DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 034 411   EM 007 574

AUTHOR   Conte, Joseph M.; Grimes, George H.
TITLE   Media and the Culturally Different Learner.
INSTITUTION   National Education Association, Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE   69
NOTE   47p.
AVAILABLE FROM   National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth
                  Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036 (Stock No.
                  381-11930, $1.00)

EDRS PRICE   EDRS Price MF-$0.25 HC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS   Culturally Disadvantaged, *Disadvantaged Youth,
                  English (Second Language), *Environmental
                  Influences, *Instructional Media, Language
                  Laboratories, Language Standardization,
                  Microteaching, Nonstandard Dialects, Oral
                  Communication, Simulation, *Sociolinguistics, *Urban
                  Language, Urban Schools, Visual Perception

ABSTRACT
             Not all poor people live in cities, but as the
problems of those who do are intensified by the urban press, the
needs of the urban poor of all racial and cultural backgrounds
deserve emphasis. The children of these poor are oriented to the
physical and visual rather than to the aural. They are
content-centered, problem-centered, externally oriented, inductive,
spatial rather than temporal, inclined to communicate through actions
rather than words, short in attention span, characterized by
significant gaps in learning, and lacking experiences of receiving
approval for success in tasks. One solution to the needs of these
learners is the language laboratory which teaches standard English as
a second language. Further oral language programs serve as the
underlying base for the development of reading and writing skills.
Microteaching, interaction analysis, and simulation sensitize
teachers to the problems of these learners by providing feedback and
insights into the procedures and consequences of instructional
decisions. The only positively significant means found so far of
sensitizing the learner to a non-distorted view of the nature and
operation of a pluralistic society is proximity to middle class
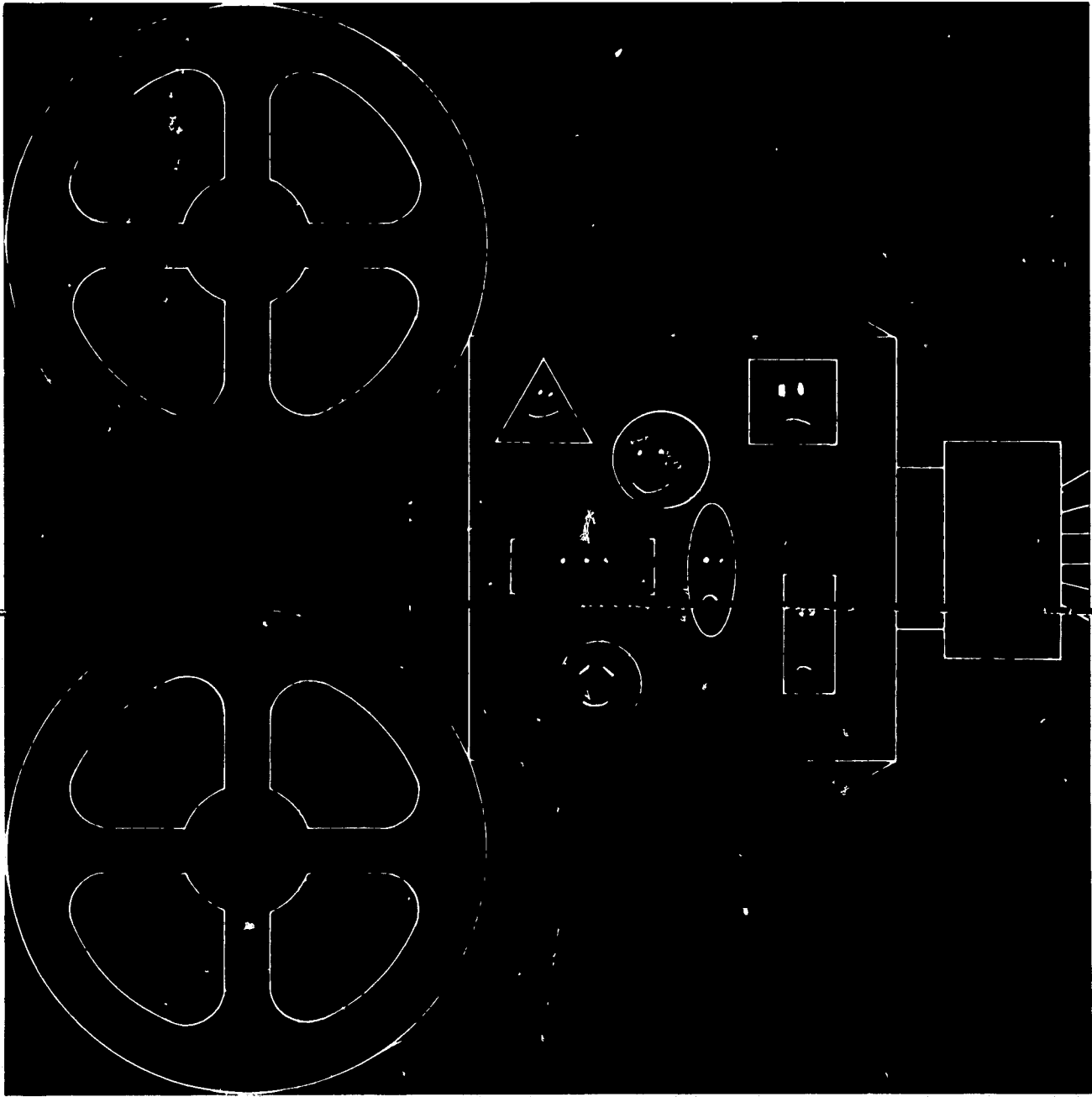students. A bibliography of resources is appended. (MM)

MEDIA AND THE CULTURALLY DIFFERENT LEARNER

E 0034 411

MEDIA AND THE CULTURALLY DIFFERENT LEARNER

ED034411

Joseph M. Conte
Associate Professor of Education
La Verne College
La Verne, California

George H. Grimes
Supervisor
Curriculum Laboratories
Detroit Public Schools
Detroit, Michigan

Library of Congress Catalog Card No. 75-104387

CONTENTS

FOREWORD

Improving the character and quality of education offered in the schools of our large urban areas represents one of the greatest challenges facing America today. Report after report has documented the failure of our schools to teach the children of the urban poor the skills, knowledge, and concepts they need to survive in America's technological society. A serious burden of responsibility rests with all concerned Americans, educators and non-educators alike, to provide the poor and powerless the kind of education that will give them an equal chance in society.

We feel that *Media and the Culturally Different Learner* will greatly contribute to the efforts of those who are daily trying to improve urban schools. It is unique in that it includes not only a survey of current literature about the learning characteristics of the culturally different, but also suggestions for change and actual examples of programs which are being implemented in the schools. It is an attempt to correlate research and programs, theory and practice.

Media and the Culturally Different Learner is a joint publication of the NEA's Division of Educational Technology and NEA's Project URBAN.

We feel that this document will be useful to all those concerned about the use of media in the urban schools: teachers, administrators, publishers, and producers.

<div style="text-align: right">

George W. Jones
Director
Project URBAN
National Education Association

Anna Hyer
Executive Secretary
Division of Educational Technology
National Education Association

</div>

POINT OF VIEW

The purpose of this booklet is to provide information about the effective use of educational media with the children of the poor. Many labels have been applied to these learners recently. "Disadvantaged," "socially or culturally deprived," and "culturally different" seem to be the most prevalent descriptive terms. For purposes of general orientation and set, the authors accept the statement that the urban socioeconomically disadvantaged are those who live in a big city and have very little money (Keil, 1966). It is fully recognized that not all poor people live in the cities, but as the problems of those who do are intensified by the urban press, this booklet shall emphasize the needs of the urban poor of all racial and cutural backgrounds. It is also assumed that the milieu of the economically disadvantaged is not particularly desirable, but it is often all that the individual ever experiences (Rainwater, n.d.). This is not a positive situation, and the purpose of formal educative processes, such as the school, is seen as the provision of the necessary intellectual knowledge and saleable skills to enable the learner to live a meaningful, productive life in a pluralistic American society. It is critical, however, that the personal integrity and self-worth of the individual be maintained and indeed promoted throughout this process.

