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ABSTRACT

The conference provided the medium within which the views and recommendations of outstanding authorities among teachers, administrators, and college personnel could be formulated and disseminated to the profession concerning what kinds of schools this nation needs for the education of children from two to adulthood. In the first speech, Richard L. Foster analyzes institutional structures, program and curriculum patterns, teaching methods, and human relationships that militate against the full measure of individual development that should characterize the schools. Milly Cowles pictures the kinds of schooling needed for infants; Charles A. Blackman, for later childhood; Donald H. Eichhorn, for the emerging adolescent; and Mark Shedd, for the adolescent and young adult. Jack R. Frymier puts it all together for a total program of education for tomorrow -- ages two to young adulthood. William M. Alexander discusses ways in which school systems should work with their individual communities to bring about the schools of the future and details the processes that will involve all concerned persons in the community in the development of the kinds of schools needed now. (Author/EA)

Prepared by the ASCD Council on Continuous Education

Edited by

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Preface

J. Galen Saylor

THROUGHOUT its existence the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development has established a number of work groups, designated variously as commissions, committees, or councils, to plan programs for carrying forward the objectives of the organization. In 1954 the Council on Secondary Education was created to identify problems and issues in the education of adolescents and to propose programs that would help the profession solve those problems; in 1960 the Council on Elementary Education, a similar group, was established. Then in 1969 the Board of Directors established the Council on Early Childhood Education and the Council on the Emerging Adolescent Learner. Moreover, the Board recommended that these four Councils form a coordinating group that would foster a cooperative and integrated approach to the development and dissemination of recommendations that seek to improve the quality of education provided children and youth at all levels of maturation. Hence, was born the Council on Continuous Education.

The Council on Continuous Education is composed of the chairmen of the four earlier Councils. It held an organizational meeting in 1969, and then began planning its activities and program in 1970. In examining the mission and work of each component Council, the group decided that a major endeavor of the coordinating group should be to formulate and disseminate to the profession a broad, visionary conception of what kinds of schools this nation needs for the education of children from two to three years of age to the attainment of young adulthood. It decided to seek the views and recommendations of outstanding authorities among teachers, administrators, and college personnel who had already demonstrated an unshakable and enduring faith in the schools, yet who knew that we need even better schools in the 1970's if this nation is to meet the challenges of the decades ahead. A conference, national in scope, seemed to be an appropriate vehicle to obtain these views, recommendations, and counsel.

The conference was held in Chicago on October 28-30, 1971. In presenting to the profession this set of papers, the Council on Continuous Education believes that the report makes available a large body of

thought, sets of recommendations, and visions of what ought to be that will help teachers, administrators, and parents of our many communities develop better programs of education. The treatment is not inclusive—even more ideas and proposals are needed—but those presented here are sound, forward looking, and feasible for providing the kinds of schools at all four levels of maturity needed in the future—NOW.

The first address was by Richard L. Foster, Superintendent of Schools in Berkeley, California. He was asked to make a critical analysis of the present situation in our schools, to enable all of us to see our problems in the large, to be as sensitive as possible to what does need to be done NOW. He was selected to do this job because the planning group knew that his point of view about education and schooling is one that coincides with the best thought among educational philosophers, parents, and curriculum workers, administrators, and teachers as to the fundamental goals of formal education in this country.

Then five persons who have long provided evidence of their ability to dream dreams about the future direction of the schools in this nation presented papers on the kinds of schools we need in the future—NOW at the early childhood level of maturity, at the later childhood level, at the emerging adolescent level, and at the adolescent and young adulthood level (for 18- and 19-year-olds no longer should be labeled adolescents—they are young adults). Moreover, all five of the authorities not only have written and spoken about the schools of the future, they have worked in one way or another to develop such schools in selected communities. They are not just "armchair" visionaries, which is one criterion we sought in our speakers, but practitioners who have "gotten their hands dirty" in actually trying to develop a school for tomorrow—NOW.

Milly Cowles, of the University of South Carolina, pictures the kinds of schooling needed for infants; Charles A. Blackman, Michigan State University, for later childhood; Donald Eichhorn, Assistant Superintendent, Upper St. Clair Public Schools in Pennsylvania, for the emerging adolescent; and Mark Shedd, at the time Superintendent of Schools in Philadelphia, for the adolescent and young adult. Then Jack R. Frymier, Ohio State University, brings it all together for a total program of education for tomorrow—NOW, ages two or three to young adulthood.

