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ABSTRACT
                Designed to offer guidance to educators in creating
a local curriculum guide (K-12), the four-part organization of this
bulletin directs the curriculum planner "from need to intention, from
intention to plans, from plans to paper, and from paper to practice."
Among the topics covered are the conditions desirable for creating a
curriculum guide; the organization of the guide; the amount of
material on communication skills, language, composition, and
literature to be incorporated; and methods for implementing and
revising the completed project. Appended are lists of materials
helpful to the curriculum planner (e.g., professional books,
journals, curriculum guides, and bibliographies of research and
booklists). (LH)

Challenges to Meet

Guidelines for Building English Language Arts Curriculums, K-12

by
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with the assistance of

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and hundreds of Connecticut school

teachers, supervisors and administrators

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FOREWORD

Study of language arts provides both important understandings and skills for success in life. Largely through the study of language, composition, and literature, a person becomes more knowledgeable about himself and others. Through ever-increasing proficiency in viewing, listening, speaking, reading, and writing, he gains power to realize his full capacity for growth. It is for these reasons that continued improvement of language arts instruction for all children and youth at all levels of education is a major concern of the Connecticut State Board of Education.

The purpose of this bulletin is to help school curriculum committee members to see the full range of possibilities for the design of an English language arts curriculum and to plan, write, and implement guides helpful for teachers from kindergarten through grade twelve. The bulletin is planned to promote the creation of many local guides. Each guide will be somewhat different since each will be based upon the needs of all pupils in a particular community as well as upon the best-informed thinking of authorities on the nature of learning, child growth and development, and English language arts education.

Study and discussion of the ideas presented in *Challenges to Meet* are recommended to all persons concerned with strong elementary and secondary school programs for instruction in English language arts.

William J. Sanders
Commissioner of Education

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

PREFACE

Why was this bulletin written? For four reasons:

1. to assist schools in developing educationally sound English language arts curriculums suited to their pupils, staffs, and communities.

2. to foster innovative, exemplary curriculums that meaningfully integrate language arts with other areas of learning and are responsive to the human needs of pupils.

3. to stimulate development of local curriculums that place high premium on thinking, concepts, understandings, attitudes, interests, and skills development rather than on particular facts, memorization, disconnected drilling, titles, and rules.

4. to encourage creation of curriculum guides that stress conceptual processes and development of a continuum of skills and concepts from kindergarten through grade 12.

What does it attempt to do? This bulletin is an attempt to provide a resource for answering questions such as:

— What are the purposes of a curriculum guide?

— How can a staff be mobilized for curriculum development?

— What significant factors that have bearing on curriculum development ought to be considered.

— What basic decisions concerning the organization of a curriculum guide will face a curriculum committee?

— What questions concerning content of English language arts study will arise? What are some possible answers, or how might a school staff find answers?

— What are some questions about instructional goals, methods, materials, and evaluation that need answering?

— What are some ways of organizing staff and pupils for instruction?

— How can a school staff effectively implement a new curriculum?

Who created it? The Connecticut State English and Reading Advisory Committee recommended creation of this bulletin. The committee provided many suggestions and helped draw the general design for the bulletin.

Five Connecticut specialists in English and reading education:

— interviewed nearly 100 Connecticut teachers, specialists, supervisors, and administrators concerning English and reading curriculums.

— studied the statements of the state advisory committee, and the professional literature on English and reading curriculum.

— talked with pupils at all school levels about their English and reading programs, as did members of the state advisory committee.

— attended a four-day brainstorming session at which they made suggestions for the contents of this bulletin.

The state consultant in English and reading education, under the guidance of an advisory team of three English and reading curriculum specialists from outside Connecticut, wrote a preliminary draft of this bulletin.

More than 175 Connecticut teachers, consultants, supervisors, and administrators attended a four-day study session at Trinity College in June, 1967, at which they reacted to the preliminary draft and made suggestions for its improvement.

The state consultant in English and reading education wrote the second draft (the pilot edition) with the assistance of the advisory team.

‹lve selected school staffs which were developing or revising English language arts curriculums tried out the second draft. Committees from ten Connecticut professional organizations concerned with English education, reading education, and K-12 curriculum development also reviewed its contents. The reactions of these people provided information useful for creating this printed bulletin, which was written by the state consultant.

Many persons gave hours and days of their personal time unstintingly to help initiate and refine this publication. They offered hundreds of suggestions for strengthening its content and format. The largest share of the credit for whatever merit it may have is theirs. However, the state consultant selected from their suggestions those that were finally included in this bulletin; responsibility for its present content—including whatever flaws it may have—is not theirs but his.

How may teachers use this bulletin? Different teachers should use this bulletin in a variety of ways according to their own expressed personal needs, conditions provided by their school system for curriculum study, and the most pressing needs of the children and youth they teach. For a few, the bulletin may serve as a textbook in English language arts curriculum development and a springboard to consideration of some crucial issues and more extensive study references. For most it will probably serve as a handbook of resource information that may be helpful if checked to insure that work is proceeding logically or that certain important factors have been considered and if some new suggestions or ideas can be gleaned from its pages.

Of course, a teacher can read the entire bulletin from beginning to end just as he would read many other informative bulletins. In this case, he will handle his reading of the bulletin as he would approach other study-type reading material: first, careful reading of its table of contents and the introductory outlines for each of its ten sections to get a general impression of the bulletin as a whole and to identify parts of its content that seem to require intensive reading later on; second, formulation of questions to which he believes he will find answers during his reading; third, reading to discover answers to his questions; fourth, supplementation of answers he finds in the bulletin with answers from his own thinking and experience and from the thinking and experience of others he knows or has read; and fifth, assimilation of all this thinking and experience to formulate his own perspective about English language arts curriculum development. However, this option to study the bulletin as a whole should be reserved for the teacher who is already motivated to study the complete curriculum development process and can take time from his personal life to do so.

Other teachers may choose not to do this. Some may be at any of several stages in curriculum development work in their own school system. If they are already writing curriculum they probably have accepted some ideas about the intention, format, and content of their guide and probably would be confused or bewildered or, perhaps even, frustrated if they were to begin study of the bulletin by reading the section that tells what a guide should do (section 1) and the sections that detail how to plan for a guide (sections 2, 3, and 4). If they are just beginning curriculum development work, they might be overwhelmed and feel the job insurmountable if presented with the whole bulletin at once. In these cases, teachers might be stimulated to work meaningfully if encouraged to consider, at one time, only one section of the bulletin—the section of most immediate concern to them whether it be the section on guide organization (4), language study (6), speaking skills (7b), or one of the appendices (A through H). In some cases, teachers might be encouraged to assume responsibility for study and reporting to other teachers on a particular section. Thus, many teachers might share the responsibility for seeing that all important parts of the bulletin are considered thoroughly.

Still other teachers may not have the time or a pressing personal need or an inclination to read the bulletin from cover to cover. In this case, wise supervisors or administrators will not demand that they do so, nor will they make these teachers feel guilty about it. Electing to spend personal time in such study is not the only or most important measure of professionalism. These teachers may want to study parts of the bulletin which have relevance to their most pressing instructional concerns and may be stimulated to do so if questions or topics from selected sections are first excerpted from the bulletin and presented to them for their consideration and discussion with other teachers.

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1. THE CURRICULUM GUIDE IN ENGLISH AND READING K-12

from need to intention

What Is It?

A local guide to curriculum is a synopsis of a school's program for educating pupils. It is written primarily to assist teachers in making and implementing their plans. It sketches recommendations for appropriate goals to be sought, learnings to be promoted, and methods and materials to be used. It suggests a basic framework for "what to do" and "how to do it"—a skeleton to be fleshed out by teachers. It provides referents a teacher can use in checking to see if pupils are "on course" and headed toward more effective understanding and use of English.

What Are Its Main Functions?

Specifically, an effective local guide in English and reading has at least six functions:

1. It answers basic questions about the needs of pupils and the community and thereby suggests an operational philosophy for the school's English and reading program.

2. It establishes sequences and systems of order both within and between levels.

3. It clarifies goals for each learning level.

4. It proposes working definitions and offers suggestions for teaching viewing, listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills and for studying language, literature, and composition.

5. It suggests varied means of evaluating progress toward the established goals.

6. It provides for its own reexamination and revision.

What Else Can the Guide Do?

Besides the functions just listed, a meaningful guide has other uses.

A guide can provide a blueprint for change. Almost every aspect of the teaching world is in a state of flux. Local communities change constantly—sometimes with extraordinary speed—and with them, student bodies. New ethnic groups may move in; social and cultural backgrounds may shift; values in the homes may change; non-English-speaking children may arrive in large numbers. An effective guide can help the teacher see pupils in his classroom as they are.

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Because society in general is changing with great rapidity, the world and the way people live in it will be different tomorrow. The successful launching of a Soviet satellite has had a more direct and immediate impact on American education than the writings of any single living educator. Today, events portend still greater changes. An English and reading guide can help a school deal with these larger changes successfully.

Today computers are gobbling up information, digesting it, and spitting back answers that teachers and pupils need. Machines are being taught to read, to select significant portions of what they have read, and to make immediate summaries. A pupil can signal a specific topic to an instructional materials bank and receive for study a film, a page of reading matter, a recording, or a list of references. The single textbook is no longer the source of all printed wisdom in a classroom. Pupils still need to read books—but many more than one book *and* periodicals *and* reports *and* programmed learning units *and* much other printed matter. Pupils also need increased skill in other learning activities:

— watching films or television to gain more information or insight.

— listening to tapes or records to discover or to compare and evaluate, or to visualize what is being said.

— thinking of probing questions to ask a computer so that it can give them the answers they seek.

An effective guide can help a teacher meet these challenges so that his pupils can face the future confidently.

Other social changes also have implications for a guide.

1. Afro-American, Puerto Rican and other minority groups are reminding us that school curriculums must be broadened to include more attention to their culture, achievements, values, literature and language as well as those of middle-class, white people. What should a guide include that will help teachers meet this challenge?

2. The shorter work week and earlier retirement mean that people will have more time at their disposal. Can the school program prepare them to spend this increased leisure both enjoyably and profitably?

3. Jobs are getting scarcer for the unskilled. What can English and reading teachers do to alleviate the terminal student's predicament?

A guide can encourage use of promising ideas and technology. Important changes in teaching stem from new research and experimentation. For example, teachers are identifying contemporary literature of merit that has meaning for students and using it to replace some of the well-worn "classics". They are examining such phases of teaching as:

— their approach to beginning reading instruction.

— what they have taught pupils about the grammar of our language.

— how they have taught spelling.

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— when and how it is appropriate to introduce the formal aspects of the composing process.

A guide is a school system's best method of incorporating the results of research and relating it to local needs.

There are also new techniques and new equipment. The introduction of a television set or an overhead projector into a classroom is not merely a time-saver for the teacher. Indeed, new equipment may not save time at all. But it does alter—sometimes radically—what goes on between teacher and pupil. The teacher's use of this equipment changes the method of instruction and even his relationship with his pupils. In addition, the pupil reacts to his teacher differently. These are changes in curriculum. An up-to-date curriculum guide can suggest effective ways for using new techniques and equipment.

A guide can promote correlation of English and reading with other subjects. We presently are experiencing a new American cultural explosion with an emphasis in English curriculums on literary values and the study of our language for its own sake. At the same time, more people, both in and out of school, are studying art, music, sculpture, handicrafts, science, and social problems such as the problems of innercity, minority groups and economic deprivation. As more people become knowledgeable in one or more of these areas, changes must be made in curriculum. The English and reading guide should not merely reflect this trend, wherever meaningful, but it should also stimulate correlation of language arts study with study of other areas.

A guide can set a tone for the school. Perhaps the most significant benefit derived from an effective guide has to do with attitude: if successful, it sets a tone which encourages experiment, innovation, and excitement about teaching.

Change, after all, is not merely something one waits for. A wide-awake school is constantly exploring new directions on its own. A guide can stimulate this exploration.

For Whom Is the Guide Important?

A guide offers a useful design for teachers, for pupils, and for the community. For each of these it serves special needs.

A guide is important for teachers. It gives teachers a sense of security, an understanding of how their teaching fits into the total school program and relates to the lives of their pupils. It offers the new teacher a clear overall picture of the school's philosophy and goals. It suggests ways he can implement this philosophy and achieve these goals. It provides means to discover not only what is expected at one particular level but what pupils have been doing in previous years and what they will be doing in the following years.

The experienced teacher also needs communication with the grades below and the grades above the one he is teaching. Although this communication can be established in various ways, a meaningful guide offers an excellent be-

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ginning. A teacher can use it to explore what the needs of his pupils will be two, three, and more years hence. This will help him to present material with an eye to eventual as well as to immediate goals.

A guide need not imply uniformity. Pupils benefit from various teaching styles which reflect differences in each teacher's personality, interests, training, and skill. A guide can encourage effective use of these differences. Within limits, the guide encourages teachers to be themselves, and yet to operate as members of the school team.

The process of composing a guide is valuable to teachers. The discipline of the discussion and writing that go into making a guide stimulates close examination of beliefs and practices that may not previously have been questioned. Some of these will be modified. Others will be replaced. Ideas expressed in the guide will stimulate continuing self-examination throughout the entire school system. They will promote an improved curriculum.

A guide is important for pupils. A child's need for meaningful activity and for continuity begins with his first day of school. He should be able to see logical connections between his needs and what he is asked to do, between one unit of activity and the next. He also needs a smooth transition between one grade level and the next.

Thus, making a guide involves concern for how children grow as well as for the qualities of literature and the development of concepts. Little children may dan e rhythm whereas seniors may scan it—but it is the same learning suited to the level of maturity of the learners. What we are concerned with is to keep learners growing. A guide should suggest what is meaningful to pupils at succeeding stages of growth, should build on previous learnings, and should provide pupils with a sense of continuity and increasing maturity.

The guide should be so structured that every pupil, regardless of his abilities, can have successful learning experiences.

A pupil should have a conscious understanding of how his work relates to that of the previous year. He should have a sense of order so that his approach to English makes sense to him in ways which he may not be able to describe. A guide can help his different teachers in different years to give him this.

A guide is important for the school and community. Schools need a written description of what is being attempted with pupils. It is essential in ascertaining whether an educational program is in consonance with what the school believes about children and their education.

It is also a record for particular members of the school:

— the school librarian can use it to make plans for providing resources that will enrich the curriculum.

— guidance specialists, psychologists, and school social workers can consult it to broaden their understanding of what pupils are learning.

— in departmentalized schools, teachers of subjects other than English and reading can find learnings in the guide they can utilize and reinforce through their teaching as well as ideas that suggest interdepartmental, cooperative teaching ventures.

The community benefits, too. A guide provides information about the school's program. The public needs and deserves to know what the English and reading teachers are doing with pupils, how they are doing it, and why. A guide gives the English and reading staff a frame of reference from which they can talk to laymen about the total program. With a more informed public understanding of the school's English and reading program, it is more reasonable to expect public support.

What are the Characteristics of an Exemplary Guide?

A guide tells, in general terms, how the staff will go about the job of educating pupils. It describes learning that has significance, continuity, and direction. It relates content and teaching techniques to what is known about the pupil's present needs and what are likely to be his future needs. It bases its suggestions on the children as they are today and as they will need to be tomorrow; on society as it is now and as it is likely to be in the future; on the results of sound research, successful practice, and promising proposals. An effective local guide is:

— consistent with what is known about child growth and development.

— compatible with the general philosophy of the school system.

— based on positive convictions in response to recognized needs.

— integrated from kindergarten through grade 12.

— usable and used by *all* teachers of language arts.

— capable of flexibility in use.

— democratically prepared.

Such a guide does much to serve the special needs of teachers, pupils, the school, and the community. It can be one of the school system's best methods of encouraging the development of more effective approaches to serve its own particular needs. With a guide which has become the concern of the full staff and has built into it the mechanics for continued review, a school can do better than merely wait for the future. It can help to shape it.

2. CONDITIONS DESIRABLE FOR CREATING A GUIDE

A Broad Base of Participation

Teachers. The teachers who will have responsibility for implementing a guide should participate in its formation. Three reasons for maintaining this broad base of participation are:

1. Those who have taken part in the formation of a guide tend to feel personally responsible for its implementation. Teachers at all levels of the system should feel that the guide reflects some of their own views.

2. Having had a part in its creation, teachers will in all likelihood understand and make effective use of its suggestions.

3. One of the greatest values of building a guide is the growth of the teachers who work on it. An important source of that growth is the process of coming to grips with the tenets of one's own philosophy and their inevitable effects.

Teachers preparing a guide must plan ways of involving members of other departments, such as social studies, or music, whose assistance can strengthen and enrich the language arts program. Elementary school teachers who are involved in the total program have a ready-made opportunity to promote such integration.

Administrators and supervisors. The administrators and supervisors who will help put the guide into effect should have a part in its creation. Their assistance is essential. Their approval will facilitate proposed changes. For example:

— the amount of composition or the degree of attention given individual needs depends largely on the teacher's workload: how many pupils he teaches and what other duties he fulfills

— the amount and variety of assistance which the specialist in curriculum, reading, and speech can give each teacher depends on the budget

— the existence and quality of room libraries in both elementary and secondary schools depend on book allocations and library staff, as well as on the teacher's interest and time.

A way to involve administrators and supervisors in building a guide must be planned. They may not be able to attend meetings of every discussion group but they must:

1. participate in the initial planning

2. provide the proper climate for successful work (including leadership where needed)

3. receive regular progress reports during the planning and writing stages

4. serve as consultants in the final drafting, duplication, distribution, use, and continuing review of the guide.

With administrative and supervisory support, a new guide can make a dramatic difference.

Other school staff. Those making a guide must plan appropriate ways to involve such specialists as the school librarian, audiovisual coordinator, reading specialist, speech expert, school psychologist, guidance counselor, school social worker, and testing expert.

These specialists may be used as consultants even though they may not be directly involved in writing the guide. For although their contribution to the English and reading program may be limited, their special knowledge is often useful. Moreover, communication will have been established with them and chances for continuing contact improved.

Non-school staff Outside of the school, others can help. Specialists in curriculum and in English and reading in other school systems, in colleges, in publishing houses, and in the State Department of Education may serve as consultants. Those preparing to formulate a guide should decide what kind of outside consultation they will need, as well as how and to what extent they will use it.

Certain members of the community may be able to help. Editors, authors, town librarians, social workers, black parents and other minority-group parents, radio and television announcers, actors and directors, musicians, artists, adults who have lived in another country or in another part of this country—these and many others can make valuable contributions to the planning that goes into making a guide.

This is not to say that non-school staff will be asked to plan the guide. Planning is the job of the school staff.

No curriculum should be blown about on the whims of public opinion. However, all curriculums should relate as closely as possible to the world today as well as to the world which pupils are preparing to enter.

Pupils. Those who are being educated — the pupils — can make a contribution, too. Involving them in building a design of instruction does not imply that they will determine totally what they should learn.

Pupils in the intermediate grades and beyond can talk meaningfully about their English and reading program:

The teacher tells his pupils that the school staff is studying the curriculum to discover what improvements need to be made. Pupils are organized into groups of three or four and encouraged to discuss and list what they like best about English and reading and what could be improved. Each group elects a recorder who, after 10 or 15 minutes of discussion, reports for the group. The teacher lists each group's recommendations on one chalkboard and its suggested changes on another. After the recorders have reported, all pupils are encouraged to agree, disagree, qualify or amplify the items.

As long as pupils understand they are being consulted about—not asked to decide—what they are taught, as long as the teacher can make them feel free and comfortable in being honest in what they say, the information they furnish will be valuable for creating a guide.

At any grade level, valuable information about how pupils *feel* about what they do in school is revealed through close, directed observation. Teachers can watch closely during an English or reading activity, can note how pupils behave, and can listen to what they say for clues to their attitude toward the program.

— A kindergarten child studiously examining and turning pages in a picture book, while he tells himself the story he imagines the book says, reveals a great deal about his feeling for books and reading. He thinks reading is important. He likes it, even if he cannot do it *our* way yet.

— A second-grader who gets sick on several Fridays when the weekly spelling test is given is telling the teacher something, too. The test is very important to him, but probably there is something wrong, at least for him, about the teaching of spelling in this second grade.

— A black eighth-grade pupil turns in a description of what he does outside of school that the teacher suspects is not truthful. A ninth-grade pupil supposes that events had turned out differently for Johnny Tremain and voluntarily writes a new final chapter for Esther Forbes' novel. A first-grader sings his name quietly as he assiduously practices writing it. All these pupils are giving clues to their feelings about what they are doing— clues that have significance in planning a guide.

Time for Work

Special arrangements should provide time for building and revising a guide. Meeting after a day's teaching or during volunteered evening time is not satisfactory. Too often, shortcuts such as these lead to paper changes which are printed but never implemented.

The school board, and perhaps the community, must understand that effective curriculum evaluation and planning are vital. Therefore, they usually require: (1) released time, (2) reduced teaching loads, or (3) paid summer work. A combination of all three is needed in some — most certainly, in large — school systems. Such expenses are not capital investment. Like the heating bill, they should be part of the annual budget.

Released time. Releasing teachers from all other school duties for half-days or full days is one way of providing time to plan a guide. Two requirements for use of released time should be met:

1. enough released time must be provided so that the job can be managed

2. sessions should be spaced closely enough so that time is not wasted trying to remember decisions already made and ground already covered.

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Reduced teaching loads. Teachers with reduced teaching loads have school time available daily. They need:

1. reduced teaching loads for a long enough period of time to do the job well
2. a reduced teaching load equal to at least half of the school day.

Paid summer work. Teachers paid to work every day for several weeks during the summer vacation can focus their complete attention on the job at hand. For successful guide planning, they must have:

1. paid vacation work for a long enough period so that the job can be well done
2. remuneration for vacation work at a rate commensurate with their regular school salary
3. pre-information about students and the school curriculum that can be gathered only during the school year.

The best time pattern. Often a combination of two, or all three, of these time patterns is needed to build and maintain an exemplary guide. Although some educators are talking of an 11-month teacher year, in most communities all English and reading teachers can not be paid for several weeks of summer work. Yet, all teachers should have time to take some part in creating, reviewing, and revising their guide. How can this be managed?

There are many different ways to plan appropriate blending of released time, reduced teaching loads, and paid summer work into an effective time pattern. The following are only three examples for consideration:

1. Released time is provided for a group of teachers, specialists, and others to work for three or four days. This initial effort is followed by a reduced teaching load for one or more persons to give time to put the results together in tentative form. Time for *all* English and reading teachers to study this tentative version and react is provided — perhaps a full day. More work by the writer or writers follows. Then all teachers are consulted again. Such an effort might be completed in the course of a school year.

2. School closes early or opens late once each month, January through June, and all English and reading teachers, supervisors, and others meet for half a day. They work in small groups part of the time and react to group reports and recommendations as a body for part of each half day. Consultants from outside the school system work with these groups. The main purpose of these meetings is to assess current teaching practice in terms of what teachers believe education should do for children. Suggestions for curriculum improvement are recorded. Teachers selected from the large group rough out a tentative guide during several weeks of paid summer time. During the next school year, released time is given all teachers to react to this preliminary version. Reduced teaching loads or released time are given to one or more persons to revise the tentative guide which is then tried out by selected teachers. Released time is provided for these teachers to make suggestions for improvement. During the second summer, the guide is revised again before being distributed to all teachers. This process would require at least a year and a half.

3. Released time, at least one half day each month, is provided for a selected group to collect data, and write reports about the pupils, the community, the school program, and its teachers. Paid summer work for a group of teachers is devoted to using these data in constructing an initial draft of a guide. In the fall, several half days of released time for all English and reading teachers focus on study of this draft and suggestions for its improvement. A reduced workload for one or more persons provides time to formulate a revised draft of the guide. Teacher volunteers try out this revision. Released time is provided for their reaction and for someone to make further revisions. Released time, perhaps one half day, is given all teachers to study and discuss the second revision before its wide distribution. This plan requires at least two years.

For a particular school system, the best provision for time may be some other modification. The best scheme is one which offers the broadest participation and the deepest penetration into local issues.

Space and Facilities

Teachers and others engaged in creating a guide need a place suitable for the job. This should be a place:

— that is reasonably quiet and free from distractions (telephones, alien traffic, etc.)

— that encourages work, yet is comfortable (neither too hot nor too cold, well-lighted)

— that can be rearranged quickly (the group will need to move from a large group to small groups to independent work often for efficient use of time)

— where the group's material can be left undisturbed between work sessions.

This work area should be provided with certain equipment and facilities that will speed the group's work:

— movable tables and chairs

— files

— typewriters

— an overhead projector and screen

— projectors for previewing films and filmstrips

— a record player

— a chalkboard

— a tape recorder

— bookshelves

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Materials

Six types of source material which guide planners need to consult are:

1. *The existing curriculum.* This is a natural starting point, even if only to discard it completely as planning progresses. In most cases the existing curriculum is already outlined by a guide. A subcommittee should not only study it, but also attempt to determine how much of it is actually in use. If no guide exists, information about what is being taught must be gathered directly from teachers.

2. *Guides of other schools.* These should be studied for both content and form. The National Council of Teachers of English Committee to Review Curriculum Guides annually evaluates local school guides. Their current list of recommended guides is contained in Appendix A of this bulletin. To make effective use of other schools' guides, those studying them should attempt to determine how the needs of the other schools are similar and how they differ from the needs of their own.

3. *Demonstration films, recordings, and tapes.* Such materials are available in increasing quantities. Some are concerned with curriculum building and other information which relates to English and reading programs. These may be rented or purchased from professional organizations, such as the NEA and the NCTE, and from some educational publishers.

4. *Professional journals.* These journals contain reports of curriculum development as well as the latest findings in a variety of related areas. A selected list of these periodicals relating to K-12 English and reading programs is included in Appendix B.