While the broad American middle class stands accused of perpetuating and maintaining lower-class status for vast numbers of culturally different persons, particularly members of the black minority (Kerner, 1968), it must also be recognized that the children of the white middle class are culturally deprived in a very real sense. In many cases they are nurtured in and limited to an unrealistically all-white world (Citron, 1969). The children of the more affluent are, therefore, deprived of an accurate view of the nature and operation of a pluralistic society. A concomitant purpose of formal education,

5

therefore, should be the creation of a realistic point of view for middle-class learners regarding the personal worth, value, and positive contributions of all groups as well as recognition of the limiting factors imposed on those members of our society identified as being economically disadvantaged.

In order to show the positive relationship of educational media to effective learning for the children of the poor, a two-stage exploration is provided as a preface to a listing of informational resources which can be used for further exploration and study. Chapter I details the learning characteristics as derived from current literature. Examples of some tentative media-based solutions to the educational problems of the poor are also given. Chapter II goes into more depth regarding the use of media for the benefit of economically disadvantaged learners in the instructional situation. The balance of the booklet is devoted to a listing of resources which expand and extend consideration of the uses of media with inner-city learners and other economically disadvantaged learners for further personal exploration and action.

Joseph M. Conte
Associate Professor of Education
La Verne College
La Verne, California

George H. Grimes
Supervisor
Curriculum Laboratories
Detroit Public Schools
Detroit, Michigan

Chapter One
THE LEARNING CHARACTERISTICS OF THE CHILDREN OF THE CULTURALLY DIFFERENT

Descriptive Characteristics of Children of the Poor

If the central fact regarding the children of the poor is their lack of even basic economic resources, what are the generalized characteristics attendant to this situation? Specifically, what are the learning characteristics of the poor? Several authors have cataloged the aggregate nature of economically disadvantaged learners as derived from research and observation. Most accountings include indications that they are—

1. Oriented to the physical and visual rather than to the aural.
2. Content-centered rather than form-centered.
3. Externally oriented rather than introspective.
4. Problem-centered rather than abstract-centered.
5. Inductive rather than deductive.
6. Spatial rather than temporal.
7. Slow, careful, patient, and persevering (in areas

7

of importance) rather than quick, clever, facile, and flexible.

8. Inclined to communicate through actions rather than words.
9. Deficient in auditory attention and interpretation skills.
10. Oriented toward concrete application of what is learned.
11. Short in attention span, experiencing attendant difficulty in following orders.
12. Characterized by significant gaps in knowledge and learning.
13. Lacking experiences of receiving approval for success in tasks (Riessman, 1962; Blank, 1968; Cheyney, 1967).

Particular strengths include—

1. Experiencing family cooperativeness and mutual aid.
2. Involvement in less sibling rivalry than in middle-class families.
3. A tendency to have collective (family and group) rather than individualistic values.
4. Being less susceptible to status and prestige factors; therefore, being more genuinely equalitarian in values.
5. Accepting responsibility at an early age.
6. Possessing superior coordination and physical skills.
7. Being physically and visually oriented.
8. Relating well to concrete experiences.
9. Having a lack of learning sets (Riessman, 1962; Bushnell, 1968; Eisenberg, 1967).

Life-Styles

The fairly discrete characteristics listed above speak to the components of the economically disadvantaged stu-

dent's learning pattern, but what of his overall life-style? One description of the life-styles of the urban ghetto delineates three broad categories of economically disadvantaged survival strategies. The first is the strategy of the expressive life-style. In this style individuals develop an exploitative approach toward others by which they seek to elicit rewards and support by making themselves interesting and attractive. They are thus better able to manipulate other people's behavior in ways to provide some personal gratification. When the expressive strategy fails, a strategy of violence may take its place, where others are forced by various means to give what is desired. If neither of these approaches is successful, a depressive strategy may be adopted in which goals are increasingly reduced to the bare necessities for survival, not as a social being, but simply as an organism (Rainwater, n.d.).

The role of verbal acuity has been noted as a coping device by several observers (Horton, 1968; Kochman, 1969; Wellman, 1968). Nine types of persuasive talking alone, which are used in the inner-city ghetto, have been identified by one researcher (Kochman, 1969). Each of these styles has its own distinguishing features of form, style, and function; each is influenced by, and influences, the speaker, setting, and audience; and each sheds light on the black perspective and the black condition.

Moving away from the cities, the Indians of the Southwest are described as being in harmony with nature, living in the present time, aspiring to the old ways, working to satisfy present needs, sharing material goods, maintaining unhurried schedules, having nonscientific explanations of behavior, being cooperative rather than competitive, and seeking group rather than individual sanctions. Spanish-Mexican Americans have the same general approach to life except that they feel subjugated to nature rather than in harmony with it, aspire to balance work and rest, and stress humility rather than

9

cooperation and obedience rather than group sanction (Zintz, 1963; Watson, 1969).

Self-Concept

One of the ongoing abuses that the economically disadvantaged person faces, particularly if he is black, is the daily insult. All men see themselves as a part of some larger group, and each national group has some image of itself. Americans generally share a national image of wealth, power, and success, but what of the black American? In many ways, both overt and subtle, the black American is reminded daily that he is less than a full partner in the national ethic. Even the terminology by which black Americans are known is negative: nonwhite. They are not white (Bourgeois, 1968). Job discrimination, housing segregation, minority-segregated schools, and obvious tensions in personal contacts with whites are daily reminders of imposed or implied inferior status.

Economically disadvantaged children, particularly black economically disadvantaged children, have a low self-image (Radin, 1969). The cumulative effect of poor environment, low measures of intellect and achievement, and resulting personality disorders make for a disoriented concept of self among disadvantaged children (Cheyney, 1967). Furthermore, parents tend to agree with the teacher's predictions when the child's self-concept is inferred or assumed to be low (Campbell, 1967). A negative self-concept is reinforced by failure in school, early dropping out from school, lack of employment opportunity, unwed motherhood, and delinquency (Kvaraceus, 1964).

One of the major reasons for the development of low self-images is the "self-fulfilling prophecy." This phenomenon is based on two assumptions: first, that making a definition about a situation is also making a prophecy about it; second, that making a prophecy about a situation is also a way of creating the conditions through

10

which the prophecy is realized. Thus, if it is projected that a youngster cannot learn, he will not learn. If he is of a particular social class and it is determined by those in authority that that is all that he can become, that is probably all that he will achieve (Rosenthal and Jacobson, 1968; Palardy, 1969; Thomas, 1931).

Language

Disadvantaged children seem to be more flexible and expressive with language, often using visual images. They use words in a different way and are not as dependent on words for their sole form of communication. Disadvantaged children are not as restricted by verbal forms of communication, but tend to permit language to interact more with nonverbal means of communication, such as gestures and pictures (Taylor, 1962). Specific characteristics of the economically disadvantaged learner related to language usage are that they—

1. Use a smaller number and variety of words to express themselves. They speak in shorter sentences.
2. Use a much larger proportion of incomplete sentences.
3. Use a smaller proportion of mature sentences with compound, complex, and elaborate constructions. They tend not to elaborate their ideas.
4. Commit more errors such as verb and subject's not being in agreement, colloquialisms and slang, omission of auxiliaries, wrong word order, and misuse of prepositions (Whipple and Black, 1966).

It has also been pointed out that the disadvantaged—

1. Understand more language than they use.
2. Use a great many words with fair precision, but not those words representative of the school culture.
3. Are frequently crippled in language development because they do not perceive the concept that ob-

11

jects have names and that the same objects may have different names.

4. Tend to limit their use of language to express concrete needs.

5. Learn less from what they hear than do middle-class children (Black, 1966).

Evidence from Great Britain also indicates that disadvantaged learners in that country use a much more restricted linguistic code than do their middle-class and upper-class countrymen (Bernstein, 1965).

