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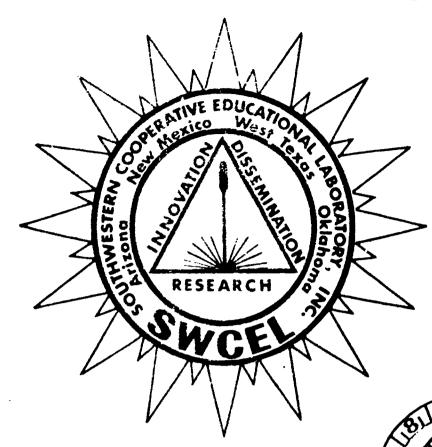
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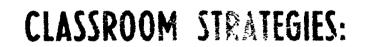
*Psychomotor Skills. Taxonomy. Teacher Participation

A baseline curriculum guide developed by the Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory in 1967 provides concomitant behavioral objectives for a full-year first grade program. The document contains discussions relevant to the development of behavioral objectives, including the need for such objectives, the rationale for their development, a discussion of the three domains (cognitive, affective, and psychomotor), the self-fulfilling prophecy phenomenon and self-concept, and testing students from other cultures and subcultures. Implications and strategies pertaining to curriculum development are emphasized. Teachers' evaluations of the standardized materials incorporated into the resultant curriculum are given. Condensed versions of the three taxonomies are presented as well as lesson plans, a bibliography, and a suggested reading list. Related documents are RC 003 109 and RC 003 111. (DK)



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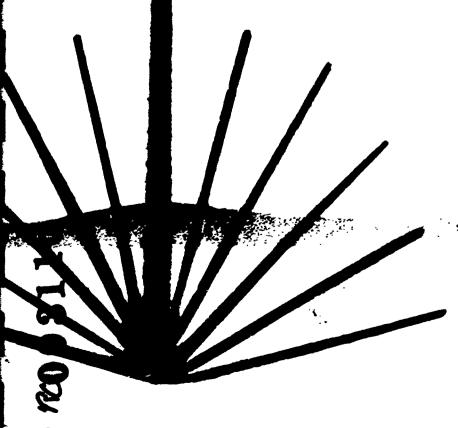




BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES

VOL. 11

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CLASSROOM STRATEGIES: BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	P	'age
PREFACE		
LIST OF FI	GURES	
INTRODUCTION	ON	3
Chapter		
I	THE NEED FOR BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES	9
	Some Procedures and Practices Involved in Developing Educational Practice	9
	Rationale for Behavioral Objectives	19
II	THE THREE DOMAINS: COGNITIVE, AFFECTIVE, AND PSYCHOMOTOR	25
	Cognitive Domain	25
	Affective Domain	35
	The Self-fulfilling Prophecy Phenomenon and Self-concept	41
	Psychomotor Domain	49
III	TESTING STUDENTS FROM OTHER CULTURES AND SUBCULTURES	53
	The Testing Program	5 3
IV	TRENDS AND STRATEGIES IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT	65
	Strategies for Curriculum Development	71
	Teacher Evaluation of the Standardized Curriculum Materials	74
v	IMPLICATIONS	81
APPENDIX A	TAXONOMY OF THE COGNITIVE DOMAIN	89
APPENDIX B	TAXONOMY OF THE AFFECTIVE DOMAIN	97

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APP	ENDIX C	TAXONO	MY OF	THE	PSY	CHOM	OTOF	DO	(AI	1.	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	105
APP	ENDIX D	LIST C										•	•	•	•	•	•	•	117
BIB	LIOGRAPHY		• •			• •			•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	169
SUGGESTED READING LIST																			
LIST OF FIGURES 1. Steps on the Road from Pure-Science Research to																			
1.	Establishe											•	•	•	•	•	•	•	10
2.	General M	odel of	E Educ	atio	nal	Rese	earch	ı .	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	13
3.	Strategie	s of In	novat	ion					• (•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	14
4.	Cognitive	MapA	ctivi	lties	and	Pro	cess	es	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	73

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PREFACE

Behavioral objectives and their use in teaching was one of the first topics to which attention was given in SWCEL research. Regular in-service study sessions on the development and use of behavioral objectives in teaching were sponsored in the SWCEL Beacon Schools in the four-state region.

This manual represents a compilation of SWCEL experience plus information and suggestions from many outside sources. It should provide the teacher with the latest and most complete guidelines available on the development and application of behavioral objectives to classroom instruction. It covers the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domains of learning. To the extent possible, it is made particularly applicable to pupils from minority cultures.

The authors are commended for this excellent effort toward something which has seemed so obvious for so long. It is hoped that teachers find it useful.

Paul V. Petty

Director

Albuquerque June 1968 It is my impression that no one really likes the new. We are afraid of it. It is not only as Dostoyevsky put it that "taking a new step, uttering a new word is what people fear most." Even in slight things the experience of the new is rarely without some stirring of foreboding.

Eric Hoffer (1952)

INTRODUCTION

The importance of stating educational goals in specific behavioral terms has been increasingly emphasized during the Twentieth Century.

Teachers have said, "I know what my goals for my students are. I want them to be able to get along with each other. I want them to seek knowledge. They must learn to read, to write, to count . . . " This list of verbal goals could go on and on. Students in colleges of education throughout America are told about the wisdom of creating objectives for the pupils. Yet, it is the rare teacher who lays out her teaching program in behavioral terms.

The <u>idea</u> of behavioral objectives is not a new one. What is new is the idea of a group of teachers sitting down together and actually writing lesson plans and behavioral objectives.

In April, 1967, SWCEL undertook to dispel a fear of the new. The following is a brief history of Module B as it pertains to the development of a baseline curriculum with concomitant behavioral objectives for a full year first-grade program.

At a general meeting in each of five schools, the first portion of the project was explained to all of the first-grade teachers. Those who volunteered to participate in the project would be asked to devise a curriculum for the school year (1967-1968). This would be utilized by all of the teachers during the forthcoming school year. Eight teachers from four schools volunteered to participate in this venture.

These teachers reported to SWCEL in June of 1967. Convening in a large room they spent the summer together investigating the various

curriculum materials made available to them and writing daily lesson plans. They criticized and finally selected a common set of textbooks. Lesson plans were written for particular subjects by each teacher who had evidenced an interest or expertise in a certain subject. For example, one teacher wrote all of the lesson plans for reading, another for social studies, another for mathematics, etc. When the lesson plans were completed for a short interval, perhaps a week, the teachers discussed and evaluated the lesson plans.

The value of this type of meeting is evident in the fact that each teacher was given the opportunity to criticize an aspect of the lesson plans or curriculum with which she did not agree. The teachers ranged in experience from one year to twelve years. The experiences of the teacher with fresh ideas straight from school were combined with the practical experiences of the teacher who had taught for a number of years.

In August, 1967, the teachers began devising behavioral objectives for the children to accompany their lesson plans. Although these teachers all had "in mind" various goals for their students, "taking a new step" (writing down objectives) appeared awesome to the teachers. Using Mager's book²², Preparing Instructional Objectives. as a basic text, the teachers formulated objectives for their specific subjects. Before the first day of school, 75 days of lesson plans, accompanied by behavioral objectives, had been agreed upon by the teachers and were ready for use. Textbooks and audiovisual materials were in readiness.

This volume is dedicated to those eight teachers. Their pioneering efforts have made it possible to disseminate the knowledge contained

herein, and is a direct result of their outstanding contributions to the field of educational research.



Any theory about education is closely related to the purposes of education. In America we are determined that these purposes be in accordance with our democratic traditions, placing emphasis upon the unique and precious nature of each human being. The fundamental aims and objectives of education in this country, therefore, must find their source and their strength in the minds and hearts of the people who are served by the schools. Beyond this, there are practical considerations involved in selecting aims and objectives. We must have means at hand to determine whether our objectives can be attained, whether the techniques by which we strive to attain them are effective, and whether all possibilities for improvement have been adequately explored.

Nolan C. Kearney (1953)



CHAPTER I

THE NEED FOR BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES

Some Procedures and Practices Involved in Developing Educational Practice

Classroom practice should be based upon available evidence from research. The rationale underlying the development of behavioral objectives and classroom management was developed through research. All too often, there is a chasm between this evidence and practice. Hopefully, a discussion of research procedures and the important role teachers should play therein may be of assistance in bridging this chasm.

Teachers usually are involved in the technological research and development phases (Steps 4, 5, and 6) of the research cycle (as shown in Figure 1). The very nature of their profession is likely to preclude experiences in pure research unless they pursue such activities in their off time.

A brief overview of these research steps may be of interest to the reader and may help crystallize his thinking on the process.

The pure or basic research phase is characterized by the investigation of problems which may or may not have immediate practical applications. This does not necessarily mean that the investigator is interested only in theoretical problems; it is just that he uses procedures appropriate to the problems on which he words.

Expanding the three steps of pure research of learning we find:

Step 1. Animal studies, biochemical studies, and physiological investigations on learning with no regard for their educational relevance.

Steps on the Road from Pure Science Research* to Established Educational Practices

School- Laboratory, Tryout in relevant Classroom, & "Normal" Subjects and Special Teacher Classroom Topics
p
School- relevant Subjects and Topics
Relevant Subjects and/or Topics
Not Directly Relevant

*Hilgard¹⁶

Figure 1

Step 2. Principles being tested here are likely to be theoretical. It is research on learning. It is not concerned with educational practices, but deals with human subjects and with content nearer to that taught in school.

Step 3. Although no attention is paid to adapting the results to school practices, the research on learning in this step is relevant because the subjects usually are school-age children and the material learned is school subject matter or skills.

The problems investigated in these steps are inferred from theoretical issues rather than from the practical needs of instruction. The important point is that the results of pure research can be used to form hypotheses for experimentation on issues of practical importance for the classroom.

Focusing now on the applied or the technological research and development phase, the steps may be elaborated as follows:

- Step 4. Research is conducted in laboratory classrooms utilizing highly skilled teachers and a few students. These studies usually are to determine the possible feasibility of particular programs or procedures.
- Step 5. Whatever is found feasible in Step 4 must be tried out in a typical classroom situation.
- Step 6. The methods and content found feasible in Steps 4 and 5 have to be "packaged" for dissemination and must go through the process by which they are adopted by those not involved in the experimentation.

At this point, one can see the relevant relationship of one step to another in the proper sequence as well as the relationship of Step 1 to Step 6. However, if one were to review past literature, it would be safe

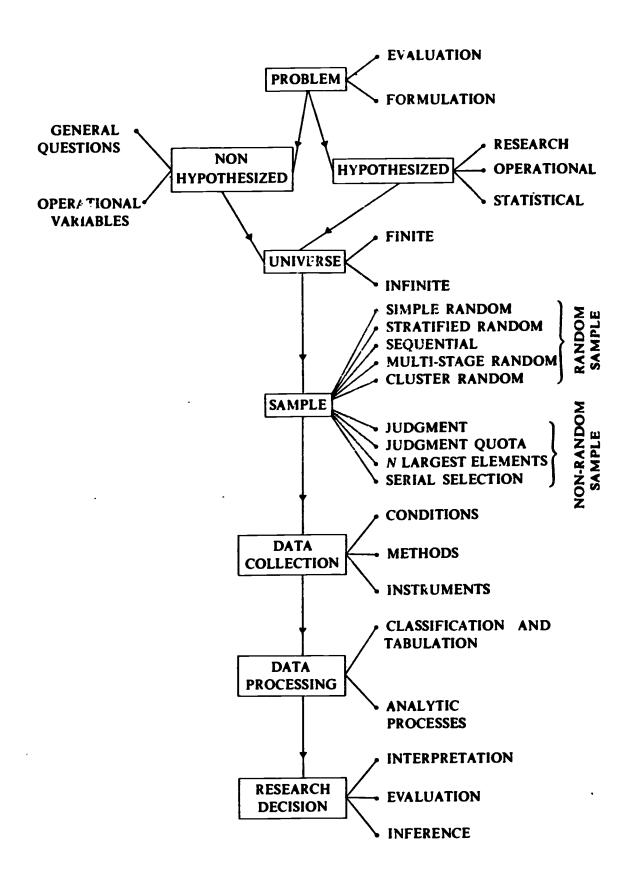
to say that too much research has been terminated at Steps 1 and 2, especially the studies of experimental psychologists. Even educational psychologists tend to experiment at the end of the continuum, and then leap to Step 6 without testing and developing at Steps 4 and 5. It is not good scientific practice to extrapolate from rats or flatworms to the normative world of school children. Fortunately, many trained scientists realize the dangers of such practices and refrain from leaving out the developmental steps. They are willing to investigate the feasibility of applying their theoretically derived laboratory findings to daily classroom procedures.

Figure 1, a general procedure as shown in Figure 2 must be followed.

Through the processes of interpretation, evaluation, inference, and accepting or rejecting hypotheses (Research Decision) in one step, new problems and hypotheses are formulated for the next step in the research sequence.

This relationship can be readily seen in Figures 1 and 3. The teachers, supervisors, and administrators involved with any Demonstration Center activities are involved in Steps 5 and 6 of the research cycle and, simultaneously, in Steps 3, 4, and 5 of the innovation cycle. To a certain extent, SWCEL has been involved in all of the steps in innovation with regard to the Integrated Plan materials and procedures. It is a responsibility of the personnel attending the two Demonstration Centers to bear the major burden of innovation and dissemination.

General Model of Educational Research*



*Hill and Kerber, 1967

Figure 2

Strategies of Innovation

Step 5	Develop support for program from communities, School Board, parents
Step 4	In-service training program: prevent values of program, instruct in new procedures, enlist support
Step 3	Testing materials: evaluate to determine if objectives are realized
Step 2	"Package" the program: Testing materials: materials, guides, evaluate to deteretc. etc. are realised
Step 1	Research-based program

Schroeder (1968)

Some parents object to their children being the "subjects" of educational experiments conducted in the classroom. These parents say they are not raising their children to be guinea pigs. This is one of the points at which the need becomes obvious for intelligent participation by citizens in educational policy-making.

Competent educators make sure that educational experimentation is carefully done and that procedures are thoroughly assessed and reassessed before action is taken. Most of the necessary research will not disturb citizens, parents, or teachers, particularly if the purposes and procedures are even briefly reviewed.

A most important item for both educators and parents to remember with respect to experimentation in the schools is that carefully planned experiments with children in actual classroom situations can lead to improvement of the methods and materials of instruction.

Unfortunately there is often a division between the educational theorists and researchers on one hand and the practitioners in the schools on the other. Teachers, supervisors, and principals frequently are heard to say that research and theory are all well and good, but the theorists should go into the schools to see what the real problems are when a teacher is faced with 30-35 students. This, of course, is a misunderstanding of both theory and practice. Fortunately, as more and more practitioners become involved in action research, dissemination, and innovation (the Demonstration Center, for example) this division will cease to exist.

The experimental approach, the planning of educators and researchers, and the understanding of the patrons of the school will result in better education for all of our children. A case in point is the development and use of behavioral objectives by classroom teachers.



An objective is "an aim or end of action; point to be hit, reached, etc."

Webster's Collegiate Dictionary (5th ed., 1947)



Rationale for Behavioral Objectives

The primary responsibility for educating America's children rests with the teacher. With the teacher rests the burden of determining what the children should learn in the classroom, why they should learn it, how they should learn it, and even 15 they will learn it.

The classroom teacher must make judgments about how to present subject material to his pupils. This, of course, implies that he has some idea of what his educational goals for the children are. In making judgments, the teacher must not only de ide what subject matter he will teach, but also define the desired outcomes of the educational process. These decisions not only have implications for pupil learning, commonly known as "book learning" but also have broad implications for those outcomes of instruction which emphasize emotions or degree of acceptance or rejection.

The teacher who denotes objectives for pupil learning finds it easier to make curricular decisions and to prepare evaluative measures of the pupils' progress.

Before accurate and unbiased evaluation is possible, specific overt behavior, amenable to quantification, must be designated.

Mager²² defines an objective as

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. . . an intent communicated by a statement describing a proposed change in a learner—a statement of what the learner is to be like when he has successfully completed a learning experience. It is a description of a pattern of behavior (performance) we want the learner to be able to demonstrate.

When teachers begin to rely upon behavioral objectives, vague intuitive and subjective interpretations of pupil achievement will be minimized,

permitting relatively precise evaluations. Essentially this procedure involves specification of the fundamental operations (including instruments, manipulations, measurements of recording procedures used in the process of observation, etc.) by which the teacher may potentially discern the presence or absence of the phenomenon denoted by a concept.

The first question the teacher must ask is, "What is it I want to measure?" Once the desired attribute has been defined, the specification of operations the students must perform should follow. For example, if students are expected to memorize a passage or list of words, it will first be necessary to operationally define what is meant by memorization (e.g., does it involve verbal recitation or written response?). Once this is established, a quantitatively designated performance criterion must be set to maximize objectivity and minimize alternate explanations of the empirical outcomes. In this way, the teacher lists expected pupil performance by objectively specifying those fundamental operations that students are to perform to accomplish the task or criterion specified.

Precise specification of educational goals tends to minimize the variability of interpretations, thus permitting the teacher to vigorously assess the adequacy of her program and objectively test the efficacy of her teaching strategies.

Mager²² has compiled the following four criteria for writing behavioral objectives which the teacher might use as a starting point:

- 1. An instructional objective describes an intended outcome rather than a description or summary of content.
- 2. A characteristic of a usefully stated objective is that it is stated in behavioral, or performance, terms that describe what the



learner will be doing when demonstrating his achievement of the objective.

- 3. The statement of objectives for an entire program of instruction will consist of several specific statements.
- 4. The objective which is most usefully stated is one which best communicates the instructional intent of the person selecting the objective.

Objectives are not only the goals toward which the curriculum is shaped and toward which instruction is guided, but they are also goals that provide the detailed specification for the construction and use of evaluative techniques.

Bloom (1956)

CHAPTER II

THE THREE DOMAINS: COGNITIVE, AFFECTIVE, AND PSYCHOMOTOR

It has been found that most of the objectives stated by teachers in our schools, as well as those found in the literature, may be placed rather easily in one of three major domains or classifications: cognitive, affective, and psychomotor.

Educational objectives may be specified in two ways. One method is to define the objective in behavioral terms. The other is to place an objective within a large overall scheme which locates it along a continuum of internalization from lowest to highest. The latter method was employed in developing the hierarchical structure of the three domains.

Cognitive Domain

The idea for a classification system of educational objectives was initiated at a meeting of college examiners attending the 1948

American Psychological Association Convention in Boston. Because educational objectives provide the basis for building curricula and tests and represent the starting point for much educational research, the group believed that such taxonomies would lead to increased communication among professional educators.

A committee was formed to organize and write a taxonomy on cognitive educational goals. The result was a volume entitled <u>Taxonomy</u> of <u>Educational Objectives</u>, <u>Handbook I: Cognitive Domain</u>, ed. Benjamin S. Bloom.