5. *Professional books.* Many appropriate texts are concerned with child growth and development; educational, child, and adolescent psychology; language, literature, and composition programs; skills development in areas such as speaking and reading, and curriculum development. Appendix C contains a selected list of such books, but new titles continually appear.

6. *Research reports and summaries.* Many such reports with significance for planning English and reading programs appear frequently. Annotated bibliographies of this research appear annually. Appendix D contains a list of these research bibliographies plus a few particularly pertinent research summaries.

The amount of material concerned with English and reading curriculum is considerable. Each school should have a permanent collection of it readily available. Only by having a rich variety of such helps on hand can a school hope to have depth and range in its continuing study to improve its curriculum.

Money

Adequate provision for funding is vital to successful curriculum building and maintenance. School systems willing to spend money where it is needed make a wise investment. Guide planners are encouraged to budget annually for:

— salaries for school staff who participate in the work (or for substitutes so the regular staff may be released)

— funds for materials, professional literature, and equipment

— cost of secretarial services

— fees for consultant services from outside the school system

— travel expenses for staff participants and for outside consultants

— expenses of duplication, distribution of materials, mailing, etc.

— costs of inservice training necessary for implementation of a guide.

Summary

The conditions necessary for successful creation, implementation, and maintenance of a guide are:

1. Many should participate in creating a guide. Teachers who will implement it, administrators and other staff members who can facilitate and strengthen it, non-school staff who can enrich it, students who can validate it—all must have a part.

2. Suitable time must be found. Released time, reduced teaching loads, and paid summer work are three appropriate possibilities. Usually a school system needs to make use of more than one of these possibilities.

3. Appropriate space and facilities for work increase effectiveness and speed of guide planning.

4. An ample supply of professional materials related to English and reading curriculum is essential.

5. Adequate funding for curriculum work is vital.

3. BASIC QUESTIONS

When the mechanics of curriculum review have been arranged and guide planning sessions actually begin, it is time to ask five basic questions, answers to which will serve as the foundation for what follows:

1. What is known about the pupils?

2. What is the school's philosophy of education?

3. What do the teachers believe about language arts instruction?

4. What resources are available and how adequately are they being used?

5. What is presently being taught?

What Is Known about the Pupils?

Material taught must be selected and organized in terms of the children concerned. The underprivileged may not even know how to count or the names of the colors or of things in the room. Other children will vary greatly in variety and depth of background experiences.

Two main sources of information are available for studying the school population:

1. study of the school's own children, including changes in economic or ethnic patterns in the school population.

2. the professional literature, including research, on child growth and development.

Which type of information is studied first may be a matter of personal preference. Perhaps, if those who plan the guide are divided into subgroups, both could be studied simultaneously. Study reports from each subgroup could then be presented during the same planning session. In this way, each report would temper the other and a more valid picture of the pupils might emerge. Both sources yield a wealth of significant information. Both should be consulted about:

— children in large groups (those alike in age, in verbal ability, in school achievement).

— children in smaller subgroups (those with unique ethnic or racial backgrounds, with marked ability in written expression, with compulsion to talk a great deal without saying anything).

— individual children who, after all, are the components of both groups but who are also unique, important human beings different from all other children.

In studying and reporting on pupils, it is well to keep in mind that group descriptions are true only when applied to the group. Individuals vary.

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Study of the school's own children. Those planning a guide need to take a close look at the pupils in their own school. This study requires collecting data by:

— seeking certain information about all pupils.

— conducting depth studies of a selected sampling of pupils.

Those conducting the study must decide which questions will be asked about all pupils, and which will be asked about only a carefully chosen few.

The following questions are typical of those that might elicit information about the pupil population:

1. What do the pupils' test scores show about their present achievement? About their growth in school from grade to grade?

2. What does item analysis of their test responses show?

3. What are their interests? Their future plans?

4. What is the character of the community in which they live? What are their homes like?

5. How much use of school and public libraries do they make for personal reading? For study?

6. How frequently have they traveled outside of the community? Where?

7. What do they like to read about? View on television?

8. To what extent do they independently use a dictionary? Read a poem?

A *few* pupils for depth study should be selected carefully so that they represent: different grade, intelligence, and achievement levels; different cultural, social, ethnic, and economic backgrounds; and special talents, interests, and educational objectives. Information in greater depth than is revealed by the total survey might be discovered about these pupils through parent conferences, pupil interviews, and close scrutiny of their school work. A group of questions raised concerning pupils studied in depth might include:

1. What are the parents of these pupils like? How do they feel about their children? About their children's school? About schooling in general?

2. Do these pupils come to school with hostilities against the system? Do they see it as a means of attaining specific goals anticipated with pleasure? What do they like about school?

3. Do they have books to read at home? Do they have a place to study and encouragement to do so?

4. What academic and other strengths can be found among low school achievers? What weaknesses can be found among high achievers?

When such questions as these are answered, staff members have established a firm base for their work.

Study of the professional literature. Research studies, professional journals, bulletins, reports, and books on child growth and development provide penetrating insights. They yield information about pupils as growing persons, not just as "school learners."

These sources give a complete picture of a pupil's development. An individual's physical, social, psychological, and emotional development interplays with and influences his ability to learn and his methods of learning. Appendices B and C list selected journals and professional books on child growth and development. These should be studied for the invaluable picture they give of pupils in general and of individuals in particular.

What Is the School's Philosophy of Education?

Most school systems have a written philosophy of education which states how the school staff looks at pupils and at education. Such philosophies are variously organized but usually they express fundamental beliefs about:

— each child as a unique, important, thinking human being and as a member of society, his peer group, his school.

— the role of the school in society, as a part of its culture and as a responsible agent of change.

— the school's objectives in relation to:
    a. citizenship
    b. basic communication skills
    c. health
    d. family life
    e. economic life
    f. moral and spiritual values
    g. aesthetic values

Staff members creating or reviewing a guide are urged to study and discuss their school system's philosophy so as to become well acquainted with its statement of beliefs. This philosophy expresses the framework upon which English and reading programs in the community must be built.

What Do Teachers Believe about Language Arts Instruction?

What is English? When pressed for an explanation of what English is, teachers usually give one of three somewhat different answers:

1. Some say English is the development of increased skill in and understanding of communication (listening, speaking, reading, and writing).

2. Others say it is the study of language, literature, and composition.

3. Still others believe neither 1. nor 2. tells the whole story. They say that English is both the development of ability in communication *and* the study of language, literature, and composition.

One of the prime concerns of teachers planning a guide must be to establish their own definition of English. What is it? How independent or how

interdependent are its several branches? A definition of English agreed to by those planning a design for curriculum can serve as a most important basic tool.

At times, English and reading teachers in departmentalized schools have been asked to include activities which seem to them inappropriate. They wonder why they should be charged with responsibility for instruction in areas such as school dramatics or convential forms for conducting a business meeting. These may or may not be the province of English and reading teachers. Their role as members of the total school staff may need to be de- fined. Is there a school statement of what is expected of all teachers? Of language arts teachers? English and reading teachers need to see clearly the limits of their subject. Much time can be saved if, preliminary to the creation of a guide, teachers discuss and define the scope of their subject.

What is the purpose of teaching English? Formulation of a basic philos- ophy or statement of a common point of view is particularly significant in a value-laden subject like English. Merely stating a philosophy works no magic. Broad generalizations can be—often are—meaningless. However, after a group has hammered out and stated a point of view about its function, the logical consequences of these beliefs become apparent.

For example, if teachers believe their main function is to transmit a body of culture, they teach one way. However, if they believe their function in- cludes responsibility to teach pupils to understand and use language with increasing power and taste; to understand significant writings in that lan- guage; and to think independently and critically in order to support judg- ments with evidence, they teach quite differently.

Implicit in the curriculum are the values to which the curriculum writers subscribe. Explicit in the guide are the means suggested for making those values, or that philosophy, function. A philosophy and the consequences of it reveal themselves in teaching whether the teachers are conscious of that fact or not.

Teachers planning a guide are urged to formulate a statement of beliefs. For reference, examples of language arts philosophies developed by school systems are contained in Appendix E.

What Resources Are Available and How Adequately Are They Being Used?

When teaching resources are discussed, non-teachers might think only of textbooks. These are important, but the teacher knows many other resources are also important. Before writing a guide the planning group is encouraged to survey their resources thoroughly and ascertain how adequately they are being used.

School materials, equipment, and facilities. Most schools can provide a wealth of instructional materials: basic and supplementary textbooks, ref- erence materials, trade books, periodicals, visuals, and recordings.

Also available may be one or more varieties of instructional equipment: overhead projector, tape recorder, filmstrip projector, record player, tele- vision set, and intercommunication system.

In addition, every school has some sort of specialized facility for use in English and reading instruction: library, auditorium, conference area, large group instruction room, little theatre, classrooms with sliding partitions, and language laboratory.

In preparing the guide, teachers would do well to inventory the instructional materials, equipment, and facilities of their school and determine the extent of their use.

School staff. Teachers are the most vital educational resource in any school. Staff members preparing to write a guide should survey their talents.

Among the teachers there may be one who has:

— traveled or lived in another country.

— worked on a newspaper.

— sold merchandise.

— served as a radio announcer.

— worked in an office.

— written a book.

— collected antiques, first editions, or playbills.

— spent his spare time in scuba diving or skiing.

When their special talents would enrich pupil understanding, are these teachers asked to work with pupils in English and reading classes?

Also among the staff are teachers who have developed particular teaching specialities:

— the teacher who tells stories beautifully to little children.

— the teacher gifted in arousing student excitement about poetry.

— the teacher talented in teaching written composition.

— the teacher who can encourage almost every student to want to read legends and folklore.

— the teacher who can reinforce word attack skills for middle-grade youngsters.

To what extent are these teaching specialties utilized throughout the school? Are these gifted teachers given time and encouraged to help other teachers make plans or to conduct teaching demonstrations? In departmentalized schools, are these teachers asked to teach elective courses in their areas of special talent?

Other subject areas can also greatly enrich instruction in language arts. To what extent do teachers correlate the teaching of English and reading with the study of the social sciences, art, music, and other subjects? In departmentalized schools, are opportunities made for cooperative teaching ventures between teachers of various subject areas?

The Community. The community, too, may contain rich resources:

— A regional dialect can be used as a springboard to study of pronunciation,

spelling, structure, and usage. When the goal is adaptability, not conformity, pupils take delight in examining regional and social dialects.

— Pupils living in a community with children who speak a second language can, indeed, be fortunate. When the second language is used with imagination and respect, it can serve as a base for language study from the primary level on. For example, Spanish-speaking pupils teach words from their language to those who speak only English, while the English-speaking pupils help in teaching their language to those who speak Spanish. All the pupils, and the teacher too, are given a fresh insight into and respect for language in its many variations.

The ethnic patterns of a community are also potential resources. Jewish folktales and dramas might be reading material in one locality and the newly published African poetry in another.

Most communities have physical resources which can be used to enrich the curriculum and challenge creativity. Town libraries often provide a greater range of reading than can be offered in the school. Museums, local newspaper plants, art galleries, and theaters may be useful to various parts of the curriculum.

Other possibilities may be:

— a spot in town that once was a way station for stagecoach riders.

— a secret room in a house where runaway slaves were hidden.

— an abandoned farm house, or a small settlement that once thrived but now lies deserted.

— railway stations and bus depots.

— law and governmental offices (examples of precise but difficult-to-understand language are found here).

— a telegraph office (precise and economical use of language).

— a large auditorium or concert hall.

Finally, the human resources of a community are a source of enrichment. Writers, artists, poets, publishers, or leaders of minority social groups are often willing to speak to large groups or meet with smaller groups of pupils. These individuals need not be famous. The local editor may have a great deal to say to older pupils about the need for a tight, unadorned style of writing. Individuals of foreign background in the community may be used to broaden pupil appreciation of other cultural patterns.

If the guide fails to stress the use of the community's human resources, teachers tend to ignore this extension of the curriculum.

Makers of the guide might consider the value derived from cataloging the resources of the community, and, incidentally, letting the pupils help. Not only would the catalog speed work on the guide, but also it would serve teachers and pupils as a source of information for day-to-day learning activities.

What Is Presently Being Taught?

Whether a careful study of what is presently being taught is particularly useful in planning a guide is debatable. Some believe enough information is derived from answers to questions like:

1. Whom are you teaching?
2. What do you believe about education?
3. What do you believe about language arts instruction?
4. What are your resources and how adequately are you using them?

Having found answers to these questions, such people feel ready to proceed with deciding what they will do and how they will do it. They may feel it is better to make a fresh start, disregarding the existing curriculum as much as possible. Thus they avoid the danger of producing a patched-up version of the old.

Others argue that no study of local education is complete without a careful examination of what teachers presently are doing and how well their present practice conforms to the known facts about learning and about children and youth. These people hold that both content and techniques of teaching must be examined critically in the light of the four basic questions. Relative to what is known about pupils, they think it is important to discover to what extent present practice has (1) continuity, (2) depth, (3) effectiveness, (4) validity, and (5) utility. On this basis, they discover what must be eliminated, adapted, or modified, and what might be kept intact.

A local committee planning a guide should discuss the importance of studying what is presently being taught. If members feel that an answer to this question is crucial, by all means the question should then be explored.

What Do Answers to the Basic Questions Reveal?

Answers to the five basic questions provide teachers with a wealth of information that can be used in planning.

1. From study of their own pupils and through examination of the professional literature on child growth and development, *teachers now know better who their pupils are.*

2. Through discussion of their school system's philosophy of education, *teachers now know the philosophical framework within which they can build.*

3. By arriving at a clear statement of beliefs about what their subject is and what purposes it serves, *teachers now have the frame of reference for deciding what skills, concepts, and appreciations pupils need.*

4. After inventory of the availability and use of instructional resources in their school and community, *teachers now know what resources can be used in their program.*

5. Through critical study of what is presently being taught in the light of known facts about children and youth, *teachers now know which present practices seem sound, which should be modified, and which must be eliminated.*

Answers to the basic questions are the starting point for a group that plans a local guide. Armed with decisive answers, a group can tackle the next steps in guide planning with assurance and clarity of purpose.

4. ORGANIZATION

Consideration of the general makeup of the guide—its format—necessitates additional group exploration and baseline agreement. Teachers planning a guide must face these questions:

1. What will the guide include?

2. Which aspects of the subject will it emphasize and which will it subordinate?

3. How will it care for individual differences?

4. How will it assure sequence?

5. What will the format look like?

These questions are of first importance. Without clear agreement on their answers, individual group members will *assume* different answers and further deliberations may become muddled.

Selecting What to Include

A guide can contain a wide variety of material. Certainly, a copy of the local philosophy of education is appropriate. Essential are statements regarding the nature of the pupils it will serve and the local philosophy concerning the scope of the language arts program and its purposes. Frequently these topics serve as an introduction.

The main portion of the guide will then describe the specific objectives in teaching English and reading and the nature of the content most suitable for achieving them.

Numerous additional helps might be included either in the body of the guide or in one of its appendices:

— how-to-do-it ideas.

— suggested teaching and resource units.

— criteria for evaluation of instructional practices, teaching material, and student progress.

— bibliographies of appropriate instructional material and school resources, professional reading, pertinent research.

In selecting what to include, the group must bear in mind that the purpose of a guide is to give teachers understanding, knowledge, and security. The important question for the planning committee is: What do teachers want and need to provide the best possible instruction?

Deciding What Will Be Emphasized

Preservation of unity in the language arts program is a prime concern of many teachers. Unless some unity within the various aspects of the subject

can be maintained in a guide, instruction can degenerate into a smattering of many studies but little depth in any. Language arts is not an additive study. It is not grammar *plus* poetry *plus* reading *plus* outlining *plus* spelling. A guide for a language arts program is not a Sears Roebuck catalog of learning merchandise to be vended. In the interest of unity, the guide committee must decide what aspects of study should be emphasized and *where* as well as *how* the other aspects fit in.

Facets of language arts. A committee might first spend time itemizing the important facets of language arts instruction: language, literature, composition, listening, speaking, reading, writing, spelling, vocabulary, handwriting, library skills. Next, they might discuss these and attempt to reach agreement on how they will be related to each other in the guide.

The selected arrangement could make a noticeable difference in the instructional program of teachers using the guide. For example:

— If teachers decide to treat grammar as a part of language study, it becomes obvious that language study consists of more than grammar and yet is not a substitute for it. Also listed are other aspects of language study: phonetics; language beginnings, growth, and change; usage, etc. Teachers are reminded that language study *in its several aspects* is important.

— Speaking might be coordinated with the other skills or it might be a subhead under composition. Separating speaking from composition would necessitate that the guide include information on, or reference to, the compositional principles of speech—unity, emphasis, etc. On the other hand, if speaking is included under composition, it is vital that this entry include information on the skills of speaking—pronunciation, articulation, etc.

Separating and subordinating the facets of language arts does not mean, however, that only main divisions must form major sections of a guide. Final decision on section titles is also influenced by other considerations—for instance, the recognized needs of pupils.

— It seems quite logical that handwriting be a subskill under writing. However, in a particular school system, study showed students were capable of much more legible penmanship than they were producing. Rather than include it as a subsection in their guide, it seems logical for this system to create a separate handwriting section.

— Vocabulary might be subordinated under language. It also might be a subtopic under reading, speaking, literature, writing, or composition. A good solution is to give appropriate information about vocabulary in all sections in which it is important, but also to develop it as a separate section.

Naming the facets of language arts and deciding how they will be presented is, however, only part of what must be done. At this point the guide may no longer look like a Sears catalog. But it does still appear to have several disjointed parts which could be translated in the classroom into 10 minutes of reading followed by five minutes of spelling on Fridays. Effective language arts programs have organic structure.

Unity of language arts. The guide committee should now discuss and reach agreement on the approaches that will be recommended to help teachers preserve the integrity of their subject. What kind of organization will the guide endorse and what illustrative help will it give? The committee might study and make recommendations concerning methods, such as:

— student contract plans
— teaching units*
— reading-centered curriculum
— language-centered curriculum
— theme-centered program of study.

The importance of maintaining cohesiveness in language arts programs cannot be overstressed. Guide planning groups are urged to give teachers help in preserving unity in their teaching. Pupils need to sense the wholeness of the language arts.

Caring for Individual Differences

Pupils at all levels in school will exhibit a wide range of differences. They may be alike in one or two respects—age, grade, etc.—but quite different in others.

— Some children will be less verbally gifted than others.

— Some will need encouragement to build an image of themselves as successful learners.

— Some will need much more basic practice in a skill or group of skills.

— Some will have different interests or experiences or attitudes about school and learning.

Individual differences are particularly important as a basis for two decisions: (1) assigning pupils to classrooms, and (2) subgrouping within a classroom. The guide committee should study both. Their guide should clarify committee recommendations in both areas.

Assigning pupils to classrooms. Homogeneous grouping by ability, or the secondary school track system, is the most common way of recognizing individual differences in assigning pupils to classrooms. This plan has both strengths and limitations:

Strengths:
— It can reduce the wide diversity of instructional materials and teaching methods that might otherwise be necessary.

— It can decrease the amount of planning for individual pupils.

*See Appendix H for an example of how a teaching unit can unify language arts learning.

Limitations:

— It may foster a pupil's feelings of intellectual snobbery or inadequate self-worth.

— It may encourage the teacher to overlook the many ways in which the tracked pupils are unalike.

— It deprives gifted and less gifted pupils of the opportunity of learning to interact.

— It tends to encourage formation of a middle group—the so-called average group—with an instructional program that is merely a watered-down version of the program for the high group.

If school policy is to create track programs, guide planners should make provision for overcoming these limitations.

Modified tracking plans are used in some schools. One example is grouping the most gifted of the gifted with the most gifted of the average and the most gifted of the slow groups.

All Students =	Gifted Students		Average Students		Slow Students
Class Group 1 =	most gifted	+	most gifted	+	most gifted
Class Group 2 =	average	+	average	+	average
Class Group 3 =	least gifted	+	least gifted	+	least gifted

Here no class group has all the gifted pupils, nor does any have all the slow. This plan:

— reduces slightly the wide range of materials that any one teacher might need.

— allows day-to-day interaction between gifted and slow pupils.

— reminds the teacher of pupil differences within his group.

However, it could encourage fairly inflexible intraclass (three-group) teaching.

Other modifications of ability, grouping might obviate the disadvantages of the two plans just described. However, if the guide is tracked, teachers should bear in mind that more than three tracks are difficult to administer and of questionable validity. Furthermore, tracks can lead to de facto segregation and its adverse educational consequences within the school as well as within the school system.

But ability is not the only criterion useful in assigning pupils to classrooms.

— Some elementary schools form temporary or part-time groupings according to pupils' educational needs (Joplin Plan).

— Others form classroom groups according to pupil-recognized needs and interests (student self-selection based on teacher-counseling).

— Many senior high schools gather pupils together into classroom groups according to their vocational objectives (college preparatory, commercial, industrial, and pupils who don't fit into any vocational category—usually referred to as general). These labels may, however, be mere synonyms for tracks.

Planning should explore the advantages and disadvantages of all these grouping systems. Consult the professional bibliography in Appendix C for additional discussion of classroom grouping procedures. What the planning group decides to do will make a significant difference.

Subgrouping within a classroom. Even when selected by some criteria of similarity, pupils will be unalike in many ways:

— the avid reader in an average group

— the compulsive perfectionist in a gifted group

— the gifted speller in a slow group.

Therefore, a guide should provide assistance for coping with individual differences within a classroom group. This might be done in several ways; for example: (1) flexible subgrouping, (2) student self-selection—under guidance—of instructional activities, or (3) use of differentiated instructional materials. No one of these methods, if used exclusively, will adequately handle all the needs of individual pupils. Teachers need more than one.

Flexible subgrouping is one method of changing the pupils within an instructional group. If a topic or an experience is suitable to the needs of all pupils the class may be taught as one large group or even combined with another class. At other times, it is more appropriate to teach pupils in smaller groups—sometimes in seminar fashion at higher levels of school. Still other learning is appropriate for only one, two, or three pupils who are guided by the teacher as they engage in independent study.

None of these subgroups is fixed for long. Some may last for a few days, others for less than a class period. Because knowledge of each pupil's stage of development and present needs is crucial, teachers must employ diagnostic procedures as a means of grouping pupils for instruction. Careful planning is also essential to insure that pupils temporarily not under the teacher's direct instruction are working profitably.

Student self-selection of activities is a second method of caring for individual differences within a classroom which is used in some schools. The key to its success is teacher guidance. This procedure, however, does not imply freedom for the pupil to do anything he wants. He may *want* to go home! It involves use of such techniques as: (1) unit teaching, (2) student contracts, or (3) individualized instruction. To work well all three require a knowledgeable, well-organized teacher, capable of adapting and changing plans as the need arises and equipped with a wealth of materials.

Use of special instructional materials is a third way of caring for individual differences in a classroom.

— Trade books—classroom libraries and school libraries made up of individual titles of both fiction and non-fiction—stimulate personal reading by providing wide choices suited to each pupil's interests, needs, and abilities.

— Job sheets provide individual pupils with extra practice material or tasks related to their special interests or needs.

— Multi-level instructional kits in such areas as spelling, reading, mechanics of English, and motivation of personal reading, can save time in preparation of materials and free the teacher to work more closely with individual pupils.

The guide should contain an annotated list of the materials available for individual and multi-level instruction.

Assuring Sequence

Three concerns in determining sequence are:

1. the characteristics and stage of physical, mental, emotional, and social growth in pupils at each level of the school system.

2. the topics, materials, and methods suitable to each stage.

3. provisions for individual differences within each stage.

Such a sequence in a guide should insure growth from the ground up, not attempt to fit in topics from the top down. It must place concepts and materials at points in the sequence where they are suited to the abilities or the maturity of the pupils.

Through studying the school's own pupils. Section 3 of this bulletin suggested that the planning committee study pupils at all school levels and review the professional literature on child growth and development. Such study and discussion should now serve them well. The basic referent for sequence *must be* the known facts about the characteristics and stages of growth of their own pupils. Topics, methods, and materials proposed for inclusion in the guide must first be evaluated in terms of their suitability for the maturity, abilities, experiences, and interests of pupils for whom they are proposed. No other basis of choice could normally make their inclusion defensible.

In addition, the logic of the subject, as in the case of grammatical structure, can be used *so long as it is in accord with what is known about the interests and stage of development of children and youth.*

Constant reference to the known needs and abilities of the pupils concerned is essential in keeping curriculum makers on firm ground concerning what should be included and how and when.

By making provision for individual differences. Without suggestions for caring for individual differences a guide can stimulate only perfunctory instruction for the typical or average pupil *who just doesn't exist.* Children are people. If we add children up and divide by their number we don't get a person!

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Considering the Format

The planning group might consider next the format of the main body of the guide. As previously stated, the main body concerns itself with a level-by-level description of the instructional objectives and the nature of the content most suitable in achieving them. This description may be set down on paper in numerous ways.

The following excerpts illustrate a few of the many arrangements that are sometimes found in the body of a guide. These different patterns are not necessarily mutually exclusive; one guide may make use of two or more of them.

Skill-topic pattern. Some guides contain parts that are ordered around skill topics.

Library skill (grades 4-6)
Understanding library rules
Introduction to card catalog
arrangement
author, title cards
Location of books
fiction
non-fiction
general reference works
Use of specific references
encyclopedia
unabridged dictionary
etc.

Strengths:

— provides clear, orderly progression

— is relatively easy to control.

Weaknesses:

— gives teacher no help in selecting appropriate instructional content

— if used exclusively, can promote mechanical, superficial instruction.

Subject-topic pattern. Some guides contain sections organized around subject topics.