Finally, the Council recognized that we could best assist schools throughout the nation by having an outstanding authority discuss the ways in which school systems should work within their individual communities to bring about these kinds of schools—NOW. William M. Alexander, University of Florida, presents in broad sweep as well as in

detail the processes that will involve all concerned persons in the community in the development of the kinds of schools we need NOW.

In addition to consideration of these plans and recommendations for the school of the future, a major portion of the conference was devoted to presentations by representatives of ten school systems throughout the United States who are working strenuously to develop the school of the future—NOW. Staff members from the Edgewood Independent School District in San Antonio and the Winnetka, Illinois, Public Nursery Schools described and analyzed exemplary programs for infants and young children; similarly staff personnel from the Chicago Public Schools and the Federation of Independent Community Schools of Milwaukee presented examples of good programs for the older child. Representatives of the Decatur, Alabama, City Schools described their widely acclaimed middle school, and the principal and director of instruction of the highly innovative program at Adams High School, Portland, Oregon, discussed and analyzed it and the problems inherent in developing better programs for adolescents and young adults.

Representatives of four school systems were asked to present the organization and methods of curriculum development they have established for carrying on curriculum renewal. These schools have programs for curriculum planning that exemplify very well the concepts and principles stated by Professor Alexander. They are the Ferguson-Florissant Reorganized School District of Missouri; the School District of New Rochelle, New York; the School System of Gary, Indiana; and the Upper St. Clair Public Schools of Pennsylvania.

The Council regrets that it is not feasible to publish these presentations. They were informal, amply illustrated with visuals and materials, and lively discussion ensued. But all participants in the conference acclaimed these efforts to build schools for the future—NOW. It is, of course, true that many other school systems have exemplary programs that are providing excellent educational opportunities for their students. Unfortunately, we were able to include only these ten in the conference program.

October 1972

J. Galen Saylor

1. A Critical Analysis of Our Schools

Richard L. Foster

In analyzing the present situation in our schools, the beliefs, the value system, and the viewpoints of the diagnostician are very important. Ivan Illich's analysis differs greatly from Sidney Hook's; Charles Silberman's from Hyman Rickover's; Mayor Frank Rizzo' from Mark Shedd's. For our analysis, the Council selected one of the most highly regarded members of ASCD. For years, in addresses at the annual conference, at numerous state and regional conferences, at institutes, at school workshops, and in the select inner circles of high level government and agency planning committees and task forces, Richard Foster has been an outstanding spokesman for the principles and concepts of humaneness in schooling, and for schools that seek to cultivate the potentialities and creativeness of each person.

He speaks for and seeks to administer the kinds of schools that fully respect the human dignity of every person concerned with education—the students, the teachers, the administrators, other staff members, and the parents. Schools are institutions for human development, not the guardians of status quoism.

His analysis of the present status of school education throughout the country is pointed, sharp, and disturbing. He lays bare what he considers to be the shortcomings of so many of our schools—shortcomings in terms of the kind of education the children and youth of America need if each of them is to be the beneficiary of the historic "American dream" so nobly envisioned by our forefathers. Primarily, his analysis points out institutional structures, program and curriculum patterns, teaching methods, and human relationships that militate against the full measure of individual development that ought to characterize our schools.

He laid out demanding challenges to the six speakers who then presented plans that hold the promise of providing the kind of schools Dr. Foster also envisions. It is quite remarkable, yet indicative of the unanimity of thinking among many of us on the nature of good schooling, that the six other speakers, although they had not had a copy of

Dr. Foster's address in advance, presented papers that deal with the same general set of problems and conditions, and offer the kinds of solutions for which he pleads.—JGS

ABOUT four or five years ago, the U.S. Office of Education selected ten of us to look at American education, with a grant of $1,000,000 a year for two years, and said we could do anything we wished to do—just so long as, when we finished the project, we would make some recommendations on teacher education and what is being done for the disadvantaged in America. The group was made up of eight college professors and two public school men, and I thought that was a good proportion.

A Look at American Schools

We visited several American cities. In each city, on the first day we met with the establishment. We talked with the superintendent. We talked with board members in some cases. We talked with assistants and principals and teachers. They told us about the beauty of life. On the second day we went out into the poor community and spent that day learning from the Blacks and the Chicanos and, in some cases, Puerto Ricans and Cubans what was really happening. On the third day we tried to meet with the university people in that area to attempt to put together all that we had learned.

At the end of the two years, the U.S. Office of Education offered us another $1,000,000, and we turned it down. I do not know any other group that has ever done that. We said we had developed our films and written our book, and we did not need another year.

