family ciety to	#	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
y have some on, but the on differs e society to		X	X		X	#		

ed as an objective.

ht even though not stated as an objective.

o or part of it was introduced in the kindergarten course.

	Grade One		
	Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech-ua
2) Families in some societies have religious functions.		X	
e. The kind and amount of conflict permitted in the family varies from one culture to another. In some cultures children are not permitted to fight one another and do not fight.	X		
f. Although age and sex are principles used in all societies to differentiate status and role within the family, the specific roles differentiated by these principles are organized very differently from society to society.		X	X
g. Within the family in our society, the parents and older siblings direct expectations (organized into roles) toward the child. In some societies aunts and uncles or other relatives also play a part in teaching roles to children.	#		
h. People in different societies differ as to how they expect people to act and as to what they think good and bad.			X
i. Human beings have the potential to exhibit extremely variable			

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	Grade One				Grade Two			
	Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech-ua	Japan-ese	Colo-nial	Soviet	Hausa	Kib-butz
societies unctions.		X		#	X			
of conflict ily varies another. ldren are nt one ight.	X							
are prin-ocieties to and role ne specific by these ized very iety to		X	X		X			X
our society, siblings organized ne child. nts and tives also ing roles	#			X		X	X	X
societies expect to what oad.			X	X	X	X	X	X
e potential variable								

as an objective.

even though not stated as an objective.

part of it was introduced in the kindergarten course.

		Hopi	Algonquin	Gr
	behavior, depending upon their natural and cultural environment; they satisfy their drives and needs differently.			
* 18.	All people, regardless of where or when they lived or to what race, nationality, or religion they have belonged, have (had) many things in common.		X	
	a. All people, everywhere, have certain basic drives, although they satisfy them differently.	X	X	
	b. Human beings exhibit the same kinds of emotions (anger, fear, sorrow, hatred, love) although they may express them in different ways and the emotions may be aroused by different things.		X	
	c. Human beings everywhere have acquired the need for positive affect (affection) and interaction with other human beings (gregariousness).		X	
	d. The broad outlines of the ground plan of all cultures are about the same because men always and everywhere are faced with certain unavoidable problems rising out of the situation given by nature.			

X means that it is stated as an objective.

means that it is taught even though not stated

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	Grade One				Grade Two			
	Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech-ua	Japan-ese	Colo-nial	Soviet	Hausa	Kib-butz
depending upon their nd cultural environ- y satisfy their drives differently.				X			X	X
egardless of where or ed or to what race, or religion they have e (had) many things		X	X	X	X	X	X	X
e, everywhere, have asic drives, although sfy them differently.	X	X	X	X	X	X	#	X
ngs exhibit the same emotions (anger, fear, atred, love) although express them in diff- s and the emotions may d by different things.		X	X	X	X		X	X
ngs everywhere have the need for positive ffection) and inter- th other human beings usness).		X	X	X	X	X	X	X
outlines of the ground ll cultures are about because men always and e are faced with cer- oidable problems t of the situation nature.			X	X	X		X	X

it is stated as an objective.

it is taught even though not stated as an objective.

or ect of it or part of it was introduced in the kindergarten course.

	Grade One			
	Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech-ua	Japan-ese
1) Every culture must provide for the satisfaction of the elementary biological requirements such as food and warmth, and the need for positive affect and gregariousness.				X
2) All cultures require a certain minimum of reciprocal behavior for cooperation to obtain subsistence and other ends of social life.				
3) All societies have some kind of family. Certain family functions are found in all societies.	#			X
a) The protection and socialization of children is a universal function of the family.		X	X	
b) Families generally provide affection and emotional support for their members.		X	X	
c) Families usually have some economic functions.			#	
d) Families in most societies have other family functions in addition to those which are universal.		X		

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* means that one aspect of it or part of it was introduced in t

	Grade One				Grade Two			
	Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech-ua	Japan-ese	Colo-nial	Soviet	Hausa	Kib-butz
st provide tion of the gical re- as food and need for and				X	X	X	X	X
uire a cer- reciprocal peration to pe and other life.								X
ve some kind ain family and in all	#			X	X	X	X	X
on and h of chil- versal the family.		X	X		X	X		
erally pro- on and pport for s.		X	X		X	X		
ally have functions.			#		X	X		
most socie- ner family addition to are univer-		X				X		

as an objective.

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part of it was introduced in the kindergarten course.