Folklore and legend (grades 7-9)
United States
Shepard, *Paul Bunyan*
etc.
Other American Countries
Suddeth, *Tales of the Western World*
etc.
Europe
Seredy, *The White Stag*
etc.
Africa
Arnott, *African Myths and Legends*
etc.

Strengths:

— appears clear and orderly

— is precise as to the content that is to be taught.

Weaknesses:

— gives no suggestion on what pupils might do with these topics

— if used exclusively, can give higher premium to covering topics than promoting pupil understanding.

Theme pattern. Another way of arranging found in some guides is by theme.

Integrated English Unit—Grade 11

Man's Courage

When faced by personal physical danger

- students tell groups (5–6 pupils) of incidents that happened to them: best incidents retold to whole class

- pupils discuss incidents viewed on television

- pupils read novel and select illustrative incidents

    Moby Dick (difficult reading)

    Native Son (average reading)

    Red Badge of Courage (average reading)
    Call It Courage (easy reading)

    Island of the Blue Dolphins (easy reading)

- pupils select and report illustrative incidents from the newspaper

- pupils write about an incident that happened to them (short story, news item, or poem)

Strengths:

- provides good opportunities to differentiate instruction for subgroups and individuals

- provides opportunity for a unified approach and for development of a basic understanding

- may stimulate instruction that appeals strongly to pupil interest.

Weaknesses:

- may throw the emphasis too heavily on social and ethical values as opposed to the study of language per se

- offers the teacher no help in the development of skills; it simply suggests activities.

Problem pattern. Parts of some guides are developed around a problem.

Grade 3	Strengths:
Problem: Do we talk to different people in different ways: If so, why?	
Children listen to tape of teacher talking to his family at home.	— encourages an integrated language arts approach
— Make personal notes on what they hear that's different.	
volume?	
enunciation?	— can contribute to the building of an important idea
tone?	
words?	
— Children discuss whether they think they might speak differently at home.	— suggests specific activities the teacher might try.
In what ways? . . .	
Children tape record their pretended telephone calls to different people.	
— father, mother, best friend, etc.	**Weaknesses:**
Compare ways of speaking . . .	— gives no help in building pupil skills, merely suggests activities.

Key-concept pattern. The key-concept pattern, found in some guides, usually attempts to suggest how a central ideal or concept might be successively refined by the same pupils as they mature over a number of years.

Concept: Printed (written) words have meaning *for people* (as opposed to *words* having meaning).	Strengths:
Prereading stage:	
— Written words refer to objects.	— provides for flexibility in use of materials and methods
— Written words refer to ideas.	
— Written words are found on signs, labels, printed page, etc.	— reflects normal growth and maturation of pupils.
— Written words tell the reader something he doesn't know, something to do . . .	
Beginning reading stage:	
— Words are written in groups (sentences) to say something; ask a question, etc.	**Weaknesses:**
— A particular arrangement of letters signifies a particular word. . . .	— offers no help for developing pupils' skills' abilities.
Sophisticated reading stage:	
— Same written words may have different meaning for different people. . . .	

The exclusive use of any of these approaches probably is poor practice. Each has its strengths and weaknesses. Therefore, the guide should encourage teachers to combine two or more patterns which complement each other.

from plans to paper

5. CONTENT

The language arts consist of a cluster of interrelated concepts, skills, and attitudes dealing with both oral and written language. According to past experience and present stage of development, pupils vary in maturity of concepts, in proficiency in skills, and in attitudes they have assumed about language arts. Our goal as English and reading teachers is to design a program to promote maturity of concepts, proficiency in skills, and appropriate attitudes about oral and written language. The program may isolate one aspect of learning—i.e., phonics, capitalization, imagery, etc.—for a brief period, but its overriding and basic principle is pupil development in the integrated arts and skills of language. We select and plan procedures for achieving this goal in accord with what we know about pupils. We evaluate pupil growth by procedures that direct not only our attention but also our pupils' attention to the changes which are occurring as a result of their study.

Goals and Objectives

The instructional program is aimed at improving language understanding, abilities, and attitudes so as to give each pupil a feeling of accomplishment, self-esteem, and growing independence. Teachers may set ultimate goals (as in guides and in long-range plans), but as often as possible the pupil should participate in setting goals for his own attainment. As the pupil progresses toward adulthood—where he will set his goals by himself—his participation in setting goals increases.

For each part of language study teachers might discuss:

1. What *understandings* will be nurtured?

2. What *skills* will be emphasized?

3. What *attitudes* (appreciations) will be promoted?

The answers to these questions provide information helpful in making decisions about instructional goals and objectives.

Measurement and Evaluation

Who evaluates? As with setting goals, evaluation of growth is the joint responsibility of the teacher and the pupil. As a means for deciding what is to be done next, both must look objectively at the pupil's present level of accomplishment. Each pupil must learn, with teacher encouragement and guidance, to take responsibility for his own progress. No pupil learns readily what he sees no need to learn, what he does not believe he can learn, or what he does not want to learn.

By what means? Four methods of evaluation are:

1. standardized tests
2. teacher-made or commercially-made tests
3. longitudinal records of progress
4. objective evidence of use

Various standardized tests can be used to help teacher and pupil estimate progress. However, total scores on these tests furnish only an overall picture of general progress in relation to the performance of other pupils throughout the nation. More valuable would be the analysis of answers to particular test items to discover what kind of questions the pupil misses—agreement of subject and verb; listening to recall a sequence of events; naming a correct synonym—and in what matters he is already proficient.

Records of progress in day-to-day and year-to-year classwork are another source teacher and pupil can use for evaluation.

— If the pupil keeps a folder of the compositions he has written, they can be reviewed to estimate his progress.

— A sampling of a pupil's speech might be taped and compared with one made several months or a year before.

— A record of books the pupil has selected and read becomes a means of estimating his progress.

— Samples of handwriting may be contrasted with samples written earlier.

Longitudinal records such as these do much to help the teacher and the pupil discover where he was and where he is now.

Teacher-made or commercially-made informal tests are another device for evaluating growth. For example:

— If a pupil has studied use of cross references in an index, his teacher might ask him a group of questions which require his use of the index in one of his textbooks.

— If a pupil has completed reading several literary selections by different authors, his teacher might ask him to write a brief statement telling which author he would like to read more of and giving reasons for his choice. This kind of testing can be particularly meaningful, because it relates directly to the pupil's current work.

But tests and records of performance are not the only indexes of growth. Evidence of use is the best test. Both teacher and pupil should look for evidence that growing competence is paying off in improved use. For example:

— How often does the pupil choose to write his thoughts on a topic of interest to him? Does he select this as a possible activity more frequently than he did in the past?

— Has instruction in use of the dictionary made this book seem a "friend" to which the pupil often and voluntarily turns?

Evidence of use in day-to-day situations is perhaps the best indication of pupil progress.

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6. CONTENT LANGUAGE

Language is the basic substance of all language arts study. The language skills—listening, speaking, reading, and writing—are its tools. Composition and literature are specialized parts of its content. But language is central.

The all-embracing nature of language is not, however, what is usually meant when teachers discuss school programs for language study.

What Does School Language Study Include?

Teachers are not agreed on what language study contains. School guides show little doubt that, in the minds of most, it includes in part, or exclusively, the study of grammar in its narrow sense—word description, classification, etc. The remainder of the program is not so certain. Many think language study includes usage. Others add the study of language history; language systems; language geography and dialects; sound systems. Some include study of style. A look at current programs reveals that some think it is one, or the other—or all—of these.

What Is Known about Pupils' Use of Language?

A close look at pupils—their language behavior, their understandings and attitudes about language—can establish a solid base for building a school language program.

Language behavior. How pupils use their language—what they do with words—deserves careful consideration. This is particularly true for children from minority groups who speak a different language or a special dialect of American speech.

Through the primary grades, little children usually have fun with language. They enjoy its sounds. They like to play with words. Often their spoken prose is quite musical.

For some children, however, the primary grades provide the first opportunity to hear language different from the language they have learned at home, and to experience school speaking-listening situations involving many other children. Also, because of many competing noises—the sounds of the radio, television, other people talking in the same room, street traffic—children from large families with limited living space may not have learned to hear, and thus, to speak the sounds of adult speech as distinctly as children from other families. These new language patterns may be hard for some children to acquire.

Under good circumstances the language behavior of most children thrives. They enjoy the opportunities for expression generated by the school program. They perfect their language behavior through school activities that stimulate meaningful communication with teacher and classmates.

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The language behavior of children with limited or different preschool experience broadens. With a school atmosphere that treats conventions of language as a social phenomenon, these children, when confronted by speaking patterns different from those they have learned, gain initial experience in speaking in another social dialect of English. In such a language environment these children do not withdraw silent or ashamed.

During the intermediate grades and beyond, under favorable environment, pupils continue to enjoy language and behave positively toward spoken patterns even though different from their own. They use language in a variety of ways through participation in many different school experiences: recitation, small-group planning, personal conversation, reports, class discussion. These pupils become increasingly proficient in using the language patterns of the school.

As a part of studying language behavior of pupils, planners of the guide might answer these questions:

1. What is the evidence that pupils enjoy their language and opportunities for its use?

2. How do pupils act toward language patterns different from their own? Toward the language pattern of the school?

3. To what extent do pupils with different language patterns become increasingly proficient in using the language pattern of the school? To what extent do all pupils participate willingly and meaningfully in school speaking-listening activities?

4. What deviations from the norm occur in the speech of pupils at different levels of the school system?

Language : nderstanding and attitudes. As pupils move from kindergarten through grade 12, they become increasingly aware of certain basic understandings that influence their attitudes toward language. During the primary grades these understandings generally are revealed through unconscious behavior. In the intermediate and junior high school years they become conscious, during attempts to look objectively at language, of what language is and what it can do. In the final years of high school many children should be able to use these understandings purposefully to serve their own ends.

To assess pupils' understandings and attitudes about language the committee might discover to what extent pupils in successive grades respond to concepts such as:

— Language changes from century to century, from place to place, and from situation to situation.

— A word is a symbol, not a thing.

— Wise language use is an asset to man.

— Language shapes thinking.

— "Correct" means "appropriate" language.

— "Appropriate" language is just that, not "good" or "bad."

What Are the Instructional Goals?

After study of pupils in their own school system, teachers designing a guide might turn next to what they want language study to do.

A basic question is: *Do we teach language for practical, including social and aesthetic purposes? Humane purposes? Or both?*

The answer helps in identifying areas of emphasis for language study. If the answer is "mainly for practical purposes" the school program will stress certain aspects—usage, language description, etc.; but if "humane" purposes are also important, it will include study of language as a means of understanding man, the role of language in today's world, in minority and social issues, and in other "humane" considerations.

Having decided, teachers might next consider these questions:

1. What language *behavior* will be encouraged? Enjoyment in using language? Increased proficiency in using school language patterns?

2. What language *understandings* will be taught? How the English language operates—form classes, sentence patterns, function words, patterns of intonation? Relationship of speech and writing? Our linguistic heritage? What is likely to happen to language in the future? What constitutes language style and the effect of style on the reader or listener? Study of different dialects?

3. What *attitudes* about language will be promoted? Respect for different language patterns? Genuine interest in and respect for other languages? Continuing curiosity about our language, what it was and is like and what is can do?

In developing goals and objectives, teachers should hold two guidelines foremost in their thinking: 1. the present attainments and needs of groups of pupils at different levels, and 2. the differences that exist among individual pupils at the same level *and* among the various needs of any single pupil at any level.

How Are the Goals Achieved?

Organization. Should the formal language study program begin in the intermediate grades? Is conditioning little children in school language patterns necessary? Does such activity threaten to stifle a child's natural creativity? Should the earliest grades—kindergarten through grades two or three—concentrate mainly on providing many stimulating and meaningful speaking-listening activities for children? Do natural activities in using language and expression help children use their language effectively even when little effort is made to stress correctness? Or will the overlooking of substandard usage, as it may appear, tend to fix habits difficult to break later on?

Although primary grade children have usually experienced some incidental instruction in language study, formal language study generally begins in grade three or four. The question facing guide planners is: What will be utilized as a source for organization?

— Will the program be built around texts and other published materials?

— Will it be organized around materials teachers have developed after study of linguistic findings?

— Will it be organized around pupils' level of growth and language attainment?

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— Will it be organized around pupils' speaking and writing errors?

— Will it be built around key language concepts that will recur and be gradually refined as the pupil reaches successive levels of school?

Perhaps guide planners will decide one of these methods of organization is best. More likely, they will select a combination of methods for organizing their language study program. Other organizational questions are:

— How much freedom will the teacher have to adapt the guide to meet the needs of a particular class?

— Will the guide contain a different program and level of instruction for different types of pupils? Or how will pupil differences be handled?

— Will the guide contain a comprehensive language study program for each grade? Or will certain aspects of language study be emphasized at certain levels where they seem appropriate?

Answers to questions such as these should provide teachers with a clearer outlook on the general content of the school language study program.

Methods. Language behavior is established when a child is very young. He is introduced to language patterns by the people from whom he learns to talk--parents, brothers, sisters and others living in his home. During childhood, patterns are reinforced and modified by friends and other people he meets outside his home. By the early years of school, basic language patterns are usually quite well established. During childhood, he learns—is conditioned—to use language in nearly every basic way.

Whereas little children's language behavior results from imitation, most school language programs are attempts to make language—its operation and use—a conscious concern of the pupils to help the pupil understand and achieve mastery over his use of language.

Not only what the staff intends to do, but the way it goes about doing it is important. Answers to questions about methodology will determine the way the school language study program appears to pupils.

1. How important are precise terminology and identification? Does their importance vary at different levels of the school system? For different types of pupils?

2. Will the guide recommend inductive or deductive instruction or both? If both, which will be emphasized? Which will be recommended for which understandings?

3. Will sentence building or sentence analysis be stressed?

4. To what extent and concerning what concepts of language study will the guide expect pupils to verbalize? Which pupils? At what school level?

5. Will conditioning—repetitive practice in appropriate response—be a recommended method for certain aspects of language study? What aspects? For which pupils?

Materials, resources, aids. Available materials include:

— pupil and teacher talk

— pupils' written papers

— speech that exhibits a different language pattern spoken by another teacher in the school or an adult in the community

— published letters—letters to the editor tell a good deal about the writer

— advertisements

— proclamations.

Most teachers have access to other materials as well:

— textbooks and workbooks

— magazines and other periodicals

— dictionaries and other language references

— dialogue written in different dialects

— books about word origins, language beginnings and growth, popular expressions, propaganda

— speeches and letters written by people in other sections of the country or by people who lived many years ago

— period plays and other forms of literature that show changes in language.

Equipment is also important:

— radio and television provide a wealth of experience with language patterns of many types

— tapes and records provide added opportunities for class study

— tape recorders and listening stations offer promising opportunities for individual pupils to practice school language patterns

— an overhead projector and a machine for making transparencies enable the teacher to show and discuss samples of writing with a class

Human resources may be accessible: a telephone operator (Ask her to count as she is instructed to do at work.); a trial lawyer (Ask him to talk about words that sway our feelings.); an artist or musician (Ask him to discuss means of communication other than words).

Features of the community may be made a vital part of the language study program. The inscription on an old gravestone may illustrate Elizabethan English. Young children don't need to know it is Elizabethan, merely that it is the way we used to write. Interesting mottoes of local businesses may provide examples of plays on words—"You can whip our cream, but you can't beat our milk"—or pique pupil curiosity about their origin. A local newspaper may be able to supply photographs of 50-year-old issues for class study of language written before their parents were born. The class may be able to visit a radio station and listen to an announcer's radio voice and then listen to him talk in his normal voice.

7. CONTENT: SKILLS

A skill is a way of acting; an acquired way of behaving. Language arts skills are commonly grouped under four headings: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Because new visual technology places high priority on the consumer's powers of critical observation, some teachers add a fifth category: viewing.

What Is Known about Pupil Ability in Skills?

Differences in ability. All children of the same age, living in the same part of town, and placed in the same grade of school, are not equally skilled in throwing a baseball; nor are they equally proficient in spelling, or enunciating, or skimming. This is partly because they all have not attained the same stage of physical growth, partly because they have had different experiences, and partly because their capabilities vary greatly.

Pupils seated together in a classroom also exhibit wide differences in mental abilities. A pupil skilled in organizing his ideas in a piece of writing may turn in compositions pockmarked with spelling errors. A pupil whose spelling seems flawless may have extreme difficulty in selecting appropriate words to express his thoughts.

Interrelatedness of skills. Increased ability in one of the verbal skills usually tends to support increases in the other skills. Pupils skilled in listening to follow a sequence generally have less trouble in following an author's sequence while reading, or in creating a sequential pattern in their own writing.

Importance of purpose. Ordinarily pupils increase their proficiency most successfully in a skill that seems profitable to them. They need:

— to recognize the importance of what they are doing.

— to judge the effort they need to expend.

— to use the new skill in functional situations.

Implications for a Guide. If its purpose is to guide teachers in developing pupils' skills, then the guide should provide possible solutions for questions such as these:

1. What are some successful procedures for handling differences in pupil abilities? Flexible grouping? Multi-level materials? Individualized instruction? (See pages 27-30.)

2. What are some successful methods for integrating language arts skills? Teaching units? Problem-centered instruction? Theme-oriented teaching? (See page 27.)

3. What are some ways to help pupils see that their skills are functional?

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Skills Development: a K-12 Concern

It is not true that a child *learns* skills in elementary school and then *uses* them in high school. For most children development of formal skills begins in the first grade. It should continue through—and far beyond—grade 12. In ways appropriate to needs, secondary schools—as well as elementary schools—have responsibility for fostering this continued growth.

Instructional Characteristics of Skills

The skills cluster. Viewing, listening, speaking, reading, and writing are each composites of many skills. No one can teach any of them as *a* skill; each must be broken into its component parts. A guide might well include a breakdown or listing of specific skills for each of the five areas.* A composite diagram or chart could show how some subskills overlap (we listen and view and read to make inferences). Other subskills are specific to one area alone (spelling is completely a skill of writing).

One of the most important features of the skill section of a guide will be identification of teachable skills with flexible assignment of emphasis to certain levels of the school system.

The skills develop. Skills are not taught by asking a pupil to perform a language task requiring use of a skill, such as to listen to a tape in order to select the main ideas, or to write a headline or topic sentence for a paragraph. Such assignments involve practicing or testing, not teaching.

Developing skills is an active process. It involves analysis and arrangement into sequential steps from easy or simple to complex or sophisticated. The ability of the pupil is located on this continuun and at this level of difficulty instruction begins.

A skills continuum for main ideas might start something like this:

Step 1: Stating a name for several different, related objects placed before the pupil (a dime, a quarter, a penny are all . . . . .?)

Step 2. Picking a word in a series that is a topic for all the rest (roses, violets, flowers).

Step 3. Selecting one word in a series that is the topic for all the rest except one word that does not belong (cows, chickens, pigs, animals, carrots).

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* For an example of such a listing, see "Partial List of Specific Reading Skills" by Dr. Olive S. Niles which is contained in Appendix F.

After several more steps, instruction might approach the level at which a pupil listens to a short passage to identify the sentence containing the main idea. After more steps he might be ready to state in his own words main ideas of information he hears.

The teacher's task is to discover on which step of the skill continuum the pupil needs to begin and to provide him with instruction and practice that will prepare him for the next step. This is teaching—the active process of skills development.
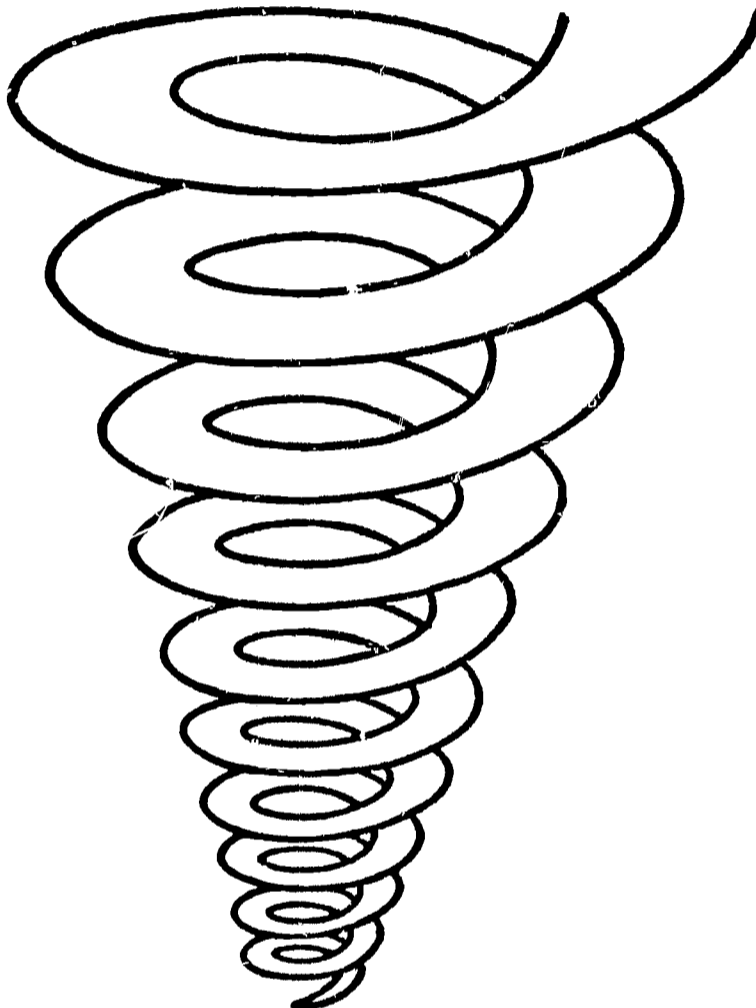
The skills spiral. The development of skills is a spiral process which begins early and continues throughout life.* As a pupil proceeds through successive grades, he becomes proficient in handling a more complex level of a skill, in more complex material, and in a wider variety of situations. Thus, differences in teaching at succeeding grade levels come from: increasing complexity in the level of the skill and, increasing sophistication of the materials and methods.

What has been stated thus far applies to all the language skills. The following pages deal with the specific skills of viewing and listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

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*Hook, J. N. "The Emerging English Curriculum" in Alfred de Grazia and David A. Sohn (eds.) *Revolution in Teaching: New Theory, Technology, and Curricula.* New York: Bantam Books, 1964, p. 244.

7a. SKILLS: VIEWING AND LISTENING

Possibly because we know children have been using their eyes and ears since birth, we seem to think that looking and hearing are synonymous with *observing* and *listening* and we take them for granted. Possibly because we have not discussed these subtle and complex skills as much as other language skills, we tend to stress them less in school programs. A new concern for development of specific skills in these areas seems to stem from new teaching devices and from a fresh look at the world in which our pupils live. These changes are interrelated.

Tape recorders, listening stations and filmstrip projectors are relatively new in the classroom. But for most pupils, the close relatives of classroom audio-visual devices—radio, television, the 35mm projector—are familiar forms of communication. Such classroom equipment helps bridge the gap between the pupils' real world and their school world.

But the fact that pupils are accustomed to receiving information by watching and listening does not mean they have really developed either ability. If the goal sought is learning, thoughtful observation while viewing is more significant than merely seeing. Similarly, listening is more significant than hearing. One of the challenges for today's schools is to develop a program to increase proficiency in viewing and listening.

Goals

Two basic goals of a viewing and listening program are to help pupils:

1. acquire skills necessary for enjoyable, thoughtful, and profitable viewing and listening experiences.

2. develop attitudes that encourage continued self-improvement in these skills—even beyond school.

To implement these broad goals, guide planners will need to identify the teachable skills* and to specify the understandings and the attitudes the school will promote. Then they must decide at what school level each skill, understanding, and attitude will be introduced, emphasized, reinforced.

Skills. Some of the skills that the guide committee might consider are:

— viewing and listening attentively

— perceiving and remembering enough details to form an accurate impression

— searching for order among details

— suspending final judgment until provided with sufficient evidence

— viewing and listening in a way that makes others comfortable

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*See Appendix F for such a listing of the reading skills.

— relating details viewed or heard to one's own experiences, including reading

— listening at times primarily to a speaker's ideas and only secondarily to the way he expresses them.

Understandings. Some concepts the guide committee might consider are:

— Viewing and listening can be a source of pleasure and enjoyment as well as a source of information.

— Viewing and listening require active and immediate self-involvement.

— Viewing and listening provide impressions colored by many factors: the receiver's past experiences, his prejudices about certain words and objects, his physical well-being.

— Viewing is a primary source for stimulating new ideas.

— Being a good listener is related to being a good conversationalist.

— Listening is part of a three-way process involving speaker, message, and receiver.

— Good listeners encourage improved speech.

— The expressed reaction of listeners and viewers controls the quality of the content of mass media.

Attitudes. Some attitudes that seem worthy of consideration are:

— the desire to derive meaning from what one sees and hears

— the desire to supplement what one sees and hears with added information from one's own experience, from ideas expressed in print

— the curious questioning of what one sees and hears

— respect for the ideas of others.

Instructional Program

Planning. Sources of information for guide planners are the pupils' own viewing and listening and the professional literature on the subject.* Teachers can conduct directed observations of pupils in classroom, as well as in non-school settings.

— How successful are pupils in listening to follow directions?

— How long is their attention span at various grade levels when listening to a story? An explanation? Information about a particular topic?

— What did the pupils observe during a fire drill? During a storm? As they came to school today?

— To what extent do pupils question what they have seen or heard? Relate these to what they have read?

— What are the pupils' radio and television habits? Preferences?

Teachers can administer standardized tests of listening comprehension** and they can construct and administer informal inventories of pupils' viewing and listening. All these yield clues to what aspects need stress at what level.

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*See Appendices B, C, and D for professional books, research, and articles.
**STEP Listening Comprehension Tests, Level 2 (grades 10-12), Level 3 (grades 7-9), Level 4 (grades 4-6), Cooperative Test Division, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, 1957.
Brown-Carlsen Listening Comprehension Test, grades 9-13, Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., New York, 1953.