Reasons for the Learning Characteristics of Culturally Different Learners

Environment

Two general societal factors seem to be responsible for the growing concern with economic deprivation as a factor in school learning. First, as school attendance approaches 100 percent of the school-age population, the schools draw increasingly from the socioeconomically disadvantaged groups. Second, there has been a rapid migration to our great industrial cities, both from rural areas of the United States and from other countries: Negroes and Puerto Ricans in the East; Spanish-Americans, Mexicans, and Indians in the Southwest; and marginal farmers and poor mountain whites everywhere (Taba, 1966). Those groups which come to the urban centers, in particular, find extremely crowded tenement apartments, high rates of unemployment, chronic economic insecurity, a disproportionate number of broken families, and continual exposure to varying degrees of denigration and social ostracism. The educational level of adults is normally quite limited, and the child is exposed to a minimum of direct contacts with the central channels of white middle-class culture. The conditions of social inequality, the absence of an accessible oppor-

tunity structure, and the frequent nonavailability of successful adult male models create an atmosphere not conducive to individual development (Deutsch, 1967). It has been shown that there is a direct correlation between income and lower scores on almost all performance indexes, i.e., IQ, achievement, and grades. In addition, general health is poorer (Sexton, 1961).

The pathology of the slum and ghetto worlds is highly disturbing both to the middle class and to people who must live in it. The essential difference is that lower-income people are forced to live in an environment which produces deprivation and restricted opportunity (Rainwater, n.d.).

According to the most intensive analysis of the environmental factors which affect learning achievement on the part of racial and ethnic groups, the only variable which produces effect is proximity to middle-class students (Coleman and others, 1966).

Heredity

The predominant role of environment as a major causative factor related to deprivation has gone relatively unchallenged until very recently. The effect of heredity has been recently posited as a major reason for the constant difference of 15 points between the average Negro and average white IQ. It is pointed out, however, that the full range of human talents is represented in all major races of man and at all socioeconomic levels (Jensen, 1969). It has also been stated that the IQ differences within a given race greatly exceed differences between races (Pettigrew, 1964).

According to Jensen's analysis, the major difference in attainment occurs at the cognitive level. Disadvantaged learners tend to do well in tasks involving rote learning, but suffer when required to employ abstract reasoning. Much exploration needs to be carried out re-

13

garding the effect and nature of genetic differences and gene pools before a truly definitive picture of the nature–nurture relationship can be seen.

The Middle-Class Model and Its Perpetuation by Mass Media

Mass media, particularly television and radio, constantly reinforce middle-class values and priorities. The cultural-minority group member is, therefore, continually exposed to the fact that the qualities of mastery of nature, future time preference, success orientation, hard work, frugality, aggression, personal self-realization, and punctuality are the norm (Leighton, 1968). It should be recognized that respect for law, esteem for education, gainful employment, and the additional factors mentioned above are not the exclusive property of the middle-income class, but are to be found among the upper-lower-income and the upper-income classes as well. Consequently, the image of a small, solidly entrenched social group foisting its view upon a huge, unwilling majority is a distortion (Freedman, 1969). It is also a distortion that most poor people reject middle-class values. Evidence seems to indicate that economically disadvantaged people do aspire to the manifestations of higher status and apparently only reject them when they are perceived as inaccessible (Minuchin and others, 1967). Additional data, however, also indicate that lower-income people believe more of what they see on television as being a credible representation of reality than do middle-income people (Gray, 1969; Maccoby, 1951). It is doubly important, therefore, that the mass media present an accurate reflection of the real values and operations of the predominant culture together with a realistic presentation of the skills and attitudes associated with it.

A concomitant responsibility of mass media is to represent the values and contributions of minority group culture in true perspective.

14

Some Tentative Media-Related Solutions to the Needs of the Culturally Different Learner

In view of the learning characteristics, life-styles, self-concept needs, and language usage of the poor, what are some possible media-related approaches to help satisfy the needs of these learners? Four areas of activity with definite potential for meaningful results shall be explored. The next chapter will deal with preparation for, and selection and utilization of, media for the benefit of the children of the poor. Comments relevant to the importance of teacher attitudes in all instructional activities will also be included.

Sociolinguistics and Oral Expression

A major area of deprivation, as indicated in the previous section, is that of language usage (Bromwich, 1968). Almost no other factor, with the possible exception of skin color, identifies one's social class as distinctly as one's language patterns (Baratz, 1968, 1969). There also seems to be a significant relationship between reasoning ability and reading achievement (Karlin, 1969). Up to fairly recent times, the language patterns of the disadvantaged have been considered to be basically inferior to those of the middle class. The emerging view, however, is that while differences in language certainly exist, the differences are systematic ones carrying no particular positive or negative value. Sociolinguists see each language variant as a distinct dialect. In this view, every child achieves a basic mastery of his own dialect well before he comes to school. He is, therefore, capable of expressing anything that is important to him to the people in his speech community. In this process he speaks his dialect grammatically. Each dialect, therefore, has its own integrity because it is an internally consistent language system (Goodman, 1969a, b). The difficulty comes when communicating with a person who is express-

ing himself in another dialect, whether it be lower-, middle-, or upper-social class or regional in nature. The critical point is that since each language dialect has its own integrity, no one should be ashamed or defensive about his particular usage, and his self-esteem should certainly not be challenged because of it. It should be recognized, however, that there are more generally accepted dialects for particular purposes. Just as there are commonly utilized international languages (French and English), there is a standard and business language. The earliest exploration in the area of sociolinguistics adopted mediated techniques developed for teaching foreign languages to teaching the standard English dialect as a second language (Golden, 1967). In essence, language laboratory techniques were utilized to teach standard usage. This approach provides the educationally disadvantaged learner with the linguistic tools needed to cope with the educationally advantaged milieu without running the risk of alienating him from his cultural community by being "different." More recently the language laboratory approach has been used to teach standard English as a second language to those speaking a completely foreign language, such as Spanish-Mexican Americans.

A broader aspect of sociolinguistics is growing emphasis on oral language programs for cultural-minority learners. The relationship between oral language (speech, listening) and written language skills (reading, writing) is a vital one. Oral language development, according to research, serves as the underlying base for the development of reading and writing achievement of students.

Facility in oral expression, notably vocabulary knowledge and an understanding of sentence structure, is also basic to the development of reading comprehension (Mackintosh, 1964). In order to promote oral expression, therefore, such activities as role playing, dramatic play, and storytelling are employed. Recordings, tape recordings, radio, and television are also used to build vocabulary and listening skills. The physical and visual format

16

of the room is also important in providing a relaxed classroom atmosphere where children are free to speak and ask questions without fear (Monaster, n.d.).

Sensitizing the Teacher

Knowledge of one's self is truly prerequisite to effective teaching. Technology has provided several direct, immediate, and personal techniques for obtaining feedback on the teaching art. Microteaching and interaction analysis are among the available approaches which produce teacher performance data for examination by individuals themselves or peer groups. The knowledge thus gained can be utilized to improve teaching strategies and tactics and to better define and achieve instructional goals. A third approach which puts the teacher in a relatively real circumstance, where insights into the procedures and consequences of instructional decisions can be gained, is simulation. All of these approaches have real potential for use with those teaching, or preparing to teach, the disadvantaged. Any teacher not only has to perfect his teaching styles and techniques but also to seek to meet the particular needs of the learner, whether he be teaching in the inner city, outer city, or suburb. This process can be a particularly trying experience for the inner-city teacher if he has a firm middle-class orientation or is threatened for various reasons by the characteristics and values of the disadvantaged.

Microteaching is real teaching, but scaled down. This system is designed to concentrate on the development of particular teaching competencies. Using videotape equipment, a 4- or 5-minute teaching encounter is recorded. Concentration is on a particular concept or technique. During the playback of the videotape, the teacher alone, or with a colleague or supervisor, can analyze the performance. The concept can then be retaught and analyzed again until satisfactory performance is attained (Allen and Bush, 1964).