Objectives which deal with recall or recognition of knowledge and development of intellectual abilities and skills are classified in Handbook I on the Cognitive Domain.

In this handbook the classification scheme is described and illustrated. What is classified by Bloom⁵ is the intended behavior of the students--the ways in which individuals are to think as the result of participating in some unit of instruction,

Intended behaviors specified by educational objectives "do not necessarily include many of the behaviors which psychologists are interested in classifying and studying. One reason is that the intended behaviors represent the social goals imposed upon youngsters by their society or culture. Thus, the intended or desired behaviors included in educational objectives usually do not include undesirable or abnormal behaviors which are socially disapproved. Similarly, certain natural or unsocialized behaviors which might be of interest may fall outside the categories of the taxonomy." (Bloom⁵)

The taxonomy of behavioral objectives in the cognitive domain contains six classes or levels of cognition. They are:

- 1. Knowledge -- the learner will recall appropriate material.
- 2. <u>Comprehension</u>—the learner will utilize abilities and skills to organize and reorganize material to achieve a particular purpose.
- 3. Application -- the learner will use abstractions in concrete situations.
- 4. Analysis -- the learner will express the relationship between ideas.
- 5. <u>Synthesis</u>—the learner will combine elements (ideas) to form a completely new idea.

6. Evaluation--the learner will make quantitative and qualitative judgments.

A condensed version of the <u>Taxonomy of Educational Objectives</u>
(Bloom⁵) appears as Appendix A of this volume.

The eight teachers attempted to place their objectives within the cognitive domain classification scheme. Examples of these objectives as developed by these teachers are listed by curricular area and class level within the cognitive domain.

READING SKILLS

1. Knowledge

The child will:

Repeat a rhyme

2. Comprehension

The child will:

Select a picture that answers a question

Correctly match words with pictures

Build the correct story title with word cards

3. Application

The child will:

Select a picture that illustrates the story

Read a page silently to find out specific information

4. Analysis

The child will:

Tell a story in sequence

Tell whether sentences are related to the story Classify stories

5. Synthesis

The child will:

Act out a story

Predict what might happen after the end of the story

Give a title for the story

6. Evaluation

The child will:

Determine whether a sentence is a true statement

MATH SKILLS

1. Knowledge

The child will:

Draw a given number of objects

Point to number words

Describe the ordinal position of an object

2. Comprehension

The child will:

Match number word with set of objects

State coordinates plotted by another individual

Tell how many more there are in one set than another

3. Application

The child will:

Complete number sentences

Give the rule for naming numbers based on tens and ones

4. Analysis

The child will:



Break up objects into groups of tens and ones
Tell how many tens and ones are in a number

SCIENCE AND SOCIAL STUDIES SKILLS

1. Knowledge

The child will:

Use proper terminology

Tell what he knows about an object

2. Comprehension

The child will:

Guess the name of an object by using all senses except sight
State the differences between two items

3. Application

The child will:

Manipulate scientific equipment correctly

Describe a picture he drew to illustrate a scientific fact

4. Analysis

The child will:

Classify objects according to class-determined criteria

Determine certain existing conditions through observation

Tell what he discovered from doing the experiment

5. Synthesis

The child will:

Act out home activities

Suggest ways to overcome a problem

6. Evaluation

The child will:

Solve a problem

MUSIC AND ART ACTIVITIES

1. Knowledge

. The child will:

Sing previously taught songs

Participate in finger plays

2. Comprehension

The child will:

Play a rhythm band instrument in time with music
Tell which part of a song is high and which part is low
Listen for specific sounds on a record

3. Application

The child will:

Sing the high notes of a song upon request

4. Analysis

The child will:

Manipulate flannel board cutouts to tell a story

Decide what materials he needs for an art project

5. Synthesis

The child will:

Dramatize a song

Use a variety of media



PHONICS SKILLS

1. Knowledge

The child will:

Give the sounds of a letter

Say the word on a phonetic picture card

2. Comprehension

The child will:

Form blends by combining a consonant and vowel sounds

Circle a specific letter in a word that begins with that letter

3. Application

The child will:

Name things that begin with specific sounds

Write a specific letter under pictures that begin with that sound

4. Analysis

The child will:

Listen for a vowel in a word and classify that word

Discuss a picture

WRITING SKILLS

1. Knowledge

The child will:

Write words containing a specific letter

Write specific groups of letters

2. Comprehension

The child will:

Write short sentence patterns containing a specific letter
Write sentence strips to be used in booklet

3. Application

The child will:

Take dictation



The role of the teacher is that of a conditioner of emotional reactions. The object of teaching is to condition favorable reactions to subject matter.

Bugelski (1964)

Affective Domain

Affective: Objectives emphasize a feeling tone, an emotion, or or a degree of acceptance or rejection. Affective objectives vary from simple attention to selected phenomena to complex but internally consistent qualities of character and conscience. We found a large number of such objectives in the literature expressed as interests, attitudes, appreciations, values, and emotional sets of biases. (Kratwohl, et all 21)

The difficulty of compiling a taxonomy of affective objectives is evident when one attempts to seek evaluative material in the affective domain. Efforts to measure achievement on affective objectives become frustrating because they present technical problems of assessment. A child soon learns which affective responses will be rewarded by the teacher and which responses will be punished. A child may profess an interest in a subject or in his fellow students, but is is difficult to determine the difference between a "spontaneous" response and one made only to please the teacher.

Another problem inherent in the development of a taxonomy of the affective domain is that our schools emphasize choice and free decision. Any attempts at dealing with feelings and emotions seem alien to the educational goals in a democratic society.

However, the classroom teacher is well aware that learning (cognitive gain) will not occur unless the child is responding, receiving, and reacting to the teacher and to other environmental stimuli. To teach a lesson, the teacher must gain the pupils' attention. They must be listening to and perceiving what she is attempting to convey.

It is clear that the compilation of objectives for affective behavior is just as important, perhaps even more crucial, than the establishment of



objectives for cognitive behavior. The interrelationship between these domains becomes apparent to anyone who has ever attempted to convey information—to address a group or to teach a class. Unless you have their attention, they may not receive, or learn, what you are attempting to communicate.

The classroom teacher on the first day of a new semester faces this problem dramatically. Many of us have said, "If you don't gain control of your students the first day, you might as well give up and go home. You've lost them."

The <u>Taxonomy of Educational Objectives</u>, <u>Handbook II</u>: <u>Affective Domain</u>, by Kratwohl²¹ is modeled after <u>Handbook I</u>: <u>Cognitive Domain</u>. A condensed version of the Affective Domain appears as Appendix B.

The importance of defining affective objectives for educational goals was recognized by the eight teachers who comprised Module B's experimental team. To determine what goals the teachers had for their pupils in the affective domain, SWCEL requested that all experimental teachers state their terminal affective goals. The teachers responded to the request:

List any behaviors you would suggest as possible goals that these children should demonstrate at the end of their first year in school (affective domain).

Although it is difficult to observe the manifestations of affect, the teachers listed behaviors which they thought might be indicative of specific goals for the children. Some of these follow.

"Each child will:

demonstrate through his activities that he is aware of himself as a person--aware of his abilities and inabilities and is able to accept these (emotional maturity).



demonstrate in his interpersonal relations that he is aware of others (his peers, teachers, parents, friends), their abilities and inabilities by listening to others, working with others (cooperation), being tolerant of others, and ultimately being affectionate and sensitive to the needs, problems, and joys of others.

work individually.

cooperate with a group.

have a desire to learn and be proud of his accomplishments.

enjoy school and express this feeling.

voluntarily help himself and others.

accept responsibilities.

partake in and enjoy self-expression in reading, art, music, drama, etc.

help in group planning and conform to group rules.

attempt a new and different task.

accept failure and try again.

spontanecusly read books for enjoyment and request and/or comply to storytime activities.

express and defend his own viewpoint."

These goals listed by the teachers are important and worthwhile, but some of them are not precisely defined behaviors. They cannot always be seen or measured, nor can they be readily verbalized as specific behaviors. This does not, however, diminish their worth as pupil goals in the affective realm, and for this reason, they are included.

Although the affective domain is difficult to measure, teacher awareness of its classroom implications is extremely important. An example of its importance is demonstrated in the discussion of the self-fulfilling prophecy phenomenon.



If you treat an individual as he is, he will stay as he is; if you treat him as he ought to be and could be, he will become what he ought to be and could be.

Goethe

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The Self-fulfilling Prophecy Phenomenon and Self-concept

In spite of Goethe's insight into human behavior, it is doubtful he envisioned the impact the self-fulfilling prophecy phenomenon would have on the educational process and today's concern about how this phenomenon operates in the all-important context of the student-teacher relationship.

Basically, the self-fulfilling prophecy is defined as a situation which initiates behavior from the person proposing the definition that makes it come true, irrespective of original accuracy. Thus, the behavior of the definer operates as a determinant in shaping the behavior of the situation, or individual, so defined. The process is very reinforcing to the one defining since it operates to make the future result correspond with the prophecy. Further, the process is difficult to detect because it is quite easy to be unaware of the critical role one's own behavior plays in fulfilling the prophecy.

For example, a teacher labels a child a "slow learner." Having categorized the child thusly, the teacher may fail to try to teach him to read, give him only easy work, and in general treat him as a "slow learner." If all individuals concerned with the child's development respond similarly, the child may indeed never progress very far academically and may truly exhibit "slow learner" behavior. The prophecy is then fulfilled by the teacher looking back and saying, "See, I was correct in my estimation," failing to recognize that his actions were the major determinants of the child's behavior.

On the basis of this illustration, one might believe the selffulfilling prophecy to be a negative concept. However, once this

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concept is understood and properly applied, it could become a powerful force in shaping behavior in a positive direction. Instead of
labeling a child a slow learner and proceeding to treat him as such,
it might be profitable to organize conditions generating confidence
in the child that he can perform successfully. Also, the teacher
can proceed to see that he does fulfill these expectations.

The belief is widespread that poor children lag behind academically because they are members of a disadvantaged group. However, a recent study by Rosenthal and Jacobson²⁵ suggested such children may underachieve because their teachers expect them to do so.

Their experimentation involved testing all children, K-5, in a particular school in May 1964. In September about 20 percent of the children were selected at random as being potential "academic spurters." Their names were dropped casually to teachers at the end of a staff meeting. The experimental treatment of the children involved nothing more than giving their names to their teachers as children who would be expected to show unusual intellectual gains in the years ahead. The difference, then, between these children and the undesignated children who constituted the control group was entirely in the minds of the teachers.

All children were tested again with the same instrument in January and May of that school year and at the end of the following year (1966).

The results indicated strongly that children from whom teachers expected greater intellectual gains actually showed such gains. Tests



given at the end of the first year showed the largest I. Q. gains among children in the first and second grades.

At the end of the first school year, 1964-65, teachers were asked to describe the classroom behavior of their pupils. The designated children were described as more affectionate, better adjusted, more appealing, and less in need of social approval than the other children. The researchers report that these findings were particularly striking in the first grade.

In contrast, when the teachers rated the undesignated children, many of whom also gained in I. Q., it was found that the more the child gained the less favorably he was rated by his teacher.

It was also found that the most unfavorable ratings were given low-ability classroom children who gained the most intellectually. When these "slow track" children were in the control group where little intellectual gain was expected of them, they were rated more unfavorably by their teachers if they did show gains in I. Q. In fact, the more they gained, the more unfavorably they were rated. Even when the slow-track children were in the designated groups, where gain was expected, they were not rated as favorably with respect to their control-group peers as were children of the medium track and high track. The researchers assume that it is likely to to be difficult for a slow-track child, even if his I. Q. is rising, to be seen by his teacher as well adjusted and as a potentially successful student.

From their findings, the researchers hypothesize that the explanation for the large gain in reasoning intelligence seems to lie in the subtle feature of the interaction between the teacher and the child. Her tone of voice, facial expression, touch and posture may be the means by which she communicates—although quite unwittingly—her expectations for the child. Such communication might help the child by changing his conception of himself, his anticipation of his own behavior, his motivation or his cognitive skills.

Rosenthal and Jacobson²⁵ indicate that more research is needed in this area. However, there was no direct treatment of the children in this study such as a crash reading program, extra time for tutoring, or similar programs. The only people affected directly were the teachers; the effect on the children was indirect. This being so, the results certainly lend credence and support to the concept of the self-fulfilling prophecy phenomenon. They also indicate the importance for teachers to understand and expect more of "disadvantaged" children.

According to Bloom, Hess, and Davis⁶, available evidence seems to indicate that the ego development of the deprived child is more likely to be characterized by lack of self-confidence and negative self-image than it is for the middle-class child. In addition, research on failure shows the negative effects of failure on personality and subsequent achievement and aspiration. Motivation studies show many deprived children and adolescents often have unrealistic aspirations. Verbalized educational goals often are incongruent with actual achievement. On the average, students from the lower social class do have lower educational aspirations than do upper-class students.

The school achievement of disadvantaged children is characterized by an accumulative deficit. The children begin school with inadequacies



motivation. Under the usual school curriculum, the achievement pattern of deprived children is such that they fall increasingly behind their non-deprived peers. This seems to affect some basic weaknesses in both curriculum and school practices for the children.

Research on attitudes of teachers toward disadvantaged children generally shows that they more negatively evaluate disadvantaged than middle-class children and are "blamed" by teachers for their state.

These things along with their cognitive deficits and the absence of rewards, cumulatively interfere with successful learning.

Studies demonstrate the self-fulfilling tendencies of lower student self-expectation and aspiration as well as lower teacher expectation for students of particular sub-cultures, socio-economic classes, and minority ethnic groups. Evidence also indicates the achievement motive is learned at very early childhood and is resistant to change.

Hamachek¹⁴ has summarized a number of studies concerned with the relationship between self-concept and learning. His summary includes:

- 1. Each individual clings to his self-concept and performs in accordance with it. All things being equal, those who do not achieve, choose not to do so; those who do achieve, choose to do so.
- 2. Measures of self-concept and ratings of ego strength made at the beginning of kindergarten were found to be more predictive of reading achievement two-and-one-half years later than were measures of intelligence.
- 3. Male achievers feel relatively more positive about themselves than do male underachievers.

Stated plainly, self-concept research points to a simple conclusion: underachievers learn poorly because they underestimate their ability to perform well.

At this point the teacher probably is asking what steps he can take to overcome a pupil's poor self-concept and lack of motivation other than attempting to develop a positive self-fulfilling prophecy. Hamachek helps us with this problem by reporting the latest research on what types of teachers are found to be most effective in motivating their students. He summarized, in essence, that teachers who are superior in encouraging motivation and learning in students seem to reflect more of the following characteristics in their classroom behavior, interaction with students, and teaching styles:

- 1. Willingness to be flexible, to be directive and nondirective as the situation might demand.
- 2. Capacity to perceive the world from the student's point of view
- 3. Ability to "personalize" their teaching
- 4. Willingness to experiment and try out new ideas and materials
- 5. Skill in asking questions rather than acting as an answering service
- 6. Willingness to provide definite study helps
- 7. Ability to show an appreciative attitude (as evidenced by nods, comments, smiles, and so forth)
- 8. Conversational manner in teaching--an informal, relaxed style.

In conclusion, it can be said that only the teacher who believes what she teaches can be truly effective. Children are influenced not so much by what is said, but by how it is said. They see through pretentions and react to people's feelings more easily than do adults.

They are sensitive to minute gestures, facial expressions, and inflections of the adult's voice. The teacher must recognize the basic "equality" of different ethnic, cultural, and social groups and act accordingly if psychologically and educationally the poverty cycle is to be broken.



To meet life demands, an individual's acquiring of adequate motor skill is as important as is his mastery of abstract ideas. There are few situations in which both are not needed.

Crow and Crow (1956)

Psychomotor Domain

ERIC

Those who proposed taxonomies for the cognitive and affective domains indicated they had no special interest in the development of a classification system for educational objectives in the psychomotor domain. They recognized the existence of the psychomotor domain but found so little research on it that they decided not to develop a classification at that time.

Continuation of this lack of interest led Simpson²⁶ to seek a grant from USOE to develop an adequate taxonomy.

Preliminary investigations led to the conclusions that there is a hierarchy among the three domains. The cognitive domain, though certainly very complex, is, in a sense, somewhat "purer" than the other two domains. That is, cognition can take place with a minimum of motor activity. Also, feeling may not be greatly involved—although it would seem reasonable to assume some degree of affect. The affective domain necessarily involves considerable cognition as well as feeling. And, the psychomotor domain, as implied in name, involves cognition and motor activity, as well as affective components involved in the willingness to act. This hierarchy of interaction of all three domains, from the cognitive to the affective to the psychomotor, results in a special complexity in developing a classification system for this last domain.

A classification system that is not taxonomic would have merit in the study of educational objectives. One that is taxonomic, however, should prove more valuable in determining the relative difficulty of achieving the objectives and as an aid in determining sequence of learning experiences. The problem is one of arriving at a basis for determining the relative difficulty or amount of skill involved in carrying out a motor activity.

Simpson²⁶ also reports that her work in this area resulted in looking at edu tional objectives in a new light. She became aware that many objectives that are assumed should be stated to provide for greater clarity and to insure their conflictation in the selection of learning experiences and content. Another important step to be taken is to look critically at the relationships among the three domains. It is readily apparent the domains are closely related and that a single educational objective might have a particular significance in one domain and another in another domain. For example, at the mental-set level in performing a motor act, knowledge is required; hence, an objective that "fits" this level also would fit into the cognitive domain and could be classified there.

Much work is needed in studying the psychomotor domain and its relationships to the other two domains. What has been presented here is only a beginning.

A condensed version of the Psychomotor Domain appears as Appendix C of this volume.



Education is as old as human society, and every human society has its own particular ways of making its children into full-fledged adult participants in its culture.

Robert J. Havighurst (1957)

CHAPTER III

TESTING STUDENTS FROM OTHER CULTURES AND SUBCULTURES

The need for tests in an educational situation long has been recognized by professional educators. Testing gives the instructor an opportunity to objectively measure (evaluate) a student's performance. Tests decrease the guesswork in teaching, and provide some feedback about the effectiveness of the teacher's program as well.

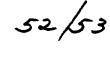
Many reasons can be advanced for including tests in the educational program.

- 1. Tests are the instruments by which the teacher can measure not only the educational progress and mental growth of the student but also provide a yardstick for comparing an individual's achievements with his aptitudes and abilities.
- 2. Tests are impartial and objective; they supplement the observations of teacher, and help "freeze" subjectivity.
- 3. Test information has approximately the same meaning for all persons who have been trained in their use.
- 4. Tests increase the probability of sampling many abilities and make it possible to obtain some facts indirectly. Tests also increase the possibility of uncovering individual problem areas.
- 5. Using tests can increase pupil self-improvement and pave the way for remedial instruction.