Organization. Compelling ideas provide organization for the viewing and listening programs. A particular aspect of these skills is singled out for instruction and practice as needed but is then put back into the framework of meaningful learning. This organization places high priority on the need to create stimulating, day-to-day class activities that provoke pupils' needs to view and listen with increasing competence. The exact subject matter will be partially dependent on current offerings on radio, television and in the community—theaters, lectures, etc.

Improvements in viewing and listening support improvement in the other language skills. For example:

— a pupil who has improved his ability to generalize accurately about information he has heard may find it easier to generalize about information he has read.

— a pupil who has improved his skill in remembering details he has observed tends to find it easier to include accurate, vivid details in his writing.

For this reason, teachers should be aware of subskills common to listening and viewing and reading, or speaking, or writing.

Methods. Practice in listening should be purposeful. Teachers should make sure children are listening *for* something, not just listening.

A classroom discussion in which one pupil talks and others listen is highly appropriate at times. Pupils need increased skill in listening actively: for example, listening to follow a speaker's train of thought, or to contribute something relevant to what has been said, or to raise questions. These are skills of meaningful discussion which pupils will continue to perfect as adults. But each pupil needs many more opportunities to perfect these skills than can be provided by class discussion alone. The guide committee should consider other techniques such as:

— small-group discussions

— classroom demonstrations

— illustrated talks ("show and tell" in primary grades)

— pantomimes, oral reading, puppet shows, and plays and television productions.

Pupils can participate meaningfully in evaluating and setting goals for their viewing and listening. They might discuss and then list what they consider to be the characteristics of a good listener in a class discussion or a successful viewer of a television show. The class might also draw up a list of needs in viewing and listening on which pupils want to work next.

Materials and equipment. All teachers have at their disposal the means for instruction in viewing and listening, including:

— objects in the classroom and outdoors

— pupils and other people engaged in a variety of activities

— pictures

— different kinds of noises

— many pupils who talk.

Most teachers have additional devices they can use to improve viewing and listening, including the overhead projector, film and filmstrip projector, record player, tape recorder, listening stations, television set and radio. Suggestions for a variety of ways in which the materials and equipment might be used, and what aspects of what skills might be emphasized at various levels of school (K-12), are invaluable to teachers. A guide committee is urged to answer this question: *What appropriate learning experiences utilizing radio, television, motion pictures, overhead projector, tape recorder are suggested for various grade levels?*

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7b. SKILLS: SPEAKING

Because of the recent revival of rhetoric as related to the processes of thinking and the choice and organization of ideas for presentation to others, leaders in the field of both speech and composition are giving increased attention to these aspects of the language arts. No curriculum committee today can afford to ignore the question of what constitutes legitimate expectations in these areas of learning at each level of the school system.

Part of the renewed emphasis on speech is due to the high priority placed by linguists on oral as contrasted with written language. Another reason is the increased mobility of our population which introduces into some schools a mixture of ethnic, racial, and geographic backgrounds, each with its own verbal patterns. Some schools are encouraging a type of bilingualism so that pupils use the speech pattern which is most appropriate to their audience.

Goals

Three basic goals of the speech program are:

1. to learn to speak so that others will listen and understand
2. to learn to use speech easily and fluently in both formal and informal situations, for pleasure and for work
3. to learn to use standard English at will when appropriate.

To implement these broad goals, guide planners will need to identify the teachable skills* and to specify the understandings and the attitudes the school will promote. Then they must decide at what school level each skill, understanding, and attitude will be introduced, emphasized, or reinforced.

Skills. Some of the speaking skills the guide committee might consider are:

— to enunciate and articulate clearly so as to be understood
— to adjust volume to different speaking environments
— to use meaningful, yet restrained, intonation, pause, and gesture
— to develop a pleasing voice quality
— to stick to the point to achieve the purpose desired
— to use vivid and meaningful explanation and detail
— to keep both the audience and the purpose for speaking in mind while talking
— to select words and expressions meaningful to those listening
— to plan speeches with a logical ordering of ideas
— to participate meaningfully in informal discussions and conversations, yet not monopolize them

Understandings. Some concepts the guide committee might consider are:

— speaking, including voice quality, is learned behavior and, therefore, can be improved.
— meaningful speech transmits the speaker's ideas to his listener.
— speaking is one part of a three-way process involving speaker, message, and receiver.
— speech that is pleasing, clear, easy, and fluent focuses attention on the speaker's ideas.

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*See Appendix F, for such a listing of the reading skills.

— speaking style varies according to the environment, the audience, and the speaker's purpose.
— English has many spoken dialects; each of which is appropriate under certain conditions.
— knowledge of and interest in both subject and audience improve speaking.
— particular words carry emotive overtones to particular listeners.

Attitudes. Pupils need to develop attitudes which recognize importance of:
— mastery of standard speech which is basic to freedom of choice of friends and occupations
— respect for the audience as intelligent, human beings
— use of particular, non-standard dialects in particular situations only
— use of thoughtful, responsible speech
— alternate speaking-listening interaction, based on understanding, during a conversation.

Instructional Program

Planning. Sources of information useful in planning a speech development program are: the pupils' own speaking, and the professional literature.* Guide planners can listen to pupils speak in classrooms and outside of school. They can analyze tapes of pupil's oral discourse, both prepared and spontaneous. They can answer questions such as:

— To what extent are pupils able to use standard English with increasing ease and fluency as they progress through school?
— What topics do pupils find stimulating to talk about at different levels of the school system?
— What skills in organization of content for speaking need emphasis at different levels?
— What other speaking skills need emphasis at different levels?
— What speaking situations are common at different levels? With which pupils?
— What attitudes do pupils show toward non-standard spoken English? Toward people who speak a different language?

Organization. As in the case of viewing and listening, regular, day-to-day class activities provide the most meaningful context for the school speech program. At times, a special unit on speech may focus pupils' attention on a particular aspect of speaking—conducting a business meeting, conversing on the telephone—but for the most part instruction in speaking takes place in classroom discussion, during panel presentations, and in many other normal classroom activities. Particular pupils may work on particular speaking skills at particular times, but stimulating ideas about literature, language, and other topics form the framework for the largest part of speech development. The guide should indicate possible speaking activities in connection with other parts of the program.

Methods. Teachers can plan a variety of speaking situations that will give pupils opportunity for instruction and practice in speaking. These situations include committee work, oral reading, role playing, choral speaking, oral reports, class discussion, and play production.

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*See Appendices B, C, D, for discussions and research.

Pertinent here are Dr. Walter Loban's conclusions to his ten-year study of children's oral English as they progressed from kindergarten through grade nine of the Oakland (California) schools:

"Almost all of the pupils whose parents speak informal standard English have little need of drill on usage. What they do need is help on coherence, and such help can not be achieved through a drill book approach. Improvement would seem most possible in situations where pupils are concerned with expressing thoughts and feelings so others will understand them. Such instruction, when successful, alternates skillfully between two polarities: one is the motivated class or group discussion, panel, or brief informal speech (usually impromptu or extempore, whether 'sharing' in grade one or a 'report' in grade nine); the other is the focused attention upon the strategies of coherence, using living examples, material just uttered, models, and samples. The tape recorder is invaluable for such instruction. For the pupil to become aware of how the same coherences occur in writing, listening, and reading would seem equally helpful. Here is the point in which all language arts reinforce instruction in any one aspect of the language. Dialect speakers need help with coherence, in addition to their need for changing non-standard usage.

*"Whenever usage drill occurs, whether for dialect speakers or for the non-typical standard speaker, other research has shown that oral drill is more effective than workbook drills"**

Dr. Loban's study raises crucial questions:
— What techniques help identify pupils needing help with spoken usage at various grade levels, K-12? (Dr. Loban found that usage problems tend to increase as pupils' sentences become more complex when they approach junior high school.)
— What techniques help identify pupils who have difficulty in speaking coherently at various grade levels, K--12?
— What kinds of classroom organization, teaching methods, materials, and resources are recommended at different grade levels to change pupils' spoken usage? To strengthen their coherence?
— What kinds of evaluation reveal changes in pupil performance? Teacher-made tests? Tapes? Directed observation of particular speaking activities, such as volunteering to talk?

Pupils can listen critically to their own talk and to taped models of gifted speakers in order to develop criteria for:
— a good conversationalist
— an effective discussion
— a pleasing voice
— a persuasive argument
— an interesting anecdote.

They can also cooperate with the teacher in listing their needs for improvement in speech and in setting goals for their improvement.

Materials, resources, aids. The school speaking program uses many of the same materials, resources, and aids that are used in its listening program. (See page 51).

Speech Therapy

A few pupils severely disabled in producing spoken language need speech remediation. These difficulties include: stuttering, stammering, lisping, etc. A guide should tell the school staff three things about these special cases:
1. how to recognize a pupil who needs diagnosis by a speech specialist
2. to whom referrals of pupils needing speech diagnosis are made
3. how to work with a speech specialist conducting speech therapy with a pupil.

*Loban, Walter. *Problems in Oral English: Kindergarten through Grade Nine.* NCTE Research Report No. 5 Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1966, p. 56.

7c. SKILLS: READING

Initial agreement on what reading is will clarify the discussion that ensues. Is reading the ability to recognize printed words? Yes, it is that in part. But it is much more than that. As used in this bulletin reading means ability to:

— recognize printed words accurately, *plus*

— attach appropriate meanings to printed words, *plus*

— understanding meanings of words in groups—phrases, sentences, paragraphs, longer selections—*plus*

— apply critical and creative thinking skills to printed material, *plus*

— use all of these abilities in appropriate situations.

Guide planners must first study, discuss, and reach agreement on what reading is. Then they can talk about it.

Goals

The two goals of a reading program (K-12) are:

> to help pupils acquire the skills necessary for fluent, easy, thoughtful reading

> to persuade them that printed materials have a contribution to make to their success and happiness.

The level of accomplishment will vary, but the goals are the *same* whether a pupil is a college-preparatory senior or a dull, 80 IQ second grader. Materials and methods differ, not goals.

To implement these broad goals, guide planners will need to identify the teachable skills, understandings, and attitudes the school will promote. Then they must decide at what school level each skill, understanding, and attitude will be introduced, emphasized and reinforced.

Skills. (See Appendix F, for a listing of reading skills.)

Understandings. Some concepts the guide committee might consider are:

— Reading ability, no matter how effective, can be improved.

— Written material is the "message" in a three-way process involving author, message, and reader.

— Interesting printed material is available on almost every topic for almost every level of reading ability.

— Reading is both informative and enjoyable.

— Reading validates personal experience and ideas.

— Reading provides quick and easy access to the ideas and experience of others—in times past as well as in the present—thus expanding personal experience.

— Reading helps in understanding one's self.

— Everything read is not necessarily reliable.

Attitudes. Pupils need to develop attitudes that place importance on:

— continued improvement of reading ability, no matter what skill has already been achieved

— full understanding of ideas and experiences read

— critical questioning of ideas read

— appreciation of well-written material

— reading as a pleasurable way of spending free time.

Instructional Program

Planning. Pupils differ widely in their uses of reading. One pupil, for his own information and pleasure, willingly and joyfully reads many books; another avoids reading anything he is not made to read. One pupil readily consults a dictionary to discover more about a new word; another skips over an unfamiliar word even if it cripples his understanding. One uses the index to discover a passage which will give him the information he wants; another leafs aimlessly through the pages hoping his eyes will light on what he needs. Pupils differ both in the extent and effectiveness with which they use reading skills.

Research describes how reading interests change as pupils progress through school. However, these are general descriptions of interests common in large groups of pupils. Individuals will vary. Review of these descriptions—see references listed in Appendix C—will give teachers a basis for building reading-interest inventories to elicit information about individual pupils at succeeding grade levels.

Attitudes about reading are of key importance for continued improvement and much that is revealing is learned from watching a pupil while he is reading. Does he chuckle at an amusing incident? Does he frown at something just read? Is he tense—pressing his nose close to the page, pointing word-by-word with his finger, sighing frequently?

Also revealing is an incomplete-sentence test dictated to the pupil. The teacher might write the pupil's completions for sentences such as those that follow:

— A book . . . . .

— Reading is . . . . .

— The best magazine . . . . .

— People who like to read . . . . .

— Reading tests . . . . .

The teacher must be sure a rapport exists which encourages the pupil to say freely what *he* thinks and feels, not what he suspects the teacher wants him to say.

Pupils' responses on standardized and teacher-made tests will yield much information useful in planning the reading program, particularly if a tabulation is made of pupils' errors and these are charted so as to give a picture of pupil needs at various grade levels.

Professional journals, books, and research provide a wealth of suggestions.* Committee members should consult them.

Organization. Before the guide committee can move far in planning the reading program it must decide what approaches to reading instruction it will endorse.

— At the elementary level is it to be a basal reader program? Individualized reading? Some other approach? Some combination of approaches?

— At the secondary level is it to be an anthology with a built-in reading program? Separate texts for reading improvement? Teacher-made materials? Or a combination?

Other basic organizational questions that must be answered are:

— How much time will be allocated for the development of reading skills at various levels of the school system?

— What facts do all teachers need to know about the phonetic principles of language?

— What action will the curriculum committee recommend with regard to the non-traditional approaches to the teaching of phonics?

> — "intensive" phonics methods, such as Spalding, Phonovisual, and others
>
> — linguistic methods, such as Fries, Smith, and others
>
> — artificial alphabet methods, such as ITA, Words in Color, and others

— What relative emphasis will be given to phonetic methods as compared to sight methods, use of context, etc.?

— What procedures will be recommended for use with remedial groups?
Decisions that follow will depend on answers to these questions.

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*See Appendices B, C, D for discussions and research.

Methods. The reading program should provide skills instruction and practice suited to each pupil's special needs. This means that sometimes a pupil will work individually, at times he will study in small groups, and at other times he will learn along with the whole class. This flexible grouping operates more smoothly if the teacher and pupils are well aware of what reading skills need classwide improvement and if both the teacher and pupils are conscious of their special needs. If pupils keep a record of their needs and goals they can help determine which particular kinds of instruction will be needed.

Not all guides include suggested methods. If they do, methods should be presented in some usable form. The multiple-column approach has been used in many guides for all the language skills. It might be adapted for reading to look something like this:

Reading Skill	*Suggested Approach*	*Materials*
. . . . .	. . . . .	. . . . .

Materials, resources, aids. Many kinds of tools are available for instruction in reading skills, including all kinds of printed material: textbooks, workbooks, and study guides; multi-level instructional kits; programed learning units; periodicals and magazines with exercises in reading skills; literature anthologies with reading skills material; library books, pamphlets, and other printed matter.

If used wisely, some machines are helpful in strengthening specific skills.

— primer typewriter for visual discrimination

— tape recorder for oral reading and phonics

— individual pacing devices for speeded reading

— group pacing devices for demonstrating that most pupils can read and understand faster than they think they can.

Personal Reading

A most important use of reading is personal reading for enjoyment or for satisfaction of a variety of interests or needs. Nothing is more important to a pupil's growing self-awareness, to his development of a broader and deeper understanding of the world, and to his achievement of permanent pleasure in books.

All these goals are important at every level, elementary and secondary. Pupils will vary in the heights they can achieve and in the breadth of interests they will bring to reading or develop through reading. Some of them will achieve great heights and considerable depth in reading interests and power. Others should be helped toward a basic understanding of the importance of reading in life—both personal and vocational—and to the enjoyment of a variety of good books suited to their level of maturity and understanding.

Many excellent booklists will help teacher and pupil find suitable books. Appendix G contains an annotated list of these booklists.

Those planning the guide might develop answers for these questions about a personal reading program:

— At various levels of the school (K-12) how much school time should be devoted to personal reading?

— What will the guide suggest for encouraging pupils voluntarily to undertake meaningful amounts of personal reading at all grade levels? A particular grade level? What help will the guide provide with motivational techniques? With teaching resources and conditions?

— What are some enjoyable ways, appropriate to their maturity and educational attainment, in which pupils at succeeding levels of school can report on their personal reading?

— What suggestions will the guide make to assist teachers in securing, organizing, and maintaining classroom collections of books suitable to the varying interests and needs of their pupils?

— What suggestions will help establish a school library or strengthen teachers' relationships with the school library so that it can better serve the needs of pupils in language arts?

7d. SKILLS: WRITING

Writing skills, the tools of composition, reflect the written customs or conventions of educated people. These tools are so closely allied with composition--the composing process--that they may combine. This combination has many merits providing neither one nor the other--the tools of writing or the writing process--is slighted.

This bulletin gives writing skills a separate section in order to emphasize that writing requires two kinds of power:

      skill in using the mechanics of correctness

      skill in the composing process.

The second skill will be dealt with in the chapter which follows.

Goals

The writing skills program has one main goal: to help pupils to use and to want to use the conventions of writing so as to express their ideas and experiences clearly and forcefully for others to read.

To implement this overriding goal, makers of the guide will need to identify teachable skills,* understandings, and attitudes the school should promote. Then they must decide at what level each skill, understanding, and attitude will be introduced, emphasized, and reinforced.

Skills. As is the case with reading or any other language ability, writing is an aggregate of many skills. It is not a single skill. At least four major areas of writing mechanics contain subskills that must be taught:

      mechanics of written English (capitalization, punctuation, sentence structure, usage, etc.)

      organization of ideas (time sequence, climactic order, comparison-contrast, etc.)

      spelling (encoding words from visual memory, sound, structure, spelling generalizations)

      handwriting (left-to-right progression, formation of letters, grouping letters into a word, etc.).

Understandings. The guide committee should list some important understandings such as:

— mechanics are an accepted system for focusing the reader's attention on the writer's thought.

— mechanical conventions change.

— organization highlights a way of thinking.

— spelling is an accepted way for encoding particular oral symbols.

— handwriting tells a good deal about the writer.

— writing skills are learned behavior and can be improved.

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*See Appendix F for such a listing of reading skills

Attitudes. Some attitudes worthy of consideration are:

-- appreciation of the importance of mechanical correctness for both personal and vocational reasons
- curiosity about writing conventions: their reason for being, their origins, their changes
- alertness to changes in writing customs that can be evidenced in well-written current writing.

Instructional Program

Planning. To determine pupil needs, teachers can study at least three types of pupil writing:

compositions assigned in a language arts lesson

writing assigned in another subject (for example, a social studies paper)

personal writing done voluntarily.

A small, carefully selected, representative sampling of papers written by several types of pupils—high-achievers, culturally-different, non-college-oriented, etc.—at all levels can reveal information important in designing a program.

Information derived from item analysis of pupil responses on a standardized test is also useful. Teacher-made tests of skills also provide helpful information. However, both types of tests supply evidence of writing skills only under abnormal conditions and only evidence about the specific skills tested.

Organization. Mounting research* demonstrates that discrete practice in the skills of writing without due regard for pupils' needs is at best a waste of time, at worst detrimental to their present skill. The writing skills program should evolve from the errors pupils make in their compositions.

Two key questions guide planners should attempt to answer are:

How much time will the guide recommend at various levels of school system for instruction in specific skills of writing? For use of the skills of writing in functional situations?

How much instruction in the mechanical skills of writing and application to the pupils' own writing will the guide recommend for different levels? For different pupils?

Methods. Answers to questions such as these will help teachers to implement goals and objectives set forth in a guide:

- What activities at various school levels will help pupils understand that, rather than a set of negative prohibitions hindering freedom of self-expression, writing conventions are a system for establishing clarity?

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*See references on composition research in Appendix D.

— How can pupil differences in particular skills of writing be handled at different grade levels?

— How can pupils be persuaded to want to improve their writing skills?

— What weight should pupils' proficiency in mechanical skills have in evaluation of their compositions? In evaluation of their ability in language arts? Does this weight vary for pupils at different grade levels? For different types of pupils?

Materials, resources, aids. Common tools that offer opportunity for instruction in writing skills are:

— pieces of student writing, including letters actually to be sent

— writing models found in magazines and periodicals

— textbooks and workbooks

— programed learning units

— multi-level instructional kits

— periodicals with writing skills exercises.

In addition, special mention should be made of the overhead projector to display samples of written work for group discussion and comment.

A basic question teachers designing a guide should attempt to answer is: *What proportion of practice material will be drawn from the pupil's own writing? From published materials?*

Spelling

In this bulletin spelling is treated as one of the writing skills. As an encoding process, it is, in fact, a writing skill. However, those planning a guide should discuss whether they want to teach spelling primarily as a word analysis skill or as a writing skill. Their decision will make some difference in where spelling is placed and what the guide suggests.

Research findings. In view of the high social value of correct spelling, a few significant research findings are pertinent:

1. Pupils need first to learn to spell words they use and misspell in their own writing.

2. The test-study approach is superior to the study-test method of instruction.

3. Some indication exists that pupils who correct their own spelling tests learn to spell from this process.

4. Extra time spent on spelling (beyond 75 minutes per week in the elementary grades) does little to improve spelling.

5. Poor study habits are a common cause of poor spelling. Pupils do not follow study steps suggested.

6. How well pupils learn to spell depends largely on motivation.

7. There is no common agreement about the assignment of words to specific grade levels; i.e., there is no "fourth grade spelling word."

Spelling attack. Several different lines of attack develop independence in spelling. Pupils may learn:

— to sound out words that are spelled phonetically (*interested, final*)

— to spell words by known structure (*bookkeeper, lately*)

— to spell words from visual memory (*rhythm, sergeant*)

And older children may learn

— to spell by use of a spelling generalization or principle (*quite, occurring*)

— to spell through understanding of a language process (*illegible, commit*).

Basic questions. Several questions about spelling a guide committee might answer are:

1. Is spelling instruction a part of the writing skills program? Or of the word-analysis program? Or both? Will the answer differ at different school levels?

2. What is the main source of spelling words recommended for individual pupil assignment? (The pupil's written work? A list of frequently misspelled words? Published spelling materials? A language text? A combination of some of these?)

3. How are pupils effectively organized for spelling instruction at different grade levels? (Paired-practice? Independent study? Small groups?)

4. How can increased pupil interest in accurate spelling be fostered at all school levels?

5. What methods for teaching spelling are recommended?

Vocabulary Building

Vocabulary building pervades the language arts curriculum. It is discussed in this bulletin as a writing skill, but it is equally important in listening, speaking, and reading, as well as in study of language, literature, and composition.

Key experiences. The main thrust of a vocabulary-building program is directed toward providing experiences that stimulate understanding and accumulation of new words. In primary grades, these experiences are provided by field trips, visual aids in the classroom, the teacher's reading *to* pupils, the teacher's direct explanation of new words. Since primary grade reading materials offer very little opportunity for the pupil to meet new words, these other approaches are very necessary. In later grades, three basic methods for discovering meanings of new, unfamiliar words are:

— deriving meaning from the context in which a word is used (In a windmill a wheel made of slanted blades called *vanes* is made to face the wind.)

— deriving meaning from the structure, from an understanding of familiar word elements (booklist, prewar, synchronize)

— finding meaning through effective use of the dictionary.

These three methods of attack on the meanings of unfamiliar words can be used with pupils from the intermediate grades on. As they are retaught at succeeding levels of the school system, these methods become more sophisticated, as do the materials and the variety of situations in which they are used.

A fourth method is study of the origins, growth, development, and changes in word meanings. Study of semantics can motivate some pupils, particularly older pupils, to develop curiosity about word meanings and understanding of new words.

Basic questions. Answers to the following questions are important in designing a guide:

1. What suggestions will the guide give for determining the vocabulary needs of pupils K-12?

2. What vocabulary-building experiences appropriate to different levels of school will the guide suggest?

3. At what levels of school will certain basic vocabulary-building techniques be introduced? Emphasized? Reviewed?

4. What methods and materials appropriate to succeeding levels of school will the guide recommend?

5. How will pupils' vocabulary be evaluated?

6. How will vocabulary building be handled in the guide? As a separate section? As a part of another section? As some combination of these?

8. CONTENT: COMPOSITION

Stimulation of the urge to write is important whatever the age of the pupils. A wise selection of topics and situations for writing suited to the stage of development of the pupils is important at all levels. So also are real purposes for writing. Such motivated experiences will vary:

— simple letter writing, doing business by mail, and relating of personal experience

— clear expression of logically organized thought (the non-personal essay, simple research)

— creative writing of verse, plays, the short story, or the personal essay.

Choice of the subject and maturity of treatment will be adjusted to the age and talent of the pupils.

Practical writing will doubtless be required of all pupils, varied forms of letter writing, simple, well organized summaries and explanations. How much imaginative or critical writing will be done depends upon the provocativeness of the school situation and the peculiar talents and aims of the pupils.

To what extent should pupils be urged to attempt creative writing of poetry and fiction? When? How? A number of studies, such as those done in Seattle, Cleveland, and the Watts district of Los Angeles, suggest that much talent may be fostered in all groups at all grade levels. Committees should consider carefully the relative emphasis upon different types of writing by different groups of pupils. Experience suggests that there is a wide range of talent in all social groups.

What Does It Include?

At the heart of the process of composing is the selection, arrangement, and expression of ideas. Ideas presented with a specific purpose in mind. Ideas—their examination, development, refinement, and expansion—provide the lifeblood for composition, either spoken or written. Some modern linguists view written composition as a secondary form: the encoded version of oral composition.

Speaking and writing skills—tools that support the composing process—have been discussed on pages 53-55 and 63-67. But ideas, not skills, are the substance of composition. The guide must make apparent that the composing process is essential. Speaking and writing correctly is of little import if nothing of value is said.