17

Interaction analysis is a system for analyzing the manner in which a teacher uses his verbal behavior as an instrument of influence in the classroom. Verbal behavior is categorized according to a 10-point classification. Verbal interaction is recorded every three seconds and the tabulations are entered into a 10 x 10 matrix which is used as the basis for analysis (Flanders, n.d.; Flanders and Amidon, 1962). Codification of nonverbal behavior is also possible (Galloway, 1966). Technology can be used to tape record the verbal behavior for codification in those circumstances where a human observer would produce interference, where specific reference is desired between the coding and the actual verbal interaction, and for verification. Computer technology can also be utilized to transfer the coding to the matrix for analysis, usually a time-consuming manual task (Smidchens, 1968).

Simulation is an approach designed to make the teacher or preteacher more sensitive to the kinds of problems confronted in the real classroom. The program may be made up of a series of interrelated visual, verbal, and role-playing incidents which require real decisions on the part of the teacher. Films, slides, records, transparencies, and audio and video recordings may be used to present the simulated situation. Responses to these situations can then be shared, and the resulting discussion should lead to greater sensitivity to what teaching involves (Cruickshank, 1969).

Sensitizing the Student

As cited earlier, the only positively significant variable isolated by an intensive study of environmental factors which affect the achievement of socioeconomically disadvantaged learners is proximity to middle-class students. It was also stated in the "Point of View" section that economically advantaged students suffer from a distorted view of the real nature and operation of a pluralistic society. Therefore, shared-experience programs should

seemingly have high priority as potential solutions to the learning needs of both groups of students.

One such program is the JET Project which is being carried out cooperatively by California State College at Los Angeles and Locke High School of Los Angeles (California State College and Locke High School, n.d.).

Under the direction of Roger Dash, the JET Project staff and community derived five objectives which were considered critical. They included—

1. Improving the self-image of disadvantaged youth.
2. Providing youth with multicultural experiences.
3. Improving communication skills.
4. Expanding the school-community communications network.
5. Providing information concerning occupational preparation.

While a combination of programs have been designed to implement the JET Project, the major concern of this publication will be limited to the media applications.

1. Self-Image

> Development of instructional materials on Negro history. This may include 8mm films, sound/silent filmstrips, picture files, overhead transparencies, videotape programs, and development of "Pride Posters."
>
> A second component includes the production of videotape interviews with Negro members of the community. The interviews are structured to provide information on the person's formative years—his interests, how he was influenced, the problems he encountered as a youth, and some of his family background.
>
> These tapes provide students with several alternatives in identifying a model with whom they can identify.

19

2. Multicultural Experiences

Students of John Locke High School are trained in the techniques of videotaping and produce programs including classroom discussions on current social problems. These tapes are then exchanged with two other high schools in the Los Angeles system, one with a largely Anglo and one with a largely Mexican-American population.

This program is designed to be implemented in three stages: The first stage includes John Locke High School students discussing selected current topics. The discusions are videotaped. The same topics are discussed and videotaped at the other two cooperating high schools. The tapes are then exchanged between the three schools and serve as stimulus for additional discussion.

The second stage follows the videotape exchange program. Representative students visit the other two schools to meet and hold discussions with their counterparts.

The third stage follows the joint meetings. Students, parents, and faculty of the three schools attend a three-day retreat at an off-campus site. Activities of this retreat include evaluation of stages one and two, expansion of discussions transmitted via videotape, and further planning for additional multicultural experiences for students, parents, and faculty.

Another program of interest being carried out in the Los Angeles schools utilizes Hollywood-produced feature films (Los Angeles City Schools, 1968). Fourteen high schools are engaged in viewing such Hollywood classics as *Friendly Persuasion, High Noon, Raisin in the Sun,* and *Requiem for a Heavyweight.*

20

The films are used to stimulate classroom discussion, to serve as reading motivations, and to provide motivation for written expression.

The participating teachers, under the direction of Agnes Sato, prepare extensive film study kits which provide resource materials for teachers and students to extend the educational value of the films. Included are suggestions for daily lesson plans and additional selected resources (reading references, recordings, film plot summaries, vocabulary exercises, motivational questions, and follow-up activities).

Similar experimental projects are operating in other urban centers including New York City, Detroit, Chicago, and Philadelphia.

The American Film Institute, headquartered in Washington, D.C., is sponsoring similar programs in filmography in 13 locations throughout the United States.

Another approach to sensitizing the student to his environment, which also involves the creation of a critical attitude toward the use and content of media, has been developed by the Michigan-Ohio Regional Educational Laboratory.

As part of its racism program, MOREL has created an Afro-American Curriculum Laboratory (AAICL). The AAICL consists of three collections of Afro-American materials and facilitating audiovisual equipment. More than 750 books, artifacts, films, filmstrips, portraits, records, and tapes are included in the media collection. The purpose of the Laboratory is to (a) provide a sense of group responsibility and skill-development for black Americans originating in both school and community learning environments, (b) create awareness of the school climate and the climate surrounding the school in relation to learning and community "sets," (c) produce structuring for direction in learning within the school which is related to the value structure of the community, (d) assure admittance of all people's values into the instructional setting rather than following the practice of

21

ignoring some values and accepting others which happen to conform to the preconceived sets of groups or individuals, and (e) allow freedom of inquiry into the values of classroom experiences on the part of students so that they can provide patterns for *themselves* which are acceptable to *them* as criteria for living.

The procedure utilized to develop the AAICL, particularly in regard to the last point, was to convene groups of students and teachers at two inner-city junior high schools. The numbers of students and teachers were equal in both cases, and it was made clear by statement and action that all group members were equal in status and responsibility. Preparation included a list of general objectives and specific methods for implementation of the program, a proposed agenda, evaluation forms designed to obtain opinions, and a microteaching demonstration. The major task at hand was to evaluate a list of criteria for determining what should or should not be included in the AAICL and to create new or replace old criteria where appropriate. In general, the students were highly critical of what they considered poor or irrelevant teaching methods and personnel. Teachers, on the other hand, expressed concerns regarding greater relevance of teaching methods and materials. Both students and teachers saw current Afro-American studies as woefully inadequate and expressed concern (a) that truth not be compromised or inflated in a zeal to establish the traditionally neglected area of Afro-American history, (b) that teachers acquire the requisite knowledge and techniques before attempting to utilize the AAICL, and (c) that the AAICL be made truly relevant to the black struggle. A series of meetings was subsequently held to further define and delimit criteria for effective materials selection.

It was found in the MOREL activity that the creation of an environment where students are challenged intellectually but not threatened personally, where true intra-group equalitarianism and self-direction exist, that it is

22

possible for students to produce effective operational criteria not only for selection and use of instructional media but also for application to their life situations as well (Hayes, 1969).

Teacher Expectation and Acceptance of Students

As indicated earlier, one of the major reasons for the development of low self-image in disadvantaged children is operation of the negative self-fulfilling prophecy. Fortunately, research has also shown that the self-fulfilling prophecy need not produce negative effects. Indeed, a project which has incorporated a positive stance regarding the potential of disadvantaged students has been cited as one of the most successful compensatory education programs to date (Michigan-Ohio Regional Educational Laboratory, 1969). In addition, hard research data have shown that IQ gains of more than 35 points can be realized during one year, when teachers have positive expectations of learners (Rosenthal and Jacobson, 1968). In another study dealing with teachers' expectations of boys and girls, who were not necessarily from a disadvantaged background, it was shown that if teachers believed that boys were as successful as girls, they were. Correspondingly, if girls were expected to be superior to boys, they were (Palardy, 1969).

When community and other concerned groups accuse the schools of being at fault for the low learning achievement of disadvantaged youngsters, there may be a tragic truth to the statement in relation to teacher attitudes. The saving factor may be, if the self-fulfilling prophecy is as powerful a force for positive or negative growth as it seems to be, that real progress with the disadvantaged learner may be possible through reorientation of individual human attitudes rather than through immediate major changes in much more fixed factors such as environment or heredity.