Grade On

	Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech ua
4) Families in all societies contain overlapping generations; sometimes there are only two generations, and sometimes there are three or four, and sometimes, if ancestors are included, the number of generations may be very large.			X
5) Families in all societies delegate responsibilities and rights (specific roles) to different family members; age and sex are principles used in all societies to differentiate family roles and status.	X		X
6) In all societies people are expected to behave in certain ways and not to behave in certain ways; they are expected to believe that certain things are good and certain things are bad.	X	X	X
7) All societies have some means of socializing children.			X
8) All societies develop rules for tracing kinship and thus the group to which			

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	Grade One				Grade Two			
	Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech-ua	Japan-ese	Colo-nial	Soviet	Hausa	Kib-butz
n all societies erlapping genera- etimes there are enerations, and there are three nd sometimes, if are included, the generations may rge.			X			X		
n all societies esponsibilities (specific roles) nt family members; x are principles l societies to ate family roles .	X		X	X	X	X	X	X
ieties people are o behave in cer- and not to behave ways; they are o believe that ings are good and ings are bad.	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
ies have some ocializing chil-			X		X	X	X	
ies develop rules g kinship and roup to which								

stated as an objective.

taught even though not stated as an objective.

it or part of it was introduced in the kindergarten course.

	Grade One		
	Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech-ua
people can turn first for help in time of need.			X
19. People everywhere must learn to behave the ways they do just as we learn to behave in the ways we do. (Culture is learned, not inborn.)	#	X	#
a. In every society human beings learn a culture in the process of growing up; this culture is the learned behavior patterns shared by members of their group.		X	
b. Within the family group, parents, older siblings, and/or other relatives direct expectations (organized into roles) toward the child.	X	X	X
c. Both positive and negative sanctions are used to teach the child to act in certain ways.	#	X	X
d. In almost all societies some aspects of socialization are entrusted to people outside of the child's family.			
20. Culture changes, although it changes more rapidly and drastically in some places and times than in others.			
a. Innovations occur in all societies; they occur in ideas and behavior, not just in things.	#	#	X

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	Grade One				Grade Two			
	Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech-ua	Japan-ese	Colo-nial	Soviet	Hausa	Kib-butz
rn first for of need.			X					
t learn to be- just as we e ways we do. not inborn.)	#	X	#	X	X	X	X	X
human beings n the process is culture is ior patterns of their		X		X	X	X	X	X
group, parents, nd/or other expectations oles) toward	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
negative ed to teach the ertain ways.	#	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
cieties some lization are ple outside of ly.				#	X	X	X	X
hough it changes stically in some n in others.				X				
r in all socie- in ideas and st in things.	#	#	X		X	X		

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ec' of it or part of it was int ·ed in the kindergarten course.

	Grade One				
	Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech-ua	Japan-ese	
b. Innovations may come about as a result of diffusion or borrowing from other people.		X	X		
c. Although culture is always changing, certain parts or elements may persist over long periods of time.	X	X	X		
d. Changes in one part of a culture bring changes in other parts.				X	

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	Grade One				Grade Two			
	Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech-ua	Japan-ese	Colo-nial	Soviet	Hausa	Kib-butz
me about as ion or er people.		X	X			X		
s always parts or st over long	X	X	X		X			
t of a cul- in other				X				

ted as an objective.

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t or part of it was introduced in the kindergarten course.

CHART SHOWING PLACEMENT OF CONCEPTS

Grade One

	Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech-ua	Japa-es
CULTURE				
1. Norms and values	X	X	X	X
2. Learned behavior patterns	X	X	X	X
3. Diversity	X	X	X	X
4. Uniqueness	X	X	X	X
5. Universals (including psychic unity of mankind)	X	X	X	X
6. Change (including diffusion)	X	X	X	#
7. Continuity (persistence of traits)		X	X	#
SOCIAL ORGANIZATION (STRUCTURE)				
1. Roles	X	X		X
2. Division of responsibility and labor	X	X		X
3. Status				X
4. Institutions				
a. Family	X	X	X	X
b. Education				X
c. Religion		X		X
5. Functions	X	X		X
SOCIAL PROCESS				
1. Socialization	X	X		X
2. Conflict	#			
GEOGRAPHIC CONCEPTS				
* 1. Globalism			#	#
* 2. Diversity			#	#
* 3. Spatial or Areal Location				
* a. Position	X	X	#	X
* b. Situation	X	X	#	X
* c. Site	X	X	#	X

X means that it is stated as an objective.