The Testing Program

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It is not the purpose of this section to suggest a plan for a testing program, but rather to advance some ideas for consideration



when planning behavioral objectives in a classroom situation. Perhaps the most crucial variable in the identification and definition of the culturally diverse is the realization that many kinds of problems and types of groups are sometimes almost blithely grouped under the label "disadvantaged."

In the present volume, our primary concern is with the educational problems of these groups. To provide the setting within which educational problems are solved, the relevant social and psychological variables must be recognized.

An increasing cultural deficit with age and grade level seems to be a rather general phenomenon. Research has shown that the higher a child's family is on the socioeconomic scale, the richer were his environmental experiences. Eller 10 found significant differences on a range of experiences among 710 children in the first-grade of the Cedar Rapids (Iowa) public schools. There were marked differences between such aspects as the number of books in the house, participating in family planning, travel, ability to use a telephone, attendance at athletic contests, and number of parties attended.

Differences in personality may be noted as a result of these and other experiences. In the classroom, these differences become quite visible. As early as the 1940's, studies on reading readiness (Frahm ¹¹ and Jewell ¹⁹) indicated that children from lower class underprivileged homes tended to be less ready for reading in the first-grade than pupils from more fortunate circumstances.

<u>Intellectual Abilities</u>. Torrance²⁸ has reported that the favorite instruments for assessing intellectual abilities of culturally divergent

Children "have continued to be the various modifications of the Goodenough Draw-A-Man Test and the Raven Progressive Matrices, especially in international studies. On the domestic scene, the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test has won some popularity in testing children from various subcultures."

SWCEL has conducted extensive testing programs using the Goodenough Draw-A-Man Test. Significant correlations have been obtained between this and several other intelligence tests. A maximum of 15 minutes is required to administer this test. Although an approximate measure of mental age may be discovered by the inexperienced examiner, SWCEL has utilized trained raters with established inter-rater reliabilities of .86 and higher to score the hundreds of tests which have been administered to first grade pupils throughout the Southwest. Because it has proved to be a useful and accurate tool for prediction of first-grade students' academic achievements some suggestions for interpretation of this test follow.

One evidence of the validity of a test is found in its comparison with other well-established tests of mental ability. The relationship of the Goodenough with the Stanford-Binet intelligence test has been obtained with several other intelligence tests. Although no claim of absolute accuracy of finality of rating is made for the scale, the results obtained indicate that it does form a serviceable test of intellectual development.

The Goodenough Test is able to measure intellectual ability in the average range more accurately than at the extremes. That is, a teacher may place more assurance on an IQ score of around 100 than on extreme scores of above 125 or below 75. It must be remembered that this test, as all tests, has a margin of error which must be considered in interpretation. Research indicates that the Goodenough measures mental ability within about a ten-point range. That is to say, an IQ score on this test could be off by five points in either direction, sometimes a bit more.

Children who have particular types of physical handicaps involving muscular coordination or eye-hand coordination may not be able to do well on this test. However, this test is a good measure for most children, since drawing has been found to be universal regardless of cultural and environmental influences. In young children a close relationship is apparent between concept development as shown in drawing and general intelligence. The earliest drawings made by children consist almost entirely of what may be described as graphic enumeration of items. Drawings made by subnormal children resemble those of younger normal children in their lack of detail and in their defective sense of proportions. Examination of drawings of unusually high scores on the test leads to the opinion that keen powers of analytic observation, coupled with a good memory for details, are more potent factors in producing high scores that is artistic ability in the ordinary sense of the term.

Evidence shows that in most cases specific training in drawing the human figure does affect the score made on the test. However, there is no evidence that the kind of art training which is most commonly given in the primary grades, and which does not include formal instruction on the human figure, has any appreciable effect on the score.

You will observe that some children who receive low scores on the Goodenough may begin to read and continue at a faster rate than some children who have significantly higher scores. Intelligence is not necessarily an index of readiness to read. Many times a child of average intelligence may be ready to read earlier than a child of superior mental ability.

The "I.Q.," as it is shown, is only relative to the child's performance on this particular test under these particular circumstances. Thus, wise application of these data implies that you use these results only as part of the information considered in dealing with any individual child.

The Raven test has been used to study ability testing to control for intelligence level in comparative studies. Irvine ^{18a} concluded that the perceptual context of the items is related to the kind of reasoning demanded by the test, and that this dual perceptual reasoning results in a variety of strategies difficult to determine.

He also concluded that intercultural differences in exposure to perceptual tasks may produce sets that limit an individual's flexibility of approach to figural items and that differences in learning opportunity affect directly the extent to which reasoning within a perceptual frame can be exercised. (Torrance²⁸)

On the topic of testing, it is probably appropriate to discuss briefly "culture-free" testing. Anastasi ^{1a} has discussed so-called culture-free tests.

In actual practice, of course, such tests fall considerably short of this goal. Moreover, the term "culture-common" probably would be more accurate than "culture-free," since at best, performance on such items is free from cultural differences, but not from cultural influences.



Different investigators have attempted to assess intelligence levels of culturally diverse children in various ways. Anastasi^{1a} suggests that the purpose of the test should be carefully examined.

If cultural factors are important determiners of behavior, why eliminate their influence from tests designed to sample and predict such behavior?

No attempt will be made in this volume to discuss in detail all of the tests which have been associated with the testing of intelligence levels in the so-called "culturally disadvantaged" groups of school children. Some of the more commonly used tests are:

Goodenough-Harris Drawing Test

California Test of Mental Maturity

Columbia Mental Maturity Scale

Davis-Eels Games

Detroit Intelligence Tests

Full-Range Picture Vocabulary Test

Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities

The Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Tests

Otis Quick-Scoring Mental Ability Tests

Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test

Progressive Matrices--Raven

Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale

Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children

Although there is no complete agreement on a definition of intelligence, it is obviously an important factor in judging individual growth in the classroom. Therefore, some method of measuring mental ability is necessary for a better understanding of the pupil. Intelligence tests may be either language or non-language, group or individual.

In choosing an intelligence test for classroom use, it is imperative that the teacher recognizes the ranges of human intellect, the difficulties inherent in evaluative techniques, and the enormous problems involved in identifying precisely the exact nature of intelligence.

Achievement tests. This is the oldest type of test. It attempts to assess what the child has learned rather than his ability to learn. Achievement testing makes it possible to compare local progress with national norms.

A test of this type which has been extensively utilized by SWCEL is the <u>California Achievement Test</u>. Three other tests, the <u>Iowa Tests</u> of <u>Educational Development</u>, the <u>Metropolitan Achievement Tests</u>, and the <u>Stanford Achievement Tests</u> are also highly recommended by many authorities.

Personality tests. Serious problems face the researcher in this area. They are (1) the problem of definition, (2) the problem of instrumentation, and (3) the problem of criterion. Any analysis of pupil or teacher personality must concern itself with the interrelationships which exist between the researcher's definition of the term personality, the instrument he chooses to use to measure personality, and how he chooses to assess effectiveness.

The term personality is an elusive concept; there are profound differences in what is meant by the term. No psychological term seems to be more popular. However, definitions are often contradictory and observations based on one definition may contradict observations based on another definition.

There is much diversity in the ordinary use of the word. Allport extracted almost 50 different definitions which he classified into a number of broad categories. Allport's personal and best known definition is

Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment.

Another issue facing the researcher is the choice of a testing "instrument." Of the scores of instruments available to the researcher, most have been tried in one study or another. However, the data provided by one instrument called a personality test are not necessarily the same as the data provided by another instrument called a personality test, i.e., different instruments may represent different concepts of personality.

Data from self-report instruments are likely to represent a behavioral concept, data from rating scales a social-stimulus concept, data from projective techniques a depth concept.

The use of tests on the basis of availability ("Here's a new test, let's try it on teachers or pupils") rather than on relevant personality concepts ("Are the definitions and measure appropriate to the issue under study?") has led to a "shotgun" type of research yielding outcomes that are often inexplicable. (Getzels and Jackson, in Gagella, Handbook of Research on Teaching.)

Actual sampling of pupils' classroom behavior is usually inconvenient.

It is subject to the inaccuracies of direct question inventory methods and may result either in intentional or unintentional falsification of critical responses.

When classroom observations are conducted, it is imperative that those who do the actual observing are educators thoroughly trained in the use of



the instrument. When judgments of behaviors are to be made, it is essential that inter-rater reliability be established. The primary function of the observer is to serve as an abstractor. Abstraction is necessary because it is not humanly possible to record everything and because abstraction makes the phenomena understandable. This abstractive function of the observer takes the form of coding behaviors as they are observed, and then recording them in categories.

In the fall of 1967, observations were made in the classroom of the experimental and control teachers involved in the Module B study. The observers were certified teachers who maintained an inter-rater reliability of .83.

Interpretation of tests. Interpretation of tests can be considered the most important phase of the testing program. If testing is to be considered a means through which each individual has the opportunity of coming to a fuller realization of himself (and thereby utilizing his abilities to a fuller capacity) the test results will be of vital importance in determining if classroom behavioral objectives have been reached.

To evolve a theory of curriculum development and a method of thinking about it, one needs to ask what the demands and requirements of <u>culture</u> and <u>society are</u>, both for the present and for the future. Curriculum is, after all, a way of preparing young people to participate as productive members of our culture. Not all cultures require the same kinds of knowledge. Nor does the same culture need the same kinds of capacities and skills, intellectual or otherwise, at all times.

Hilda Taba (1962)

ERIC Full text Provided by ERIC

2. Set

Mental set-discrimination
Physical set - receptor set,
and postural set

- 3. Response
 Readiness
 Selection of response
 Imitation
 Gross muscular activity
- 4. Mechanism Response is learned
- 5. Complex overt response
 Resolution of uncertainty
 Automatic performance
- B. Ability to carry a large tray
- 1. Perception
 1.12 Visual
- 2. Set
 - 2.10 Mental set
 2.11 Discrimination
 - 2.20 Physical set
 2.21 Receptor set
 2.22 Postural set
- 3. Response
 - 3.10 Readiness to respond
 - 3.20 Selection of response 3.21 Imitation
 - 3.22 Trial and error
- 4. Mechanism Learned response
- 5. Complex
 - 5.10 Resolution of uncertainty
 - 5.20 Automatic performance

The Schema

The following schema for classification of Educational Objectives in the psychomotor domain is presented with the knowledge that it is still in tentative form and probably needs more research in certain areas. Simpson believes that the schema in its present form will be useful to education. Whether there is sufficient distinction between one catagory

These criteria are extremely important and must be considered if the particular curriculum under development is to have any relevance to those for whom it is designed. Whether we view the role of education as that of transmitting culture, socializing the individual, or reconstructing society, we need to analyze the structure of society in order to determine what the goals and the emphases of education should be. This is particularly necessary in the present-day, rapidly changing, technological society where education plays a role in relation to all areas of the social structure -- social, political, and economic.

The curriculum developer also should have an understanding of the culture and of the personality in culture. He should draw on the work of the behavioral sciences and the disciplines studying culture, because the issues and problems faced by the schools are not wholly rooted in education; they stem from the dynamics and interaction of individuals with their social environment.

The value of the contributions of all of the behavioral sciences cannot be overemphasized. From them we can gain important insights regarding the special tasks schools must accomplish to maximize opportunities for the wholesome emotional and intellectual development of the child.

Theories of curriculum construction, largely based on the psychology of the individual, have led to a disregard of social and cultural influences. The product of laboratory experimentation does not resemble the classroom situation, where learning occurs in a more complex social setting.

The educator must expand his view of the educational process, and incorporate the ideas of social psychology, sociology and anthropology in developing suitable curriculum programs.

It is not the intention of this discussion to downgrade the importance of psychology and learning theory in making curriculum decisions.

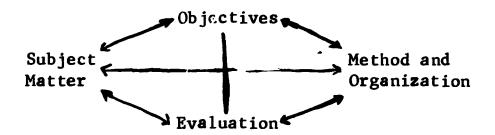
Sound suggestions for curriculum development can be best derived from the combination of psychological principles and carefully researched information about the behavior of the individual in his particular environment.

Knowledge of the learner and the learning process are essential because curriculum basically is a plan for learning. It consists of goals for learning and the means of attaining these goals. As we noted in the sequence of curricular elements, the curriculum plan is a result of decisions concerning: (1) selection and arrangement of content, (2) the choice of learning experiences by which this content is to be manipulated and by which the objectives not achievable through content alone can be attained, and (3) plans for the optimal conditions for learning (Taba 27). Decisions of this magnitude demand adequate knowledge about learners, their development, and learning.

The curriculum should shape the organization of the school and its facilities, rather than vice versa. The functioning curriculum usually is fitted into existing arrangements and is shaped by the limitations of those conditions. However, to be viable and realistic, a curricular design needs to make explicit its relationship to the factors of the instructional resources and school organization

necessary for its implementation.

Another important trend in curriculum development is to apply whole criteria rather than using single elements, thereby enhancing the probability of seeing the relationship of the total criteria to the parts. In the same vein, the elements of the curriculum should be seen as interrelated. Taba ²⁷ presents a paradigm that makes this possible.



This paradigm shows that not only are the elements related, but that decisions concerning one element also influence decisions made on the others.

It seems safe to say that the major trend in curriculum development, regardless of the goals, is one whereby more educators are being involved in the process. Criteria for evaluation of the elements of the curriculum now include more areas of the behavioral sciences. The interrelationships of the criteria are more closely scrutinized as is the impact of one element upon another. More consideration is given the organization and facilities of the particular school where the curriculum will be used after its development.

We must remember that the central purpose of curriculum is the maximization of known resources. A subject is included in the curriculum because it contributes opportunities for developing the skills and

experiences which will help the student achieve the abilities, attitudes, and concepts of himself and of the world that will establish his value to society and to himself.

The basic trend since 1957 is the advocacy of directed change.

This concept embodies the assumption that change should not be equated with chance but with development—that innovation should be linked to long-term goals. The three most important assumptions for the reader are:

- 1. The key to successful innovation is providing assistance to teachers as they implement the adopted program. If attention is given to the teachers by those persons provided to assist them, the teachers are more likely to be successful and more enthusiastic about the innovation.
- 2. The most persuasive experience that can be provided to convince staffs of the value of an innovation is to make provision for them to visit and observe a successful new program. No matter how much is said or written about a new program, it is not as effective in convincing teachers of its value as their seeing it in successful operation in a situation which they can identify as being similar to their own.
- 3. The process of curriculum change contains three steps: innovation, diffusion, and integration. Innovation is developed on the outside and the process just described leads to diffusion and integration.

Finally, there is an obvious distinction between the curriculum

planned for the school and the instructional material actually received by the pupil. An increasing focus on the individual's own curriculum must result in increasing freedom to choose his own learning opportunities. Most curriculum planning has assumed that external motivations and pressures would bring about the same teacher influence on all class members.

Future curriculum development can provide a more complete spectrum of learning opportunities and a better diagnosis of children's motivations and needs. Perhaps we may be able to match learners and opportunities well enough to enable them to achieve at capacity. Goethe's quotation which emphasizes regard for the individual is as pertinent for these ideas as for the self-fulfilling prophecy phenomenon.

Strategies for Curriculum Development

Prerequisites for curriculum development. Before a teacher can develop an effective, meaningful and beneficial curriculum, she must have respect for her pupils and knowledge of their ethnic background. She must know about their home environment, their training history, their culture and their learning styles. She must be aware of their emotional needs and of the conflicts and problems they may face as partice pants in "two worlds" -- the home and the school. She must, in other words, help each child understand or "find himself" as a member of both his ethnic community and the general American society.

From these considerations, a number of implications for curriculum development may be derived. A sensitive teacher will design all areas of the curriculum with an awareness of the many needs of her pupils.

Potential components of most curricular areas. Rather than offering a step by step rationale for teaching in each curriculum area, a general, unified approach will be suggested. This approach is an outline or basic guideline that can be used for any specific curriculum area. Suggested components and a rationale for each will be offered.

There should be clear evidence of its worth and relevance to justify the teaching of any subject matter. It should be meaningful to the child in terms of time and effort and relation to his present and future life.

Before teaching anything, the teacher should have a complete understanding of the curriculum content, and be able to meaningfully integrate it with present knowledge; the instructional material should be appropriate to the child's developmental level, and the teacher should employ vehicles that will help the pupil to discover and integrate new ideas.

These vehicles should include some type of participation by the child. A media presentation might be incorporated. The purpose of this presentation-participation activity is to make vivid the material presented and to integrate it with the child's experience. A curriculum activity may well begin with the presentation-participation activity so the child will become initially interested and involved.

In beginning any curriculum area, the children's interest and attention must first be captured. A good strategy for this is the employment of the "discrepant event," i.e. something discordant and unexpected which does not conform to the child's expectations with reference to his past experience: something unpredictable, surprising, even amazing! The child will become immediately interested, and ask, "How!" "Why?" and will want to pursue the subject further to find the answers. At this point the teacher has the children's attention and interest, and can proceed with the lesson assured that the children are with her.

Cognitive maps. Cognitive maps are comprehensive, general models, outlines -- the overall plan and strategies for developing and presenting a particular curriculum area. They demonstrate the relationships between the content of the curricular area (what is taught), the method of presentation (how it is taught), and the processes by which the pupil receives and integrates the material (how it is learned).

Other cognitive maps will differ from the example below and will



be unique to their own curriculum while still including many of the same basic components. It is important that each cognitive map and each subject taught be understood and planned by the teacher in terms of the learning goals for children and her strategies for teaching them.

Cognitive Map--Activities and Processes

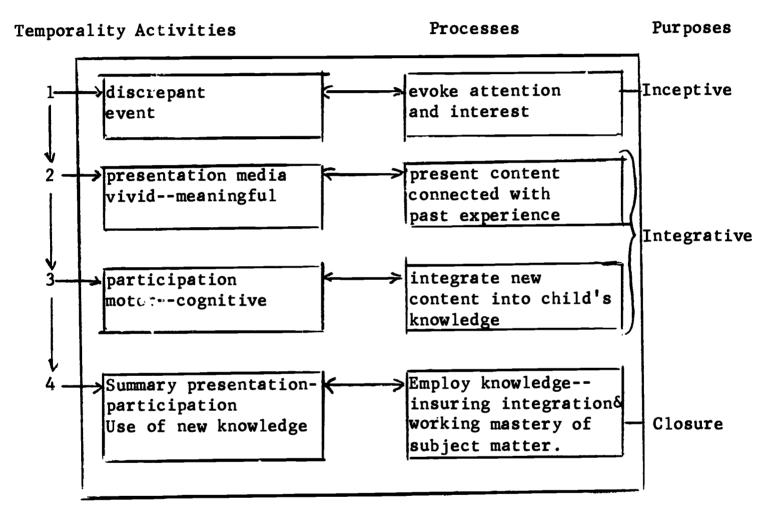


Figure 4

The teacher must know her subject matter goals in order to design an adequate and comprehensive cognitive map. She must be able to state these goals as precisely as possible. She may construct a tentative cognitive map of what is to be presented to guide her in selecting

behavioral objectives, or she may begin with the behavioral objectives and then design a curriculum to meet these goals.