23

Chapter Two

MEDIA
AND INSTRUCTION OF
THE CULTURALLY
DIFFERENT

Teacher-Student Preparation for Media Usage

A necessary precondition for effective media utilization in any instructional situation is adequate preparation. This preparation occurs on at least two levels (procedural and technical) in a fairly regular sequence. One model of the teacher's activity in an instructional situation moves from (a) specification of objectives, to (b) content and method decisions, to (c) instruction by the teacher alone, by the teacher using media, or through the use of media alone, with the end product of the progression being (d) pupil achievement (Morris, 1963). For this system to work effectively, attention must be given to diagnosis of learner needs and characteristics, formulation of instructional objectives, availability and condition of hardware and software, the physical situation, appropriate execution of the lesson, and evaluation and subsequent readjustment if needed. Perhaps the most important single phase of this model is the specification of objectives. A recent synthesis of 22 studies regarding the use of behaviorally stated objectives con-

cluded that when behavioral objectives are used, which are known by the students, there is a one-third increase in overall comprehension and retention of information is quadrupled (Walbesser, 1969). The key ingredient seems to be that if students are aware of, or are participating in developing, the behavioral objectives and thus understand what is expected of them, they therefore develop a commitment to successful completion of the indicated tasks. Specification of objectives, whose attainment can be verified, has another critical implication for the teacher of disadvantaged learners. Instructional accountability is a demand which is being voiced more and more by community groups as well as those who control the purse strings on public monies. It may well be that the planning of instructional objectives, on the broad scale, should be cooperatively undertaken by the three parties concerned with education: the teachers, the students, and the community. If understanding of commonly developed objectives and measures of the success of the same produce positive learning gains, then perhaps this procedure will also produce positive support for the local school program on the part of the public.

If the above is a viable description of the instructional process, what is an acceptable view of the nature of media materials as related to the educationally disadvantaged learner? One of the earliest descriptions of the organization of media for instruction is the cone of experience (Dale, 1954). It proceeds from direct, purposeful experiences through contrived experience, dramatization, demonstrations, field trips, exhibits, and other direct experiences to indirect experiences such as television and motion pictures, recordings, radio, still pictures, and visual and verbal symbols. The progression is from the concrete to the abstract. If, as several sources have indicated, the disadvantaged learner is more successful with concrete operations than with abstract learnings, perhaps the progression from direct and indirect experiences as delineated in the cone of

26

experience is also the most effective hierarchy for educating the children of the poor.

Selection and Utilization of Media To Provide Information and Change Attitudes

Following from the nature of the educationally disadvantaged learner, what is seen as the most effective uses of media? Suggestions given in the literature indicate the use of materials which—

1. Are multiracial, multiethnic, and multi-social-class in nature.
2. Are urban-oriented rather than suburban or small town, depicting life in an urban setting with its problems as well as cultural riches.
3. Present the contributions of various minority groups.
4. Are aimed at helping to develop an understanding of the world which surrounds children and youth today.
5. Draw on the art, music, dance, drama, and cultural heritage of many groups and societies.
6. Use the contemporary story of emerging nations to help children understand the story of America's emergence (Passow, 1967a).
7. Are structured to facilitate segmental learning (programed instruction) (Ausubel, 1964).
8. Are self-pacing (Goldberg, 1967).
9. Provide concrete-empirical props and opportunities for direct physical manipulation of objects and situations in the presentation of abstract ideas.
10. Emphasize perceptual discrimination and language acquisition at the preschool level. (Ausubel, 1964).
11. Are interesting, exciting, and tempting.
12. Have functional content which deals with per-

sonal care, vocational orientation, and similar concerns (Passow, 1967).

13. Are derived from and deal with real-life situations (Goldberg, 1967).
14. Are intellectually sound and stimulating, authentic, support creative use, and are easy to utilize with groups of 25 to 30 children and youth in a standard school situation.
15. Enable children to become participants, are honest and unsentimental, and report the real world as children already know it.
16. Allow role playing and open-ended situations (Grambs, 1967).
17. Emphasize recognition of the dignity and worth of every individual, regardless of race, color, or creed, as a solution to our societal problems (James, 1968).
18. Foster output activities such as observation, interviewing, and scientific treatment of findings (Elkins, 1968).

A recent survey conducted in six of the Great Cities, which indicates their general need, concluded that the most important needs in instructional media are—

1. Materials which reflect the multiethnic makeup of our country and the world. Specifically, materials showing the contributions of black Americans to United States history and culture.
2. Inclusion of minority groups in all regular materials for the various subject areas, thus eliminating much of the need for special and separate materials.
3. Materials with an urban orientation and dealing with the problems of the city and life in the city.
4. Development of meaningful vocational material.
5. Materials which give attention to family living and sex education.
6. Materials which use open-ended techniques and

28

promote inquiry so that the student may draw his own conclusions.

7. Media for use by individuals and small groups which allow flexible presentation.

8. Materials which are valid and accurate (National Audio-Visual Association, 1969).

A set of evaluative criteria relating to minority treatment in instructional materials has also been adopted for use by the Great Cities. These criteria, which are intended for the guidance of materials producers, ask if the curriculum materials—

1. Give evidence on the part of writers, artists, and editors of a sensitivity to prejudice, to stereotypes, and to the use of offensive materials.

2. Suggest, by omission or commission, or by over-emphasis or underemphasis, that any racial, religious, or ethnic segment of our population is more or less worthy, more or less capable, more or less important in the mainstream of American life.

3. Provide abundant, but fair and well balanced, recognition of male and female children and adults of Negro and other minority groups by placing them in positions of leadership and centrality.

4. Exhibit fine and worthy examples of mature American types from minority as well as majority groups in art and science, in history and literature, and in all other areas of life and culture.

5. Present a significant number of instances of fully integrated human groupings and settings to indicate equal status and nonsegregated social relationships.

6. Make clearly apparent in illustrations the group representation of individuals—Caucasian, Afro-American, Indian, Chinese, Mexican-American,

29

and so forth—and not to seek to avoid identification by such means as smudging some color over Caucasian facial features.

7. Delineate life in contemporary urban environments, as well as in rural or suburban environments, so that today's city child can also find significant identification for himself, his problems, and his potential for life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.

8. Portray racial, religious, and ethnic groups, with their similarities and differences, in such a way as to build positive images.

9. Emphasize the multicultural character of our nation as having unique and special value which we must esteem and treasure.

10. Assist students to recognize clearly and to accept the basic similarities among all members of the human race and the uniqueness and worth of every single individual, regardless of race, religion, or socioeconomic background.

11. Help students appreciate the many important contributions to our civilization made by members of the various human groups, emphasizing that every human group has its list of achievers, thinkers, writers, artists, scientists, builders, and statesmen.

12. Supply an accurate and sound balance in the matter of historical perspective, making it perfectly clear that all racial, religious, and ethnic groups have mixed heritages, which can well serve as sources of both group pride and group humility.

13. Clarify or present factually the historical and contemporary forces and conditions which have operated in the past, and which continue to operate to the disadvantage of minority groups.

14. Analyze intergroup tension and conflict fairly, frankly, objectively, and with emphasis upon resolving our social problems in a spirit of fully im-

30

plementing democratic values and goals in order to achieve the American dream for all Americans.

15. Seek to motivate students to examine their own attitudes and behaviors, and to comprehend their own duties and responsibilities as citizens in a pluralistic democracy—to demand freedom and justice and equal opportunity for every individual and for every group.

The emphases and criteria above do not speak to specific materials and applications. Perhaps some examples of uses of media with the disadvantaged will lend more specificity. Particular uses include—

1. Magnetic card readers which enable students to see written words and pictures while hearing the associated word or phrase on a magnetic sound track. The student can also record and playback his own pronunciation of the words.

2. Language laboratory techniques used for teaching standard English as a second language.

3. Community resources and field trips to broaden horizons. These excursions can be recorded on film, slides, and tape for review and analysis.

4. Cassette cartridge tape players which can be used by the students in any location, including headset listening capacity for privacy.

5. Programed self-pacing autotutorial carrels for individualized multimedia presentation of information.

6. Videotape and 2500Hz television to set up intercultural (city-suburb) exchange of information, opinions, and concerns.

7. Use of tele-lecture to gather the impressions and positions of persons on various sides of contemporary problems.

8. Centralized subject-centered special resource centers featuring a high degree of mediation which serve as places where students from all sections

of the community come to learn and meet each other.

9. The development of selection criteria for media content and use by students as a means of better understanding their own goals, aspirations, and heritage.