I want to share with you some things I saw then and some things I see as I travel the country now. I look at schools today and I find people terribly overworked and unappreciated. I am talking about all of us. When I talk about teachers I am talking about teachers and administrators, because my definition of an administrator is a teacher on a special temporary assignment.

I see people just going through the motions, trying to do well what they do, but very tired; and the more urban the school district the more tired they are. It used to be that they started to mark off the days left in the school year after passing the first 100. I find schools now in which teachers are marking them off from day one—a "We survived another day" concept.

Also, in my judgment, the schools are horribly underfinanced. I

have estimated that to provide the kind of education I think is necessary costs about $2,500 to $3,000 per child per year. I have a suggestion for a solution to this dilemma: I want to turn American life around—I want the military to have the property tax, and I want school districts to have the income tax. This is a very simple matter and could be handled easily; then any time the military leaders wanted to build a battleship, they would go to the people for a two-thirds majority vote to decide whether they would be authorized to do it or not.

We laugh at this idea as though it is not possible, but it is just historic that we decide that military needs are more important so we give them a higher priority. The rejoinder is that the military cannot wait that long. And I always reply, "Neither can a first grader. He has only one chance in the first grade and you always have another chance to fight in another war; so you really can postpone the battleship or the supersonic bomber for a while, but the first grader cannot postpone his or her development."

I see teachers and administrators who get little pleasure from what they are doing. They are reactors rather than creators, and in such a situation teaching becomes a job. From research we know that when this is true, teachers become more militant. Teachers organizations and administrative organizations become more militant because in militancy they get rid of guilt for the fact that they have not done anything terribly important. But if they can verbalize militancy, it sounds as though something is happening.

That is what I see in so many places, in many different forms. I now see contracts being signed prohibiting more than one hour in a faculty meeting per month, and almost prescribing what can go on in that faculty meeting. It usually consists of the reading of minutes, and somebody talking about something that is not important so nobody will get enthralled with teaching, because otherwise someone might stir things up and break the whole system. Why is this happening?

Why the Present Situation?

I look at members of the right wing of America, and I am really not angry with them because I try to understand them. They are frightened people. In the rush to the suburbs, they are building homes now that look as though they have potentials as "gun castles," or are built in such a way that a moat could be dredged quickly if it were necessary to repulse an enemy. They find that the first home they build in the suburbs does not really satisfy them, because they have to go on in a kind of ego-compulsive need to collect money; and as they collect

the money they have to spend it. So they spend it on a larger home.

Many went to the suburbs to get away from Black people; they use all kinds of other excuses, but you know that is the real reason. They went out on a beautiful Saturday or Sunday afternoon and met a real estate man, and the real estate man told them, "This is a beautiful suburb. It is a good place to raise kids." He also says it is only 30 minutes to downtown. He forgot to add, at midnight on Saturday night. They bought it.

Poor father treks off at 6:30 or 7 a.m. for an hour and a half drive to the city, to a job he may or may not enjoy; he comes home at 7 or 7:30 p.m., and he is dead. After one or two martinis, he finds he still has legs and arms; about that time the kids come in and they want to use some of his time to read to them or anything else, and he is pooped. So mother begins to play a dual role of mother and father—not healthy for either of them or for the kids.

Periodically, though, he has to assert his manliness, and where is a good place in the suburbs to assert your manliness? It is called a school board meeting. Mother drags him off once or twice a year to a meeting. As they arrive, mother primes him to give his yearly speech. He gets up in the meeting, and in his own way he talks about the fact that schools lack discipline; that they are not teaching the fundamentals; and that they are giving the kids too much freedom. He urges the school board to save America. He sits down. Mother pats him firmly on the arm, back, or appropriate places, and he goes back into quiescence for the next six months. In the meantime, teachers are hearing such things, but they are not recognizing the cultural manifestations of what is happening to that poor guy.

Let us move to the members of the radical left. They are the new authoritarians in America. They have a low level of belief in training. They actually believe that if you declare by vote that east is west, the world will turn. In most cases they are pre-Copernican man. They believe the world revolves around them, and they have decided that no compromise or synthesis is possible, that compromise is a dirty word.

A group of them were talking community control one day. I listened for a long time to their demand for community control. Finally I said, "Let me see if I understand you correctly. Orinda is the first wealthy suburb outside the city. If Orinda citizens decide to be segregationists, racists, separatists, and that is what the community wants, you are in favor of that, because that is community control." They said, "No, we would stop them from doing that." I said, "Well, you don't really mean community control. *Your* control is what you are really asking for."