Composition involves selection, organization, refinement, and expression of ideas. It also involves concreteness in the choice of words and completeness and variety of sentence structure. Types of writing include: expository, narrative, descriptive, and critical or analytical. These four terms are not entirely satisfactory. They are not discrete. One piece of writing may be a *descriptive-expository* piece, requiring clear visualization and care in showing the relationship of ideas. Another might be a *critical analysis* that is also *expository*. Because of difficulties experienced with these terms, some teachers prefer to think of two main types of writing which they call prac-

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tical, and imaginative. (These teachers, too, are in difficulty when asked to explain the difference between these two types of writing, since a particular piece of writing sometimes may be both. However, for most compositions, they find that the.e are workable constructs.) Other terms are at times used to refer to special types of writing: creative, literary, etc. But all classifications of writing seem to add up to one thing:

Written composition includes all attempts to express thoughts and relate experiences in writing. In the analysis of results, the teacher discovers that what he does before children write is more important than anything he does after the compositions are written.

What Is Known About Pupils' Compositions?

The assessing of pupils' abilities in written composition is not as easily accomplished as collecting data about their writing skills (see page 64). However, some of the same student papers may be used for both purposes. Time spent in studying the current status of pupils' practices in composing pays dividends in suggestions for building a sound composition program.

To do this, a small but representative sampling of students is selected— pupils from all levels of the school system; pupils at various levels of verbal ability; pupils with different goals, interests, social positions, economic conditions, and ethnic backgrounds. Next, some questions are raised about the compositions these pupils have written.:

— What are some subjects various pupils frequently select for speaking? For writing? Are these subjects worthwhile? Are they within the ability of pupils to handle?

— How do various pupils organize their thoughts in speaking? In writing?

— What qualities reveal growth in composing ability?

— How do other pupils react to particular pieces of student composition? How do teachers react?

— What examples are available showing different types of writing produced by various pupils? (poetry, exposition, argumentative prose, etc.)

What Are the Instructional Goals?

Two main goals of the composition program are:

1. to help pupils write clearly, thoughtfully and responsibly

2. to give pupils practice in writing a variety of types of composition.

Skills. Adeptness in expressing ideas is important. For this, pupils need not only to develop mastery in using the mechanics of writing but need also to attain:

— precision in word choice
— variety and clarity of sentence structure
— skill in establishing a predetermined tone, mood, impression
— distinctive and natural style of writing.

Understandings. Pupils need to know why we write. In the primary grades pupils express these purposes concretely—to tell a story, to say thank-you, to say please come, to tell how it works, to say we are sorry you have the mumps. Secondary-school pupils may use other expressions—to inform, persuade, clarify, describe, narrate, give pleasure, but their intent is the same—to understand clearly their purpose for writing.

Pupils also need to understand what the composing process is. Few may be able to verbalize about it, but all pupils—even little children in grade one as they dictate to the teacher—can sense this concept through experience. Pupils need help in observing carefully, in selecting, arranging, refining, and, finally, in expressing their ideas clearly and concretely.

Pupils need to learn that effective writing is never free from the structural conventions of language. It may go beyond these conventions as a skilled ballet dancer goes beyond the five basic positions which are still basic regardless of modifications. Successful writing uses the conventions of language as tools for communication.

Growing awareness of the different forms of writing is important for pupils, too. For example, pupils need to develop an understanding of what constitutes poetry. This does not mean we expect a critical treatise on the essence of poetry—although *some* gifted juniors or seniors *may* be able to attempt this. It does mean, however, that all pupils need many experiences with many types of poems so that they can sense and discuss the elements of poetry in terms suited to their level of maturity. It is much more than metered verse that rhymes. Indeed, older pupils should learn that at times it is neither of these. They should also come to know what makes each different form of writing effective.

Attitudes. Expressing ideas in writing should be a self-rewarding experience for pupils. It gives them a chance to look at themselves, to examine their own ideas, to select those ideas they would like to share with someone else, to think these ideas th gh, to arrange them meaningfully, and then to express them as effectively as possible. In this sense, written composition can be a satisfying experience provided that pupils have a real motive for writing which is important to them.

How Are Goals Achieved?

Organization. A teaching staff needs organizational guidelines for planning instruction in written composition. A guide committee should give them help in answering questions such as:

— How much writing should be required?

— What proportion of composition assigned should be practical writing? Imaginative writing?

— How much writing should be related to pupils' work in literature? In language? To other subjects or activities? To personal interests or school affairs?

— To what extent should rapid writing—such as is required in hurriedly writing a note to a friend or in writing examinations at upper levels of school be stressed?

— To what extent should various forms of writing—personal essay, exposition, letter writing, note-taking, etc.—be emphasized? For which pupils?

— When and to what extent should research writing be undertaken? For which pupils?

Many factors—such as teacher load, availability of assistance in terms of teacher aides, availability of equipment, etc.—will influence a guide committee's answers to these questions. Some of these factors might be considered important enough so that the guide planning group will decide to write a separate section or a separate bulletin detailing the area.

Methods. Writers of the guide should discuss and recommend methods for attaining written composition goals.

— How can a teacher help pupils observe accurately? To select pertinent ideas? Order ideas meaningfully? Express ideas effectively?

— To what extent should pupils write for the teacher? For their classmates? For others? For themselves?

— How should teachers decide whether a pupil's composition should be read or displayed to his classmates?

— How can a teacher devise appropriate topics for written composition at various grade levels? How can he use these topics to motivate and challenge each pupil?

— What use should be made of group writing of compositions, often called experience charts in primary grades? Can group writing be used effectively in upper grades?

— What are some ways composition work can be tied in with other study in language arts? In other subjects? In the life of the school?

— What are some suggestions for effective evaluation of pupils' written composition? (Models of corrected papers? Group sessions for evaluation of a few selected compositions?)

Materials, resources, aids. The bare essentials for creation of a written composition are a purpose or something to write about, a sense of organization, and knowledge of conventions for transmitting written ideas to others. However, there are other items that make the job easier and make it

possible for more pupils to become skilled in written composition. (See page 65; also some items listed on page 51.)

A guide committee should answer some basic questions about materials:

— To what extent is a composition textbook useful? For which pupils? How might it be used effectively?

— What are some reference works and other materials for teaching composition that are appropriate at various levels of school?

— Where can the teacher find examples of well-written descriptions, well-told anecdotes, and the like?

-- What are some effective ways to use an overhead projector in teaching composition before pupils write? After they have written?

— What persons in the school and community can make a contribution to composition instruction at various grade levels?

— What places and activities in the school community can stimulate pupils at various levels to have ideas to write about? For example, they may be as simple as the sound of crunching snow under one's feet in winter.

9. CONTENT: LITERATURE

What Does It Include?

A working definition is a necessary first step in considering literature. People have different ideas about what literature is. A few say it includes only the classics—those great masterpieces of writing that have withstood the test of time. Some hold that literature is writing that, by the artistic standards of educated adults, can be adjudged art—writing of distinction. Others believe that it is any writing that is internally consistent and logical within the world it creates. Still others believe literature is writing that inspires, thrills, stimulates, saddens, delights: writing that "touches the reader deeply."

Perhaps no one of these definitions is entirely adequate. Perhaps literature is all of these things and more—a mirror of life in which the reader can more clearly see himself, his existence, and mankind.

Whatever the definition, one thing is quite clear: No definition means much without specific illustrations. The working definition of literature should include specific examples at successive levels that qualify as literature, as well as examples that would not be considered literature.

Professor J. N. Hook distinguishes between "mere reading" and "literature."* The former may be a lesser form of fiction with the purpose merely to entertain. It runs the gamut from simple, placid little stories to those which give a false impression of life as they "fiddle harmonics on the emotional strings".**

Great literature never makes a frontal attack on the emotions, depending rather on the depth of feeling stimulated by the realities of the situation in which the characters find themselves. The author presents his own personalized interpretation of life in a real or imagined story, lending a depth of sincerity to the whole work. Literary values involve style, appreciation of which develops slowly as children mature. A carefully thought through curriculum will foster gradual growth in appreciation of such literature and will present aids to increasing power in interpreting it. Literary types differ in their manner of approach to human experience. Distinctions of style and of literary form vary with the message the author wishes to convey.

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*Hook, J. N. *The Teaching of High School English.* 3rd ed. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1965, p. 131.
**Fairchild, A. H. R. *The Teaching of Poetry.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1914, p. 69. Also, Leonard, Sterling A. *Essential Principles of Teaching Reading and Literature in the Intermediate Grades and High School.* Philadelphia: J.B. Lippincott, 1922, p. 27.

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All this a curriculum must present to pupils at every grade level through a choice of methods commensurate with the children's stage of understanding and appreciation, whether it be through *Mother Goose, The Hare and the Tortoise*, Lorraine and Gerald Beim's *Two Is a Team, The Shoemaker and Elves* or *Make Way for Ducklings* at the primary level, or *Tom Sawyer, Robin Hood* or Charlemae Rollins' *Christmas Gif'* or *Charlotte's Web* in the intermediate grades. *Treasure Island* or James Daugherty's *Daniel Boone, The Yearling* or *Amos Fortune: Free Man* for many pupils at the junior high school level, and for some of them *Shane* or *Durango Street* and, finally, Nat Hentoff's *I'm Really Dragged But Nothing Gets Me Down* or Annabel and Edgar Johnson's *Count Me Down,* and then, *The Return of the Native* or *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn* or *Lord Jim* for mature high school readers.

This discussion of printed materials classified as literature raises an important question: *Must literature be read or does its scope embrace writing that may be seen and heard?*

Some authorities believe the newspaper account and the TV performance *are* the literature of many people and will continue to be whether teachers like it or not. The scope of literature they envision would include well-written pieces that might be "heard" on a commercial recording or in a passage of "live" oral reading, "seen" on a film or TV broadcast, as well as read in current paperback books, periodicals, and other printed matter.

Pupils' Readiness for Literature

Their experiences. If pupils are to experience literature, if it is to touch them deeply, have meaning, it must present comprehensible experiences. This does not mean that writing must describe only the kinds of experiences they themselves have had. It does mean that there must be some meaningful connection between literature and the experiences of pupils. Fortunately, most children pass readily from the real world to the wondrous realm of the imagination, so that they are perfectly at home with the fairy tales. The time will come when there is a break between the fairy tale world and the world in which they live. With most children after the fourth and fifth grades, it may be too late to capitalize fully on a dream world.

Their abilities. If pupils are to deal with literature successfully, the material they are asked to read must be within their comprehension. At any particular grade level teachers will find a wide range of reading ability among pupils and an equally disparate background of experience with which to interpret character and events. There must be a correspondingly wide range in the difficulty and social maturity of the reading materials furnished. Something slightly beyond the capacity of the child to achieve without classroom help should be the aim. General language skills and pupil differences in reading ability were discussed on pages 45-47 and 58-59. It should suffice to say that the literature program must take cognizance of what is known about pupils' reading skills.

In addition to basic reading skills, certain specialized abilities are needed for dealing with literature. These include:

— visualizing
— feeling rhythm
— sensing the author's tone
— recognizing clues to character, plot, and setting and sensing the interaction of all three.

Makers of the guide must help teachers adapt each of these skills to the level of maturity of the pupils concerned.*

Their understandings. The depth of pupils' understandings of literature will vary at different levels of the school system. It is not necessary for young children to be able to verbalize these understandings; some less able secondary pupils will not be able to express them in words.

Some of these understandings will be:

— Literature is life.**
— Literature reveals man.
— Literature provides social insight.'
— Literature fosters international understanding.
— Literature is art.
— Literature yields human values.
— Literature is thought-provoking.
— Literature is fun.

Their attitudes and appreciations. Generally schools are content to allow elementary school children to enjoy literature. High-school pupils need ample opportunities for pure enjoyment as well, without expecting precise analysis of why it is enjoyed. Literary analysis of artistic technique and technical terminology—meter, metaphor, etc.—should be reserved for verbally mature pupils in the secondary school.

What Are the Instructional Goals?

The single, overarching goal of teaching literature is:

Pupils, at all levels of the school system, should have ample opportunity to know and to enjoy much well-written literature and to increase their power to respond to it effectively.

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*This does not mean that elementary schools should teach literary techniques or poetic devices. Elementary children are able to sense these things; literary terminology is mainly a concern for verbally sophisticated secondary school pupils.

**The first six understandings listed are adapted from *Teaching Language, Composition, and Literature* by Mary Elizabeth Fowler. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1965, pp. 218-222.

Specific goals and objectives for teaching literature include:
— to introduce pupils to their literary heritage
— to develop appreciation of literary types
— to develop skills needed for reading various literary types
— to gain knowledge of major authors and their contributions to literature
— to provide opportunity for growing self-perception
— to promote more perceptive understanding of man and man in society, of minority groups and social problems
— to stretch horizons through study of world literature
— to extend pupils' range of interests
— to promote a lifelong habit of association with good books.

Makers of the guide should also consider whether the goals they select are appropriate at particular levels of the school system or with certain types of pupils. The same subgoals are not equally suitable for all pupils at all levels. In the creation of the guide, they should likewise remember that the literature program has definite relationships with the programs in language, composition, and skills.

How Are Goals Achieved?

The tendency at each level of the school system from college to the first grade is to want to require pupils in grades below to have read certain specific classics before being admitted to the level above. Growth does not move from the top down. It was Jonathan Swift in *Gulliver's Travels* who satirized the absent-minded philosophers who wished to build their houses from the roof to the floor. All the research available suggests that the scheme has a narrowing influence, leads to unnatural emphasis in instruction, and does not promote a wise extension of reading powers. Wide and intelligent reading of selections suitable to the level of maturity of the reader has proved to be the best method of preparation for what is to follow.

From time to time members of a school community object to school assignment of a particular literary selection. Before these objections are raised, schools should develop a procedure for logical consideration of such challenges. National Council of Teachers of English publications—particularly the pamphlet *The Student's Right to Read*—suggest thoughtful procedures that might be adapted or adopted.

Organization and approaches. In the elementary school, the method of organization and approach to literary selections is seldom strongly subject-centered. At this level, the primary emphasis in selection and presentation of literary offerings usually is keyed to the developmental characteristics of children at various stages of growth. Some exemplary elementary school techniques, most often employed in combination, are:

Individual literary selections. Particular stories, poems, and other types of literature contain qualities that appeal to most children at a particular stage of growth. If teachers read aloud to pupils literature somewhat above the pupils' power to read for themselves, high standards of selection can be maintained because the teacher is there to direct the children's attention and explain passages which present difficu:.y. Choice of a selection should be based on understanding of pupils' present interests and tastes in literature and on their acquaintance with the great stories and other types of literature in their literary heritage as well as on beautifully-written pieces of literature published more recently.

Occasionally, teachers wishing to furnish information to their classes read aloud a book about how snowflakes are formed. For nature study, this practice is admirable, but such material should never be a substitute for imaginative literature. Joy in the story or poem is the aim—the development of a hunger for more.

Classification by literary techniques, except the difference between a story and a poem, has no place in the primary grades. To get the full flavor of *The Hare and the Tortoise*, it is not necessary for little children to classify it as a fable.

Particular writer or topic. At times, particular elementary school pupils are encouraged to read widely in literary selections by one author or on a certain topic—stories by Doris Gates, poems about animals, etc. This is a valuable technique provided the selection of author or topic is geazed to the special needs, interests, and abilities of each pupil concerned, since such extensive reading can provide opportunities for each pupil to develop a specialty useful in making his unique contribution to class discussion and study.

Teaching units. Units of teaching often provide a meaningful framework for presentation of literary selections to elementary school pupils. Often such units correlate the pupil's study of particular pieces of literature with his study of other subjects such as social studies, music, and science, and permit some opportunity for the pupil's personal selection, according to his needs, of particular literary works from among those contained on a broader teacher-selected list. With this technique, however, it becomes important that teachers exercise care lest growth in literary appreciation become smothered or inaccurately discolored by social problems or other subject-area concerns.

Class Projects. Class preparation of a dramatization of a certain literary selection the pupils enjoy, a choral reading program of poems they like, an annotated bibliography of literary titles they believe other children would enjoy reading, an anthology of literary selections they recommend as too good for next year's class to miss, and other projects, provides elementary

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school pupils with meaningful opportunities to become acquainted with a variety of excellent literary selections. In using this technique, however, it is important that teacher interest in a professional production not be allowed to overshadow pupil growth in learning.

In the junior and senior high schools, the techniques just listed are expanded and other common procedures are added:

Topic or theme. The use of topic or theme gives unity to the content of the books taught and permits choice of books similar in theme but varied in type or setting and of a wide range of difficulty. It is easy to adjust to individual differences in this approach and to unify discussion of a variety of books on the same theme. Since a common bond holds the selections together, the pupil has an opportunity to see how different authors writing in different forms treat similar ideas. Especially with weaker pupils, it is easier to promote discussion based on unity of idea than on form. However, with this plan of organization it is sometimes difficult to develop understanding and appreciation of different literary types as well as special skills needed for reading different types.

Student selection of literature. This technique is somewhat similar to the topic or theme approach except that individual choices of books suited to the interests and abilities of the pupils make possible a broader range of difficulty and of personal choice. Some people oppose this plan because it limits the pupils' chance of interpreting together the great classics and ignores form while discussing content.

Literary types. Adherents of this procedure claim that literary types—such as short stories or plays or essays or poetry—facilitate the development of reading skills and knowledge and appreciation of literary form. Critics point out that such grouping presents no common bond or theme, focusing too much attention on formal elements and literary criticism. They also feel compassion for a pupil compelled to concentrate through an entire unit on a literary type he does not enjoy.

Chronology. Those who favor chronology point to the opportunities it affords for emphasizing literary trends, for relating works to the period of history which produced them, and for understanding a literary selection as a part of a sequence of on-going literary events. Opponents argue that this approach does not stress literature so much as it treats literature as history. It is also a procedure which limits greatly the chances of caring for individual differences through presentation of a variety of selections of various levels of difficulty. The gifted pupil may be motivated to very mature performance, but the weak one may have no chance for success. It is appropriate, if at all, only with older pupils who have already developed "time sense."

Study of single selections. Advocates of centering study around single literary selections point out that this pattern permits study of a literary work in greater depth. A book chosen for this purpose is usually geared to the reading ability of superior readers. Critics fear the technique will be followed at the expense of pupils' development of extensive reading habits.

Sociopsychological approach. This approach is described by J. N. Hook as one which stresses the social and psychological aspects of literature. It encourages pupils to see literature as a revelation of living man in a living age. This, he points out, it may do at the expense of considering certain literary qualities of the selection studied.*

Analytical approach. The goal of the analytical approach is synthesis through analysis. The weakness of the approach is that in distorted form it becomes what pupils call "picking to pieces." "Its value is that, through its use, pupils can discover that true literature does not just happen but results from careful planning, selection and rejection of details, and painstaking workmanship. An even greater value is that, if the teacher used the analytical approach competently, the pupils may improve their reading abilities by learning to distinguish tree from grove in whatever they read."**

Two emphases to be avoided, Dr. Hook points out, are the "gushing" approach to beauty and pleasure, to the neglect of literary and mental growth of the pupil, and the didactic approach, which pursues chiefly the moral implications of a selection to the exclusion of attention to artistic values.†

Use of an anthology. There is considerable debate as to the value of using an anthology in literature classes. If the selections are well chosen, if they fit the particular needs of the pupils concerned, and if the program is followed wisely with sensible and selective use of all the editorial aids provided, this method can free the teacher from endless planning and makes possible more careful attention to individual pupils. Makers of anthologies are usually teachers of experience who have tried out their methods in a classroom over a considerable period of time. Beginning teachers often need direction which the anthologist can give until they are ready to proceed on the basis of their own experience. When libraries are limited, an anthology, carefully chosen with the needs of pupils in mind, is often a godsend.

Opponents of anthologies inveigh against the slavish following from one selection to the next of a textbook prepared out of the context in which it is to be used. There is legitimate protest against the rewriting or drastic cutting of selections to be read. It takes intelligence to choose and to use an anthology well. Elementary school teachers should particularly beware of watered-down versions of the classics which fail to give the flavor of the originals. Other methods such as story telling and use of recordings can be used to

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*Hook, J. N. *op. cit.* pp. 138-139.
**Ibid.*, pp. 137-138.
†*Ibid.*, pp. 137-138.

make these selections comprehensible to children who cannot read them at the age level to which they especially appeal.

No one method should prevail. Pupils should have experiences with all of these approaches. Perhaps some are more important than others at particular grade levels or with particular pupils. However, a combination of several methods appears sound.

Teachers designing a guide should answer several questions about instructional methods:

— Will deductive or inductive reasoning about literature be stressed?

— Will the main focus be on the literary selection or on critics' opinion about the literary selection?

— In each of the procedures above, how will individual differences be cared for?

— Must pupils *read* all literary selections? Might some be read to them? Dramatized for them?

— What importance will be given to knowledge of literary terminology— personification, ballad, etc.? To memorization of literary passages?

— How does age or experience affect the pupil's power to interpret?

What methods for studying a long selection (i.e., novel, five-act play) are recommended? Read a few pages at home and then discuss them in class the next day. Read several chapters or a sizable portion of the entire work before participating in class discussion of what has been read.

— What specific methods are recommended for studying various types of literature?

Materials, resources, aids. To identify particular selections of literature for study, makers of the guide should start with what they have found out about their pupils' interests at certain ages. Bearing these facts in mind, the committee might ask this question: *What literary selections of high quality also have a natural appeal to children and youth at various grade levels?* The answer to this question will automatically rule out much of what has been traditionally taught and rule in many new choices. It is a most important question and the hardest for adults, and teachers in particular, to answer, because many have developed adult preferences for literature often appropriate chiefly for verbally gifted juniors and seniors in high school. However, the question has served its purpose if it sends teachers on an exciting exploration of the vast wealth of literature for children and young adults.

Under this first all-important question are many subquestions that are related to the school's goal for literature study, such as:

— What literature has a natural appeal to children and *also* introduces them to their literary heritage?

— What literature has a natural appeal to pupils and *also* provides opportunities to teach such matters as tone, imagery, allusion, characterization?

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Sleuthing for clues to the plot? Relationship of the plot to setting or characters?

— To what extent is it advisable to use simplified or adapted classics as material for the literature program?

Another related question worthy of careful consideration is: *What literature is suggested for class study and what for individual study?* Answers to these questions point to new selections for the literature program—selections that "talk" to children and youth.

Many additional materials and resources have been described on pages 20-22 and 60. Of particular importance for success of a literature program at both elementary and secondary levels are well-stocked, effectively staffed school libraries whose personnel work closely with teachers. Those designing a guide might answer these questions about the school library:

— Does the school meet ALA standards** for its book collection? Space and facilities? Staff? If it does not, what recommendations will improve it?

— Are individual pupils given instruction in library skills and ample opportunities to study, and to browse and select books for personal reading?

— Is a generous supply of books of many interest and ability levels readily available to all pupils at all levels of school? If not, what suggestions will strengthen this situation?

How Does a Personal Reading Habit Develop?

One of the most important aspects of the English program is the stimulation of a lifelong habit of reading *good* books. Material used for this purpose is not always *great* literature, but it is good reading, the kind that intelligent adults do constantly. Many of these books are related to the current scene; some of them take their readers into faroff lands which are influencing our world today. Some of them deal with very human problems of concern to people who wish to make something of their lives. Some deal with the struggle to realize the potential of our society. There are hundreds of books of this sort for children and young adults of all ages.

Appendix G contains many excellent references to books that are interesting and challenging for personal reading as well as to recordings and films for acquainting pupils of all ages with the classics. The list of publications of the National Council of Teachers of English also presents recordings and films, as does a list of classics and other stories as told by expert storytellers available from the New York Public Library.

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*Appendix G contains annotated descriptions of booklists that will direct teachers to many well-written pieces of literature suited to different age groups, abilities, and interests.

**See *Standards for School Library Programs.* Chicago: American Library Association (latest edition listed in Appendix C).

Good reading which raises the level of an individual's taste and lifts him one step nearer mature reading has an important place in the elementary and secondary programs, as it has in the lives of intelligent adults.

Probably more dropouts leave school because of literature programs pitched way beyond their abilities and their interests than for any other reason. The language arts program has a responsibility to these children just as much as to the college-bound.

10. IMPLEMENTATION

Circulation of the guide is essential. It may be a mimeographed guide. It may be printed. Occasionally, it may be put in binders to encourage additions. But always it is available in sufficient numbers so that each teacher has his own copy for study and comment.

Such careful work goes into preparation that it is easy to forget that publication is only a beginning. Five continuing tasks follow:

1. organizing teaching staff and students
2. providing facilities and materials
3. supplying supportive services
4. instituting inservice education
5. reviewing and revising the guide.

Organization

Of teachers. Teachers must have a workload that enables them to carry out suggestions in the guide. Duties reasonable to expect of teachers will depend on many factors such as:

- type of teaching (fexible grouping, team teaching, individualized instruction, etc.)
- ability of pupils (slow learners, verbally gifted, etc.)
- supportive services available (remedial teacher, librarian, lay assistant, etc.)
- facilities and materials provided (conference rooms, instructional equipment, etc.)
- nonteaching duties assigned (supervision of lunchroom, coaching of school play, etc.)

For various other reasons a teacher's work load might be less but, for implementing the guide effectively, maximum teaching assignments for all teachers should be:

- kindergarten - 15 children
- first grade - 20 children
- all other grades - 20-25 pupils per class

The NCTE recommends that English teachers in departmentalized schools should teach no more than four classes and have at least one period, preferably two, per day for conferences with pupils, cooperative planning with other teachers, and instructional preparation.

- To participate in team teaching teachers need common planning periods with other team members.
- To work with another teacher's class in the area of his specialty a teacher needs someone temporarily to take over his regular responsibilities.
- To prepare teaching materials for use by other staff members a teacher needs time in his work day.

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Effective teacher scheduling should be in accord with the teaching program expressed in the guide.

Of pupils. Unusual learning opportunities can arise from flexible scheduling or arrangement of pupils' time so as to permit:

— interclass groupings

— days for independent study by a small number of pupils excused from their regular classes

— pupil attendance at a matinee performance.