10. Eight millimeter cameras, highly portable videotape recorders, or 35mm slides as a means of recording and chronicling the student's environment for more objective analysis and study.

11. Videotape recordings of contemporary happenings and/or documentaries dealing with current problems recorded from broadcast television for replay and discussion.

12. Multisensory approaches to the instruction of reading. Utilization of self-pacing device allows the student to control the oral output (recorded story) and display accompanying visuals. Materials are generally high interest—low level.

Commercial and Local Production

In terms of actual access to materials which can be selected for use according to the factors mentioned in the previous section, there are two general areas of availability. One can obtain media materials from commercial producers, or one can produce them locally. As a general rule, it is probably more expedient to utilize the products of commercial efforts, providing they are appropriate in terms of technical and content quality, availability, and cost. There are many times, however, when commercial materials are either too costly, unavailable, or unacceptable for most instructional use. This is particularly true in the case of media for the cultural-minority learners, as the relative recency of this market has produced a flood of materials, many of which are mediocre or of no value at all. The dearth of high-quality, appropriate media for the cultural-minority learner gives greater impetus to

32

production activities at the local level. Two factors which intensify this trend are the fact that many school systems will not longer accept merely the "best available" commercial material but will reject any items which do not fully measure up to acceptable standards (Detroit) and the fact that most materials for lower-class learners must be put through an extensive product development procedure, including test and redesign cycles, before they become truly effective. Local production is, therefore, a major factor in the availability of instructional media materials for the cultural-minority learner.

Local production can be found on at least two levels. In some cases, particularly in large city school systems, the production level can be at or very near commercial quality. Most large school systems have full-fledged television and other production facilities with supporting staffs as well as departments with content specialists who can provide subject area expertise at a very high level. The same situation exists at many universities. When media products are generated under these circumstances they are usually created at a quality level which can equal commercial materials. In fact, in many cases, materials produced in these situations are subsequently marketed through regular commercial channels. This type of local production is not the one which usually comes to mind, however. The great majority of local production is carried by local teachers, and in some instances students, at a relatively low level of technical sophistication but with great positive effect.

An example of a teacher-used local production facility, serving the needs of the urban poor, is the Detroit Public Schools Curriculum Laboratories. The Curriculum Laboratories are, in part, do-it-yourself materials production facilities where teachers can find materials and equipment and guidance in use of both. There is no cost for materials, within some general limits, but the teacher, or student under a teacher's supervision, does the actual work. More than 1,500 teachers, student teachers,

teacher aides, and tutors utilize these centers monthly. The items produced by them can be kept permanently by the creator. A wide range of media materials are thus infused into the classrooms of at least one major school system (Detroit).

Local production can actually range from the most complete and finely finished product to a transparency made from a textbook on a book copier. At either end, or anywhere along this continum, local production appears to be a very necessary type of resource to have available to meet the needs of inner-city youth until more effective commercial materials appear.

SOURCES CITED IN THE TEXT*

Allen, Dwight W., and Bush, Robert N. "Micro-Teaching: Controlled Practice in the Training of Teachers." Paper presented at the Santa Barbara Conference on Teacher Education of the Ford Foundation, Santa Barbara, California, April 30, 1964.

Amidon, Edmund J., and Flanders, Ned. *The Role of the Teacher in the Classroom.* Philadelphia: 1962.

Ausubel, David P. "How Reversible Are the Cognitive and Motivational Effects of Cultural Deprivation? Implications for Teaching the Culturally Deprived Child." *Urban Education*, Summer 1964. pp. 16-38.

Baratz, Joan C. "Language and Cognitive Assessment of Negro Children." Paper presented to the American Psychological Association, San Francisco, California, 1968.

Baratz, Joan C. "The Language Teacher and the Disadvantaged: Testing and the Negro Speaker of Nonstandard English." Paper presented at the Southern Language Conference, Atlanta, Georgia, February 1969. (Mimeo.)

Bernstein, B. A. "A Sociolinguistic Approach to Social Learning." *Penguin Survey of the Social Sciences.* (Edited by J. Gould.) Baltimore, Md.: Penguin Books, 1965.

Black, Millard. "Characteristics of the Culturally Disadvantaged Child." *The Disadvantaged Child: Issues and Innovations.* (Edited by Joe L. Frost and Glenn R. Hawkes.) Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1966.

Blank, Gordon C. "Media in Programs for the Economically and Culturally Disadvantaged." *Instructional Process and Media Innovation.* (Edited by Robert A.

---

* These references are not necessarily intended as footnotes to particular passages, but should be used as guides for the reader in finding additional information on various aspects of the topic.

Weisgerber.) Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1968. pp. 259-86.

Bourgeois, A. Donald. "Mass Living: Impact on Man and His Environment." *Curriculum Decisions, Social Realities.* (Edited by Robert R. Leeper.) Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, a national affiliate of the National Education Association, 1968. pp. 27-41.

Bromwich, Rose M. *Developing the Language of Young Disadvantaged Children.* An EKNE Instructional Service Bulletin. Washington, D.C.: American Association of Elementary-Kindergarten-Nursery Educators, a national affiliate of the National Education Association, 1968. 6 pp. (Unfolioed.) Condensed in *Education Digest* 34: 19-22; September 1968.

Bushnell, Don D. "The Educational Advantages of the Poor." *Audiovisual Instruction* 13: 24-26; January 1968.

California State College at Los Angeles and Locke High School. *J.E.T. Project.* Los Angeles: California State College at Los Angeles and Locke High School, n.d. 10 pp.

Campbell, P. B. "School and Self-Concept." *Educational Leadership* 24: 510-13; March 1967.

Cheyney, Arnold B. *Teaching Culturally Disadvantaged in the Elementary School.* Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, 1967.

Citron, Abraham F. *The "Rightness of Whiteness": The World of the White Child in a Segregated Society.* Detroit: Michigan-Ohio Regional Educational Laboratory, 1967.

Coleman, James S., and others. *Equality of Educational Opportunity.* Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1966. 737 pp.

Conte, Joseph M. "A Bibliography of the Literature: Media and the Inner-City Learner." Washington, D.C.: Division of Educational Technology, National

Education Association, 1969. (Mimeo.) (a)

Conte, Joseph M. *Learning Characteristics of the Inner-City Learner.* Washington, D.C.: Division of Educational Technology, National Education Association, 1969. (Mimeo.) (b)

Cruickshank, D. R. "Use of Simulation in Teacher Education: A Developing Phenomenon." *Journal of Teacher Education* 20: 23-26; Spring 1969.

Dale, Edgar. *Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching.* Revised edition. New York: Dryden Press, 1954. 534 pp.

Detroit Public Schools. *Textbook Report.* Prepared for the U.S. Senate Permanent Subcommittee on Investigation by Detroit Public Schools Staff Members. Detroit: the Schools, 1969.

Deutsch, Martin. *The Disadvantaged Child.* New York: Basic Books, 1967. 400 pp.

Eisenberg, Leon. "Strengths of the Inner-City Child." *Education of the Disadvantaged.* (Edited by Harry Passow, Miriam Goldberg, and Abraham Tannenbaum.) New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967. Chapter 5, pp. 78-88.

Elkins, Deborah. "Teaching and Learning Strategies for Educationally Disadvantaged Children and Youth." *Curriculum and Teaching in Urban Depressed Areas.* (Edited by Harry Passow.) New York: Teachers College Press, 1968.

Flanders, Ned. "Interaction Analysis and In-Service Training." Paper produced at the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, n.d.

Freedman, Philip I. "Middle-Class Values, Lower-Class Rights." *Clearing House* 43: 469-70; April 1969.

Galloway, Charles. "Teacher Nonverbal Communication." *Educational Leadership* 24: 55-63; October 1966.

Golden, Ruth I. "Speaking the Same Language." *NEA Journal* 56: 53-54, 56, 58; March 1967.

Goldberg, Miriam. "Methods and Materials for Educa-

cationally Disadvantaged Youth." *Education of the Disadvantaged.* (Edited by Harry Passow, Miriam Goldberg, and Abraham Tannenbaum.) New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967. Chapter 23, pp. 369-97.