They also say that all institutions are bad. If we have an institution, they say, it is logically bad, and if we would just destroy it we would set up a new institution that would be good. They come to the belief that they do not need schools because somehow or other, by osmotic conditions, outside learning will take place.

Some teachers on the urban scene try to become the new radicals because they believe that kids will suddenly love them if they can just come on with the garb, the appearance, the sitting-on-the-floor-with-your-legs-crossed routine. It is fun to watch them, with the beads around their necks and whatever else is needed. They find me difficult to understand since, because of them, as superintendent of schools in Berkeley I always wear a suit. I almost always wear a white shirt, and they cannot figure out how I fit in. It is very tantalizing for them.

Arthur Schlesinger said that there would always be these extremes, but that what we need in terms of American life is the vital center. I am sorry to report that at present it seems to me that the vital center is terribly confused. It is suffering from a condition which in psychological terms is called abulia—the inability to make a move or a decision. As I see it, that is the condition that has gripped teachers; it leaves them in a state of low thrill.

I do not think we are going to get much help from outside in solving these problems. I really believe the political leaders now in control do not have any faith in professors, students, or educators; or, if they do, they change their minds each week in a new pronouncement. As a result we never know which side we are getting up on. The solution, I regret to report, is going to have to come from the profession because I do not think it is going to come from outside.

Problems Within the Schools Themselves

A major problem within schools is that, regardless of what is done for promoting achievement in the system, middle class students achieve on whatever tests are used, but poor students historically get wiped out—and "poor" usually correlates highly with Black and Chicano in some parts of the country. What we continually see is that we are achieving slightly better today than we did five or ten years ago, but the culture is moving so fast that poor students are getting poorer as a result. We have never delivered the human skills or the academic skills to some 50 to 60 percent of our children. So I would urge you to examine all the things that people say they are doing but which do not deliver those skills

I have hired teachers for years on the basis of the best research

available, but I guess the best research yields about a 16 percent prediction factor and that is not very good. Ryans' ten-year study indicated the importance of warm, loving, and affectionate people, warm, lovingness like, and so on—we have been hiring on that basis. One of the things happens to those warm, loving, affectionate people. If they are warm enough they do not stay; or, if they stay, within five years they seem to lose their warmth. I call that the "condition of the teachers' room."

We also have hired principals on the basis of the research. We look for philosophical people who have broad, comprehensive understanding of what is happening, who can penetrate a problem regarding American education, who are psychologically less rigid; but we find that, after four or five years of being principals, they have reached the green fertile valley and generally do not want to be disturbed. The urge for security comes into play, and there is a great concern about "What would happen to me if I lost this job?" I just want to say that if you haven't lost a job you haven't done anything.

I was present at a ceremony at which awards were given to superintendents who had been on the same job for 30 years, 25 years, and 20 years. I sat through it because I was to give the speech; and when I started I asked, just kiddingly, "Why did you reward the enemy?" They did not quite understand for a couple of minutes what I was driving at, but they will. I won't be invited back, but that is all right.

Maybe half a dozen years ago, I attended an ASCD meeting in Chicago with the national curriculum makers. It was a small group. The national curriculum makers had called us together because they had put out beautiful packages of materials. They were "teacher-proof" materials—that was how they described the materials. When these materials were sent out to schools, they got messed up. "Can you tell us why?" And I told them why. I said, "There are no teacher-proof materials. You forgot all that personal consultation you gave in the development of such materials. You forgot all those human beings you worked with in that tender way to make it go. All you sent out was that written junk. Teachers can mess up *any* such material that you can send out."

We use teacher aides because the literature has been replete with statements that they would solve America's school problems. It took us three years to get teacher aides to make any difference in the lives of students. In the first two years, those classes which had teacher aides achieved less than the ones that did not have them. The students liked school less and were less interested in going to school if they had aides in the classroom.

We have learned from this experience. We made a historic mis-

take: the only encounter which the average middle class white or Black teacher has ever had with the poor was with a maid; so when we gave these teachers an aide, they had an additional maid in the classroom. They usually assigned that maid to the students who were having the most difficulty in learning. The poorest prepared teacher was helping the students who needed help the most, and it didn't work.

A couple of summers ago we looked at the NDEA Title 11 institutes. Two things became apparent about people who went to NDEA institutes. First, the institute had no more effect on them than did a college class taken in the summertime, and I won't mention how effective I think that is. Second, we found that, in general, if teachers came up with any good ideas, they got wiped out when they returned home because they were a threat to the rest of the institution.