Teacher Evaluation of the Standardized Curriculum Materials

At the end of the school year, the eight Albuquerque Public School-SWCEL, first-grade teachers evaluated the standardized materials they used in their classrooms. The following is a summary of their evaluation.

Reading. Six of the eight teachers had experience using basal reading programs other than Ginn. The general consensus was one of approval. They felt this program was superior to Scott-Foresman and other popular reading programs.

The teachers were particularly impressed by the manuals and their content. As one teacher expressed it, "I have used other programs and I thought to myself, 'why couldn't I have always had Ginn, as it was so much better in layout'."

Concerning the program as a whole, the teachers commented as follows:

"It seems to me that this year--the first year I have used Ginn all the way through--that it takes the children further and faster than Scott-Foresman.

"I have more low ones reading this year than in other years.

"Ginn pre-primers teach the orderly progression better than do many other programs. They introduce a title to each story and have words on each page. It is easy to teach children where the story begins.

"I like the word progression in the primer. It doesn't have all the 'who,' 'what,' 'that,' and 'this' in the same stories right next



to each other. I don't think my kids are having nearly as much trouble as they had in other programs."

The teachers were lather impressed by the supplementary materials produced by Ginn. The teachers' comments on the workbooks probably are best summarized by the following quote, "They have them constructed in a sequence so that there is enough repetition. You can turn to a page and say that we are doing this just like we did another page, but they introduce another new skill so that you are constantly building on what they already know and they will go back and do it."

These teachers also used the "self-helps" and were impressed by the content and skill building. They are arranged both for the rapid and the slow learner.

Phonics. The teachers used the Lippincott, Reading With Phonics, as a basis for a phonics program. The Media Lab made phonics charts from illustrations in the book.

The teacher's manual was judged to be adequate. The children seemed to enjoy the phonics program, although it took them quite some time to get started with it. One must group for this activity as one groups for reading.

<u>Mathematics</u>. The eight teachers all used Addison-Wesely, <u>Elementary School Mathematics</u>, <u>Book I</u>, while the control classrooms used the regular APS adoption, Scott-Foresman. All of the teachers had used the Scott-Foresman series last year also.

In general discussion of the mathematics curriculum, the teachers said. "I think most of the children will be successful in math at the



end of the year." "Well, last year an awful lot of mine were not successful. They couldn't do the pages independently. Last year we did math together and you would be surprised at all the questions the kids came up with, just on one single little page."

In reply to the question: Do you have any idea, or have any opinion concerning slow kids in this program and slow children in Scott-Foresman? The reply in unison was, "We sure do." Cited as reasons were: "Just the page layout makes it easier. It doesn't overwhelm them. With the SF, some of the little children are so busy looking at pictures and trying to figure out what's going on that they never understand that seven minus four is part of the lesson."

According to the teachers, the Addison-Wesely program seems to be developed with provisions for a wide span of abilities in mind. The material is adaptable for different rates of progress.

One feature of the teacher's manual well-liked by the teachers is characterized in this quote: "What has been done in the Introduction for the Teachers section is to alert you to what concepts might be a pitfall or what specifics the children may not understand on a certain page. This gives you an idea of the problems before they develop and a warning of what to expect in the way of problems for those who usually have difficulty."

The consensus was that the children enjoyed the Addison-Wesely book and the majority constantly are looking ahead to work of greater difficulty.

It is interesting to note that no significant difference was found between the experimental and control classes when an analysis of variance was computed using the Lorge-Thorndike I.Q. scores. However, in the computation of analysis of covariance (which equalizes any differences between groups) using the I.Q. scores and the total Arithmetic Fundamentals Subtest scores on the California Achievement Test, a significant difference was found at the .01 level. The mean scores of the experimental classes using the Addison-Wesely programwere higher than the control group using Scott-Foresman. The possibility exists that these differences are due to the mathematics program.

Science. The D.C. Heath Science Program was also looked upon with favor by the teachers, to wit: "The children really like to read from the books. They try to read every page. When we borrow the books they keep them in their desks, which is kind of unusual, and they read them during spare time. They bring them out and start talking among themselves about it."

The material and the concepts presented therein, as well as the teacher's manual, also received favorable comments: "It presents more than what's on the state list for first grade and the children understand it much better when they have finished. I judge this from last year when I didn't have this program. There are lots of books you can do without, but this is one book I think is nice when you have one for each child. The manual is very interesting to read, with lots of information for the teacher."

Social studies. The Albuquerque schools developed a new curriculum in the social studies area. The experimental teachers elaborated upon that framework and used the suggested materials. The Silver Burdett picture packets and the accompanying manuals were judged excellent and well worth having on a one per classroom basis.

This summary of teacher evaluation is presented to give the reader an idea of how the teachers viewed the standardized materials they used in their classrooms during the experimentation. This material provided the basic framework for the curriculum and the behavioral objectives which were developed. Samples of the teachers' lesson plans and a list of the standardized materials used by them appear as Appendix D.

It may be noticed that some of the behavioral objectives are preceded by asterisks. Although a behavioral objective is a test, it was not feasible for the teachers to record each child's performance on the hundreds of behavioral objectives. Therefore, as a group, they agreed upon certain objectives with which they might compare their respective classes. The asterisks indicate which objectives were compared by the teachers. A folder was maintained by each teacher for each pupil in her class. Records of the children's achievements were kept in these folders. In this way they were able to assess the effectiveness of the curriculum, lesson plans, and behavioral objectives. It was found that these seemed to be most appropriate for the children of average abilities.

In the United States, the problem of educational goals is a very complex one. There is little agreement even on what should be taught; far less on how well it should be learned. Almost anything can be found in one curriculum or another--as Martin Mayer (1961) has pointed out, perhaps this is as it should be in a free, mobile society. About all that is agreed to is that we want our educational system to produce good citizens--but we do not define even these. What we expect from our schools is a matter of social and moral values. The psychologist cannot help much in decisions concerning values. He can help only when the goals are stated and when they are stated precisely--hopefully, with objective standards.

B. R. Bugelski (1964)

CHAPTER V

IMPLICATIONS

The implications of this volume for the teacher's classroom practices are many and varied. Some of these are presented here not only as a summary of this volume but also as a bridge to Volume III, Classroom Management.

It is imperative that teachers—and all educators for that matter—become research oriented and develop a sensitivity to the implications of research for classroom practice. In order to do a professional job, one must keep up with the professional literature. It is also impor—tant that teachers engage in research at every opportunity.

There is much research to be done and many things to be refined.

For example: Characteristics and development of learning patterns,
motivational models for specific children, the importance of deprivation,
refinement of measuring instruments, and the significance of early environment continue to be areas of concern. The problem in studying
early years of development has proved to be difficult. Many attempts
focus on child-rearing practices or contact with adults. These probably
are significant factors which affect learning, but it would seem that
a change of emphasis to the actual learning process might be worthwhile.

Another implication, certainly, is that teachers must develop curriculum prescriptions for their particular groups. One prescription will not be adequate or proper for any group other than the one for which it was designed.

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Interwoven with curriculum prescriptions are the taxonomies of the various domains discussed in this volume: cognitive, affective, and psychomotor. These must be used to define the levels involved in the learning tasks. The teacher also must keep in mind the interaction of these domains and how this interaction affects the accomplishment of learning tasks by the students.

A third implication from this material concerns lesson planning. When particular lessons are being designed it is especially important to consider the level of the particular group of students and the taxonomies. Consider, for example, the child who has learned a restricted language code at home. He likely will have difficulty in school where an elaborate code is used and taught by the teacher, and his difficulty is likely to increase as he goes further in school unless he learns the elaborate code that is expected. On the other hand, the child who has had experience with an elaborate language from his earliest years has a relatively easy time in school because he merely goes on developing the kind of tenguage and related thinking he has always used.

The teacher must develop behavioral objectives to accompany the lesson plans. These objectives should describe the <u>nature of the change in behavior sought</u>. Only if this is done, will it be possible to infer what kinds of learning situations need to be established to bring about this change.

Teachers can use behavioral objectives as a guide and as an aid in the selection of processes to attain a measurable goal. In the same fashion, scientists use operational definitions to give words and

processes operational meaning. An operational definition, in the simplest case, is a description of the movements and manipulations performed by an experimenter and the changes in behavior that result. Desire, reward, motives, etc., all can be given surprisingly precise definitions if described in this way. A hungry child, according to an explicit operational definition, is one who has been deprived of food for a period of time after having been on an accustomed meal schedule.

By the same token, an operational definition of the term reward usually states that it is some change in the environment (presenting a child with food, for example) that increases the likelihood of the child repeating the behavior that immediately preceded the reward.

Notice that there is no mention of "something that the child likes" or "something that he wants to get", rather, the definition is explicitly stated in terms upon which agreement can be reached. We may all disagree about what children "like" (unless we operationally define "like"), but most of us can agree that sometimes children repeat an action before it was followed by a reward.

Thus, defining behavioral objectives for classroom use is analogous to the practice of constructing operational definitions in scientific pursuits. Both strip away ambiguity and develop precise, measurable definitions of behavior.

There is another important implication embodied in the above material. If the teacher is eliciting measurable behavior, then, the teacher also must develop mastery tests with which to measure whether or not the

child has achieved the objective. There is no point in eliciting behavior in this fashion without assessment.

To make possible efficient learning in the individual student, a number of types of decisions have to be made. According to Gagne 12 "In the simplest form of the educational system--the student and the teacher at opposite ends of a log--it is evident that all these decisions must be made by that tremendously wise person, the teacher." However, our modern educational systems are very complex and specialized. Educators must look to specialists in the behavioral sciences for aid in making these decisions.

Gagne 12 believes that these educational decisions fall into an order of priority in this fashion:

- 1. Motivation. No set of decisions is more clearly dependent on personal interactions with the student than those concerned with motivation. The establishment and nurturing of personal goals and values, and their relation to more specific motives for achievement, can best be done by a person who occupies a position of authority in the everyday life of the developing individual. Specializing this function in the "guidance specialist" does not appear to be a direction of educational change that is likely to succeed in the long run. Every teacher should be a guidance specialist.
- 2. Transferability of knowledge. Whoever the participants may be, the refinement, qualification, and elaboration of acquired knowledge appears to be a process best conducted by interaction. "The

skillful teacher has learned a variety of techniques for conducting discussion that aid the generalizability of knowledge."

Gagne 12

- 3. Assessment. The teacher should be best equipped to know what questions to ask the student. Teachers need to take a great deal of the responsibility for this function, and need to learn the techniques necessary to perform it well. To some degree, testing is necessarily a specialized function, and testing methods need much further development.
- 4. Conditions for learning. Although the teacher doubtless should continue to have some part in determining the conditions of learning, there is a distinct possibility that <u>predesign</u> of these conditions will be found to be the more efficient procedure for many kinds of content. As a specialized function, the choice of learning conditions often requires the professional knowledge of the learning psychologist.
- 5. The structure of knowledge to be learned. Determining learning structures has been a specialized function in which the teacher traditionally has played a minor role. (Exceptions occur in some instances of college instruction.) Ideally, it would seem reasonable to have the learning structure of knowledge determined by those with professional "content" knowledge working with educational psychologists.

6. Learning objectives. These decisions also are in a sense "specialized" beyond the realm of teacher responsibility. Parents,

scholars and community leaders all have some part to play in stating objectives of instruction. But objectives also must be defined in terms of observable human performances, and this activity requires some psychological knowledge.

It follows in logical sequence, especially after learning the "hows," "whys," and "wherefores" of becavioral objectives in terms of observeable human performances that the reader turn to Volume III, for a specialized discussion of learning theory and classroom management.

Teacher effectiveness in leading the child to demonstrate the desired behavior depends upon his ability to group and apply current, research-based learning theory and to determine its applicability to the particular classroom group with which he is involved. To maximize his effectiveness the teacher should develop a plan of classroom contingency management. These aspects are discussed in Volume III.

But now we have come to the end of our explorations and must somehow make a landing, as far up the beach as possible; there to write our findings in the sand, since we have nothing to carve in stone, our work being merely a prelude to more substantial studies.

Murray (1938)

APPENDIX A

Condensed Version of the Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (from Bloom⁵)

Cognitive Domain

KNOWLE GE

1.00 KNOWLEDGE

Knowledge, as defined here, involves the recall of specifics and universals, the recall of methods and processes, or the recall of a pattern structure, or setting. For measurement purposes, the recall situation involves little more than bringing to mind the appropriate material. Although some alteration of the material may be required, this is a relatively minor part of the task. The knowledge of objectives emphasizes most the psychological processes of remembering. The process of relating is also involved in that a knowledge test situation requires the organization and reorganization of a problem such that it will furnish the appropriate signals and cues for the information and knowledge the individual processes. To use an analogy, if one thinks of the mind as a file, the problem in a knowledge test situation is that of finding in the problem or task the appropriate signals, cues, and clues which will most effectively bring out whatever knowledge is filed or stored.

1.10 KNOWLEDGE OF SPECIFICS

The recall of specific and isolable bits of information. The emphasis on symbols with concrete referents. This material, which is at a very low level of abstraction, may be thought of as the elements from which more complex and abstract forms of knowledge are built.

1.11 KNOWLEDGE OF TERMINOLOGY

Knowledge of the referents for specific symbols (verbal and non-verbal). This may include knowledge of the most generally accepted symbol referent, knowledge of the variety of symbols which may be used for a single referent, or knowledge of the referent most appropriate to a given use of a symbol.

*To define technical terms by giving their attributes, properties, or relations.

*Familiarity with a large number of words in their common range of meanings.

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1.12 KNOWLEDGE OF SPECIFIC FACTS

Knowledge of dates, events, persons, places, etc. This may include very precise and specific information such as the specific date or exact magnitude of a phenomenon. It may also include approximate or relative information such as an approximate time period or the general order of magnitude of a phenomenon.

*The recall of major facts about particular cultures.

*The possession of a minimum knowledge about the organisms studied in the laboratory.

1.20 KNOWLEDGE OF WAYS AND MEANS OF DEALING WITH SPECIFICS

Knowledge of the ways of organizing, studying, judging, and criticizing. This includes the methods of inquiry, the chronological sequences, and the standards of judgment within a field as well as the patterns of organization through which the areas of the fields themselves are determined and internally organized. This knowledge is at an intermediate level of abstraction between specific knowledge on the one hand and knowledge of universals on the other. It does not so much demand the activity of the student in using the materials as it does a more passive awareness of their nature.

1.21 KNOWLEDGE OF CONVENTIONS

Knowledge of characteristic ways of treating and presenting ideas and phenomena. For purposes of communication and consistency, workers in a field employ usages, styles, practices, and forms which best suit their purposes and/or which appear to suit best the phenomena with which they deal. It should be recognized that although these forms and conventions are likely to be set up on arbitrary, accidental, or authoritative bases, they are retained because of the general agreement or concurrence of individuals concerned with the subject, phenomena, or problem.

*Familiarity with the forms and conventions of the major types of work, e.g., verse, plays, scientific papers, etc.

*To make pupils conscious of correct form and usage in speech and writing.

1.22 KNOWLEDGE OF TRENDS AND SEQUENCES

Knowledge of the processes, directions, and movements of phenomena with respect to time.

*Understanding of the continuity and development of American culture as exemplified in American life.

*Knowledge of the basic trends underlying the development of public assistance programs.

1.23 KNOWLEDGE OF CLASSIFICATIONS AND CATEGOREIS

Knowledge of the classes, sets, divisions, and arrangements which are regarded as fundamental for a given subject field, purpose, argument, or problem.

*To recognize the area encompassed by various kinds of problems or materials.

*Becoming familiar with a range of types of literature.

1.24 KNOWLEDGE OF CRITERIA

Knowledge of the criteria by which facts, principles, opinions, and conduct are tested or judged.

*Familiarity with criteria for judgment appropriate to the type of work and the purpose for which it is read.

*Knowledge of criteria for the evaluation of recreational activities.

1.25 KNOWLEDGE OF METHODOLOGY

Knowledge of the methods of inquiry, techniques, and procedures employed in a particular subject field as well as those employed in investigating particular problems and phenomena. The emphasis here is on the individual's knowledge of the method rather than his ability to use the method.

*Knowledge of scientific methods for evaluating health concepts.

*The student shall know the methods of attack relevant to the kinds of problems of concern to the social sciences.

1.30 KNOWLEDGE OF THE UNIVERSALS AND ABSTRACTIONS IN A FIELD

Knowledge of the major schemes and patterns by which phenomena and ideas are organized. These are the large structures, theories, and generalizations which dominate a subject field or which are quite generally used in studying phenomena or solving problems. These are at the highest levels of abstraction and complexity.

1.31 KNOWLEDGE OF PRINCIPLES AND GENERALIZATIONS

Knowledge of particular abstractions which summarize observations of phenomena. These are the abstractions which are of value in explaining, describing, predicting, or in determining the most appropriate and relevant action or direction to be taken.



*Knowledge of the important principles by which our experience with biological phenomena is summarized.

*The recall of major generalizations about particular cultures.

1.32 KNOWLEDGE OF THEORIES AND STRUCTURES

Knowledge of the <u>body</u> of principles and generalizations together with their interrelations which present a clear, rounded, and systematic view of a complex phenomenon, problem, or field. These are the most abstract formulations, and they can be used to show the interrelation and organization of a great range of specifics.

*The recall of major theories about particular cultures.

*Knowledge of a relatively complete formulation of the theory of evolution,

INTELLECTUAL ABILITIES AND SKILLS

Abilities and skills refer to organized modes of operation and generalized techniques for dealing with materials and problems. The materials and problems may be of such a nature that little or no specialized and technical information is required. Such information as is required can be assumed to be part of the individual's general fund of knowledge. Other problems may require specialized and technical information at a rather high level such that specific knowledge and skill in dealing with the problem and the materials are required. The abilities and skills objectives emphasize the mental processes of organizing and reorganizing material to achieve a particular purpose. The materials may be given or remembered.

2.00 COMPREHENSION

This represents the lowest level of understanding. It refers to a type of understanding or apprehension such that the individual knows what is being communicated and can make use of the material or idea being communicated without necessarily relating it to other material or seeing its fullest implications.

2.10 TRANSLATION

Comprehension as evidenced by the care and accuracy with which the communication is paraphrased or rendered from one language or form of communication to another. Translation is judged on the basis of faithfulness and accuracy, that is, on the extent to which the material in the original communication is preserved although the form of the communication has been altered.



*The ability to understand non-literal statements (metaphor, symbolism, irony, exaggeration).

*Skill in translating machematical verbal material into symbolic statements and vice versa.

2.20 INTERPRETATION

The explanation or summarization of a communication. Whereas translation involves an objective part-for-part rendering of a communication, interpretation involves a reordering, rearrangement, or a new view of the material.

*The ability to grasp the thought of the work as a whole at any desired level of generality.

*The ability to interpret various types of social data.