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* means that one aspect of it or part of it was introduced i

:T SHOWING PLACEMENT OF CONCEPTS

	Grade One				Grade Two			
	Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech-ua	Japan-ese	Colo-nial	Soviet	Hausa	Kib-butz
	X	X	X	X	X	#	X	X
	X	X	X	X	X	#	X	X
	X	X	X	X	X	#	X	X
	X	X	X	X	X	#	X	X
: unity	X	X	X	X	X	#	X	X
	X	X	X	#	X			
:aits)		X	X	#	#			
	X	X		X	X	#	X	X
ıd	X	X		X	X		X	X
				X	X	#	X	X
	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
				X	X	X		X
		X		X	X			
	X	X		X	X	#	X	X
	X	X		X	X	#	X	X
	#							#
			#	#			#	
			#	#		#	#	#
	X	X	#	X	X	#	X	X
	X	X	#	X	X	#	X	X
	X	X	#	X	X	#	X	X

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	Grade		
	Hopi	Algon-quin	Que- u
* 1) Landforms			
a) Mountain			
b) Hill			
c) Plain			
d) Plateau	X		
e) Cliff	X		
f) Canyon	X		
g) Valley	X		
h) Mesa	X		
i) Continent			
j) Island			
k) Peninsula			
l) Harbor			
m) Lowlands			
n) Elevation			
* 2) Water			
a) Ocean			
b) Lake		X	
c) River	X	X	
d) Stream	X		
e) Swamp		X	
f) Spring	X		
g) Sea		X	
* 3) Climate			
a) Temperature		#	
b) Precipitation			
Snow		X	
Rainfall			
c) Growing season and seasonal variation			

X means that it is stated as an objective.

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	Grade One				Grade Two			
	Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech-ua	Japan-ese	Colo-nial	Soviet	Hausa	Kib-butz
			X	X		#	X	
				X		#		X
				X		#	#	
	X		X					
	X		#					
	X		#					
	X		X					
	X							
			X	X			X	
				X	X			
					X			
					X			
			X				X	
			X					
			X	#	X		X	
		X					X	X
	X	X		#	X	X	X	X
	X		X					
		X						X
	X							
		X						X
		#	X	#	#	#	#	#
n								
		X				X		
			X				#	#
on and iation			#	#				

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	Grade One				
	Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech-ua	Japan-ese	C
d) Mediterranean					
4) Soil Types		X			
5) Natural Vegetation					
a) Desert	X				
b) Grasslands (prairie)		X	X		
c) Forest (coniferous, hardwoods, softwoods)		X			
d) Forest (rainforest)					
6) Man-made features					
a) Village				X	
b) City				#	
c) State					
d) Nation				X	
e) Capital					
f) Population density				X	
g) See below under change					
* 4. Interrelatedness					
a. Trade				#	
* b. Interdependence				#	
* 5. Change					
a. Drainage					
b. Terracing			X	X	
c. Irrigation	X		X	#	
d. Canal					
6. Cultural use of environment	X	X			
a. Ways of making a living					
1) Hunting		#			
2) Farming	#	#	X	X	
a) Intensive				X	

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	Grade One				Grade Two			
	Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech-ua	Japan-ese	Colo-nial	Soviet	Hausa	Kib-butz
								X
		X						
on								
	X						X	X
prairie)		X	X				X	
ferous, oftwoods)		X						
forest)							X	
s								
				X				X
				#	X			X
				X				
						X		
ensity				X				
der change								
				#				
				#		X	X	
								X
			X	X				
	X		X	#				X
					X			
ent	X	X					X	X
ing								
		#						
	#	#	X	X	#		#	#
				X				

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	Grade One			
	Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech-ua	Japa-es
3) Fishing		#		X
4) Handicrafts		#	#	
5) Manufacturing				#
a) Factory				#

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	Grade One				Grade Two			
	Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech-ua	Japan-ese	Colo-nial	Soviet	Hausa	Kib-butz
		#		X				
		#	#	#	#		#	
				#		X		
				#		X		

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CHART SHOWING SEQUENTIAL DEVELOPMENT OF SK

	Grade One			
	Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech-ua	Japan-ese
APPROACHES PROBLEM IN RATIONAL MANNER				
1. Sets up hypotheses.	X	X	X	X
IS SKILLED IN LOCATING AND GATHERING INFORMATION				
1. Uses the table of contents in a book.				
2. Gains information by studying pictures and films.	X	X	X	X
3. Gains information by observing the world around him.	X	X	X	
4. Gains information by listening.	X	X	X	X
5. Interprets pictographs.				
6. Gains information by using models.		X	X	
IS SKILLED IN ORGANIZING AND ANALYZING INFORMATION AND DRAWING CONCLUSIONS				
1. Identifies differences in data.				X
2. Classified or categorizes data.	X	X	X	X
* 3. Generalizes from data.	X	X	X	X
4. Tests hypotheses against data.	X	X	X	X
5. Applies previously-learned concepts and generalizations to new data.		X	X	X
* HAS A SENSE OF THE PASSAGE OF TIME	X	X	X	
1. Differentiates between past, present and future.	X		X	
2. Notes durations of periods of time.				
3. Understands measured periods of time such as decade and century.				
4. Interprets timelines.				