In this vein on teachers and educational change, I have noticed that the literature on team teaching has decreased. Five or ten years ago we thought that if we just adopted team teaching that would solve our problems. We have now learned that two teachers together can mess up material at a geometric ratio, so team teaching has disappeared from the literature.

Performance contracts will go the same route. They are the simplistic lie of the present, generally used by people who then do not have the need to think, because they have a simplistic answer. If we just turned the schools over to a company under a performance contract, they say, that would solve all the problems. I predict that Texarkana will not be the only place that will either teach for the test or mess up the test before we face up to the difficulties.

The performance contract is a new method to cheat poor kids, because the poor kids are the ones who will not receive that personal attention so necessary for learning. Middle class white kids will achieve whatever the change, because they are school acculturated, but they may decide to drop out and not come back.

One of my good friends received a grant from the Ford Foundation to train outside catalysts. They were to be trained to enter a school and, with a little bit of money and some ideas, change the schools. My friend gave that up after a number of years, because he found that outside catalysts made no difference. Then he started to train inside catalysts, and he decided to give that up, too. The catalysts, outside or inside, just did not seem to make the difference one would be looking for.

I could keep going with examples. Under Title II of ESEA some school systems set up a model library; but when you look around the district to see if there was any kind of influence on the library program, you see no change. Title III, ESEA, innovations—we coined the word

"dissemination," and dissemination means "put out a brochure." I get these brochures by the thousands, it seems, and I look at them and say to myself, "One more that isn't going to make any difference, but what beautiful paper." I notice they are using much better art work recently, and I am very appreciative of that.

Our research department checked on innovative practices to find out which ones are listed as innovative practices in California. Team teaching was one—when school districts were asked what their most innovative practice was, usually they listed team teaching. Second was teacher aides. Third was tutorial programs. That is interesting—I wonder if they know that it is the one who tutors that grows. I am not sure they know this, but that is the finding of research.

Individually prescribed instruction is another interesting innovation. Many people tell me that they have individualized their total program, and I say, "That is too bad, because there are some things you ought not to individualize. For instance, you cannot get conceptual development out of individually prescribed instruction, because it is out of questions and interactions that you get conceptual development. So that means you have already ruined your social studies and your science programs. What are you working on next?" I send them home sweaty about the situation.

Next came interns. I could go down the list with other misguided innovations, but I think my point is clear.

Another problem I see is a kind of dishonesty that is prevalent at the present time, and I want to hit it directly. Any urban school district that is not breaking down the achievement of its youngsters—on the basis of Anglo youngsters, Black youngsters, Chicano youngsters, Indian youngsters, and Asian youngsters—is disguising its problem in order not to face it. I know of only two of us in the State of California who are breaking down achievement in this way. Life is much more pleasant if you do not do this, and that is one of the problems we need to face. In Berkeley, for example, achievement on whatever we measure is above the national norm. We could quit there and rest content, and nobody would raise a question; but when we analyze the achievement of subgroups in order to face that issue, we find life very different.

At the mean score of whatever we measure, Asian and Anglo students in Berkeley by the eighth grade are achieving about three years above the norm, so the average eighth grade Anglo youngster is reading at the eleventh grade level. Three quarters of Anglo youngsters are achieving above the national norm. We cannot find any difference in the achievement of Asians and Anglos. I am not talking about ethnicity; I am talking only about achievement.

Black and Chicano students are achieving at about the sixth grade level, or about five years below the Anglo youngsters and two years below the norm. This is true not just in Berkeley; it is true in any community which is urban and which has large numbers of Black and Chicano kids. Incidentally, if there are no Black and Chicano youngsters in a community, its children are already deprived because the white kids are growing up in isolation, and that makes those students the most deprived today.

Most school districts will not face this issue. They face only the issues they want to face. Yet some basic beliefs must be discussed. For instance, you might decide in an open discussion that you are going to take the Shockley approach. Shockley says that he is inferring the constitutional inferiority of Black people. If that is what you believe, that has to be talked about, because you change your instructional program based on what you believe. There is a researcher at the University of California who believes that Black people learn only on the basis of the S-R connectionist theory and cannot learn in terms of Gestalt theory. When I was hired at Berkeley, I fired him from working in the Berkeley school system.

You may believe the Moynihan approach: the reason Black people do not achieve is the absence or neglect of the man in the family. You should read the book before you come to that conclusion because, in my opinion, it is a very poor book; but if that expresses your point of view, you have to talk about it.