2.30 EXTRAPOLATION

The extension of trends or tendencies beyond the given data to determine implications, consequences, corollaries, effects, etc., which are in accordance with the conditions described in the original communication.

*The ability to deal with the conclusions of a work in terms of the immediate inference made from the explicit statements.

*Ski in predicting continuation of trends.

3.00 APPLICATION

The use of abstractions in particular and concrete situations. The abstractions may be in the form of general ideas, rules of procedures, or generalized methods. The abstractions may also be technical principles, ideas, and theories which must be remembered and applied.

*Application to the phenomena discussed in one paper of the scientific terms or concepts used in other papers.

*The ability to predict the probably effect of a change in a factor on a biological situation previously at equilibrium.

4.00 ANALYSIS

The breakdown of a communication into its constituent elements or parts such that the relative hierarchy of ideas is made clear and/or the relations between the ideas expressed are made explicit. Such analyses are intended to clarify the communication, to indicate how the communication is organized, and the way in which it manages to convey its effects, as well as its basis and arrangement.



4.10 ANALYSIS OF ELEMENTS

Identification of the elements included in a communication.

*The ability to recognize unstated assumptions.

*Skill in distinguishing facts from hypotheses.

4.20 ANALYSES OF RELATIONSHIPS

The connections and interactions between elements and parts of a communication.

*Ability to check the consistency of hypotheses with given information and assumptions.

*Skill in comprehending the interrelationships among the ideas in a passage.

4.30 ANALYSIS OF ORGANIZATIONAL PRINCIPLES

The organization, systematic arrangement, and structure which hold the communication together. This includes the "explicit" as well as "implicit" structure. It includes the bases, necessary arrangement, and the mechanics which make the communication a unit.

*The ability to recognize form and pattern in literary or artistic works as a means of understanding their meaning.

*Ability to recognize the general techniques used in persuasive materials, such as advertising, propaganda, etc.

5.00 SYNTHESIS

The putting together of elements and parts so as to form a whole. This involves the process of working with pieces, parts, elements, etc., and arranging and combining them in such a way as to constitute a pattern or structure not clearly there before.

5.10 PRODUCTION OF A UNIQUE COMMUNICATION

The development of a communication in which the writer or speaker attempts to convey ideas, feelings, and/or experiences to others.

*Skill in writing, using an excellent organization of ideas and statements.

*Ability to tell a personal experience effectively.



5.20 PRODUCTION OF A PLAN, OR PROPOSED SET OF OPERATIONS

The development of a plan of work or the proposal of a plan of operations. The plan should satisfy requirements of the task which may be given to the student or which he may develop for himself.

*Ability to propose ways of testing hypotheses.

*Ability to plan a unit of instruction for a particular teaching situation.

5.30 DERIVATION OF A SET OF ABSTRACT RELATIONS

The development of a set of abstract relations either to classify or explain particular data or phenomena, or the deduction of propositions and relations from a set of basic propositions or symbolic representations.

*Ability to formulate appropriate hypotheses based upon an analysis of factors involved, and to modify such hypotheses in the light of new factors and considerations.

*Ability to make mathematical discoveries and generalizations.

6.00 EVALUATION

Judgments about the value of material and methods for given purposes. Quantitative and qualitative judgments about the extent to which material and methods atisfy criteria. Use of a standard of appraisal. The criteria may be those determined by the student or those which are given to him.

6.10 JUDGMENTS IN TERMS OF INTERNAL EVIDENCE

Evaluation of the accuracy of a communication from such evidence as logical accuracy, consistency, and other internal criteria.

*Judging by internal standards, the ability to assess general probability of accuracy in reporting facts from the care given to exactness of statement, documentation, proof, etc.

*The ability to indicate logical fallacies in arguments.

6.20 JUDGMENTS IN TERMS OF EXTERNAL CRITERIA

Evaluation of material with reference to selected or remembered criteria.

*The comparison of major theories, generalizations, and facts about particular cultures.

*Judging by external standards, the ability to compare a work with the highest known standards in its field--especially with other works of recognized excellence.



APPENDIX B

A TAXONOMY OF EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES

Handbook II The Affective Domain

(A Condensed Version) (from Krathwoh 1^{21})

1.0 RECEIVING (ATTENDING)

At this level we are concerned that the learner be sensitized to the existence of certain phenomena and stimuli; that he be willing to receive or to attend to them. This is clearly the first and crucial step if the learner is to be properly oriented to learn what the teacher intends that he will. To indicate that this is the bottom rung of the ladder, however, is not at all to imply that the teacher is starting de novo. Because of previous experience (formal or informal), the student brings to each situation a point of view or set which may facilitate or hinder his recognition of the phenomena to which the teacher is trying to sensitize him.

The category of <u>Receiving</u> has been divided into three sub-categories to indicate three different levels of attendance to phenomena. While the division points between the sub-categories are arbitrary, the sub-categories do represent a continuum. From an extremely passive position or role on the part of the learner, where the sole responsibility for the evocation of the behavior rests with the teacher--that is, the responsibility rests with him for "capturing" the student's attention--the continuum extends to a point at which the learner directs his attention, at least at a semiconscious level, toward the preferred stimuli.

1.1 AWARENESS

ERIC Full flext Provided by ERIC

Awareness is almost a cognitive behavior. But unlike Knowledge, the lowest level of the cognitive domain, we are not so much concerned with a memory of, or ability to recall, an item or fact as we are that, given appropriate opportunity, the learner will merely be conscious of something-that he takes into account a situation, phenomenon, object, or stage of affairs. Like Knowledge, it does not imply an assessment of the qualities or nature of the stimulus, but unlike Knowledge it does not necessarily imply attention. There can be simple awareness without specific discrimination or recognition of the objective characteristics of the object, even though these characteristics must be deemed to have an effect. The individual may not be able to verbalize the aspects of the stimulus which cause the awareness.

Develops awareness of aesthetic factors in dress, furnishings, architecture, city design, good art, and the like.

Develops some consciousness of color, form, arrangement, and design in the objects and structures around him and in descriptive or symbolic representations of people, things, and situations.*

1.2 WILLINGNESS TO RECEIVE

In this category we have come a step up the ladder but are still dealing with what appears to be cognitive behavior. At a minimum level, we are here describing the behavior of being willing to tolerate a given stimulus, not to avoid it. Like Awareness it involves a neutrality or suspended judgment toward the stimulus. At this level of the continuum the teacher is not concerned that the student seek it out, nor even, perhaps, that in an environment crowded with many other stimuli the learner will necessarily attend to the stimulus. Rather, at worst, given the opportunity to attend in a field with relatively few competing stimuli, the learner is not actively seeking to avoid it. At best, he is willing to take notice of the phenomenon and give it his attention.

Attends (carefully) when others speak--in direct conversation, on the telephone, in audiences.

Appreciation (tolerance) of cultural patterns exhibited by individuals from other groups--religious, social, political, economic, national, etc.

Increase in sensitivity to human need and pressing social problems.

1.3 CONTROLLED OR SELECTED ATTENTION

At a somewhat higher level we are concerned with a new phenomenon, the differentiation of a given stimulus into figure and ground at a conscious or perhaps semiconscious level--the differentiation of aspects of a stimulus which is perceived as clearly marked off from adjacent impressions. The perception is still without tension or assessment, and the student may not know the technical terms or symbols with which to describe it correctly or precisely to others. In some instances it may refer not so much to the selectivity of attention as to the control of attention, so that when certain stimuli are present they will be attended to. There is an element of the learner's controlling the attention here, so that the favored stimulus is selected and attended to despite competing and distracting stimuli.

Listens to music with some discrimination as to its mood and meaning and with some recognition of the contributions of various musical elements and instruments to the total effect.

Alertness toward human values and judgments on life as they are recorded in literature.

2.0 RESPONDING

At this level we are concerned with responses which go beyond merely attending to the phenomenon. The student is sufficiently motivated that he is not just 1.2 Willing to attend, but perhaps it is correct to say that he is actively attending. As a first stage in a "learning by doing" process



the student is (lting himself in some small measure to the phenomena involved. This a very low level of commitment, and we would not say at this level that was "a value of his" or that he had "such and such an attitude." These terms belong to the next higher level that we describe. But we could say that he is doing something with or about the phenomenon besides merely perceiving it, as would be true at the next level below this of 1.3 Controlled or selected attention.

This is the category that many teachers will find best describes their "interest" objectives. Most commonly we use the term to indicate the desire that a child becomes sufficiently involved in or committed to a subject, phenomenon, or activity that he will seek it out and gain satisfaction from working with it or engaging in it.

2.1 ACQUIESCENCE IN RESPONDING

x 70 , 60 7

We might use the word "obedience" or "compliance" to describe this behavior. As both of these terms indicate, there is a passiveness so far as the initiation of the behavior is concerned, and the stimulus calling for this behavior is not subtle. Compliance is perhaps a better term than obedience, since there is more of the element of reaction to a suggestion and less of the implication of resistance or yielding unwillingly. The student makes the response, but he has not fully accepted the necessity for doing so.

Willingness to comply with health regulations. Obeys the playground regulations.

2.2 WILLINGNESS TO RESPOND

The key to this level is in the term "willingness," with its implication of capacity for voluntary activity. There is the implication that the learner er is sufficiently committed to exhibiting the behavior that he does so not just because of a fear of punishment, but "on his own" or voluntarily. It may help to note that the element of resistance or of yielding unwillingly, which is possibly present at the previous level, is here replaced with sonsent or proceeding from one's own choice.

Acquaints himself with significant current issues in international, political, social and economic affairs through voluntary reading and discussion.

Acceptance of responsibility for his own health and for the protection of the health of others.

2.3 SATISFACTION IN RESPONSE

The additional element in the step beyond the Willingness to respond level, the consent, the assent to responding, or the voluntary response, is that the behavior is accompanied by a feeling of satisfaction, an emotional response, possibly of pleasure, zest, or enjoyment. The location of this category in the hierarchy has given us a great deal of difficulty. Just where in the process of internalization the attachment of an emotional response, kick, or thrill to a behavior occurs has been hard to determine. For that matter there is some

uncertainty as to whether the level of internalization at which it occurs may not depend on the particular behavior. We have even questioned whether it should be a category. If our structure is to be a hierarchy, then each category should include the behavior in the next level below it. The emotional component appears gradually through the range of internalization categories. The attempt to specify a given position in the hierarchy as the one at which the emotional component is added is doomed to failure.

The category is arbitrarily placed at this point in the hierarchy where it seems to appear most frequently and where it is cited as or appears to be an important component of the objective at the level of the continuum. The category's inclusion at this point serves the pragmatic purpose of reminding us of the presence of the emotional component and its value in the building of affective behaviors. But it should not be thought of as appearing and occuring at this one point in the continuum and thus destroying the hierarchy which we are attempting to build.

Enjoyment of self-expression in music and in arts and crafts as another means of personal enrichment.

Finds pleasure in reading for recreation.

Takes pleasure in conversing with many different kinds of people.

3.0 VALUING

This is the only category headed by a term which is in common use in the expression of objectives by teachers. Further, it is employed in its usual sense: that a thing, phenomenon, or behavior has worth. This abstract concept of worth is in part a result of the individual's own valuing or assessment, but it is much more a social product that has been slowly internalized or accepted and has come to be used by the student as his own criterion of worth.

Behavior categorized at this level is sufficiently consistent and stable to have taken on the characteristics of a belief or an attitude. The learner displays this behavior with sufficient consistency in appropriate situations that he comes to be perceived as holding a value. At this level, we are not concerned with the relationships among values but rather with the internalization of a set of specified, ideal, values. Viewed from another standpoint, the objectives classified here are the prime stuff from which the conscience of the individual is developed into active control of behavior.

This category will be found appropriate for many objectives that use the term "attitude" (as well as, of course, "value").

An important element of behavior characterized by <u>Valuing</u> is that it is motivated, not by the desire to comply or obey, but by the individual's commitment to the underlying value guiding the behavior.



3.1 ACCEPTANCE OF A VALUE

At this level we are concerned with the ascribing of worth to a phenomenon behavior, object, etc. The term "belief," which is defined as "the emotional acceptance of a proposition or doctrine upon what one implicitly considers adequate ground" (English and English, 1958, p. 64), described quite well what may be thought of as the dominant characteristic here. Beliefs have varying degrees of certitude. At this lowest level of Valuing we are concerned with the lowest levels of certainty; that is, there is more of a readiness to re-evaluate one's position than at the higher levels. It is a position that is somewhat tentative.

One of the distinguishing characteristics of this behavior is consistency of response to the class of objects, phenomena, etc. with which the belief or attitude is identified. It is consistent enough so that the person is perceived by others as holding the 'elief or value. At the level we are describing home, he is both sufficiently consistent that others can identify the value, and sufficiently committed that he is willing to be so identified.

Continuing desire to develop the ability to speak and write effectively.

3.2 PREFERENCE FOR A VALUE

The provision for this subdivision arose out of a feeling that there were objectives that expressed a level of internalization between the mere acceptance of a value and commitment or conviction in the usual commotation of deep involvement in an area. Behavior at this level implies pot just the acceptance of a value to the point of being willing to be identified with it, but the individual is sufficiently committed to the value to pursue it, to seek it out, to want it.

Assumes responsibility for drawing reticent members of a group into conversation.

Deliberately examines a variety of viewpoints on controversial issues with a view to forming opinions about them.

Actively perticipates in arranging for the showing of contemporary artistic efforts.

3.3 COMMITMENT

13 172 1

Belief at this level involves a high degree of certainty. The ideas of "conviction" and "certainty beyond a shadow of a doubt" help to convey further the level of behavior intended. In some instances this may berden on faith, in the sense of its being a firm emotional acceptance of a belief upon admittedly nonrational grounds. Loyalty to a position, group, or cause would also be classified here.

The person who displays behavior at this level is clearly perceived as holding the value. He acts to further the thing valued in some way, to extend

the possibility of his developing it, to deepen his involvement with it and with the things representing it. He tries to convince others and seeks converts to his cause. There is a tension here which needs to be satisfied; action is the result of an aroused need or drive. There is a real motivation to act out the behavior.

Devotion to those ideas and ideals which are the foundations of democracy. Faith in the power of reason and in methods of experiment and discussion.

4.0 ORGANIZATION

As the learner successively internalizes values, he encounters situations for which more than one value is relevant. Thus necessity arises for (a) the organization of the values into a system, (b) the determination of the interrelationships among them, and (c) the establishment of the dominant and pervasive ones. Such a system is built gradually, subject to change as new values are incorporated. This category is intended as the proper classification for objectives which describe the beginnings of the building of a value system. It is subdivided into two levels, since a prerequisite to interrelating is the conceptualization of the value in a form which permits organization. Conceptualization forms the first subdivision in the organization process, Organization of a value system, the second.

While the order of the two subcategories seems appropriate enough with reference to one another, it is not so certain that 4.1 Conceptualization of a value is properly placed as the next level above 3.3 Commitment. Conceptualization undoubtedly begins at an earlier level for some objectives. Like 2.3 Satisfaction in response, it is doubtful that a single completely satisfactory location for this category can be found. Positioning it before 4.2 Organization of a value system appropriately indicates a prerequisite of such a system. It also calls attention to a component of affective growth that occurs at least by this point on the continuum but may begin earlier.

4.1 CONCEPTUALIZATION OF A VALUE

In the previous category, 3.0 <u>Valuing</u>, we noted that consistency and stability are integral characteristics of the particular value or belief. At this level (4.1) the quality of abstraction or conceptualization is added. This permits the individual to see how the value relates to those that he already holds or to new ones that he is coming to hold.

Conceptualization will be abstract, and in this sense it will be symbolic. But the symbols need not be verbal symbols. Whether conceptualization first appears at this point on the affective continuum is a moot point, as noted above.

Attempts to identify the characteristics of an art objectwhich he admires. Forms judgments as to the responsibility of society for conserving human and material resources.



4.2 ORGANIZATION OF A VALUE SYSTEM

Objectives properly classified here are those which require the learner to bring together a complex of values, possibly disparate values, and to bring these into an ordered relationship with one another. Ideally, the ordered relationship will be one which is harmonious and internally consistent. That is, of course, the goal of such objectives, which seek to have the student formulate a philosophy of life. In actuality, the integration may be something less than entirely harmonious. More likely the relationship is better described as a kind of dynamic equilibrium which is, in part, dependent upon those portions of the environment which are salient at any point in time. In many instances the organization of values may result in their synthesis into a new value complex of a higher order.

Weights alternative social policies and their practices against the standards of the public welfare rather than the advantage of specialized and narrow interest groups.

Develops a plan for regulating his rest in accordance with the demands of his activities.

5.0 CHARACTERIZATION BY A VALUE OR VALUE COMPLEX

At this level of internalization the values already have a place in the individual's value hierarchy, are organized into some kind of internally consistent system, have controlled the behavior of the individual for a sufficient time that he has adapted to behaving this way; and an evocation of the behavior no longer arouses emotion or affect except when the individual is threatened or challenged.

The individual acts consistently in accordance with the values he has internalized at this level, and our concern is to indicate two things: (a) the generalization of this control to so much of the individual's behavior that he is described and characterized as a person by these pervasive controlling tendencies, and (b) the integration of these beliefs, ideas, and attitudes into a total philosophy or world view. These two aspects constitute the subcategories.

5.1 GENERALIZED SET

The generalized set is that which gives an internal consistency to the system of attitudes and values at any particular moment. It is selective responding at a very high level. It is sometimes spoken of as a determining tendency, an orientation toward phenomena, or a predisposition to act in a certain way.

The generalized set is a response to highly generalized phenomena. It is a persistent and consistent response to a family of related situations or objects.

It may often be an unconscious set which guides action without conscious forethought. The generalized set may be thought of as closely related to the



idea of an attitude cluster, where the commonality is based on behavioral characteristics rather than the subject or object of the attitude. A generalized set is a basic orientation which enables the individual to reduce and order the complex world about him and to act consistently and effectively in it.

Readiness to revise judgments and to change behavior in the light of evidence.

Judges problems and issues in terms of situations, issues, purposes, and consequences involved rather than in terms of fixed, dogmatic percepts or emotionally wishful thinking.

5.2 CHARACTERIZATION

This, the peak of the internalization process, includes those objectives which are broadest with respect both to the phenomena covered and to the range of behavior which they comprise. Thus, here are found those objectives which concern one's view of the universe, one's philosophy of life, one's <u>Wellanschauung</u>—a value system having as its object the whole of what is known or knowable.

Objectives categorized here are more than generalized sets in the sense that they involve a greater inclusiveness and, within the group of attitudes, behaviors, beliefs, or ideas, an emphasis on internal consistency. Though this internal consistency may not always be exhibited behaviorally by the students toward whom the objective is directed, since we are categorizing teachers' objectives, this consistency feature will always be a component of Characterization objectives.

As the title of the category implies, these objectives are so encompassing that they tend to characterize the individual almost completely.