Goodman, Kenneth S. "Language Differences and the Ethno-Centric Researchers." Paper presented to the American Educational Research Association, Los Angeles, California, February 8, 1969. (a)

Goodman, Kenneth S. "The Language Children Bring to School: How To Build on It." *Grade Teacher* 86: 135-43; March 1969. (b)

Grambs, Jean D. "Methods and Materials in Intergroup Education." *Poverty, Education, and Race Relations: Studies and Proposals.* (Edited by William C. Kvaraceus and others.) Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1967. Chapter 11, pp. 139-59.

Gray, Mary Jane. "The Effect of Home Television on School Children." *Elementary English* 46: 300-309; March 1969.

Grimes, George H. "The Detroit Public Schools Curriculum Laboratories." Detroit: Detroit Public Schools, 1968. (Mimeo.)

Hayes, Annamarie. *The MOREL Afro-American Instructional Laboratory.* Detroit: Michigan-Ohio Regional Educational Laboratory, 1969. (Mimeo.)

Horton, John. "Time and Cool People." *Trans-Action* 4: 5-12; April 1967.

James, M. Lucia. "Instructional Materials Can Assist Integration." *Educational Leadership* 26: 128-34; November 1968.

Jensen, Arthur B. "How Much Can We Boost IQ and Scholastic Achievement?" *Harvard Educational Review* 39: 1-124; Winter 1969. Reply and commentary by Jerome E. Kagan and others. *Harvard Educational Review* 39: 273-356; Spring 1969.

Karlin, Robert. "What Does Research in Reading Reveal—About Reading and the High School Student?"

English Journal 58: 386-92; March 1969.

Keil, Charles. *Urban Blues.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1966. 231 pp.

Kerner, Otto, chairman. *Report of the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders.* Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1968. 425 pp.

Kochman, Thomas. " 'Rapping' in the Ghetto." *Trans-Action* 6: 26-34; February 1969.

Kvaraceus, William C., and others. *Negro Self-Concept: Implications for School and Citizenship.* Washington, D.C.: Cooperative Research Program, U.S. Office of Education, 1964.

Los Angeles City Schools, Audiovisual Services. "Film Studies for Low-Index Students." Los Angeles: the Schools, November 1968. 3 pp. (Mimeo.)

Maccoby, Eleanor E. "Television: Its Impact on School Children." *Public Opinion Quarterly* 15: 241-44; 1951.

Mackintosh, Helen K., editorial chairman. *Children and Oral Language.* A joint statement. Washington, D.C.: Association for Childhood International, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, International Reading Association, National Council of Teachers of English, 1964. 38 pp.

Michigan-Ohio Regional Educational Laboratory. *Racism and Education: A Review of Selected Literature Related to Segregation, Discrimination, and Other Implications of Racism for Education.* Detroit: the Laboratory, 1969.

Minuchin, Salvador, and others. *Families of the Slums: An Exploration of Their Structure and Treatment.* New York: Basic Books, 1967.

Monaster, Rebecca. *Oral Language Programs.* A statement of the objectives and philosophy of the Detroit Public Schools oral language program. Detroit: Detroit Public Schools, n.d.

Morris, Barry, editor. "The Function of Media in the Public Schools: A Position Paper." *Audiovisual In-*

struction 8: 9-14; January 1963.

National Audio-Visual Association, Educational Materials Producers' Council. *Educational Materials Workshops: Summary Report*. Chicago: Research Council of the Great Cities Program for School Improvement, 1969.

Palardy, J. Michael. "What Teachers Believe—What Children Achieve." *Elementary School Journal* 69: 370-74; April 1969.

Passow, Harry, and others, editors. *Education of the Disadvantaged*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967. 503 pp.

Passow, Harry, project director. *Toward Creating a Model Urban School System: A Study of the Washington, D.C. Public Schools*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1967. (a)

Pettigrew, Thomas F. *A Profile of the Negro American*. Princeton, N.J.: D. Van Nostrand Co., 1964. 250 pp.

Radin, Norma. "An Analysis of the Factors Impeding the Education of Lower-Lower Class Children." Moravia, N.Y.: Chronicle Guidance Service, 1969. (Paper.)

Rainwater, Lee. *Crisis of the City/Poverty and Deprivation*. Eugene: Training and Research Institute, University of Oregon, n.d. (Mimeo.)

Research Council of the Great Cities. "Report of the Committee on Racial Equality of the Research Council of the Great Cities Program for School Improvement and Recommendations." Washington, D.C.: the Council, 1968. (Mimeo.)

Riessman, Frank. *The Culturally Deprived Child*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1962. 140 pp.

Rosenthal, Robert, and Jacobson, Lenore F. "Teacher Expectations for the Disadvantaged." *Scientific American* 218: 19-23; April 1968.

Sexton, Patricia Cayo. *Education and Income: Inequalities of Opportunity in Our Public Schools*. New York: Viking Press, 1961. 298 pp.

Smidchens, Vldis, and Roth, Rod. *Michigan-Ohio Regional Educational Laboratory's Computerization of Interaction Analysis Project.* Detroit: Michigan-Ohio Regional Educational Laboratory, 1968.

Taba, Hilda, and Elkins, Deborah. *Teaching Strategies for the Culturally Disadvantaged.* Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1966. 295 pp.

Taylor, Irving, in Riessman, Frank. *The Culturally Disadvantaged Child.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1962. pp. 77-78.

Thomas, W. I. "The Relation of Research to the Social Process." *Essays on Research in the Social Process.* Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institution, 1931. pp. 175-94.

Walbesser, Henry. *Data on the Use of Behavorial Objectives and Learning Hierarchies.* Washington, D.C.: American Association for the Advancement of Science, 1969.

Watson, Guy A. "Training for Cross-Cultural Teaching." *Audiovisual Instruction* 14: 50-54; January 1969.

Wellman, David. "The *Wrong* Way To Find Jobs for Negroes." *Trans-Action* 5: 9-18; April 1968.

Whipple, Gertrude, and Black, Millard. *Reading for Children Without.* Newark, Del.: International Reading Association, 1966. 53 pp.

Zintz, Miles V. *Education Across Cultures.* Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Co., 1963. 401 pp.

OTHER SELECTED REFERENCES

General Aspects of the Culturally Different Learner

Bernal, Joe J. "Anita Insists . . . I Am Mexican-American." *Today's Education* 58: 51-52; May 1969.

Boyer, William H., and Walsh, Paul. "Are Children Born Unequal?" *Saturday Review* 51: 61-63; October 19, 1968.

Edwards, Thomas J. "Cultural Deprivation: Our American Legacy." *Journal of Reading* 11: 10-14; October 1967.

Frost, Joe L., and Hawkes, Glenn R., editors. *The Disadvantaged Child: Issues and Innovations.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1966. 445 pp.

Gordon, Sol. "The Mythology of Disadvantage." *Grade Teacher* 86: 70-75; December 1968.

Green, Robert L.; Hofmann, Louis J.; and Morgan, Robert F. "Some Effects of Deprivation on Intelligence, Achievement, and Cognitive Growth." *Journal of Negro Education* 36: 5-14; Winter 1967.

Harvard University. *Bibliography on Urban Education, Supplement to Bibliography on Disadvantaged.* Cambridge, Mass.: the University, 1966.

Hellmuth, Jerome, editor. *Disadvantaged Child, Volume I.* Seattle, Wash.: Special Child Publications, 1967.

IRCD Bulletin. "Disadvantaged Populations: Preface to a Bibliography" and "A Bibliography on Disadvantaged Populations." *IRCD Bulletin.* September 1967. pp. 1-6.

Jablonsky, Adelaide. "Some Trends in Education for the Disadvantaged." *IRCD Bulletin.* March 1968. pp. 1-11.

Kent, James K. "The Coleman Report: Opening Pandora's Box." *Phi Delta Kappan* 49: 242-45; January 1968.

Miller, Harry L. *Education for the Disadvantaged: Current Issues and Research.* New York: Free Press, 1967. 290 pp.