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ART SHOWING SEQUENTIAL DEVELOPMENT OF SKILLS

	Grade One				Grade Two			
	Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech-ua	Japan-ese	Colo-nial	Soviet	Hausa	Kib-butz
ONAL MANNER	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
GATHERING ents in a								X
tudying	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
bserving the	X	X	X		X	X		
istening.	X	X	X	X	X			X
.						X		X
sing models.		X	X					
ND ANALYZING NCLUSIONS in data.				X				X
zes data.	X	X	X	X		X	X	X
	X	X	X	X		X	X	X
st data.	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
rned concepts new data.		X	X	X	X	X	X	X
OF TIME	X	X	X		X			
past, pres-	X		X					
iods of time.								
eriods of d century.					X			

ted as an objective.

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	Grade One			
	Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech-ua	Japan-ese
USES GEOGRAPHIC SKILLS EFFECTIVELY				
* 1. Has a sense of direction				
a. Notices directions in relation-ship to own town.	X	X	X	
* b. Knows cardinal directions.	X		X	X
c. Knows intermediate directions.				
d. Orients a map to the north.		X		
2. Interprets maps.				
* a. Locates places on maps or globe.	X		X	
* b. Understands use of map symbols to represent reality.		X	X	X
* c. Recognizes map symbols for land and water.	X	X	X	X
d. Understands the use of color-layer symbols to show elevation above sea level.			X	
e. Interprets color layer symbols on map in terms of legend.	X		X	
f. Uses legend to interpret symbols.				
g. Understands use of scale on maps.		X		
* h. Identifies pictorial and semi-pictorial symbols.				
* i. Tells directions from maps and globe.	X		X	X
j. Differentiates between small-scale and large-scale maps and knows when to use each.		X		

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	Grade One				Grade Two			
	Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech-ua	Japan-ese	Colo-nial	Soviet	Hausa	Kib-butz
CTIVELY n								
in relation-	X	X	X		X		X	
ctions.	X		X	X	X	X		X
directions.						X		X
e north.		X						
aps or globe.	X		X				X	
map symbols y.		X	X	X				
ols for land	X	X	X	X			X	
of color- ow elevation			X					
yer symbols legend.	X		X				X	
rpret						X		X
scale on		X						X
l and semi-						X		X
om maps and	X		X	X	X	X	X	X
een small- le maps and ach.		X						

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or part of it was introduced in the kindergarten course.

	Grade One				
	Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech-ua	Japan-ese	Col ni
k. Orients large-scale maps on small-scale maps.		X			
3. Has a sense of distance and area.					
a. Compares distances with known distances.		X	X	X	
b. Compares areas with known areas.				X	
* 4. Visualizes basic map patterns.	X		X		
COMMUNICATES EFFECTIVELY 1. Presents effective oral reports.					
WORKS EFFECTIVELY WITH OTHERS 1. Is able to empathize with others, seeing things through their eyes, whether he accepts their viewpoints or sympathizes with them or not.		X			
EVALUATES INFORMATION 1. Checks on the bias and competency of witnesses, authors, and producers of material.					
2. Checks on the completeness of data.					

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	Grade One				Grade Two			
	Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech-ua	Japan-ese	Colo-nial	Soviet	Hausa	Kib-butz
le maps on		X						
te and area.								
with known		X	X	X	X		X	X
h known areas.				X			X	X
patterns.	X		X				X	
l reports.							X	
ERS ith others, their eyes, ir view- with them or		X						
competency and pro-								X
ness of data.						X		

ted as an objective.

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CHART SHOWING ATTITUDINAL GOALS

		Grade One			
		Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech-ua	Japa-ese
*	1. Is curious about social data.	X	X	X	#
	2. Respects evidence even when it contradicts prejudices and preconceptions.				
	3. Appreciates and respects the cultural contributions of other countries, races, and religions.	X	X	X	#
	4. Evaluates information and sources of information before accepting evidence and generalizations.		X		
	5. Values initiative and hard work.				
	6. Accepts diversity as natural.	##	##	X	##
	7. Values human dignity.	##	##	X	##

X Stated as an objective.
\# Taught in the unit but not stated as an objective.
A major reason for the focus of the course and units, but not unit objectives.
* An objective in the kindergarten course.

CHART SHOWING ATTITUDINAL GOALS

	Grade One				Grade Two			
	Hopi	Algon-quin	Quech-ua	Japan-ese	Colo-nial	Soviet	Hausa	Kib-butz
ata.	X	X	X	#	X	#	X	#
en it d precon-						X	X	
the other gions.	X	X	X	#	X	X	X	#
sources epting ons.		X						X
d work.								X
ral.	##	##	X	##	##	##	##	##
	##	##	X	##	##	##	##	##

not stated as an objective.
focus of the course and units, but not specifically stated under
.
de:en course.