Develops for regulation of one's personal and civic life a code of behavior based on ethical principles consistent with democratic ideals.

Develops a consistent philosophy of life.



^{*}Illustrative objectives selected from the literature follow the description of each sub-category.

APPENDIX C

THE CLASSIFICATION OF EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES: PSYCHOMOTOR DOMAIN

Need for Classification System for Educational Objectives, Psychomotor Domain

Simpson ²⁶ has made use of the two taxonomies of educational objectives already developed (the cognitive and the affective domains). She and others feel there has been a great need for a classification system for educational objectives in the psychomotor domain, for use in the development of curriculum materials and as a basis for evaluation of educational outcomes.

Simpson believes that the psychomotor domain has relevance for education in general and also for many areas of specialization in secondary and higher education.

A classification system for psychomotor objectives has all of the advantages of the classification systems for the other two domains. It can be helpful in research on teaching for the development of motor abilities and skills. Teachers and curriculum makers can use it in developing materials for classroom use; and test makers can use it to communicate more easily with those they serve. Perhaps the greatest benefit will accrue from rounding out the three domains, and thus will provide for better study of the total field of objectives and the planning of educational programs in response to objectives broadly conceived. Definitions of Terms

 ${\tt Simpson}^{26}$ arrived at certain useful definitions in the psychomotor

domain. These are as follows:

<u>psychomotor</u> <u>objectives</u> - those which emphasize some muscular or motor skill, some manipulation of material and objects, or some act which requires a neuromuscular coordination. These objectives are stated in terms of abilities and skills.

<u>perception</u> - the process of becoming aware of objects, qualities, or relations by way of sense organs.

sensory stimulation - impingement of a stimulus (i) upon one or more of the sense organs.

stimulus - the source of energy which affects a sense organ; what the behavior is responding to in a situation.

<u>cues</u> - a stimulus which serves as a sign or signal of something else, the connection having been previously learned.

<u>visual</u> - concerned with the mental pictures or images obtained through the eyes.

visual cues - color, spatial relations, shape (line, form, size), motion, light and shade.

auditory - pertaining to hearing or the sense or organs of hearing.

auditory cues - volume, pitch, timbre, distance, pattern of sounds.

tactile - pertaining to the sense of touch.

tactile cues - texture, temperature, shape, size, pressure, position, state of motion, weight.

taste - ascertaining the relish or flavor of by taking some into the mouth.

taste cues - saltiness, sourness, bitterness, sweetness

smell - to perceive by excitation of the olfactory nerves.

smell cues - (odors) - ethereal, such as fruity, lemon; fragrance, as violet burned, as tar; putrid, as bad fish; resinous, as pine; spicy, as cloves.

<u>kinesthetic</u> - the muscle sense; pertaining to sensitivity from activation of receptors in muscles, tendons, and joints.

cue selection - deciding what cues one must respond to in order to satisfy the particular requirement of task performance.

reflex action - an act, as a movement, performed involuntarily in consequence of a nervous impulse transmitted inward from a receptor, or sense organ, to a nerve center and outward to an effector, as a muscle or gland.

set - a preparatory adjustment or readiness for a particular kind
of action or experience.

mental set - readiness, in the mental sense, to perform a certain motor act.

physical set - readiness in the sense of having made the anatomical and postural adjustments necessary for the motor act to take place.

emotional set - readiness in terms of attitudes favorable to the motor act's taking place.

translation process - process of relating perception to action.

response - overt behavioral act of an individual.

mechanism - a habitual way of responding.

readiness to respond - set to produce an overt behavioral act.

gross motor acts - those involving the large muscle groups of the body, especially of the shoulders, trunk, and legs.

fine motor acts - those that are performed by small muscles, especially of the fingers, hand and forearm, frequently involving eye-hand coordination.

Examples of Usage

Two examples of what happens in what sequence when one is working toward the achievement of an objective in this domain are as follows:

OBJECTIVE

SEQUEFGE OF ACTION IN CARRYING OUT TASK

A. Ability to stack a tray.

1. Perception

Visual, tactile, and kinesthetic

2. Set

Mental set-discrimination
Physical set - receptor set,
and postural set

- 3. Response
 Readiness
 Selection of response
 Imitation
 Gross muscular activity
- 4. Mechanism Response is learned
- 5. Complex overt response
 Resolution of uncertainty
 Automatic performance
- B. Ability to carry a large tray
- 1. Perception
 1.12 Visual
- 2. Set
 - 2.10 Mental set
 2.11 Discrimination
 - 2.20 Physical set
 2.21 Receptor set
 2.22 Postural set
- 3. Response
 - 3.10 Readiness to respond
 - 3.20 Selection of response 3.21 Imitation
 - 3.22 Trial and error
- 4. Mechanism Learned response
- 5. Complex
 - 5.10 Resolution of uncertainty
 - 5.20 Automatic performance

The Schema

The following schema for classification of Educational Objectives in the psychomotor domain is presented with the knowledge that it is still in tentative form and probably needs more research in certain areas. Simpson believes that the schema in its present form will be useful to education. Whether there is sufficient distinction between one catagory

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and another is still a question. Perhaps additional sub-categories to improve the discrimination are needed for some of the major sections.

The major operative organization principle is that of complexity, with attention to the sequence involved in the performance of a motor act.

1.00 Perception - This is an essential first step in performing a motor act. It is the process of becoming aware of objects, qualities, or relations by way of the sense organs. It is the central portion of the situation - interpretation - action chain leading to purposeful motor activity.

The category of perception has been divided into three subcategories indicating three different levels with respect to perception process. It seems to the investigator that this level is a parallel of the first category, receiving or attending, in the affective domain.

- 1.1 <u>Sensory stimulation</u> Impingement of a stimulus (1) upon one or more of the sense organs.
 - 1.11 Auditory Hearing or the sense or organs of hearing
 - 1.12 <u>Visual</u> Concerned with the mental pictures or images obtained through the eyes
 - 1.13 Tactile Pertaining to the sense of touch
 - 1.14 <u>Taste</u> Ascertain the relish or flavor of by taking a portion into the mouth
 - 1.15 <u>Smell</u> To perceive by excitation of the olfactory nerves
- 1.6 <u>Kinesthetic</u> The muscle sense; pertaining to sensitivity from activation of receptors in muscles, tendons, and joints.

The preceding categories are not presented in any special order of importance, although, in Western cultures, the visual cues are said to have dominance, whereas in some cultures, the auditory and tactile cues may pre-empt the high position we give the visual. Probably no sensible

ordering of these is possible. It should also be pointed out that "the cues that guide action may change for a particular motor activity as learning progresses (e.g., kinesthetic cues replacing visual cues)" /517.

1.1 <u>Sensory stimulation</u> - Illustrative educational objectives.

Sensitivity to auditory cues in playing a musical instrument as a member of a group

Awareness of difference in "hand" of various fabrics.

Sensitivity to flavors in seasoning food.

respond in order to satisfy the particular requirements of task performance.

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This involves identification of the cue or cues and associating them with the task to be performed. It may involve grouping of cues in terms of past experience and knowledge. Cues relevant to the situation are selected as a guide to action; irrelevant cues are ignored or discarded.

1.2 <u>Cue selection</u> - Illustrative educational objectives.

Recognition of operating difficulties with machinery through the sound of the machine in operation.

Sensing where the needle should be set in beginning machine stitching.

Recognizing factors to take into account in batting in a softball game.

1.3 Translation - Relating of perception to action in performing a motor act. This is the mental process of determining the meaning of the cues received for action. It involves symbolic translation, that is, having an image or being reminded of something, "having an idea," as a

result of cues received. It may involve insight which is essential in solving a problem through perceiving the relationships essential to solution. Sensory translation is an aspect of this level. It involves "feedback," that is, knowledge of the effects of the process; translation is a continuous part of the motor act being performed.

1.3 <u>Translation</u> - Illustrative educational objectives.

Ability to relate music to dance form.

Ability to follow a recipe in preparing food.

Knowledge of the "feel" of operating a sewing machine successfully and use of this knowledge as a guide in stitching.

2.0 <u>Set</u> - Set is a preparatory adjustment or readiness for a particular kind of action or experience.

Three aspects of set have been identified: mental, physical, and emotional.

- 2.1 Mental set Readiness, in the mental sense, to perform a certain motor act. This involves, as prerequisite, the level of perception and its sub-categories which have already been identified. Discrimination, that is, using judgment in making distinctions is an aspect.
 - 2.1 Mental set Illustrative educational objectives.

Knowledge of steps in setting the table.

Knowledge of tools appropriate to performance of various sewing operations.

2.2 Physical set - Readiness in the sense of having made the anatomical adjustments necessary for a motor act to be performed. Readiness, in the physical sense, involves receptor set, that is, sensory attending, or focusing the attention of the needed sensory organs and postural set, or positioning of the body.

2.2 Physical set - Illustrative educational objectives.

Achievement of bodily stance preparatory to bowling.

Positioning of hands preparatory to typing.

- 2.3 Emotional set Readiness in terms of attitudes favorable to the motor act's taking place. Willingness to respond is implied.
 - 2.3 Emotional set Illustrative educational objectives.

Disposition to perform sewing machine operation to best of ability.

Desire to operate a production drill press with skill.

- 3.0 Guided response This is an early step in the development of skill. Emphasis here is upon the abilities which are components of the more complex skill. Guided response is the overt behavioral act of an individual under the guidance of the instructor. Prerequisite to performance of the act are readiness to respond, in terms of set to produce the overt behavioral act and selection of the appropriate response. Selection of response may be defined as deciding what response must be made in order to satisfy the particular requirements of task performance. There appear to be two major subcategories, imitation and trial and error.
 - 3.1 <u>Imitation</u> Imitation is the execution of an act as a direct response to the perception of another person performing the act.
 - 3.1 <u>Imitation</u> Illustrative educational objectives.

Imitation of the process of stay-stitching the curved neck edge of a bodice.

Performing a dance step as demonstrated.

Debeaking a chick in the manner demonstrated.

3.2 Trial and error - Trying various responses, usually with some rationale for each response, until an appropriate response is achieved. The appropriate response is one which meets the requirements of task performance, that is, "gets the job done" or does it more efficiently. This level may be defined as multiple-response learning in which the proper response is selected out of varied behavior, possibly through the influence of reward and punishment.



3.2 <u>Trial and error</u> - Illustrative educational objectives.

Discovering the most efficient method of ironing a blouse through trial of various procedures.

Ascertaining the sequence for cleaning a room through trial of several patterns.

- 4.0 Mechanism Learned response h 3 become habitual. At this level, the learner has achieved a certain confidence and degree os skill in the performance of the act. The act is a part of his repertoire of possible responses to stimuli and the demands of situations where the response is an appropriate one. The response may be more complex than at the preceding level; it may involve some patterning of response in carrying out the task. That is, abilities are combined in action of a skill nature.
 - 4.0 Mechanism Illustrative educational objectives.

Ability to perform a hand-hemming operation.

Ability to mix ingredients for a butter cake.

Ability to pollinate an oat flower.

- 5.0 <u>Complex overt response</u> At this level, the individual can perform a motor act that is considered complex because of the movement pattern required. At this level, a high degree of skill has been attained. The act can be carried out smoothly and efficiently, that is, with maximum expenditure of time and energy. There are two sub-categories: resolution of uncertainty and automatic performance.
 - 5.1 Resolution of uncertainty The act is performed without hesitation of the individual to get a mental picture of task sequence. That is, he knows the sequence
 required and so proceeds with confidence. The act is
 here defined as comples in nature.
 - 5.1 Resolution of uncertainty Illustrative educational objectives.

Skill in operating a milling machine.

Skill in setting up and operating a production band saw.

Skill in laying a pattern on fabric and cutting out a garment.

- 5.2 <u>Automatic performance</u> At this level, the individual can perform a finely coordinated motor skill with a great deal of ease and muscle control.
 - 5.2 <u>Automatic performance</u> Illustrative educational objectives.

Skill in performing basic steps of national folk dances.

Skill in tailoring a suit.

Skill in performing on the violin.

Further Considerations

A question that needs further investigation is: Does there perhaps exist a sixth major category which might be designated as the <u>adapting</u> or <u>originating</u> domain? Possibly such a level is needed. At this level, the individual might be so skilled that he can adapt the action in terms of the specific requirements of the individual performer and the situation. He might originate new patterns of action in solving a specific problem. Alternatively, do these activities take place at all levels? Must the individual have attained a high degree of skill in order to adapt and originate?



APPENDIX D

LESSON PLANS

General Comments on Lesson Plan Construction

Continuations of lesson planning on a day-by-day basis become unwieldy and the plans are difficult to use in the classroom. In field trials, the experimental teachers found that a better and more workable method was to divide the curriculum into its various components and plan each component separately on a "sequence" basis. For example, reading, mathematics, social studies, etc., were planned separately and each section was used separately in the classroom. This method allows the teacher greater flexibility and greater ease in handling the lesson plans. Sequential planning by curricular area allows progression without confusion and the pace may be more easily geared to the abilities of the classroom groups.

115/116

STANDARDIZED INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS FOR THE SWCEL FIRST-GRADE CURRICULUM

Language Arts

Follett:

Book A, Spelling and Writing Patterns

Ginn:

Reading Program

Readiness:

Fun with Tom and Betty

Pre-primer: My Little Red Story Book

My Little Green Story Book

My Little Blue Story Book

Primer:

Little White House

First Reader: On Cherry Street

Supplementary Material:

1. Accompanying Workbooks

2. Self-help Activities for Little White House

and On Cherry Street

3. Reading Achievement Tests

4. Teacher's Editions

Lippincott:

Reading With Phonics, Teacher's Edition

Sounds, Letters and Words, Teacher's Edition

Phonics Picture Cards (set of 35)

Merrill:

Seesaw (primer) (one per teacher)

Teacher's Guide to Seesaw

Mathematics

ERIC
Full Text Provided by ERIC

Addison-Wesely: Elementary School Mathematics, Book I

<u>Science</u>

D. C. Heath: Science for Work and Play

Social Studies

Silver Bundett Picture Packets (one per classroom)

- 1. Living in Kenya
- 2., Living in Brazil
- 3. The Earth, Home of People

Silver Bundett Books (one per classroom)

- 1. Pets Around the World
- 2. Fun Around the World
- 3. Homes Around the World
- 4. Schools Around the World
- 5. Work Around the World

Scott-Foresman Book (one per classroom)

At School, Hanna and Hoyt

Beginners Globe

U. S. Map

World Map



PUPIL OBJECTIVES

The child will:

- Pledge to the Flag
- Develop a sense of security and friendship. Opening Songs
- Helpers Chart (once a week) ო
- Health Check.
- Weather Chart
- Calendar
- News Record in complete sentences on the board.
- Read the news with the children.
- Attend to routine classroom duties, e.g., **∞**

lunch count, attendance, etc.

- 1. Stand up straight and tall, face the flag, place his right hand over his heart, and mouth the words of "The Pledge of Allegiance" with the teacher.
 - Mouth or say the words with the teacher. 2. Mouth or say the words with He will sing with the teacher.
- Volunteer for a helping job for one week.
- clean hands, clean ears, clean fingernails, and Pass a health check by having combed hair, clean face.
- Move the turtle's head to the correct weather condition.
- Place the numeral indicating that day's Name the day of the week. (3)

on the calendar.

date

7. State the things he will do during the day, e.g., write, color, work with numbers, sing,

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Revised Draft		
LESSON PLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES	PUPIL OBJECTIVES	REMARKS
IV. Flag	IV. Flag	
Explain to the children how fortunate they are to	1. See "Opening Exercises" cover paper.	
live in America and why they should respect the		
flag. Teach patriotism and respect.		
V. Finger Plays	V. Finger Plays	
	o The obild will demonstrate the	
. 'Three Balls' (stress for afternoon paper).	ne cnila oral and	
2. "Two Turtles" and a Number Finger Game.	and rep.	
(See Poems and Finger Play Folder)		
VI. Rest Time	VI. Rest Time	
Explain to the children that their bodies require	1. The child will put his head down on his desk	
rest, especially after hard work and play.	1691	
Have the children put their heads down on their		
desks for ten minutes.		
VII. Story Time	VII. Story Time	
Read a story (story varies with the school)	1. The child will not disturb the class by talking or moving about.	
	-	

	Revised Draft DAY 1		
+	LESSON PLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES	PUPIL OBJECTIVES	REMARKS
	VIII. Seatwork	<pre>II. Seatwork e child will:</pre>	
`-	1. Fingerplay paper. Drama - ball	 Draw three different sized balls with his crayons. 	
	2. Explain to the children that their names	2. Print his own first name.	
	should be on each paper they turn in, and point		
	out that they should copy from the name tags on		
	their desks if necessary.		
•	IX. Music	IX. Music	
	1. Introduce the "Mulberry Bush Number Song"	"Mulbe	
	(see song folder).	(1) Say and sing the numeral 1.	
12		making a large body movement with hi Imitate the teacher as she faces to uses the paper with the number in f	
4	2. Have the children sing "Pretty Trappings"	2. "Pretty Trappings"	
- +	TE, p. 6, Making Music Your own.	(1) Follow the steady beat of the music by moving the part of the body that the teacher moves, such as the foot, one hand, one shoulder, one eye, and one ear.	
	3. Have the children sing "Mary Had a Little	3. "Mary Had a Little Lamb"	
	Lamb."	(1) Sing with the teacher.	·
		-	
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Revised Draft		
LESSON PLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES	PUPIL OBJECTIVES	REMARKS
X. Closing	X. Closing	
1. Help the children recall the activities of	1. The child will carry the ball paper out of	
the day. Write these activities on the board		
as dictated by the children. Have the children		
take the ball paper home.		
	,	
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		LESSON PLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES	PUPIL OBJECTIVES	REMARKS
	1.	Opening Excercises (see cover sheet)	I. See "Opening Exercises" cover sheet for	
	1.	Pledge to the Flag.	objectives	
	2	Good Morning Song (see Song Folder)	1 - 7.	
	m ·	Health Check		,
	4.	Weather Chart		
	ς.	Calendar		
	.9	News		
	7.	Routine classroom duties, e.g., lunch count,		
	at	attendance, etc.		
12	H	. Seatwork	Seatwor	
26	1.	Ditto - Trace and color paper (see Seatwork	ι, O	
•	FO	Folder - ditto 2)	that is different red. He will stay within the lines.	
	2.	Have children look for something red in the	thing red in the	•
	r V	room and draw it on the back of trace paper.	it on the back of seatwork paper #1.	
	•	(cont'd)		