Thoughtful organization of pupils designed to facilitate a promising new program does much to insure its success. Teachers should have a part in establishing criteria for such grouping.

Facilities and Materials

In addition to a guide and effective school organization teachers must have appropriate teaching facilities, equipment, and materials.

Teaching facilities and equipment. Determining facilities and equipment needed for implementation is no job at all if the guide committee has drawn up a list. If there is no list, a thoughtful review of the guide should indicate what is needed.

— Are teachers requested to keep cumulative records of pupil progress? If yes, ample filing facilities are needed.

— Are teachers advised to confer with individual pupils regularly? If yes, conference space is needed.

— Are substantial classroom book collections expected? If yes, bookshelves as well as books are needed.

— Is independent study an important aspect of the program? If yes, carrels or some other type of independent study areas are needed.

— Are pupils to use taping-listening stations for practice in spoken usage? If yes, equipment is needed.

Teaching materials. Obviously, a new program will necessitate purchase of some—more likely, many—new instructional materials. If many materials are needed the cost may be too high to purchase everything in one year. In this case, teachers who will use the materials should participate in the purchasing decisions. For the first year, they may prefer to supply every teacher with new language study books, or each elementary teacher with basal reading books and each secondary teacher with an up-to-date unabridged dictionary and small sets of several different reading textbooks, or all teachers with adequate classroom book collections for pupils' personal reading. Teachers, in cooperation with the administration, should draw up a long-range plan and assign priorities identifying what materials will be purchased and when.

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The professional library in each school should have the latest curriculum data:

— up-to-date samples of the most recent instructional materials such as text-books, instructional kits, programmed-learning units, workbooks, study aids, audiovisual materials, published tests

— professional magazines, journals, and texts for keeping the teacher informed about what is happening not only in his particular field but also in related areas, and in the broader area of curriculum planning.

The guide is never complete. Supplements may be needed for grade levels or for areas, with specific attention to new materials, methods, research, and experiments. Samples of actual classroom activities illustrating the general principles underlying the guide may be developed.

Supportive Services

English and reading specialists. Teachers may need the assistance of specialists. Coordinators K–12 in English and reading can strengthen continuity of the new program from grade to grade and level to level in the system. The number of coordinators needed varies according to the training of the teaching staff, the needs of pupils, and other teacher services provided in the system, but a minimum would be:

Number of Pupils (ADM)	Number of Coordinators K–12
10,000 or more	One full-time English One full-time reading
5,000 to 10,000	One full-time English and reading
Fewer than 5,000	One part-time English and reading (shared with another town or hired from a nearby school or college)

in addition, each school should have the services of an English and reading specialist to provide teachers with on-the-spot assistance in improving instruction, and specialists to provide remedial instruction for pupils achieving markedly below their capacities.

Other specialists. Other supportive services may also be needed. Certainly school library services are indispensable. An audiovisual specialist can help teachers to utilize valuable learning media effectively. Guidance services strengthen the program immeasurably. A school social worker can broaden understanding of pupils and establish vital contact with parents.

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Continuing Inservice Education

One vital job remains—continuing teacher education. Teachers must have opportunity to discuss and develop explicit amplification of what is suggested in the guide. If participation in the construction of the guide has been broad, teachers will be motivated to explore, on their own initiative, means of implementing it. But they need guidance.

Teachers' meetings. The best guide is only an outline. Informal buzz sessions can suggest specific applications to, say, a class of verbally gifted third graders or a seventh-grade class of slow learners. But buzz sessions are not all.

Other more structured types of training sessions are needed at which:

1. a teacher demonstrates a lesson he has developed to implement the guide

2. a consultant from a publisher explains new materials

3. teachers prepare instructional materials for classroom use

4. a guest speaker shares techniques used in other school systems

5. teachers preview new instructional materials or equipment being considered for purchase

6. teachers cooperatively grade samples of pupils' written compositions or listen to and discuss taped samples of pupils' oral communication

7. teachers discuss a particular area of language arts such as the implications of rhetorical theory or the significance of latest research findings in a particular area or a new insight expressed in a recent publication.

The possibilities for inservice meetings are almost endless. But teacher training sessions must be centered on topics recognized as important by the teachers themselves.

Other inservice activities. In addition to inservice meetings, other opportunities for teachers include:

1. maintaining active membership in professional organizations (local, state, national) for English and reading teachers

2. visiting classes at other levels of the school system to see what happens to pupils below and above their grade. (Some teachers may have had this opportunity during guide construction. During implementation teachers need to understand what the "new program" is like at other levels, too.)

3. visiting classes in other schools to discover problems their teachers have encountered and steps they are taking to resolve them

4. undertaking college study in an area in which better understanding is needed, e.g., linguistics

5. organizing a series of seminar sessions or a college course for local teachers

6. attending local, state, and national study sessions, conferences, and institutes

7. pursuing a course of independent investigation of a stubborn problem

8. planning a proposal for state or federal funding of a new local program.

Any opportunity which encourages teachers to look closely at what they are *expected* to do, what they *want* to do, and what they *are* doing, provides fertile ground for inservice education.

With a new guide, school conditions that make the new program operable, and on-going training for teachers, implementation is well on its way!

Review and Revision

Is there an end to curriculum review and revision? In a word, no. For school systems that have previously not had a K–12 guide, the task may seem difficult indeed. But the meetings, consultations, study, and evaluations which go into such a task have the double value of establishing the machinery for continuing review and revision, and of creating an attitude toward curriculum as a growing and developing aspect of the school.

Machinery for review and revision. Teachers who plan a guide should also plan the means for its systematic review and revision. Sometimes inserted in a new guide are blank pages — or better yet, pages with leading questions—and the teachers are encouraged to jot down their questions and suggestions for improvement. Regularly scheduled meetings for discussion of the new guide are essential, as is an on-going record of suggestions for change. An exemplary guide is a dynamic instrument.

New attitudes toward curriculum. Certain psychological advantages are inherent in a year of sweeping changes. If the most respected members of the faculty support the new approaches, a wave of new enthusiasm and fresh determination to make the new curriculum truly effective spreads broadly.

Opportunity for innovation. Hopefully, the new guide has outlined the overall design for the program but left ample opportunity for promising innovation—the changes that will keep the guide up-to-date. Certain changes are best tested on a small scale before they are adopted by the whole school. For example, a basic change in approach to language study or beginning reading instruction may require two or three years of testing with experimental and control groups before teachers can decide whether or not it meets the needs of pupils in that particular school system. No amount of general study can provide the specific data which testing in one's own school can produce.

Old tests may not serve in evaluating new approaches. Frequently it will be necessary to ask the basic question: Exactly what results are we seeking? The answers to that question may suggest new testing methods.

Flexibility gives imaginative teachers encouragement to try innovations, to experiment, and to test suggested revisions in the new guide. It keeps the guide responsive to improved practice.

Communication with other staff members. The lines of communication between teachers and administrators and specialists such as school librarians, reading teachers, therapists, and audio-visual specialists should be wide open. During a period of curriculum revision such communication reaches a peak; it should not decline once the guide has been distributed. Evaluation and the prospect of revision should be discussed periodically.

Means of review and revision. As with its construction, guide review and revision take time—released time, reduced teaching loads, paid vacation time. There are no real shortcuts if the guide is to be the means of meeting the true needs of pupils.

It also takes money. The administration and the community must understand that pupils have a right to a viable curriculum under constant scrutiny and periodic revision.

A guide becomes a part of the school when teachers know it is their own best work and when they also know that their opinions and experiences will affect changes made next year.

A perpetually developing, "living" guide is both the product and the reflection of a faculty which itself is developing and "live" to new challenges.

APPENDIX A
CURRICULUM GUIDES

Guides in this appendix have been recommended by the 1968 NCTE Committee to Review Curriculum Guides.

The purpose of the Committee to Review Curriculum Guides of the National Council of Teachers of English is to review, as a service to schools, curriculum guides voluntarily submitted to NCTE and to recommend superior guides for display at NCTE conventions. Each year the committee compiles an annotated list of recommended guides for the benefit of schools and agencies which are developing curricula and writing guides so that they may obtain copies for examination. Because no specific guides were solicited by the committee and because some excellent guides are now out of print, being revised, or otherwise unavailable, it must be recognized that the selection printed here is not necessarily representative. The committee does feel, however, that the guides on this list are probably among the best which have been produced by schools in the past few years.

The annotations printed here, most of them based on comments made by committee reviewers, have been contributed by Dorothy Davidson, Sister Mary Xavier, Brother Thomas Corbett, and the editor, William J. Scannell.

The Committee to Review Curriculum Guides intends to revise its annotated list of recommended guides yearly. The committee welcomes guides for review. Those schools and agencies which would like to submit guides for review should send two copies to the Curriculum Materials Associate, NCTE, 508 South Sixth Street, Champaign, Illinois 61820.

All of the guides recommended here are, with a few noted exceptions, available for purchase or free from the schools and agencies responsible for producing the guides. In most cases payment should accompany orders for guides. None are available directly from NCTE.

A guide which is prefixed by an asterisk is available on microfiche at $0.25 per fiche (up to sixty pages each) or hard copy at $0.04 per page for ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS). Abbreviations in the bibliographic citations for each document are MF for microfiche, HC for hard copy. These asterisked guides, as well as others on the annotated list and a great variety of other publications on the teaching of English, are indexed and abstracted in the ERIC abstract journal, *Research in Education*. (See Appendix D.)

Grades K—13

A Chart of Skills in Oral and Written Communication: Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve. Tulsa Public Schools, Tulsa, Oklahoma. Revised 1963. 91 pages. $1.50.

This guide is a supplement to other curriculum materials already in use and is designed to promote coordination of the various aspects of the language arts program for kindergarten through twelfth grade. It outlines skills and abilities and suggests classroom activities for each in the areas of writing, listening, speaking, and language. The guide is in chart form, divided into four columns for kindergarten to third, fourth to sixth, seventh to ninth, and tenth to twelfth grades.

Course of Study for the Language Arts: Grades One Through Twelve. Ridley School District, Administration Building, Folsom, Pennsylvania 19033. 1961. Approximately 555 pages. $9.00. ERIC abstract in *Research in Education*, January 1969.

This guide lists specific goals for learning and a wealth of classroom activities for listening, speaking, writing, and literature at each grade level. For each of the areas the guide also provides supplementary background information for the teacher, resource materials, bibliographies, and suggestions for evaluation. Lengthy appendices contain such helpful items as ninety-six characteristics of the good student writer and "teacher concepts basic in a development grammar and language usage program."

Dialog with a Teacher of Listeners, Speakers, Readers, Writers (Grades K—13). State Department of Public Instruction, Box 697, Dover, Delaware 19901. 1967. 45 pages. $1.00.

This guide is designed to help provide a common ground for English language arts teachers in promoting horizontal and vertical articulation. It contains questions, checklists, and brief statements to stimulate thinking and discussion in the areas of teaching listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The guide is partly aimed at orienting first-year teachers.

The English Language Arts: Grades Seven Through Twelve. Tulsa Public Schools, Tulsa, Oklahoma. 1966. 222 pages. $2.00

This guide discusses basic considerations in planning and organizing the language arts program, including speaking and listening, reading, writing, language, mass media, the library, and meeting individual differences. Scope and sequence are given for reading and literature, listening and speaking, and writing. Suggestions for planning units of instruction and about fifty sample units (about one page each) are provided. Good points of the guide are attention to research in linguistics (up to 1966) and practical suggestions for using audiovisual materials and the mass media.

*English Language Framework for California Public Schools: Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve. Order Section, Fiscal Office, State Department of Education, 721 Capitol Mall, Sacramento, California 95814. 1968. 120 pages. $0.25. ERIC abstract in *Research in Education,* November 1968.

This publication was produced to provide principles and general guidelines to be used by California' schools in developing English language arts programs suitable for their particular situations. It includes discussions of the components of English, ways of unifying the English program at different levels, and a number of crucial issues related to the teaching of English. Lengthy appendices present many suggestions for teaching language, literature, and composition. Although much of the content is of a general nature, the ideas expressed reflect the most recent research and theories concerning the teaching of English.

Evaluating Written Composition in Elementary and Secondary School (Grades 5, 8, and 11). Baltimore County Public Schools, Towson, Maryland. 1967. 152 pages. $3.00. ERIC abstract in *Research in Education,* January 1969.

This resource bulletin was developed to help teachers establish objectives and realistic criteria for improving pupils' writing and evaluating it according to the established criteria. Numerous examples of student writing are provided to illustrate various levels of achievement typical in the three grades. The bulletin emphasizes the role of evaluation in teaching composition.

A Framework For a Strand Curriculum: Grades K-12. Publications Section, Department of Public

Instruction, State Office Building, Des Moines, Iowa 50319. 1968. 31 pages plus 2 folded charts. $0.50. ERIC abstract in *Research in Education,* January 1969.

This framework is basically a comprehensive list of optimum goals and basic considerations for aiding local school districts in developing guidelines and more detailed courses of study for kindergarten through twelfth grade language arts programs. Areas covered are speaking, listening, reading, writing, study and thinking skills, literature, lanugage, and mass media. Of the large foldout charts provided, one identifies communication, thinking, and study skills, and the other lists thought-process focuses and content strands by grade level. This publication is intended to be the first unit in an ongoing curriculum program. A helpful annotated bibliography of resource materials is included.

Handbook for English Language Arts: Reading and Literature (Grades 5-12). Bureau of Curriculum Development, Board of Education of the City of New York, Publications Sales Office, 110 Livingston Street, Brooklyn, New York 11201. 1968. 324 pages. $4.00 (payment must accompany orders; make checks payable to Editor, Board of Education), ERIC abstract in *Research in Education,* January 1969.

This handbook is designed primarily for average and above average students, although much guidance is provided for helping students with below-level reading achievement. Extensive treatment is given to teaching reading skills at every grade level. The section on literature contains chapters on methods of teaching, content and sequence, integration of literature and the mass media, and illustrative lessons and units. Attention is given to the integration of reading skills and literature and to reading in other subject areas.

Literature Program K-12 (Bulletin No. 185, in three volumes: Part I, K-6; Part II, 7-9; Part III, 10-12). Montgomery County Public Schools, 850 North Washington Street, Rockville, Maryland 20850. Part I, 1965; Parts II and III, 1966. Approximately 250 pages each. $10.00 per volume.

Part I (recommended and annotated in 1967) introduces the literature program for kindergarten through twelfth grade, organized into a thematic structure including the following: Man and Self,

Man and Society, Man and Nature, and Man and the Cosmos. Literary excerpts are presented to exemplify these themes. Illustrative units are provided for specific literary works for each grade level. In Parts II and III the four major themes are integrated with study of the structure of the various genres. Sequential charts, reading lists, sample units, and lesson plans abound. Descriptively stated concepts and generalizations are provided for the nature, function, and structure of literature. Goals for the student are stated in behavioral terms. Goals in language arts areas related to literature—listening and reading, thinking, speaking and writing—are included to help teachers unify the content of English. Substantial appendices present such supplementary material as audiovisual aids and professional references.

Elementary: Grades K-8

Avon's Non-Graded English Language Arts Program (Primary and Intermediate, Volume I). Avon Public Schools, Avon, Connecticut. 1967. 92 pages. $5.00.

This guide attempts to unify and present skills in speech, literature, composition, spelling, reading, and grammar in sequential steps of increasing sophistication. Levels one through eight are predominantly oral levels to teach fundamental rules in spelling, basic understandings in literature, readiness skills in reading, oral expression, grammar, and composition. Levels nine through 23 emphasize work. Skills and knowledge to be gained are stated in behavioral terms. This guide is helpful only for identifying skills and sequence. No suggestions for teaching methods or specific activities to promote learning of skills are provided. The guide is essentially a chart of skills and sequence. A student may pass from one level to another in a sequence only after evaluation by his own teacher and another teacher in the system.

Children and Listening Centers: Why—How—What (Grades K-6). Curriculum Center, Orange County Schools, 1104 West Eighth Street, Santa Ana, California 92701. 1966. 96 pages. $1.50.

This attractive pamphlet outlines practical suggestions for listening practice in all areas of the elementary curriculum. The subject, grade level, scales to be learned, and length of time are included in the outline of each exercise. Several exercises are provided for the following sub-jects: foreign language, science, oral language, spelling, literature, music, history, art, mathematics, vocabulary, phonics, creative writing, sentence word order, and dialect differences. Also included are suggestions for planning listening centers, using tape recorders, and evaluating growth in listening.

Curriculum Guide—Elementary English (Grades K-6). Orange County Public Schools, Orlando, Florida. 1966. 182 pages. $3.00.

This guide was produced as part of a Basic Learning Improvement Project and presents a wealth of specific activities and experiences designed to promote learning skills, concepts, and attitudes in listening and observing, written and oral communication, literature, and study skills. Goals for skills, concepts, and attitudes are stated in behavioral terms for average and above average students in grades one through six.

Handbook for Language Arts: Pre-Kindergarten, Grades One and Two. Board of Education of the City of New York, Publications Sales Office, 110 Livingston Street, Brooklyn, New York 11201. 1966. 416 pages. $5.00 (payment must accompany orders; make checks payable to Auditor, Board of Education). ERIC abstract in *Research in Education,* January 1969.

The program in this handbook is based on current concepts about the use and nature of language. All aspects of the language arts for all students are covered, with expected outcomes for listening, observing, literary appreciation, speaking, reading, and writing listed in the three broad categories of (1) Using Language to Acquire Knowledge, (2) Using Language to Organize and Express Ideas, and (3) Learning the Nature of Language. For each of the specific language art areas of activity, corresponding columns of action and performance are given in behavioral terms for the teacher and the children. Many brief lesson descriptions and specific activities are provided. Uniquely helpful sections of the handbook include "Interpreting Stories through Picture-Reading," "Teaching English as a Second Language," including sample oral pattern practice drills, and "Comparative Analyses" of English and Spanish, English and Italian, German, and Polish.

Individualized Reading and *Bait (Grades 1-6).* Beaverton School District No. 48, 303 S. W. Erickson, Beaverton, Oregon 97005. 1967. *Individualized Reading,* 55 pages: *Bait* 61 pages. *IR,* $4.95; *B,* $2.00.

Individualized Reading is designed to help teachers plan, implement, and evaluate individualized

teaching of reading. It lists skills to be taught, discusses grouping, and suggests individual activities in oral reading, speaking, dramatization, writing, painting, and drawing. *Bait* is a supplementary aid containing descriptive lists of specific activities and experiences for pupils in reading, writing, speaking, listening, and spelling, and for free time periods. *Bait* is organized for easy selection and use.

The Language Arts Program in the Elementary School, Part One—Oral Communication, and Part Two—Written Communication (Grades K-6). Board of Education, Prince George's County, Upper Marlboro, Maryland, 1966. Part ONe, 103 pages; Part Two, 135 pages. $2.50 each.

These two pamphlets explain, list skills, and suggest specific activities and experiences for a variety of oral and written communication activities. Lists of classroom learning experiences are suggested for each communication activity or skill at the primary, intermediate, and upper elementary levels. The format of these guides makes it easy for the teacher to select from the suggestions offered.

Secondary: Grades 7-12

The Advanced Placement Program in English: A Teacher's Guide (Grades 10,11, and 12). Cincinnati Public Schools, Cincinnati, Ohio. 1966. 149 pages. $3.00 (send orders with payment to Clerk-Treasurer, Board of Education, 608 East McMillan Street, Cincinnati, Ohio 45206).

This guide orients teachers to the advanced placement program in English and to the academically talented student. The content of the guide primarily consists of a suggested sequence in literature—the novel, nonfiction poetry, and drama—with suggestions for teaching specific works and a brief section discussing several aspects of the composition program.

An English Teacher's Manual of Unit Lessons in Language: Grades 7-12. Division of Instruction, Granite School District, Salt Lake County, Utah. 1964. 474 pages. $5.00

For practical suggestions for teaching about the English language, this guide is one of the most useful and complete ones available. It is full of detailed lesson plans and units on the dictionary, variations in language, and history and development of the English language. The section on

grammar is descriptive-structural, based on information available up to 1964. One of the unique features of this guide is a fifty-page section of oral drills to correct dialect patterns. Lists of readings for teachers and students are provided for each unit.

Composition: Growth Toward Reality (Grades 7-12). Arlington County Public Schools, Arlington, Virginia. 1966. 303 pages. $5.00. ERIC abstract in *Research in Education,* January 1969.

This guide contains a set of basic assumptions, introductions to expository and creative writing, and a cumulative writing program for grades seven through twelve. Much emphasis is placed on inductively helping students learn to "lay open" topics for writing through discussion. The lesson plans are clear, concise, and well organized. Five good articles on language and writing are appended to the guide. One outstanding feature of the guide is its attention to the crucial period of preparation before writing. The program outlined in this guide requires students to write a short narrative every day. The guide also includes a literary analysis chart and exercises in literary analysis for each grade level.

*A Course in Sequential Composition: Grades 10-12. St Louis Park School District No. 283, 6425 West 33rd Street, St. Louis Park, Minnesota 55426. 1967. 451 pages. Limited number available at $15.00. ERIC abstract in *Research in Education,* November or December 1968. Document to be available from EDRS.

This extensive guide contains thirty-three units, mostly on exposition, allocating work in six rhetorical categories among the three grade levels. The guide emphasizes prewriting and the use of student models and contains examples of student writing to exemplify many assignments. The six rhetorical categories upon which the guide is organized are conciseness and clarity, diction, sentence construction, unity, amplification, and coherence. Examples are also identified or quoted from student texts. All sections contain short bibliographies for the teacher and references to pages and chapters in student texts.

Discovering, Directing, Developing the Disadvantaged in English (Grades 7-9). Tulsa Public Schools, Tulsa, Oklahoma. 1967. 53 pages. $1.00.

This publication is designed to help the English teacher understand students who are economic-

ally, culturally, emotionally, or mentally deprived and adapt his teaching to meet their needs, interests, and capabilities. It would be especially helpful for beginning teachers. Suggested content, as well as a number of specific classroom activities, is provided.

English Language Arts Curriculum Guide: Grades 7-12. Edmonds School District No. 15, 3800 196th Street, S. W., Lynnwood, Washington 98036. 1968. 506 pages. $6.00. ERIC abstract in *Research in Education,* January 1969.

One of the best reviewed in recent years, this comprehensive guide is based on a conceptual approach to literature and reading, language, and composition. Skills and concepts are presented in sequential order and by grade level. An attempt is made to integrate activities in reading, writing, and language study. Broad concepts to be taught are subdivided into more specific generalization. Brief presentations of educational objectives in the cognitive and affective domains are included, as well as information on inductive teaching and the interrelationship of the language art The content of the guide is intended for a range of students from average to superior.

English Language Arts Curriculum Supplement (Grades 7-12). English Education Section, State Department of Public Instruction, Box 697, Dover, Delaware 19901. 1966. 290 pages. $2.25 ($0.25 per unit).

This publication basically consists of eight broad units, each containing a series of specific lessons planned around a central theme. The units and themes are: Unit 1, Language Study (senior high level); Unit 2, Contemporary Poetry (senior high); Unit 3, Journalism (junior high); Unit 4, History of the English Language (senior high); Unit 5, The Human Side of Puritanism (senior high); Unit 6, Composition: Writing a Character Sketch (junior high); Unit 7, The Nature of Tragedy (senior high advanced humanities classes); Unit 8, The Speech Art (senior high).

Language Arts Curriculum Guide: Grades 7-12 (Second edition). Richfield Public Schools, 70th and Harriet Avenue, Richfield, Minnesota 55423. 1968. Approximately 690 pages. $5.00. ERIC abstract in *Research in Education,* January 1969.

One of the most comprehensive and detailed guides available, this edition is a substantially re-

vised and lengthened version of the one previously recommended by NCTE. It contains goals, sample lesson plans and units, and explanations of all areas of the English language arts. It attempts a sequential-spiral progression of learning experiences for each grade level. One reason for the provision of such extensive kinds of information is to help teachers avoid relying on textbooks.

Literature, Language, Composition: A Thematic Approach (2 volumes-grades 7-9 and 10-12). The Board of Education, Cleveland Heights-University Heights City School District, 2155 Miramar Boulevard, Cleveland, Ohio 44118. Grades 7-9, 1966, 255 pages, $4.00; Grades 10-12, 1967, 325 pages, $4.00. ERIC abstract in *Research in Education,* January 1969.

A well-organized and unified program in literature, language, and composition is presented in these guides. Much of the content and student activity is focused on the following themes: junior high level—learning to understand oneself, one's family, and the world; senior high level—man's search for answers to recurring questions, man's answers to these questions, and realities of life in the areas of self-understanding, interaction in society, ideas, and escape. Sequential skills and concepts in language, literature, and composition are given, as well as specific goals, ways of motivation, and student activities. Many specific units and sample lesson plans are provided. The volume for grades seven through nine includes a very helpful forty-two-page section on teaching the slow learner. Much attention is given to methodology and teacher behavior, with both volumes containing reprints of a number of excellent professional articles. Other areas covered more extensively in these guides than in most are motivating students in all activities and techniques and rules for class discussion.

Resource Units in Language Arts for General Course Students in Senior High Schools. Board of Education of the City of New York, Publication Sales Office, 110 Livingston Street, Brooklyn, New York 11201. 1967. 110 pages. $1.50 (payment required with orders; make checks payable to Auditor, Board of Education). ERIC abstract in *Research in Education,* January 1969.

This pamphlet is designed to guide teachers of the general course student—the lowest 15-18 percent

of the school population, those who are slow, low achievers, and potential dropouts. Objectives, methodology, and sample lesson plans are provided for literature, reading skills, the library, oral English, written communication, technical English, and the mass media. A useful annotated bibliography on problems of teaching general course students is provided.