National Education Association. *Schools of the Urban Crisis.* Report of the Task Force on Urban Education. Washington, D.C.: the Association, 1969. 58 pp.

Price, Kingsley. "The Problem of the Culturally Deprived." *The Record* 69: 123-31; November 1967.

Rodriguez, Celia V. *Characteristics and Needs of Disad-*

vantaged Children: An Instructional Bulletin. Los Angeles: Division of Instructional Planning and Services, Los Angeles City Schools, 1968. (ERIC—ED 024 725)

Shanker, Albert. "What's Wrong with Compensatory Education." *Saturday Review* 52: 56-61; January 11, 1969.

Stodolsky, Susan S., and Lesser, Gerold. "Learning Patterns in the Disadvantaged." *Harvard Educational Review* 37: 546-93; Fall 1967.

Vandenberg, Steven G. "Human Behavior Genetics: Present Status and Suggestions for Future Research." *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly.* pp. 121-54.

Watt, Lois B., and others. *The Education of Disadvantaged Children: A Bibliography.* Washington, D.C.: Educational Materials Center, Bureau of Research, U.S. Office of Education, 1966.

Webster, Staten W. *The Disadvantaged Learner: Knowing, Understanding, Educating.* San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1966. 644 pp.

Wilhelms, Fred T. "The Influence of Environment and Education." *National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin* 53: 2-36; April 1969.

General Instructional Approaches for the Culturally Different Learner

Boney, J. Don. "Some Dynamics of Disadvantaged Students in Learning Situations." *Journal of Negro Education* 36: 315-19; Summer 1967.

Bumpass, Donald E., and Gordon, Roger L. "Bridging the Gulf for the Disadvantaged." *Audiovisual Instruction* 12: 422-25; May 1967.

Frazier, Alexander, editor. *Educating the Children of the Poor.* Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, a national affiliate of the National Education Association, 1968. 54 pp.

Froelich, Martha, and others. "Success for Disadvantaged Children." *Reading Teacher* 21: 24-33; October 1967.

Landers, Jacob, and Mercurio, Carmela. "Improving Curriculum and Instruction for the Disadvantaged Minorities." *Journal of Negro Education* 34: 342-66; Summer 1965.

Loretan, Joseph O., and Umans, Shelley. *Teaching the Disadvantaged: New Curriculum Approaches.* New York: Teachers College Press, 1966. 242 pp.

National Association for the Education of Young Children. *Teaching the Disadvantaged Young Child.* Washington, D.C.: the Association, 1966.

Noar, Gertrude. *Teaching the Disadvantaged.* What Research Says to the Teacher, No. 33. Prepared by the Association of Classroom Teachers. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1967. 32 pp.

Ornstein, Allan C. "Techniques and Fundamentals for Teaching the Disadvantaged." *Journal of Negro Education* 36: 136-45; Spring 1967.

Rauch, Sidney J. "Ten Guidelines for Teaching the Disadvantaged." *Journal of Reading* 10: 536-41; May 1967.

Trubowitz, Sidney. *A Handbook for Teaching in the Ghetto School.* Chicago: Quadrangle Books, 1968. 175 pp.

Usdan, Michael D., and Bertolaet, Frederick. *Teachers for the Disadvantaged. Report of the School-University Teacher-Education Project of the Research Council of the Great Cities in Cooperation with Northwestern University.* Chicago: Fowlett Publishing Co., 1966. 240 pp.

Younie, William J. *Instructional Approaches to Slow Learning.* Practical Suggestions for Teaching Series. New York: Columbia University, 1968. (ERIC—ED 022 303)

Mediated Instructional Approaches for the Culturally Different Learner

Branson, Herman. *Development of Materials in Mathematics and English for Precollege Centers for Students from Low-Income Families.* Newton, Mass.: Educational Services, 1967. (ERIC—ED 010 328)

Brazziel, W. F. *Instructional Materials for Low Achievers.* Norfolk, Va.: Virginia State College, 1964. (ERIC—ED 002 281)

Bumpass, Donald E., and Gordon, Roger L. "Bridging the Gap for the Disadvantaged." *Audiovisual Instruction* 12: 442-45; May 1967.

Bushnell, Don D. *The Production and Validation of Educational Systems Packages for Occupational Training of Depressed Area Students: Final Report.* Santa Barbara, Calif.: Brooks Foundation, 1966. (ERIC—ED 010 014)

Cyphert, Frederick R., and Andrews, L. O. "Using the Videotaper in Teacher Education." *Audiovisual Instruction* 12: 1067-1069; December 1967.

Davis, O. L., Jr., and Matthews, Virginia H. *A Study of the Concentration of Educational Media Resources To Assist Certain Education Programs of National Concert. Part I, Education of the Culturally Disadvantaged. Final Report.* New York: Educational Media Council, 1967. (ERIC—ED 016 080)

Fortune, Jimmie C.; Cooper, James M.; and Allen, Dwight W. "The Stanford Summer Micro-Teaching Clinic, 1965." *Journal of Teacher Education* 18: 389-93; Winter 1967.

Frost, Joe L. *Educational Media and the Inhuman Condition.* Washington, D.C.: Educational Media Council, 1967. (ERIC—ED 015 220)

Gibson, John S. *The Development of Appropriate Instructional Units and Related Materials on Racial and Cultural Diversity in America: Final Report.* Boston: Tufts University, 1967. (ERIC—ED 016 552)

Gibson, John S. "Learning Materials and Minorities." *Illinois Education* 56: 284-87; March 1968.

Gibson, John S., and Kvaraceus, William C. *The Development of Instructional Materials Pertaining to Race and Culture in American Life.* Boston: Tufts University, 1966. (ERIC—ED 010 029)

Grace, Gloria L. *Multi-Media Training in Cross-Cultural Interaction.* Santa Monica, Calif.: Systems Development Corporation, 1967.

Great Cities School Improvement Program Research Council. *Instructional Materials To Meet the Needs of Urban Youth.* Chicago: the Council, 1965. (ERIC —ED 016 26)

Haberman, Martin. "Materials That the Disadvantaged Need—And Don't Need." *Educational Leadership* 24: 611-17; April 1967.

Hansen, Harold. "Light the Lamp for the Disadvantaged." *Educational Screen and Audiovisual Guide* 45: 24-27; April 1966.

Johnson, Harry A. "Multimedia and Innovative Techniques for Educating Teachers of the Disadvantaged." *Journal of Teacher Education* 19: 85-90; Spring 1968.

Krippner, Stanley. *Instructional Materials and Methods for the Disadvantaged Pupil Who Is Retarded in Reading.* Brooklyn, N.Y.: Maimonides Medical Center, 1966.

Lewis, Phyllis A. "Instructional Materials for Inner-City Schools." *National Elementary Principal* 46: 20-24; January 1967.

Mukerji, Rose, and others. *A National Demonstration Project Utilizing Televised Materials for the Formal Education of Culturally Disadvantaged Children: Final Report.* Washington, D.C.: United Planning Organization, 1966. (ERIC—ED 015 788)

Ross, Jerrald. "The Relationship of Simple Audiovisual Techniques to the Arts and the Disadvantaged." *Audiovisual Instruction* 13: 44-45; January 1968.

46

Schenkkan, R. F. *Television as an Instrument for the Continuing Education of Spanish-Speaking Families.* Austin: Texas University, 1965. (ERIC—ED 003 082)

Sullivan, Peggy. "Materials, Problems for Teachers of the Culturally Disadvantaged." *Educational Screen and Audiovisual Guide* 44: 24-26; October 1965.

Wade, Serena E. *Media and the Disadvantaged—A Review of the Literature.* New York: ERIC Information Retrieval Center on the Disadvantaged, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1969.

Wyman, Raymond. *Feasibility Study of a New Mobile Multi-Media Service for Have-Not School Districts.* Amherst: University of Massachusetts, 1967. (ERIC—ED 015 656)

Yamamoto, Kaoru. *Media and Children of Those Who Are Not Like Us: A Study of the Concentration of Education Media Resources. Part I, Education of the Culturally Disadvantaged.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education, 1967. (ERIC—ED 016 698)