	DAY 2		
	LESSON PLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES	PUPIL OBJECTIVES	DEMADIVE
	II. Seatwork (cont'd)	II. Seatwork (cont'd)	CANAGAN
	3. Ditto - Trace paper	3. Hold a crayon (without making a fist) and	
	4. Ditto - Red recognition	trace the outline of the cap and ball.	
	5. Have the children fold a large piece of news-		
	print into three sections and draw three balls	crayon to color the flower.	
	(each larger than the other). Have the children	dive evidence of bigger, biggest	
	turn the paper over and write name. (to be kept	each larger than the preceding one.	
	for folder)		
	Materials: Large newsprint		
1	III. Reading		
.27	Reading Readiness Manual no 1 2 3	COVER PAGE The child will:	
		finger.	
		(3) Find pictures of TOM and BETTY. (4) Find the words "TOM" and "BETTY." (5) Find the title, "Fun with Tom and Betty."	
		E 1 Point to TOM, BETTY, SUSAN	
		(2) Tell what the children are doing.(3) Answer questions about the picture.(4) Volunteer to tell the story.	
	(cont'd)	(cont'd)	

OBJECTIVE
TEACHER
AND
PLAN
LESSON

MARKS

•	LESSON PLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES	PUPIL OBJECTIVES	REMAI
	III. Reading (cont'd)	III. Reading (cont'd)	
		(1) Point to the top icture. (2) Answer questions about the picture. (3) Look at picture #2 and follow the above directions.	•
		(1) Show his left and right hand. (2) A volunteer will trace the broken lines on the board. (3) Use his pointer finger totrace from the character to the toy. (4) Answer questions about the action picture.	
	IV. Math	Math	
12	1. Have the children sing "Mulberry Bush Number	The child will: 1. Sing the "Mulberry Bush Number Song."	
8	song" (review of numeral presented the previous		
	day) (see Song Folder).		
	2. Introduce the numeral 2.	2. Skywrite the numerals 1 and 2 (see Day 1 for objectives).	
	V. Rest, Fine Arts and Storytime	V. Rest, Fine Arts and Storytime	
	1. Read a story.	Listen	
	2. Play "Mary Had a Little Lamb." Review	2. Sing "Mary Had a Little Lamb," and Jack and	
	Jack and Jill."		
	(cont'd)	(cont'd)	
		•	

REMARKS	Shut	1 for g the making called	
PUPIL OBJECTIVES	V. Rest, Fine Arts and Storytime (cont'd) 3. Participate in the finger play "Open, them" (see Day 1 objectives). 4. (1) Mouth the song. (2) Sing the song. (3) Move his head, shoulders, knees, and as dictated by the song.	VI. Phonics The child will: 1. Participate in fingerplays (see Day 1 for objectives). 2. Be able to reproduce sounds ', saying the rhyming words. 3. rollow directions from the record by making some of the oral and physical responses called for.	
LESSON PLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES	 V. Rest, Fine Arts and Storytime (cont's) 3. Finger Play - "Open, Shut Them" (fingerplay Folder, fingerplay #4) 4. Sing "Heads, Shoulders, Knees and Toes" (see Song Folder). 	VI. Phonics 1. Review fingerplay "Two Turtles" (see Fingerplay Folder, Fingerplay #2). Introduce fingerplay #3). 2. Leave out rhyming words in: the "Ball" fingerplay, "Jack and Jill," "Humpty Dumpty," "Mary Had a Little Lamb." 3. Play the record - "Listen to This." Use chart.	VII. Writing

Draft

Revised DAY 2

VIII. Social Studies	VIII. Social Studies	REMARKS
Review the rules from Day 1 and add playground	hild will	
rules (see objectives for Day 2).	1. Not throw stones or sand. 2. Not walk in front of the swings, jump out of the swings, stand on the swings, or swing double. 3. Take turns on the playground equipment. 4. Stay in his own play area. 5. Stay away from other classrooms. 6. Not go to the principal's office to tattle.	
VIII. Science Introduce the book - <u>Science for Work and Play</u> .	VIII. Science The child will: 1. Bend down the front cover and press gently with his fingers. 2. Press down the nex few pages with his fingers, working toward the middle of the book. 3. Bend down the back cover and press gently with his fingers. 4. Find the title of the book. 5. Move his finger from left to right under the title. 6. Repeat the title after the teacher.	

Draft

ER Afullfast P			The second secon
JC.	Revised Draft		
	LESSON PLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES	. PUPIL OBJECTIVES	REMARKS
	I. Opening Exercises (routing, "The Mulberry	I, Opening Exercises	
	Bush Song" for number 2 (Song Folder #2) *** 1. Administer the Goodenough Draw-A-Man Test (evaluation)	** 1. The child will draw the best man he can.	•
	II. Seatwork 1. <u>Mitto</u> - Color paper (Seatwork Folder I, Day 3)	II. Scatwork The child will: 1. Trace and color the banana and lemon with a yellow crayon. He will recognize the color yellow and use his crayons correctly by:	
131	2. Ditto - Nursery thyme "Little Miss Muffet"		A PARTY PART
	3. Cut and paste activity	d objects and yellow objects in He will cut out pictures from recognize colors, and manipulate ctly. He will paste the pictures	3. This may be too difficult for the children.
	Materials: magazines larse newsprint	on newsprint.	
*			
1			

	REMARKS			
	PUPIL OBJECTIVES	III. Reading PAGES 4-5 The child will: 1. Place his finger on the first picture. 2. Say the part of the rhyme that goes with the picture. 3. Repeat the above directions for the second, third and fourth pictures. 1. Look at picture 1. 2. Say part of the rhyme which is applicable. 1. Say the entire rhyme. 2. Repeat the rhyme. 3. Listen while the teacher says it again.	The child will: 1. Find his green crayon. 2. Place the green crayon book. 3. Color the apple green (use plastic sheet). 4. Find his red crayon. 5. Place the red crayon beside the red crayon in book. 6. Color the apple red (use plastic sheet.) 7. Find his yellow crayon beside the yellow crayon in the book. 8. Place the yellow crayon beside the yellow crayon in the book. 9. Color the apple yellow (use plastic sheet).	(cont'd)
Revised Draft	l	III. Reading - Readiness Manual, pp. 4-5	Have child cover picture to be colored with a plastic sheet and color on the plastic, following the lines through the pastic. Materials: plastic sheets (8½" x 11")	(cont'd)

ESSON FLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES REMARKS	<pre>and use the concept of "likeness." Look at and name the first object in the</pre>	IV. Math The child will: 1. Answer specific questions to demonstrate how well he understands the concepts. 2. Draw pictures on the blackboard to illustrate the concepts "taller," "shorter," and "bigger." 3. Hold up tall or short objects as directed by the teacher. 4. Hold up small or large objects as directed by the teacher.	V. Rest, Fine Arts and Storytime The child will: 1. Hurry for School (change) **(1) Point to red or yellow crayon at the teacher's desk and have him point id the yellow crayon. Materials: 1. Hurry for School (change) **(1) Point to red or yellow crayon at the teacher's direction id the yellow crayon. Materials: 1. Hurry for School (change) **(1) Point to red or yellow crayon at the teacher's direction id the yellow crayon. Materials:	
FLAN AND	III. Reading, pp. 6-7 (cont'd) 2. Introduce and use the conce		and Story Eresting, creating, creak yellow cress.	

REMARKS			
PUPIL OBJECTIVES	VI. Phonics The child will: 1. Listen for words that rhyme. 2. Say the correct rhyming words.	VII. Writing The child will: 1. Draw large circles. 2. Decorate the circles. VIII. Social Studies	The child will: 1. Mouth the words the teacher says. 2. Hum and then sing the words.
Revised Draft DAY 3 LESSON PLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES	VI. Phonics Rhyming - "One, Two, Buckle My Shoe," "Jack Be Nimble," "Two Little Turtles" (see Fingerplay Folder) Directions: Say known nursery rhymes to class. Have the children say them with you or teach them if they are not known. Leave out rhyming words or repeated refrain. Let the students insert them.	VII. Writing 1. Instruct children to draw circles on large newsprint. 2. Instruct children to decorate circles (goes with "Mulberry Bush Song."	ត្ត <u>រុំ</u>

	REMARKS						
	PUPIL OBJECTIVES	VIII. Science The child will:	 Answer questions about safe places to walk, cross the street, etc. Discuss safety rules he learned before starting school. 	1. Tell how paople take care of themselves. 2. Answer questions the teacher asks.		 X. Closing The child will: 1. Clean out his desk. 2. Arrange materials neatly. 3. Put crayons in the box, etc. 	
kevised praft	LESSON PLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES	VIII. Science	uss safety on 25-27.	2. Discuss family life.	IX. Art, Music, P.E none	X. Closing - routine 1. Instill responsibility for the care of the room and their own materials. 2. Help children evaluate the day's activities	

	REMARKS		•			
	FUPIL OBJECTIVES	I. Opening Exercises	1. The children will skywrite the numberal 3 with the teacher.	<pre>II. Seatwork The child will: 1. Put an X on the object that is different.</pre>	2. Use his green crayon to color the leaves green.	
ft	LESSON FLAN AND LEACHER OBJECTIVES	I. Opening Exercises - See opening exercises folder	1. Introduce number 3 to tune of 'Mulberry Bush" song.	II. Seatwork ** 1. Ditto - 4d - Likenesses and differences **	(Seatwork folder I, #4) (save in folder) 2. Ditto - Introduce word "green"	

	REMARKS																	
	PUPIL OBJECTIVES	II. Seatowrk (Cont'd)	5. Creative - Children will:	(1) Make a big green tree.	Cut out a			A		III. Reading	The child will:	Answer que	1s different. 2. Use a crayon and make an X on the object that is different on top of the pastic	cover.	GE 10 Listen to	the first verse te pointer finger	and move picture.	4. Act out and sing the first four verses.
:	LESSON PLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES	II. Seatwork (cont'd)	5. Creative -	(1) On newsprint, have the children make a big	green tree.	(2) On another sheet of newsprint, have them make many red apples.	(3) Have them cut out and paste apples on tree	(Ditto - Likeness and differences - Supplementary	Readiness Material Folder #4)	III. Reading - Fun with Tom and Betty, pp.8-13	Manual, pp. 94-108							

FUPIL OBJECTIVES III. Reading (cont'd) TE 104-105, SE 12 & 13 PAGE 12 1. Draw a line under the like objects in each row. 2. Visually discriminate between concrete objects of different sizes (e.g. chalk, bedairs, paper, books, etc.). 3. Walk to, sit in, pick up, or write with the above concrete objects as indicated by the teacher. PAGE 13 1. Find the first picture in the top row with his finger (not thumb) and tell what the dog is doing. 2. Draw a line (not a circle) under the dogs that are alike. 3. Do the same for the next three rows - with teacher direction for each row. 4. Put their markers under the first row.	
111. R 111. R PAGE 12 1. Drag 2. Viss 3. Wall abo tea tea dog 4. Put	
Revised Draft DAY 4 LESSON PLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES III. Reading (cont'd)	

REMARKS			
PUPIL OBJECTIVES		V. Rest, Fine Arts, Storytime Walk, turn back, skip, and hop as the poem "New Shoes" indicates (at least walk).	
Revised Draft DAY 4 LESSON PLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES	y School Mat about many pp. 1 - 2. y look throu	V. Rest, Fine Arts, Storytime Dramatization on Safety at Corners "New Shoes", p. 60, book <u>SEESAW</u>	

	Revised Draft			
7	LESSON PLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES PUPIL OBJECTIVES			REMARKS
140	ics - Read discrimina sound Loo sound Loo children Fawords the vith and sir hands firen come the words.the	sound	Stress of the circle.	stem and
	write Aa on tablet paper.			
		,		
		•		

REMARKS	·		
PUPIL OBJECTIVES	VIII. Social Studies The child will: 1. Tell the teacher and the class, the people or members of the school that they might see on their school walk (custodian, P. E. instructor, secretary, nurse, principal). 2. Need not speak in complete sentences or accurate grammar, but will convey the thought about the above item.		IX. Art The child will: 1. Cut the corners off 5" squares of red, yellow and green paper. 2. Paste the red, yellow and green circle on a piece of paper. 3. Use small amount of paste.
LESSON PLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES	VIII. Social Studies Plan walk around the school. Talk about the members of the school family (people to look for around the school).	VIII. Science - none	TX. Art Directed activity - read poen "Traffic Light" (see poem folder), (TE for Reading Rendiness Program, pp. 89-90). Have children make a traffic light, putting in red, yellow and green from construction paper. Display traffic lights in room. X. Closing

	ECTIVES REMARKS	tions (skywrite for Helpers Chart.	l. This activity may be delayed if necessary. after looking at the shapes by following seconds on the	the object that is different ind Jill.	t (see objective	(cont'd)
	PUPIL OBJECTIVES	 I. Opening Exercises The child will: 1. Mimic the teacher's motions (skywrite number 4) 2. See opening exercises for Helpers Channel 	 II. Seatwork 1. Ditto The child will: (1) Color shapes from ditt (2) Paste shapes on paper pattern on the board. (3) Cut and paste correct the pattern next to the board. 	2. Ditto - (1) Put an X on the object tha in each row. 3. Ditto - (1) Color Jack and Jill.	III. Reading PAGES 14-15 The child will: 1. Tell the story in sequence. 2. Progress from left to right on Day 3, A2). 3. Describe action pictures.	- -
Revised Draft	DAY 5 LESSON PLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES	I. Opening Exercises - see folder song verse4 of 'Mulberry Bush Song"1. Helpers Chart.	<pre>II. Seatwork (see Seatwork Folder I, Ditto #5) 1. Ditto - Eye-hand coordination: The teacher will draw the following pattern on the board: red yellow green</pre>	2. Ditto - Visual Discrimination 3. Ditto - nursery rhyme	III. Reading R. R. book - pp. 14, 15, 16, 17. Read pp. 18- 19	(cont'd)

		REMAKKS				·		
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		FUPIL OBJECTIVES	III. Reading (cont'd) PAGES 15-17 The child will:	(1) Mark the animal in the <u>first</u> row that makes the sound the teacher is imitating. (2) Mark the animal in the <u>next</u> row that makes the sound the teacher makes. (3) Mark the animal in the <u>last</u> row that makes the sound the teacher makes.	 (1) Name the animals on the page. (2) Find the animal that lays eggs. (3) Put an X on the object that is different. (4) Find the first, second, third and fourth row. 	 IV. Math The child will: 1. *Draw lines to show one-to-one correspondence. 2. *Show that the set of bees is equivalent to the set of flowers by drawing lines. 		
	Revised Draft		III. Reading (cont'd)	The teacher will imitate the sounds of speci- fied animals.		<pre>IV. Math The teacher will discuss sets and one-to-one correspondence. Workbook, pp. 3-4 . *Teacher will keep this page for folder.</pre>	V. Rest, Fine Arts and Storytime The teacher will read to the class.	
: EF	II RÎC				to a single chart	143	***************************************	

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PUPIL OBJECTIVES	Phonics child will: Put his finger on	3					Say the name of the letter a.							Go to the board and draw	tne words that begin with a.	Write A and a on primary manuscript paper.		
	VI. The			-	-		۲,	,	_		_			က်		4.		
LESSON PLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES	VI. Phonics - Reading with Phonics 1. Auditory discrimination: Listening Game 2,	p. 4. The teacher will have the children watch	her lips as she reads words from p. 4 of Reading	with Phonics. If teacher says a word that does	begin with a, the children put a finger on their	lips.	2. Visual discrimination: p. 5 of Reading	with Phonics. The teacher will talk about the	a sound, showing the phonetic picture card -	APPLE. Children tell words that begin with a.	The teacher will write the words beginning with	a that the children tell her, plus words that	do not begin with a on the board.	. 3. Children go to the board and draw an apple	beside the words that begin with a.	4. Children write As on tablet paper.	Materials: Primary manuscript paper.	
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REMARKS	•				
PUPIL OBJECTIVES	VII. Writing - The child will write short slant lines on one space, small circles one space and straight line 2 spaces in form of traffic light:	VIII. Social Studies The child will: 1. Walk through the school. 2. Dictate experience chart by telling what he saw. 3. Read the story with the teacher.	 IX. Science Children will tell: 1. What happened when the dolls in the wagon went down the board. 2. Why the standing doll fell out. 3. What experiences occur in a family car when the driver makes a fast stop. 4. Why seatbelts are used. 		
LESSON PLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES	VII. Writing - Practice circles, slanted lines and straight lines in shape of traffic light.	VIII. Social Studies Take a trip through school to familiarize child- ren with school facilities. Make an experience chart. Pupils dictate story which the teacher writes on the board and later copies onto chart paper for future reading.	TX. Science Page 3 in student's book. Science for Work and Play TE 28 Experiment, "How to find the answer to a problem."	X. Art, Music, P. E none	XI. Closing

Note that the following the following continuing the following fol	REMARKS					-		3. Add additional review as necessar			4. Children may ne				• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •					
Exercises - General routine her will add verse 5 to the ong. k (see Seatwork Folder I, dittos 6) icute (large paper) Readiness - Discrimination review of the three colors pre- ht (red, yellow, green) (folder) out and coloring of circles. sand Betty, pp. 20-23 (cont'd)		Opening Exercises child will:	Skywrite the numeral 5	T	urd wi	*Unerline and color the two pictures in	v that a	Solor green	words.	Seatwork (PM)) Color the circles.(2) Cut out the circle nstruct bracelets, headbands, a necklace.	Reading (AM)	5 2	Name the children Point to filip and	22	oint to the first picture in the ame the character in the picture	raw a line under the picture that show Susan will make. He will do this for	in the next two	(cont'd)	
	LESSON PLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES	ing Exercises - General rou	ine teacher will add verse 5 to thmetic song.	Seatwork (see Seatwork Folder I, dittos	picute	*Ditto - Readiness -	. Ditto	viously taught (red, yellow, green) (folder)					with Tom and Betty, pp.		·				(cont'd)	