Structured Composition Program: Parts I and II (Grades 7-9 and 10-12). Montgomery County Public Schools, 850 North Washington Street, Rockville, Maryland 20850. 1967. Approximately 500 pages. $5.00.

This comprehensive and detailed guide presents a sequential program for all students in grades seven through twelve. The emphasis is on the discipline of expository writing. Ten specific writing assignments are presented for each grade level, and short professional models are provided to illustrate most assignments. Goals in both oral and written composition are stated in behavioral terms for the junior high and senior high levels. Concepts and generalizations to help teachers unify the teaching of composition with other areas of content—semantics, diction, observation, listening and reading, thinking, and speaking—are provided. A section suggesting ways to help slow learners is included.

*A Team Taught Communicative Skill: Composition and Speech and A Team Taught Communicative Skill: Literature (2 volumes, Grades 8-9 .)*Wahlquist Junior High School, Weber County, Utah.

1966. *Composition and Speech*, 87 pages; *Literature*, 155 pages. $1.25 each.

These two volumes introduce the team teaching of communications skills in general and specifically list content and sequence for individualized programs in literature, composition, and speech. The composition and speech volume includes samples of student writing, materials for evaluation for composition, and brief lesson guides for both teacher and student in several areas of speech. The literature volume contains content, sequence, and specific activities for four tracks or ability levels in the study of the short story, the novel, mythology, and thematic units, plus about fifty pages of objective tests and pop quizzes.

Up The Down Spiral with English (Grades 7-12). Board of Catholic Education, Diocese of Cleveland, Superior Road, Cleveland, Ohio. 1968. 104 pages. $4.00 ERIC abstract in *Research in Education,* January 1969.

This imaginative guide focuses broadly on human growth and integrates the experiences in the English program into processes of engagement, perception, interpretation, evaluation, and personal integration. To emphasize the continuous process of growth, experiences and concepts are presented sequentially in levels of growth rather than as strict grade requirements. One of the unique features of this guide is a section on evaluation which includes information on evaluating teaching and helping students to evaluate themselves. Another feature is the attempt to correlate English experiences with appropriate levels of adolescent psychological and learning development.

APPENDIX B
PROFESSIONAL JOURNALS

*Of special interest to elementary school teachers
**Of special interest to secondary school teachers

Childhood Education. Association for Childhood Education International, 3615 Wisconsin Ave., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20016. (monthly, September to May)

Connecticut Association for Reading Research Bulletin. Connecticut Association for Reading Research, Mrs. Nancy Antonez (co-ed.), Box 284, West Hartford, Conn. (one issue per year)

Connecticut English Journal. Connecticut Council of Teachers of English, Ralph L. Corrigan, Jr. (ed.), Sacred Heart University, Bridgeport, Connecticut 06604. (two issues per year)

Elementary English. National Council of Teachers of English, 508 So. Sixth St., Champaign, Ill. 61820. (monthly, October to May)

**English Journal.* National Council of Teachers of English, 508 So. Sixth St., Champaign, Ill. 61820. (monthly, September to May)

The Leaflet. New England Association of Teachers of English, Marian Gleason (ed.), 87 Appletree Point, Burlington, Vermont 05401. (four issues per year)

**Journal of Reading.* International Reading Association, Box 695, Newark, Del. 19711. (eight times per year)

**Journal of Reading Behavior.* National Reading Conference, Lawrence W. Hafner (ed.), College of Education, University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia 30601. (four issues per year)

**National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin.* National Association of Secondary School Principals, National Education Association, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036. (monthly, September to May)

National Elementary Principal. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036. (six issues per year)

Negro American Literature Forum. School of Education, Indiana State University, John F. Bayliss (ed.), School of Education, Indiana State University, Terre Haute, Ind. 47809. (four issues per year)

The New England Reading Association Journal. New England Reading Association. Robert C. Aukerman (ed.), University of Rhode Island, Kingston, R.I. (two issues per year)

The Reading Teacher. International Reading Association, Box 695, Newark, Del. 19711. (monthly, October to May)

**The Speech Teacher.* Speech Association of America, William Work, Executive Secretary, Statler Hilton Hotel, New York, N.Y. 10001. (four issues per year)

APPENDIX C
PROFESSIONAL BOOKS
FOR CURRICULUM COMMITTEES

*Of special interest to elementary school teachers
**Of special interest to secondary school teachers

*Growth, Development, Psychology, and
Learning (minimum: 3 or 4 books)*

Emig, Janet A. et al. (eds.). *Language and Learning.*
New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc.,
1966.

*Johnson, Ronald C., and Gene R. Medinnus. *Child
Psychology: Behavior and Development.* New
York: John Wiley and Sons, 1965.

*Lee, Doris. *Diagnostic Teaching.* Washington, D.C.:
Department of Elementary-Kindergarten-Nursery
Education. National Education Association, 1966.

Lifton, Walter M. *Working with Groups: Group
Process and Individual Growth* (2nd ed.). New
York: John Wiley and Sons, 1966.

Mednick, Sarnoff A. *Learning.* Foundations of Mod-
ern Psychology Series, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.:
Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964.

*Mussen, Paul H. *The Psychological Development of
the Child.* Foundations of Modern Psychology
Series. Englewood-Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc.,
1963.

**President's Committee on Youth Employment.
The Challenge of Jobless Youth. Washington: U.S.
Printing Office, 1963.

*Ribble, M. A. *The Personality of the Young Child.*
New York: Columbia University Press, 1965.

Smart, Mollie S. and Russell C. Smart. *Children: De-
velopment and Relationships.* New York: The
Macmillan Co., 1967.

Stephens, John M. *The Psychology of Classroom
Learning.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston,
1965.

Torrance, E. Paul and Robert D. Strom (eds.). *Mental
Health and Achievement: Increasing Potential and
Reducing School Dropout.* New York: Wiley,
1965.

*Wann, Kenneth. *Fostering Intellectual Development
in Young Children.* New York: Bureau of Publica-
tions, Teachers College, Columbia University,
1962.

Curriculum (minimum: 5 or 6 books)

Corbin, Richard et al (eds.). *Language Programs for
the Disadvantaged.* Champaign, Ill.: National
Council of Teachers of English, 1965.

**Commission on English of the College Entrance
Examination Board. *Freedom and Discipline in
English.* New York: College Entrance Examination
Board, 1965.

*Crosby, Muriel. *Curriculum Development for Ele-
mentary Schools in a Changing Society.* Boston:
D.C. Heath Co., 1964.

Fantini, Mario D. and Gerald Weinstein. *Toward a
Contact Curriculum.* New York: Anti-Defamation
League of B'nai B'rith, 1968.

Frazier, Alexander (ed.). *Ends and Issues—1965-66.* Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1966.

Inlow, Gail M. *The Emergent in Curriculum.* New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1966.

Kinder, Robert F. (ed.). *The English Program, K-12: The Tree and Its Roots.* Affiliate Publication of NCTE, Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1968.

**Lazarus, Arnold and Rozanne Knudson. *Selected Objectives for the English Language Arts: Grades 7-12.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1967.

Mager, Robert F. *Preparing Instructional Objectives.* Palo Alto, Calif.: Fearon Publishers, 1962.

National Council of Teachers of English. *The English Language Arts.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1952.

**National Council of Teachers of English. *The English Language Arts in the Secondary School.* Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1956.

*National Council of Teachers of English. *Language Arts for Today's Children.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1954.

Oliver, Albert I. *Curriculum Improvement: A Guide to Problems, Principles and Procedures.* New York: Dodd, Mead and Co., Inc., 1965.

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

General References (minimum: all books listed)

American Association of School Libraries, Division of the American Library Association. *Standards for School Library Programs.* Chicago: ALA, 1960. (new edition in progress)

Bryant, Margaret. *Current American Usage.* New York: Funk and Wagnalls, 1962.

Mencken, H. L., and Raven McDavid. *The American Language.* New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1963.

English Language Arts: General (minimum: 3 or 4 books)

**Burton, Dwight L. and John S. Simmons. *Teaching English in Today's High Schools.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1965.

Connecticut State Department of Education. *Teaching English Language Arts: Problems and Recommendations.* A Report of the Connecticut English and Reading Advisory Committee, Hartford: Connecticut State Department of Education, Bul. 107, 1968.

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Dixon, John. *Growth Through English.* Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1968.

**Fowler, Mary Elizabeth. *Teaching Language, Composition, and Literature.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1965.

*Frazier, Alexander (ed.). *New Directions in Elementary English.* Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1967.

**Hook, J. N. *Teaching of High School English* (3rd ed.). New York: The Ronald Press, 1965.

Jewett, Arno, et al (eds.). *Improved English Skills of Culturally Different Youth in Large Cities.* U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, U. S. Office of Education, Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, OE-30012, 1964.

*Leonard, Edith M. et al. *Basic Learning in the Language Arts.* Chicago: Scott, Foresman Co., 1965.

**Loban, Walter, et al. *Teaching Language and Literature.* New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1961.

Composition (minimum: 3 or 4 books)

*Applegate, Maureen. *Easy in English.* Evanston, Ill.: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1960.

*Burrows, Alvina T. et al. *They All Want to Write.* New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1964.

Certner, Simon and Murray Bromberg. *Getting Your Student To Write More Effectively.* Englewood-Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963.

**Gibson, Walker. *Seeing and Writing.* New York.: Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., 1961.

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**Hook, J. N. *Guide to Good Writing.* New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1962.

Jewett, Arno (ed.). *Improving English Composition.* Washington: National Education Association, 1965.

Wilson, Grace (ed.). *Composition Situations.* Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1966.

Language (minimum: 3 or 4 books)

Allen Harold B. (ed.). *Applied English Linguistics* (2nd ed.). New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1964.

Bloomfield, Morton. *A Linguistic Introduction to the History of English.* New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1963.

Board of Education of the City of New York. *Nonstandard Dialect.* Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1968.

Hogan, Robert F. (ed.). *The English Language in the School Program.* Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1966.

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Laird, Charlton. *The Miracle of Language.* Tarrytown, N.Y.: World Book Co., 1953.

Lin, San-Su C. *Pattern Practice in the Teaching of Standard English to Students with Non-Standard Dialect.* New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1965.

Malmstrom, Jean. *Language in Society.* New York: Hayden Book Co., 1965.

Stageberg, Norman. *An Introductory English Grammar.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1965.

Thomas, Owen. *Transformational Grammar and the Teacher of English.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1965.

Wetmore, Thomas H. (ed.). *Linguistics in the Classroom.* Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1964.

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*Arburthnot, May Hill. *Children and Books* (rev.). ed.). Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1957.

**Burton, Dwight L. *Literature Study in the High School* (2nd ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964.

**Dodds, Barbara. *Negro Literature for High School Students.* Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1968.

**Geiger, Don. *The Sound, Sense, and Performance of Literature.* Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1963.

*Huck, Charlotte and D. A. Huck. *Young Children's Literature in the Elementary School.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961.

*Larrick, Nancy. *A Teacher's Guide to Children's Literature.* Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, 1960.

**Rosenblatt, Louise. *Literature as Exploration.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1938. (new edition in process)

*Smith, Dora V. *Fifty Years of Children's Books.* Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1963.

Reading (minimum: 3 or 4 books)

**Bamman, Henry, et al. *Reading Instruction in the Secondary School.* New York: Longmans, Green, 1961.

*Bond, Guy L., and Eva Bond Wagner. *Teaching the Child to Read* (4th Ed.). New York: The Macmillan Co., 1966.

*Gans, Roma. *Common Sense in Teaching Reading.* Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Co., Inc., 1963.

*Harris, Albert J. *How To Increase Reading Ability* (4th ed. rev.). New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1961.

*McKee, Paul and William K. Durr. *Reading: A Program of Instruction for the Elementary School.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1966.

**Marksheffel, Ned D. *Better Reading in Secondary School: Principles & Procedures for Teachers.* New York: The Ronald Press, 1966.

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Spache, George D. *Toward Better Reading.* Champaign, Ill.: Garrard Press, 1963.

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*Tinker, Miles A., and Constance M. McCullough. *Teaching Elementary Reading.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1962.

Witty, Paul A., et al. *The Teaching of Reading: A Developmental Process.* Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1966.

Viewing and Listening (minimum: 3 or 4 books)

Barbara, Domonick A. *The Art of Listening.* Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, Publishers, 1958.

Boutwell, William D. (ed.). *Using Mass Media in the Schools.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1962.

McKinney, Eleanor (ed.). *The Exacting Ear.* New York: Pantheon Books, 1966.

McLuhan, Marshall. *Understanding Media.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1964.

Nichols, Ralph G. *Are You Listening?* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1957.

Postman, Neil, et al. *Television and the Teaching of English.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1961.

Sheridan, Marion C., et al. *The Motion Picture and the Teaching of English.* Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1965.

**Sohn, David A. *Film Study and the English Teacher.* Bloomington, Ind.: Indiana Audio-Visual Center, 1968.

Whyte, William H. *Is Anybody Listening?* New York: Simon and Schuster, Inc., 1952.

Speaking and Dramatics (minimum: 2 books on speaking and 1 or 2 on dramatics)

**Balcer, Charles L., and Hugh F. Seabury. *Teaching Speech in Today's Secondary Schools.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965.

Barnes, Douglas. *Drama in the English Classroom.* Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1968.

Burger, Isabel B. *Creative Play Acting: Learning Through Drama* (2nd ed.). New York: The Ronald Press, 1966.

*Byrne, Margaret C. *The Child Speaks: A Speech Improvement Program for Kindergarten and First Grade.* New York: Harper and Row, 1965.

Crosscup, Richard. *Children and Dramatics.* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1966.

Hedde, Wilhelmina, et al. *The New American Speech.* Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1963.

**Jenkinson, Edward, et al. *Teacher's Guide to High School Speech.* Indianapolis: Indiana State Department of Public Instruction, 1966.

Spolin, Viola. *Improvisation for the Theater.* Evanston, Ill.: Northwestern University Press, 1963.

APPENDIX D
RESEARCH: BIBLIOGRAPHIES
AND SELECTED SUMMARIES

Of special interest to elementary school teachers

**Of special interest to secondary school teachers*

**Artley, A. Sterl. *Trends and Practices in Secondary School Reading: A Report on Recent Research.* Newark, Del.: International Reading Association, 1968.

Bormuth, John R. *Readability in 1968.* Publication of National Conference on Research in English, Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1968.

Braddock, Richard et al. *Research in Written Composition.* Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1963.

*Burrows, Lavina T., et al. *Children's Writing: Research in Composition and Related Skills.* Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1961.

Burrows, Alvina T. *What Research Says to the Teacher: Teaching Composition* (rev. ed.). Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1966.

*Chall, Jeanne S. *Learning to Read: The Great Debate.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1967.

Gage, N. L. (ed.). *Handbook of Research on Teaching.* Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1963.

Gates, Arthur I. *What Research Says to the Teacher: Teaching Reading* (rev. ed.). Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1967.

*Gunderson, Doris V. *Research in Reading Readiness* .Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, OE-30013, 1964.

**Gunn, M. Agnella (ed.). *What We Know about High School Reading.* Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English (due for publication in 1969).

Harris, Chester W. (ed.) *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (3rd ed.). New York: The Macmillan Co., 1960. (New edition published about every ten years. Kept up-to-date by bibliographies in *Review of Educational Research.*)

Hoffman, M. L. and L. W. Hoffman. *Review of Child Development Research.* Volumes One and Two. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1964.

Horn, Ernest. *What Research Says to the Teacher: Teaching Spelling* (rev. ed.). Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1967.

Horn, Thomas. *Research on Handwriting and Spelling.* Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1966.

Journal of Educational Research. Madison, Wisc.: Dembar Educational Research Services, Inc. (10 issues per year).

National Council of Teachers of English. *Bibliographies of Research in the Teaching of English.* Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1962.

Petty, Walter T. (ed.). *Research in Oral Language.* Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1967.

Petty, Walter T. et al. *The State of Knowledge about the Teaching of Vocabulary.* Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1968.

Reading Research Quarterly. Newark, Del.: International Reading Association (4 issues per year).

Research in Education. Basic Publication Announcing Documents in the ERIC Systen, Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office (12 issues per year).

Research in the Teaching of English. Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English (2 issues per year).

Review of Educational Research. Washington, D. C. National Education Association, 1931–. (five issues a year).

Shane, Harold G., and June G. Mulry. *Improving Language Arts Instruction through Research.* Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision of Curriculum Development. National Education Association, 1963.

Sherwin, J. Stephen. *Four Problems in Teaching English: Critiques of Research.* Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English (due for publication in 1969).

Stauffer, Russell O. (ed.). *Language and the Higher Thought Processes: A Research Bulletin.* Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1965.

Strom, Ingrid. *Research in Grammar and Usage and Its Implications for Teaching Writing.* Vol. 36, No. 5, Bulletin of the School of Education. Bloomington, Ind.: Indiana University Press, 1960.

Smith, Nila B. *Development of Taste in Literature.* Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1963.

Society for Research in Child Development. *Child Development.* Lafayette, Inc.: Purdue University (published quarterly in March, June, September and December).

Taylor, Stanford E. *What Research Says to the Teacher: Listening.* Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1964.

Some journals periodically publish annotated summaries of research in English and reading. Notable among these are:
 *Elementary English
 **English Journal
 *The Readin₀ Teacher
 **Journal of Reading
 **Journal of Reading Behavior
 *National Elementary Principal

Data concerning these journals is given in Appendix B. Consult *Education Index* for particular issues carrying research summaries.

APPENDIX E
SAMPLE LANGUAGE
ARTS PHILOSOPHIES

PHILOSOPHY: THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH IN THE DENVER PUBLIC SCHOOLS

(from *A Program in English: A Guide for Teaching the Language Arts Kindergarten through Grade 12.* Denver, Colo.: Denver Public Schools, 1953, p. 1)

A major principle of democracy is that *unity* be maintained while *diversity* is being fostered and encouraged. Nowhere in American life is the application of this principle more obvious than in the public schools, which have the dual responsibility of educating all children toward certain common goals and of providing each child with a chance to achieve whatever diverse aims his own talents and interests suggest.

The dual responsibility of education in a democracy is fully recognized in the English program of the Denver Public Schools. Both language and literature—the two basic parts of an English course—provide some common ground for all pupils. Society demands from everyone competence in the use and reception of language so that the complex communication necessary and desirable in the modern world can take place. Certain values that can be found in literature are as important for one child as for another. But the teaching of both language and literature offers special opportunities for helping children develop personally and individually in terms of their diverse abilities, needs, and interests.

The development of this dual function in the English courses for the Denver schools means that all the language arts—reading, writing, speaking, and listening—are a part of the program. Under these four major headings pupils are taught grammar, usage, punctuation, capitalization, spelling, penmanship, reading skills, techniques of listening and speaking, vocabulary, varied types of writing and speaking, literary procedures, literature, and reading and evaluation of newspapers and magazines, and the appreciation of radio, motion pictures, and television. All these processes and skills are taught within the framework of subject matter centered around life situations, present and potential. In such a setting, reading, writing, speaking, and listening and their subdivisions become meaningful as they help members of the class solve a common problem, deal with a common interest, or make progress towards attainment of personal goals. Facts and techniques, then, are not learned in isolation, but as part of some significant whole.

The program is based on the principle that nothing is truly learned until it becomes a part of living. For example, literature is meaningless unless it enriches the life of the reader; writing is profitless exercise unless it helps the writer to realize some purpose; correct spelling, conventional usage, and legible penmanship are worthless unless they are used in writing and speaking.

Instruction in all the basic uses of communication is begun in the elementary school and is continued with varying emphases into senior high school. Teaching techniques, specific activities and materials, and standards of achievement keep pace with the physical and mental development of pupils. In the upper grades of senior high school, elective courses are offered to meet diversified needs of pupils planning for diff'rent vocations and for advanced study in certain fields.

The English program of the Denver schools, then, seeks primarily to meet the immediate common and individual communication needs of pupils. It also points to the future as it helps them set up standards of judgment, honesty, taste, and discrimination. Through the program, boys and girls learn to use their language with increasing competence, power, and delight. They gain security in the use of language forms necessary for dealing with communication activities of everyday living. They discover the special personal and social values of literature. Creative writing and speaking activities challenge their imagination and originality. They learn to use and evaluate the products of many of the varieties of mass communication available today—radio, newspapers, magazines, television, and motion pictures. In an age deluged with words from hundreds of sources, they learn to read and listen critically and to accept the responsibility for correctness and honesty in their own writing and speaking. Because ultimate world understanding must rest on ability and integrity in communication, a program centered around the study of communication arts and skills presents a special opportunity and challenge. The English program in the Denver system is designed to meet this opportunity and challenge in a manner commensurate with the capabilities and maturity of the young people enrolled in the schools.

WE BELIEVE

from *Reading Curriculum Guide, Volume I.* Springfield, Mass.: Springfield Public Schools, 1962.

That ability to read is vitally necessary to the preservation of our way of life. Democracy can endure only if it is supported by an educated public, and reading is still the best way to learn whatever can not be personally experienced.

That reading contributes to a child's growth in
— command of important information
— critical thinking
— development of rewarding human relationships
— love of the beautiful in life
— spiritual understanding.

That every individual child is entitled to the chance to develop his reading ability to the limit of his capacity and that it is the responsibility of the schools to see that he does so.

That ability to read is intimately connected with the child's total school life and that much of the best teaching of reading is done in connection with other subjects and other experiences which would not, strictly speaking, be called reading lessons.

That the teaching of reading should be a consistent, orderly process, developmental in nature, each part of it built upon a firm foundation of preceding learnings. This is the vertical development.

That the teaching of reading should be enriched horizontally so that every child has opportunities to profit from excursions away from the mainstream of vertical development and to realize the varied uses and pleasures which reading offers.

That a good reading program is a balanced program including systematic instruction in basal readers, planned transfer of skills to reading in the content fields, newspaper reading, enjoyment of literature, individual personal reading, and remedial reading available for all pupils for whom instruction in the regular classroom is inadequate.

APPENDIX F
PARTIAL LIST
OF SPECIFIC READING SKILLS

Vocabulary Skills
  Pronouncing words by use of phonetic clues
  Using common prefixes, suffixes, and roots as aids
    to pronunciation and meaning
  Using context as an aid to word meaning
  Reading dialect

Locational Skills
  Alphabetizing
  Reading a title page
  Reading a table of contents
  Reading an index
  Using the card catalogue
  Using a glossary
  Using the *Reader's Guide*

Comprehension Skills
  Reading for specific details
  Reading for main ideas
  Reading tables, charts, diagrams
  Reading a dictionary
  Organizational reading:
    Reading to see relationship of details to main
      points
    Reading to follow sequence
    ---plot development
    ---character development
    ---development of argument

Reading to recognize patterns of organization
  ---enumerative
  ---time
  ---contrast, etc.
  Formal outlining
"Reading between the lines" to
  Visualize
  Generalize
  Interpret figurative language
  Feel rhythm
  Make inferences
  Compare with something known before
  Distinguish between fact and opinion
  Detect bias and prejudice
  Forecast results and draw conclusions
  Recognize mood
  Judge character

Speed
  Skimming
  Adjusting speed to nature of content
  Adjusting speed to purpose in reading

Oral Reading
  Phrasing
  Interpreting meaning through emphasis and in-
    flection
  Following punctuation signals
  Reading at appropriate speed

APPENDIX G
BIBLIOGRAPHY
OF BOOKLISTS

In 1965, the American Association of School Librarians prepared *Selecting Materials for School Libraries: Guidelines and Selection Sources to Insure Quality Collections* to help school libraries and other educators make careful selection of library books and non-print materials with funds supplied under Title II of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. In many states, this publication, distributed by state education departments, has served as a standard list for Title II purchases. The 1967 revision, substantially reproduced here with permission of the association, reflects the increasing number of books and other instructional materials published annually.

Included in this list are sources for many subjects and for many types of materials. Each school using bibliographies listed should use them carefully as guides to building collections to meet local needs.

GUIDELINES FOR SELECTION

The expansion of school library programs to include a diversity of materials in a natural outgrowth of the acceptance of the concept of the library as an integral aspect of the instructional program of the school. It is the function of the library to provide materials which undergird the school curriculum, and it is no longer realistic to think of teaching and learning materials only in terms of the printed word. To support its educational program, a school needs material in many forms related to all curriculum areas.

Intelligent selection of these materials is a time-consuming task which requires professional competence as well as the ability to profit by the professional competence of others. The first requisite is depth of knowledge of the curriculum and the second is knowledge of the needs, interests, and abilities of the school clientele.

Selection of the type of material, printed, pictured, or recorded, should be made on the basis of the medium available that most effectively conveys or interprets the content or the concept; in many instances, material in one format is useful in supplementing that in another. The same material may be needed in various media for use with individuals and groups with varying abilities and interests as well as to provide opportunities for variety in presentation. All materials selected for the school library, in whatever format, should meet high standards of excellence. Materials which deal with current topics should be up-to-date; those which reflect a biased point of view should make the prejudice recognizable.

The individual school library collection should include all facets of the curriculum with materials which reflect different points of view on controversial subjects and which provide opportunities for pupils and teachers to range far and wide in their search for information and inspiration. Since there is within a school little homogeneity of either ability or interest, the collection should contain both easy and difficult materials.

Selection is a cooperative process which should involve staff and pupils, though the final decisions are vested in the library personnel. Teachers are subject specialists with the added knowledge of the needs, interests, and abilities of their pupils. It is the responsibility of the library staff to consult with them, to provide them with as much bibliographic information as possible, and to secure their assistance in the evaluation of materials. Pupils can be encouraged to use bibliographic sources and to make recommendations for materials in which they are interested or which they need.

The safest method of selection is, of course, a first-hand knowledge of the material itself; the next is the perceptive use of reliable lists. Factors to consider in evaluating lists include the reliability of the person or organization who prepared them and their recency. Many school districts now provide examination centers where books, films and filmstrips, tapes, and recordings may be previewed or examined. Where such service is available, teachers and librarians should be given the opportunity to become familiar with the materials and should avail themselves of this opportunity before recommending their purchase.