		REMARKS										,
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				that ar row	n are a lestion.	and third teacher.	·	ms, a	e four ne	e from i is) se, one	(P	
		IVES		ture in each row that in that particular row		second, and third so by the teacher.	•	of items, of four	with th With o	ard and choose fire a set which is (five rabbits) 1, e.g., choose, carrots in all.	(cont'd)	
· September 1		PUPIL OBJECTIVES		that pa	(train) that the childre is the conductor taking to a teacher-directed qu	•	dotted matching lines.	collection to the set	rasers eraser	oard an ts a se (five rd, e.g		
ا الإسراق معالمات الإسراق الإسراق		PUPIL	-	pictur ter in	ain) the the conc a teach		matchi	large col	four etch one	lannelb f objec ven set nnelboa	lines.	
Salah Sa			(FM)	under the picture in the character in that		finger on the when directed	1 dotted	from a large collection is equivalent to the set	the set of four erasers with the He will match one eraser with one front of the class.	up to the flannelboard and choose collection of objects a set which int to the given set (five rabbits) id on the flannelboard, e.g., choos or each rabbitfive carrots in al	the dotted	
جامعين ۾ ۾ ايڪا ماهي جو جو ان ساه			Reading (PM)	it t	Name the toy ing with. Say that Tom		Math 5 child will Trace the	lect fra	ב ב	ne up collent lent red c	+	
the state of the state of			III. R	PAGE 23 Draw a lin tells what	PAGE 20 3. Name playing 4. Say ticket i	PAGE 21 Put his picture	IV. M. PAGE 5 The chill Tree	PAGE 6 1. Select set which i	erasers. 2. Matc pencils.	3. Come up a large colequivalent displayed carrot for	4. Tr	
		TVES	<u> </u>									•
		AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES					*	teacher will work on one-to-one correspond, using concrete objects, e.g., erasers, ils, flannelboard, children, rabits, etc.		(cont'd)		-
		TEACHER						on one-to-one correspects, e.g., erase children, rabits,		Ď		The State of
		ONY N						on one-tobjects,		·		
		LESSON PLAN	(cont'd)				and 6	work or rete ob board,				
							pp. 5 4	ner will work one concrete ob flannelboard,				Company of the state of the sta
		/ised Draft 7 6	Reading				IV. Math Workbook,	മ വ				***************************************
		Revi DAY	II.	*				The ence				A contract of
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		REMARKS	·		
		PUPIL OBJECTIVES	IV. Math (cont'd) PAGE 6 (cont's) 5. Draw a carrot for each of the other rabbits. 6. Draw a matching line between the rabbits and the carrots. 7. Fulfill the same objective as listed in box 2, substituting different objects.		VI. Phonics PAGES 8-12 The child will: 1. Name things that begin with "e" 2. Raise his hand when he hears a word that begins with "e." 3. Go to the list of words on the board and underline the "e" sound in words that begin with "e" 4. Write "Ee" on primary lined paper.
	Revised Draft	LESSON PLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES	IV. Math (cont'd)	V. Rest, Fine Arts and Storytime (teacher's decision)	With Phonics Reading with Phonics, pp. 8-12 Ee The teacher will talk about the e sound with the children, showing the phonetic picture card for e-ELEPHANT. The teacher will write "e" words the children give her on the board. The teacher will read a list of words from the board and supplement it with the word list on page 9 of Reading with Phonics TE.
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^ FullTex	t Provided by ERIC				

		REMARKS															
and the state of t		PUPIL OBJECTIVES							£							•	
では、大きなできない。 かくの 変更を表現を受ける 大きない はない ないない ないかい はんしょう かいしゅう しゅうしゅう しゅう		LESSON PLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES		VII. Writing The child will	Make big ci	Make three columns down the circles:		paper 3	2 2 3		1"				·		
The state of the s	Revised Draft DAY 6	LESSON PLAN AND	VII. Writing	The teacher will give the children practice in	making circles on large lined chart paper which has	been cut into fouths. Make th	and three or four rows across.	Materials: large lined chart paper		VIII. Science	Film "Safety To and From School"	IX. Art, Music, P.E.	X. Closing				
ER Full tax t Pro	IC			.						 V Pa Auditoria		L49	•	 			

REMARKS		•	
PHPTL OBJECTIVES		II. Seatwork The child will: 1. Color the two pictures that are alike. 2. * (1) Cut and paste the color word "RED" under the word "RED" in the first column. (2) Cut and paste the color word "YELLOW" under the word "YELLOW" in the second column. (3) Cut and paste the color work "GREEN" under the word "GREEN" in the third column. 3. Match the animals by drawing a line from the heads to the correct animal.	III. Reading (AM) The child will: 1. Name the animals. 2. Name the food the animals are eating. 3. Draw a line under the right picture. 4. Draw lines to match pictures that belong together. 5. Sing the "Farm Song" and act out the motions. 6. Show how a pony's feet might sound as he walks, trots, and gallops. (cont'd)
Revised Draft DAY 7 TESCON DIAN AND TEACHED OR TECTIVES	outine)	 Seatwork (see Seatwork Folder I, #7) Ditto - Readiness Discrimination *Ditto - Color words (save poorer papers for folder. Ditto - Matching of head to animal Ditto - Nursery rhyme - "Hey, Diddle Diddle" 	<pre>III. Reading Fun with Tom and Betty, pp. 24-29 Manual, pp. 128-132 ."Farm Song," TE, p. 131 (cont'd)</pre>
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Revised Preft		
LESSON PLAN AND TRACHER OBJECTIVES	PUPIL OBJECTIVES	REMARKS
III. Reading (cont'd)	III. Reading (PM)	
Teacher's manual, p. 141 - say the rhyme and	1. Put his finger on the first picture. 2. Say the name of the Mother Goose rhyme that goes with that picture. 3. Say the rhyme. 4. Say the rhyme with the other children. 5. Say the words that rhyme. 6. Put his finger on the second picture and repeat steps 2, 3, 4. and 5. 7. Continue in the same manner with the third and fourth pictures. 8. Supply missing word.	•
leave out the word to be supplied by the children.	9. Skip, gallop, hop and jump to the 'Mother Hubbard" chant.	
IV. Math Workbook seatwork, p. 7 - matching, equal sets, use of the word rather than the sign. Workbook seatwork, p. 8. Add number 6 to the number song ("Mulberry Bush" tune)	The child will: 1. Draw lines to match the objects in the sets (1-to-1 correspondence). 2. Count the objects in the sets to see if each set has the same number. 3. Draw a set that has the same number of objects as the given set in the space opposite the given set. He will draw lines to match the two sets in a 1-to-1 correspondence. 4. Sing the "Mulberry Bush" song and skywrite the numeral. 6. 5. Sing and skywrite all numerals previously learned.	

•	rn.	VII. Writing (Directed Activity) The child will: Ditto (see Seatwork Folder I, #7) Repeat the 1. Trace the patterns with his finger.	rite these words on the board as well as words	nd show the Phonetic Picture Card for "e" words	Talk about the Ee sound with the children 1. Name things that begin with the sound "e."	/ised Draft ? 7		REWARKS	Phonics Cuild will: Name things that begin with the sound	Revised Draft DAY 7 LESSON FLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES V. Rest, Fine Arts and Storytime (Teacher's decis Select a story to read. VI. Phonics NI. Phonics Reading with Phonics, pp. 8-12 1. Talk about the Ee sound with the children
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	FUPIL OBJECTIVES	NETAKKS	complete sentences it his teacher.			
		VIII. Social Studies	The child will: 1. Express himself in cogiving information about			
Revised Draft	DAY 7 LESSON PLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES	VIII. Social Studies Reread Day 5 experience chart	Read "At School," pp. 17-18 1. Develop an experience chart on "Our Teacher." 2. Begin Fair Unit.	IX. Art, Music, P.E none	X. Closing (routine)	

Revised Draft		
8 LESSON PLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES	PUPIL OBJECTIVES	REMARKS
 Opening Exercises "Mulberry Bush Number Song" - number 7 (see Song Folder) 	1. Opening Exercises See Opening Exercises Folder 1. The child will skywrite the numeral 7.	
 Seatwork (see Seatwork Folder I, dittos #8) Ditto - coloring of Little Bo Feep Picture of teacher Ditto - completion of picture Favorite part of "The Three Bears" 	II. Seatwork The child will: 1. Color Little Bo Peep without scribbling. 2. Draw his teacher. 3. Draw the missing part of the pictures with a crayon. 4. Draw his favorite part of "The Three Bears."	
Reading Readiness, pp. 30-33	III. Reading The child will: PAGES 30-31 1. Tell the name of the fairy tale presented on these two pages. 2. Find the first picture in his book. 3. Say the names of the bears. 4. Say and point out which bear is the biggest, the smallest and in-between. 5. Take the parts of the characters in the story of "The Three Bears."	
(cont'd)	(cont'd)	

LESSON PLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES	PUPIL OBJECTIVES	REMARKS
III. Reading (cont'd)	III. Reading	
	PAGE 32 1. Point to the pictures that belong to the story of "Goldilocks." 2. Say that the other two pictures go with the stories "Little Red Riding Hood" and "The Three Little Pigs."	·
	PAGE 33 1. Point to the first picture. 2. Say whether the pictures are funny and why.	
IV. Math	Math	
Workbook, p. 9	The child will: PAGE 9	Some groups may take more pages if ready.
	the room.	
	room.	
	vice versa). how many more boys there are than	
	ls (or Draw 1	
•	set of seals. 6. Not connect one seal with two balls (or	
	vice versa). 7. Draw matching lines in the two remaining boxes.	
V. Rest, Fine Arts and Storytime (Teacher's		
decision)		

The same

	REMARKS			-	ing day.									4. This activity may be too difficult			
	PUPIL OBJECTIVES	VI. Phonics	The child will:	1. Name things that begin with "o" as in	ostrich.					Raise his hand when he hears a w	does begin with the "O" sound as in ostrich.	the the things and the	present at the beginning of words.	4. Write "O" and "o" on primary paper.			
	Revised Draft DAY 8 LESSON PLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES	VI. Phonics	Reading with Phonics, pp. 15-17	1. The teacher will talk with the children	about the "o" sound and show the Phonetic	Picture Card on "o" - OSTRICH. Have the	children name things that begin with ""." List	the "o" words given by the children on the	board.	2. Read the list of words from the board and	supplement this list with the word list on page	15 of Reading with Phonics TE.	Materials: Primary Manuscript paper.				
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	KEMAKKS			
		VII. Writing 1. Make circles and sticks and decorate by putting faces on them.	VIII. Social Studies The child will: 1. Dictate what the custodian does at school. 2. Read, with the teacher, the story the class has written.	
Revised Draft DAY 8 LESSON PLAN AND TRACHER OR TECTTURS		VII. Writing 1. Making and decorating of faces. Demonstrate by doing one with class: Materials: chart paper with widely-spaced lines.	VIII. Social Studies Read pp. 28-35, At School 1. Develop an experience chart about the custodian.	

PUPIL OBJECTIVES	box of toys.	not be moved.	gon and pull it across									
ana	II. Science e child will; Try to move a heav	Tell why the box of Tell how the box of	4. Put the toys in a wagon the room.			•			•			
d Draft LESSON PLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES	Science ment:	box full of blocks or books moved to	another part of the room, being sure to keep a	nearby. Encourage the children to	suggest and try out ways to move the box.	the children have experimented, ask the	children to state in their own words the pro-	ways to overcome the problem, and what	ave learned (the use of wheels).	Art, Music, P.E none	Closing	

	DAY 9 LESSON PLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES	PUPIL OB JECTIVES	REMARKS
	I. Opening Exercises (see Opening Exercises Folder) "Mulberry Bush Number Song" (see song Folder)	 Opening Exercises The child will: Sing Verse 1 of "America." Sing the "Mulberry Bush" song for number 8 and skywrite the numeral. 	
	 Seatwork (see Seatwork Folder, dittos #9) Ditto - blue flower to color. 	II. Seatwork The child will:	
		(1) Find the blue crayon (the one that matches the blue color the teacher holds up). (2) Outline the flowers with blue crayon and color the flowers blue. (3) Trace the dotted lines with blue crayon in order to write the word "blue."	
1	2. Picture of custodian.	2. Use his crayons to draw the custodian's picture.	
59	3. Ditto - classification of animals.	 Classify animals by cutting and pasting (e.g., all monkeys together). 	
	4. Illustration of "Monkeys and Crocodile" (read during Fine Arts).	4. Draw the two parts of the poem.	· •

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	LESSON PLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES			PUPIL OBJECTIVES	3 JECTIVI	ES			REMARKS	RKS
	III. Reading	III. Reading	(AM)							
	Readiness Book, pp. 34-39	e child	1:							
		1. Name the c	objects in the objects	the are		ow. (sound alike)	ike).		٠	
		Say	word	80.		"pan."				
		Name Say	the pictures in t the rhyming words.	he	second	row.				
		Name Say	the objects in	in the last words in the	ist row.	row.				
		PAGES 36-37								
		Point to	the first	pict	•					
		2. Name the	people in box	box			نشدن د التو			•
		ו דעד	רווב	dren are	gorng.					
		III. Reading	(PM)							•
16		PAGES 38-39 1. Circle the	e one that	įs	ferent	different with crayon	ayon.			
0		on plastic.					· ·			
	IV. Math	Math				·			,	
	Workbook, p. 10	Ine child will 1. Draw lines third rows (on	<pre>111: nes to match (one-to-one (</pre>	h sets corre	in second spondence)	id and				
	V. Rest, Fine Arts and Storytime		•							
	Read poem "The Monkeys and the Crocodile" (see	,								
	poem folder)									
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		REMARKS															·		-
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		LOEIT	egin w	his lip		on prin						te circ	nart p bjects						
				er on with	on the	and "o"						will: crayon to make circles,	primary chart paper, ecorate objects based						
			Phonics child will: Name things that	is finger on begins with	with "%"."	"0" an					ing	will cray	nd d						
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	OBJECTTVES			and a	OSTRICH	the board.	en Sul	ွတ					tand	√ 3					
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	TEACHER		1	the "o"	for '	name on	s 15 of	itch te		: paper			sic						
	AND		p. 15-17	about 1	re Caro	ldren 1	on page	lren wa		manuscript		es.	q qgno.	#O A	newsprint				•
	ON PLAN		Phonics, pp.		Pictu	the children name	of words on page 15	as children watch teacher'		y manu		figures.	go thr	0, V,		ies	Fair		•.
	:t LESSON		s Phon	Talk with the children	Phonetic Picture Card for "ö"	things th	st of v	TE		primary	80	. 0 / 1	Have the children go through	e.g., 0	unlined	1 Studies	the		
	d Draft		VI. Phonics Reading with	vith tl		the thi	the list	with Phonics		lals:	Writing	Talk -	he chi	•	818:	Social	Day at		
	Revised DAY 9		VI. I	Talk ,	show the	List t	Read t	with 1	lips.	Materials:	VII.	Chalk	Have t	decorate	- Materi	VIII.	Film -		
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REWARKS							
PUPIL OBJECTIVES	I. Opening Exercises	1. Sky write the numeral 9.	II. Seatwork The child will:	1. Read the color words and color the picture accordingly. *2. Draw lines to match the shapes that are alike. He will color shapes that are alike.	3. Cross out the picture in each row that is different.	III. Reading PAGES 40-41 The child will: 1. Place the word card "TOM" under the picture of Tom: 2. Tell what Tom is using to clean his wagon. 3. Tell why Tom is wearing rubbers. 4. Tell each thing he sees in the picture of Tom. 5. Use his pointer finger to trace the lines forming the word "TOM."	(cont'd)
Revised Draft DAY 10 LESSON PLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES	I. Opening Exercises	Add number 9 of "Mulberry Bush Number Song" (see Song Folder)	<pre>II. Seatwork (see Seatwork Folder #2, dittos #10)</pre>	1. <u>Ditto</u> - color paper *2. <u>Ditto</u> - Matching shapes (Place in child's folder)	3. Ditto - Finding things that are different.	III. Reading TE, pp. 163-165, pp. 40-41 Read the poem "The Red Wagon," p. 165	(cont'd)
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	LESSON PLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES	PUPIL OBJECTIVES	REMARKS
	III. Reading (cont'd)	III. Reading	
	TE, pp. 166-170, pp. 42, 43	PAGES 42-43 1. Move his hands from left to right under the pictures. 2. Say the boy's name (Tom) that begins with the consonant "t" as in tack, tail, tent and top. 3. Say the names of the pictures in the box under the "table." 4. Say the names of the pictures in the box under the "turkey." 5. Point to each picture as he says the matching word.	
164	IV. Math TE, p. 22, pp. 11-12	IV. Math PAGES 11-12 The child will: 1. Draw matching lines (one-to-one correspondence). 2. Tell which set has more pictures. He will tell how many more pictures it has. 3. Draw a kite for the extra child. 4. Draw lines to match the pictures at the bottom of the page. 5. Tell which set has more pictures. He will tell how many more pictures it has. 6. Draw one more object.	
	V. Rest, Fine Arts and Storytime (Teacher's decision)		

ERIC Prull Task Provided by ERIC			
	Revised Draft DAY 10	•	
	LESSON PLAN AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES	PUPIL OBJECTIVES	REMARKS
	VI. Phonics -Uu	Phonics	
	Talk with the children about the "u" sound and	e child will: Name things that begin with "u."	
	show the Phonetic Picture Card of "u" -	Kalse nands when he hears word	
	UMBRELLA. List the things the children name	Go to board and underline thund in words that have it.	
	on the board. Read the list of words from the	4. Write capital and small "u" on manuscript paper.	
	board and supplement it with the word list on		
	page 17 of Reading with Phonics TE as children		
	put heads down and listen.		
	VII. Writing (directed)	VII. Writing	
. 1	Pupils have big chart paper the size of their	The child will:	
.65	desk.		
	1. Have the children draw circles and sticks as	1. Draw circles and sticks on lined chart paper.	
	follows:		
	2. Have the children write the word "TOM" on	2. Write the word "TOM" on chart paper.	
	chart		
	Materials: chart paper (size of children's		
	desks)		•

Revised Draft DAY 10 LESSON PLAN AND TRACHER OR TECTTIVES	ממעדיים אם דדמות	i o
es	Studies	
1. Help the children establish what types of	hild will ame items	
items will be in the fair exhibit for the		
rooms, e.g., food, flowers, hobby equipment,	(2) flowers (3) hobbies	
etc., and what items the children think are		
needed. Remind the children to bring items		
tomorrow.		
VIII, Science		
Dramatize getting ready for school. Have	e child will: Act out his ways of getting read	
various children act out ways of "getting	2. Manipulate the flannel cut-outs in the proper sequence.	
ready." Use the cut out doll and an appropriate		
setting for the five main aspects of the		
routine. Use flannel cut-outs and the flannel		
board after the following concepts have been		
established:		
getting up		
getting washed		
(cont'3)	(cont'd)	

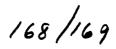
	REMARKS					-					
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R. The Persons Referred Comments of the Comment of	SE								nt o ur		
	BJECTIV								the words in th the record. with the record. such the recast complete se		
	FUPIL OBJECTIVES								ay with with ing		
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		Science						v	ldren ls wil ldren ldren t clo		
		VIII. Sc						Music	The The The The The The The Cre		
E STEEL					<u> </u>			Ä	1. 2. 2. 4. 5. 4. 5. 4. 5. 4. 5. 5. 5. 5. 5. 5. 5. 5. 5. 5. 5. 5. 5.		
T PASSAGE.	AND TEACHER OBJECTIVES										•
M. T. W.	CHER OB										
Real Services	ND TEAC				·		ıts		m ė.		
See See See						board	cut-outs		Ξ.		·
Printers Resident	EESSON PLAN	Science (cont'd)	sed	fast	th	Flannel board	Flannel		Music Your Own TE, - "The Green Dress"		
क्षा क्षा करते हैं। इस्ते क्षा करते के किस्ते के क	Revised Draft DAY 10	Scien	ng dressed	eating breakfast	ing teeth		•	Music	Σ.	Closing	
27.43	Revise DAY 1(VIII.	getting	eating	brushing	Materials		IX.	Making	X C]	•
n	4									· · · · ·	

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172/173

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