Many school districts, too, have developed statements of policy which govern their selection of materials. Such statements include the philosophy for selection, the agency and staff responsible for implementing the policy, the types of materials included, criteria and procedures for their selection, and procedures for handling problems which arise when a particular piece of material is questioned. When such statements are cooperatively developed, accepted and adhered to, they provide both guidance and protection for all who are involved in the selection of materials.

Three publications which are useful in the preparation of a policy statement are: *The School Library Bill of Rights* (endorsed by the American Association of School Librarians and The American Library Association, 1955); the joint statement of AASL-ACRL-DAVI on the relationship of all materials, adopted by the Executive Boards of the three organizations in 1958 (See p. 59 of *Standards for School Library Programs (ALA, 1960 $2.50); Policies and Procedures for Selection of School Library Materials* (endorsed by American Association of School Librarians 1961); and *The Students' Right to Read*, prepared by the National Council of Teachers of English in 1962. (Council, 25 cents)

SOURCES OF SELECTION FOR PRINT MATERIALS

General Book Lists

Adventuring with Books: A Reading List for Elementary Grades compiled by the Elementary Reading List Committee, National Council of Teachers of English. Over 1,000 titles arranged in twelve categories. 1966. 256 pp. NCTE. 75 cents.

A Basic Book Collection for Elementary Grades compiled by Mirian Snow Mathes and others. More than 1,000 essential books for an elementary school library; includes tools for the librarian, and list of children's magazines. 7th ed. 1960. 136 pp. American Library Association. $2. (New edition in process)

A Basic Book Collection for High Schools compiled by Eileen F. Noonan and others. Approximately 1,500 titles for the high school library; includes paperback editions, magazines, and audiovisual aids. 7th ed. 1963. 192 pp. ALA. $3.

A Basic Book Collection for Junior High Schools edited by Margaret Y. Spengler and others. Titles arranged by subject, annotated, and indexed. Also lists magazines. 3rd ed. 1960. 144 pp. ALA. $2.

Best Books for Children compiled by Patricia H. Allen. A list of recommended books, grouped by age level and grade along with several subject groupings. Contains some suitable adult titles. Revised annually. Bowker, $3.

A Bibliography of Books for Children. Association for Childhood Education International. Annotated list of about 1,300 books for supplementary reading by children ages 2 through 12. 1965. 131 pp. ACEI. $1.50.

Book Bait: Detailed Notes on Adult Books Popular with Young People edited by Eleanor Walker. Descriptive annotations more detailed than usually found in such a list. Titles arranged by age and type of reader; follow-up titles also included. 1957. 96 pp. ALA. $1.25.

Books and The Teenage Reader by Richard Carlsen. Articles about work with young people. Lists many books. 1967. Harper. $3.95.

Books For Children 1960-65. 3,068 titles listed and recommended for library purchase in the Children's Books Section of *Booklist* from September 1960—August 1965. 1966. 456 pp. ALA $10. 1965-66 supplement. 128 pp. $2.

Books for the Teen Age. Annual selection of about 1,500 books, including both recent and older books. One-line annotations for books of the current year. Gives publisher but not price. Published each January. New York Public Library. $1.

Books For You compiled by Committee on the Senior High Book List, NCTE. Annotated list of leisure reading for high school students. 1964. 344 pp. NCTE. 90 cents.

Books of the Year. An annual, annotated list of books for children and about children, parents, and family life. Revised annually. Child Study Association of America. 75 cents.

Book Selection Aids For Children and Teachers in Elementary and Secondary School by Milbrey L. Jones. 1966. U.S. Government Printing Office, OE-30019. 15 cents.

Children's Books Too Good to Miss compiled by May Hill Arbuthnot and others. Helpful list for parents and teachers. 4th rev. ed. 1966. Western Reserve University. $3.25; pa. $1.50.

Children's Catalog edited by Rachel Shor and Estelle A. Fidell. A classified annotated guide to 4,274 books for elementary school and children's libraries. Price includes four annual supplements. 11th ed. 1967. 1,024 pp. Wilson, $17.

Doors to More Mature Reading: Detailed Notes on Adult Books for Use with Young People compiled by the Young Adult Services Division, ALA. Detailed annotations of nearly 150 adult books. 1964. 191 pp. ALA. $2.50.

The Elementary School Library Collection compiled by a committee of specialists in children's materials,

Mary Virginia Gaver, chairman. A list of "high quality materials on all topics included in the elementary curriculum and of wide interest to children." Special features include a selection policy, facsimile of main entry catalog card for each title in the collection, and author, title, and subject indexes. 1966. 1,108 pp. The Bro-Dart Foundation. $20.

Good Books for Children edited by Mary K. Eakin. Books published during the years 1960-65. Chosen from titles reviewed in *Bulletin of the Center for Children's Books.* 3d ed. 1966. 362 pp. University of Chicago. Hardback, $6.50; paperback, $1.95.

Junior High School Library Catalog edited by Rachel Shor and Estelle A. Fidell. 3,278 books selected for use in junior high schools. 1st ed. 1965. 768 pp. Wilson. With four annual supplements. $20.

Let's Read Together: Books for Family Enjoyment selected and annotated by a special committee of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers and the Children's Services Division, ALA. Roughly 500 titles, grouped by reader interest and age level. 2d ed. 1964. 102 pp. ALA. $1.50.

Outstanding Biographies for College-Bound Students, and *Outstanding Fiction for College-Bound Students.* YASD, ALA. 40 copies, $1; 100 copies, $2; 500 copies, $9.50; 1,000 copies, $16.

The Paperback Goes to School. Annual list of paperback titles considered useful and available for classroom and supplementary use by a joint committee of NEA and the American Association of School Librarians. Bureau of Independent Publishers and Distributors. Free.

Patterns in Reading: An Annotated Book List for Young Adults by Jean Carolyn Roos. Readable and appealing books grouped in 100 categories such as "Science Fiction" and "Mountain Climbing." Excellent for building up school or public library, general reading collection. Gives publisher but not price. 2d ed. 1961. 182 pp. ALA. $2.25.

Reference Materials For School Libraries. Prepared by Cora Paul Bomar and others. Designed as a guide in selecting and using reference materials in North Carolina Schools, grades 1-12. Rev. ed. 1965. Publications, State Department of Public Instruction, Raleigh, North Carolina. $1.00.

Standard Catalog for High School Libraries edited by Dorothy Herbert West, Estelle A. Fidell, and Rachel Shor. Catalog of 4,212 books selected for use in junior and senior high schools, 8th ed. 1962. 1,055 pp. Wilson. With five annual supplements. $15.

Subject Index to Books for Intermediate Grades compiled by Mary K. Eakin. Analyzes the contents of 1,800 books, primarily trade books, under 4,000 subject headings which meet today's curriculum and interest needs for grades 4-6. 3d ed. 1963. 320 pp. ALA. $7.50.

Subject Index to Books for Primary Grades compiled by Mary K. Eakin. Indicated independent reading level and interest level of over 900 trade books and readers. 3d ed. 1967. 122 pp. ALA. $4.

Subscription Books Bulletin Reviews. Detailed evaluations of reference books reprinted from *The Booklist and Subscription Books Bulletin.* ALA. 1956-60, $1.25; 1960-62, $1.50; 1962-64, $2; 1964-66, $2.25.

A Teacher's Guide to Children's Books by Nancy Larrick. A list of books by grade level and according to curriculum areas. 1960. 316 pp. Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc. $5.95.

Your Reading, a Book List for Junior High prepared by the Committee on the Junior High School Book List, NCTE. Brief descriptive annotations, grouped under subjects. 1966. 222 pp. NCTE. 75 cents.

List of Current Books

Booklist and Subscription Books Bulletin. A guide to current books published twice a month, September through July, and once in August. Reviews recommended books for children, young people, and adults, giving full buying and cataloging information and analytical notes. Includes annual list of notable children's books. ALA. $8.

Bulletin of the Center for Children's Books. Published monthly except August. Reviews books for children and young people, including marginal and not recommended titles. University of Chicago. $4.50.

Choice. A monthly magazine which reviews carefully and in detail books for colleges. Especially valuable for selecting books for mature high school students. ALA. $20.

The Horn Book Magazine. Discriminating reviews of books for children and young people, along with articles on children's literature. Carries regular section on science books and on adult books for young people. Includes annual list of outstanding books. The Horn Book, Inc. $6.

Library Journal. Published twice monthly. Value for reviews of adult books for high schools on all subjects. In the issue which comes out the 15th of the month *School Library Journal* is included. Bowker. $10.

School Library Journal. Monthly, September through May. Brief reviews of books recommended and not recommended for grades K-12. Articles of interest to teachers and school libraries; special lists (professional reading, free and inexpensive materials, paperbacks). Bowker. $5.

Science Books; A Quarterly Review. Careful, detailed reviews of science books for use with elementary, secondary and junior college students. American Association for the Advancement of Science. $4.50.

Reviews of children's and young people's books appear also in many other education and library periodicals.

Lists of Specialized Materials

The AAAS Science Book List for Children compiled by Hilary J. Deason. Books in science and mathematics for grades 1-8. Arranged by Dewey classifications and annotated to indicate content and grade level. First purchase items starred. Useful as suggested coverage of subjects for school and public libraries. 2d ed. 1963. 201 pp. American Association for the Advancement of Science. Hardback, $2.50; paperback, $1.50.

The AAAS Science Book List for Young Adults prepared under the direction of Hilary J. Deason. Lists 1,377 selected, annotated science and mathematics books suitable for high school and junior college students. 1964. 266 pp. AAAS. Hardback, $3.50; paperback, $2.50. (New edition in process.)

African Encounter: A Selected Bibliography of Books, Films and Other Materials for Promoting an Understanding of Africa among Young Adults compiled by Committee of the YASD, ALA. Annotated list of 125 books, films, and filmstrips on Africa today. 1963. 80 pp. ALA. $1.50.

American History in Juvenile Books; a Chronological Guide by Seymour Metzner. Books available concerning American history for elementary and junior high school students arranged according to period with which they are concerned. Not annotated. Reading level indicated. 1966. 329 pp. Wilson. $7.00.

A Bibliography of Children's Art Literature by Kenneth Marantz. An annotated listing of books particularly useful for stimulating and enriching the visual imagination of the child. Books are chosen for the quality of the illustrations, appeal of the story, and accuracy and comprehensibility, and the lively comments make the booklet interesting reading in itself. 1965. 24 pages. NEA, National Art Education Association. 40 cents.

Books About Negro Life for Children by Augusta Baker. An annotated list of books arranged by subject and age level. Includes criteria for selection. 3d ed. 1963. 33 pp. New York Public Library. 35 cents. (New edition in process.)

Books for Beginning Readers compiled by Elizabeth Guilfoile. Over 300 books selected for independent reading by children with limited reading skills. 1962 with 1963 supplement. NCTE $1.

Books for Brotherhood. Issued annually. National Conference of Christians and Jews. Free.

Books for Friendship; A List of Books Recommended for Children. 3d ed. Annotated list of nearly 500 books, designed to help children (from kindergarten through junior high school) understand and appreciate people of different races, nationalities and religions. Prepared by the American Friends Service Committee. 1962. 64 pp. 50 cents. With 1966 supplement, 65 cents.

Books in American History: A Basic List for High Schools compiled by John E. Wiltz. Comprehensive annotations of more than 300 titles suitable for high schools arranged by historical period. Gives publisher and price and includes paperback editions where available. 1964. 150 pp. Indiana University Press. $1.00.

Books to Build World Friendship by Judith Wragg Chase. Annotated list of books selected for their concepts of world peace and understanding; preschool to 8th grade. 1964. 76 pp. Oceana. $2.95.

Children's Books to Enrich the Social Studies for the Elementary Grades by Helen Huus. Bulletin No. 32 of the National Council for the Social Studies, NEA. An annotated list of books grouped by categories and covering subjects usually included in the social studies curriculum of grades K-6. 1966. 214 pp. NEA, $2.50.

Catalog of Language Packages. Children's books in foreign languages, principally French, German, and Spanish, selected by a committee of the Children's Services Division, ALA. Books may be bought in packages or as separate volumes. Package Library of Foreign Children's Books. Catalog free.

Dobler World Directory of Youth Periodicals by Lavinia Dobler. A world list of magazines—general, religious, school and classroom, foreign written in English and also in foreign language. 1966. 37 pp. Schulte. $3.

Fare for the Reluctant Reader by Anita E. Dunn and others. Annotated list selected for junior and senior high readers. Books chosen to reflect teenage interests; not all of equal merit. 1964. 277 pp. Capital Area School Development Association. $3.

Free and Inexpensive Learning Materials. George Peabody College for Teachers. More than 3,000 items evaluated for accuracy and usefulness in schools. Revised yearly. George Peabody College. $2.00.

Free and Inexpensive Materials on World Affairs by Leonard Kenworthy. Practical list with brief annotations; includes all kinds of materials. 1965. 69 pp. Teachers College, Columbia University Press. $1.50.

Gateways to Readable Books edited by Ruth Strang and others. "An annotated graded list of books in many fields for adolescents who find reading difficult." 4th ed. 1966. 245 pp. Wilson. $5.

Good Reading for Poor Readers compiled by George Spache. Useful in elementary and junior high school. Rev. ed. 1966. 206 pp. Garrard. $2.50.

Good Reading for Youth. A list of books for book fairs, compiled by the Children's Services Division of ALA for the Junior Chamber of Commerce Jaycee Good Reading for Youth Project. 1965. 25 cents.

Guide to Children's Magazines, Newspapers, and Reference Books. 1966. 8 pp. ACEI. 10 cents.

A Guide to Science Reading compiled and edited by Hilary J. Deason. Annotated bibliography of more than 900 paperback science books; keyed to four reading and comprehension levels. 1963. 220 pp. New American Library. 60 cents.

High School Mathematics Library compiled by the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. 1963. 56 pp. NEA. 60 cents.

Human Rights. An annotated list of children's books compiled at the request of the Children's Services Division of the ALA by Detroit Public Library, Publications and Exhibits Dept. 1966. 16 pp. Send mailing label and 50 cents with orders. No stamps.

"I Can Read It Myself" compiled by Frieda M. Heller. Titles selected for independent reading and grouped for the beginning reader; grades 1-2 and for the primary reader ready for longer books. 1965. 46 pp. Ohio State University. $1.

Junior Plots: A Book Talk Manual For Teachers and Librarians by John T. Gillespie and Diana L. Lembo. 1967. Bowker. $7.95.

MLA Selective List of Materials; for use by teachers of modern foreign languages in elementary and secondary schools, edited by Mary J. Ollmann. A comprehensive bibilography which includes titles in ten modern languages. 1962. Also includes non-print materials. 162 pp. Modern Language Association of America. $1.00. Supplemented for French and Spanish. 1964. 75 cents. Supplement for Spanish and Portuguese. 1965. 75 cents.

Reading Guide in Politics and Government by Robert H. Connery and others. A well-balanced annotated list of books in the field of political science for teachers and students of history and government. 1966. 99 pp. NEA. $1.50.

Reading Ladders for Human Relations edited by Muriel Crosby. An annotated list of over 1,000 books for children and young people, developed around six human relations themes. 4th ed. rev. 1964. 242 pp. American Council on Education. $4.

A Reading List of High-Interest, Low Vocabulary Books for Enriching Various Areas of the Curriculum. 1962. 165 pp. Reading Study Center, University of Connecticut. 50 cents.

The Teachers' Library; How to Organize it and What to Include. Suggested materials—books, magazines, AV materials—for professional libraries. List prepared by a committee representing ALA and NEA. 1966. 204 pp. NEA. $1.50.

Vocations in Biography and Fiction: An Annotated List of Books for Young People compiled by Kathryn A. Haebich. 1,070 titles, mostly biographies. Includes some titles of high interest, low reading level for grades 9-12. 1962. 77 pp. ALA. $1.75.

World History Book List for High Schools prepared by the World History Bibliography Committee of the National Council for the Social Studies. Carefully selected list of 483 books chosen to "contribute to a clearer understanding of today's world." Rev. ed. 1962. 152 pp. NEA. $1.50.

Additional sources of information include the Educational Materials Laboratory of the U.S. Office of Education; NEA; and ALA.

Directory of Publishers

American Association for the Advancement of Science, 1515 Massachusetts Ave., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20005.

American Council on Education, 1785 Massachusetts Ave., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

American Friends Service Committee, 160 N—15th St., Philadelphia, Pa. 19102.

American Library Association, 50 East Huron Street, Chicago 60611.

Association for Childhood Education International, 3615 Wisconsin Ave., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20016.

R. R. Bowker Co., 1180 Avenue of the Americas, New York 10036.

The Bro-Dart Foundation, 113 Frelinghuysen Avenue, Newark, New Jersey 07114.

Bureau of Independent Publishers and Distributors, 122 E. 42nd St., New York 10017.

Capital Area School Development Association, State University of New York, Albany.

Child Study Association of America, 9 E. 89th St., New York 10089.

Columbia University Press, 2960 Broadway, New York 10027.

Detroit Public Library, 5201 Woodward Ave., Detroit 48202.

Educational Materials Laboratory, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C.

Garrard Publishing Co., 1607 N. Market St., Champaign, Ill. 61821.

George Peabody College for Teachers, Division of Surveys and Field Services, Nashville, Tenn. 37203.

Harper & Row, 2500 Crawford Ave., Evanston, Illinois 60201.

The Horn Book, Inc., 585 Boylston St., Boston.

Indiana University Press, Bloomington, Indiana 47401.

Jaycee Good Reading for Youth Project, Pilgrim Book Society, 82 Pembroke Rd., Pilgrim Square, Akron, Ohio 44313.

C. E. Merrill, Inc., 1300 Alum Creek Drive, Columbus, Ohio 43216.

Modern Language Association of America, 6 Washington Place, New York 10003.

National Conference of Christians and Jews, 43 West 57th St., New York 10019.

National Council of Teachers of English, 508 S. Sixth St., Champaign, Ill. 61820.

National Education Association, 1201 16th St. N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

New American Library, 1301 Avenue of the Americas, New York 10019.

New York Public Library, Fifth Ave. and 42nd St., New York 10018.

Oceana Publications, Dobbs Ferry, N.Y. 10522.

The Ohio State University, Publications Office, 242 W. 18th Ave., Columbus, Ohio 43210.

Package Library of Foreign Children's Books, 119 Fifth Ave., New York.

Schulte Company, 80 4th Avenue, N. Y. 10003.

U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

University of Chicago Press, 5750 Ellis Ave., Chicago 60637.

University of Connecticut, Storrs, Connecticut 06268.

Western Reserve University, 2029 Adelbert Rd., Cleveland, Ohio 44106.

The H.W. Wilson Co., 950 University Ave., Bronx, N.Y. 10452.

SOURCES OF SELECTION FOR NON-PRINT MATERIALS

General Lists

Audiovisual Instruction. Periodic listing of sources of evaluation. Department of Audiovisual Instruction, NEA (1201 16th St. N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036). Monthly except August. $6. per year.

Guides to Newer Educational Media: Films, Filmstrips, Phono-Records, Radio, Slides, and Television by Margaret Rufsvold and Carolyn Guss. Handbook describing available catalogs, lists, services, professional organizations, journals, and periodicals which regularly provide information of newer educational media. 1961. 74 pp. ALA (40 E. Huron St., Chicago, Ill. 60611) $1.50 (now being revised.)

Instructional Materials for Teaching Audiovisual Courses. Audiovisual Center, Syracuse University in cooperation with the Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, D.C. 1961. 60 cents plus postage. (now being revised.)

Instructional Materials for Teaching the Use of the Library: A Selected Annotated Bibliography of Films, Filmstrips, Books and Pamphlets, Tests and Other Aids. Compiled by Shirley L. Hopkinson, Claremont House, San Jose, Calif. 1966. $1. 59 pp.

Music in General Education edited by Karl D. Ernst and Charles L. Gary. Music curriculum outline including selected correlated films, filmstrips, and audio materials screened by the Conference. Music Educators National Conference, NEA (1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036). 1965. $2.50; Cloth $3.75.

Teaching Aids in the English Language Arts; An Annotated and Critical List, prepared by the committee on Teaching Aids of the Illinois Association of Teachers of English. National Council of Teachers of English, 508 S. Sixth St., Champaign, Ill. 1963. $1. 111 pp.

Sources of Audiovisual Materials by Milbrey L. Jones. 1967. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. OE-35090. $15.

Reviews of new audiovisual materials appear periodically in various education and library periodicals.

Lists of Films and Filmstrips

EFLA Evaluations. Educational Film Library Association, Inc., 250 W. Fifty-seventh St., New York, N.Y., 1948 to date. Membership $15. per year plus service basic charge depending on size of film library. Monthly listings. 3x5 cards. (See also compilation in book form entitled Film Evaluation Guide, 1946-1964.)

Bluebook of Audiovisual Materials. Forty-first edition. Educational Screen, Inc., 2052 N. Lincoln Park West, Chicago, Ill. 1966. $1. 79 pp. Annual, in August issue of Educational Screen and Audiovisual Guide.

Film Evaluation Guide, 1946-1964. Educational Film Library Association, Inc., 250 W. Fifty-seventh St., New York, N.Y., 1965. $30. 535 pp.

Film News. Monthly reviews and suggested use for films and filmstrips. Film News Co. (250 W. 57th St., New York, N.Y.). Published six times a year. $5 per year.

Film Review Digest. Educational Film Library Association (250 W. 57th St., New York, N.Y.). Published four times a year. Rates on request.

Films for Libraries, selected by a subcommittee of the Audio-Visual Committee. America.. Library Association, 50 E. Huron St., Chicago, Ill. 60611. 1963. $1.75. 92 pp.

Films on Art, compiled by Alfred W. Humphreys. National Art Education Association, Uses of New Media Project. National Education Association, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 1965. $1.50. 60 pp.

Landers Film Reviews. Bertha Landers, 4930 Coliseum St., Los Angeles, Calif., June 1956 to date. $27.50 per year. Monthly except July and August (Annual volume available since 1965.)

100 Selected Films in Economics Education. Joint Council on Economic Education. 1212 Avenue of the Americas, New York, N.Y., 1960. $75. 35 pp.

Reviews of Films: Report of Some Reviewing Committees. National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, Washington, D.C. 1963. 40 cents. (Reprint of pp. 578-605 from the Mathematics Teacher.)

Lists of Tape and Disk Recordings

An Annotated List of Recordings in the Language Arts for Elementary Schools, Secondary, Colleges, edited by Morris Schreiber. National Council of Teachers of English, 508 S. Sixth St., Champaign, Ill. 1964. $1.75. 83 pp.

Audio Cardalog. Edited by Max U. Bildersee, Box 1771, Albany, N.Y., 1958 to date. $25. per year. Monthly except July and August. 3x5 cards.

National Tape Recording Catalog, 1962-63, sponsored by the Department of Audiovisual Instruction, National Education Association and the National Association of Educational Broadcasters. University of Colorado, Boulder, Colo. 1963, $1.50. 38 pp. (Available from NEA.) Supplement 1, National Education Association, 1201 16th St., N.W. Washington, D.C. 1965, $1. 38 pp.

Recordings for Children: A Selected List. Second edition. Children and Young Adults Services Section, New York Library Association. Available from Mrs. Augusta Baker, New York Public Library, 20 W. Fifty-third St., New York, N.Y., 1964. $1. 43 pp.

Lists of Programmed Instruction, Slides and Pictures

Learning from Pictures. Catharine M. Williams. A guide and source book on the use of pictures. Department of Audiovisual Instruction, NEA (1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036). 1963.

Programmed Instructional Materials, 1964-1965. Teachers College Press, 525 W. One Hundred and Twentieth St., New York, N.Y. 1965. $2.50. 163 pp. Includes relisting of still available titles contained in Programs '63.

Programmed Learning: A Bibliography of Programs, edited by Carl H. Hendershot, 4114 Ridgewood Dr., Bay City, Michigan. October 30, 1965. $10. Two volumes. (Vinyl Binder with Index, $13.)

Lists of Television Program Materials

Instructional Television Materials: A Guide to Films, Kinescopes, available for Televised Use. Third Edition. National Instructional Television Library Project, 10 Columbus Circle, New York, N.Y. 1964. Free 61 pp.

NCSCT Telecourse Catalog. The National Center for School and College Television. Box A, Bloomington, Ind. Spring 1966. Free. 63 pp.

APPENDIX H
A TEACHING UNIT:
'LET MY PEOPLE GO'

Mrs. Virginia Joki's teaching unit, detailed on the following pages, is included in this bulletin to demonstrate a way of meaningfully integrating many different aspects of English language arts instruction and, at the same time, a way of providing for individual differences in pupil abilities, interests, and needs. The unit is included here to show how this might be done; not to provide teachers with some ready-made teaching material.

A wealth of teaching material has been produced since Mrs. Joki used this plan with a class. Just a small sampling of the new materials would include the film, *Now Is the Time*, and other recent productions of the Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith; Vashti and Jack Brown's *Proudly We Hail*, Frances Humphreyville's *Harriet Tubman: Flame of Freedom* among the many excellent books, and "The Dream Keeper" and other recordings in the Afro-American History and Culture collection produced by Folkways/Scholastic Records.

Teaching units need constant review and periodic revision so that they include the best of the most recently produced materials, are appropriate for particular pupils not in a class the previous year, and are relevant to current concerns of children and youth. Those who would like to try a teaching unit such as this should review Mrs. Joki's unit carefully, update the teaching materials and problems it contains, and adapt its procedures to particular pupils who sit in their classroom today.

"Let My People Go"—A Unit on the Negro for High School English Classes*

By Virginia Joki