If you believe in the approach of Title I, ESEA, or compensatory education (I call it the plantation system), then that ought to be talked about so you know where your educational theory comes from. If you believe in the Rosenthal study, *Pygmalion in the Classroom*, in regard to teacher attitudes and the effect of the self-fulfilling hypothesis, it needs to be talked about. If you believe Postman, that school is a subversive activity, and more subversive in regard to Black and Chicano youngsters, it has to be talked about.

If you believe Art Combs' hypothesis that the self-concept is a precursor for learning, then we need to deal with what white people have done to Black and Chicano people to make them feel less worthy in our culture. All these things need to be talked about, but that is one of our real problems. As I see it, America has not been willing to address itself to these problems.

I think there is a totally untapped number of Blacks, Chicanos, Asians, and whites who are gifted, but who have not been recognized because they do not have the same kind of giftedness the teacher has in mind. And that is a terribly important point. Some of *us* did not have

the giftedness that some high school teachers had in mind when we went to school, either. There were teachers in the high school I attended who would die of shock if they knew that I am now a superintendent of schools. That was another world.

While we are on this matter of differences, we might also consider textbooks. In my judgment, textbooks in America are just as racist at the present time as they were 10 or 15 years ago. Dick and Jane now have black faces, but the content is exactly the same as before. There is basically no change. Last year I wrote to many of the textbook publishers raising quesrions about their concepts in history. In general they wrote back saying two things: first, we are trying; and second, we don't write textbooks just for Berkeley. We have to sell them in Mississippi, Georgia, and so on, too. I understood what they were saying, yet I hold that among our great problems today are an unwillingness to face the issue of what is happening to poor children in America, and an unwillingness of educational staff members to negotiate where they are going on this matter.

What Bugs the Students?

What about the students? What are they saying to us? Last year I met once a month with students representing all of the schools in Berkeley, and tried to get them to tell me what they felt were the problems. They laid out several that I want to share.

One complaint, they said, is that in most schools students feel useless. They really do not feel that they have any meaningful participation. They have caught onto student councils. They have learned that the student council is the way the principal gets what he had in mind, and they are not buying that in any sense. They are really saying to teachers on this point: "You say teachers don't have any power, yet you won't share any power with us. We want an option to participate or we won't play."

The youngest age group that has marched on me and the board of education has been the sixth grade. A group of sixth graders made a series of demands about their school (by the way, that word demand is just the new verbiage for a positive request, but many people get scared by that particular word) and we were able to settle their requests that particular time. When I reported to my family and friends that the sixth grade had marched on us, one of the questions was, "How young do you think it will go?" My only response was that we have an early childhood program starting at the age of two, and anything is possible.

In schools I visit where nothing is happening, I am interested in

looking at kids at about the seventh grade level. These youngsters have conformed so beautifully for the first six or seven years; then I look at their eyes in the seventh grade and they are dead. We have a project which involved some seventh grade youngsters in the suburbs. As the two teachers said, we almost have to shock them to get them to turn on because they have been so turned off by nonparticipation.

The students also are saying that the schools are terribly bureaucratic: "You have rules, and you treat those rules as though they were ordained in Heaven instead of being laws passed by a Legislature that in most cases didn't know what it was doing. And you respond to us when we come with questions of whether we can do something or not by saying there is a law."

Our kids understand this point, and I think most urban youngsters do also. Before some of the decisions on students' rights were rendered by the courts, a group of pupils at Berkeley High School put out an underground newspaper. When it was distributed, it had in 18 point type that one word in the English language that blows the minds of most people. It sometimes has "mother" in front of it. This time it didn't; it had "the war" after it. The principal is a good principal, and he asked the youngsters, using Federal Trade Commission language, to cease and desist; and the students, without getting angry, said "No! We want to continue." He suspended seven of them.

The parents called me that weekend, saying, "We need to meet with you Monday morning." When I met with them, the seven parents and the seven students, I learned very quickly an important thing. Four of the seven parents were lawyers, and one was the leading constitutional lawyer in the Bay area. In the next hour and a half, they proceeded to teach me all the background of the constitutional rights of students. We negotiated for some 10 hours with the students getting a satisfactory solution.

In general students are saying, "We won't live with your rules unless you teach us how to change them and let us participate in that change."

Students are opposed to any kind of segregation, and they are going to give us difficulty on this problem in our society if we do not do away with it.

They do not buy any form of grouping. We tried one year to organize our students into programs using IBM cards. They bent, punched, and burned IBM cards and threw the whole system into an uproar. They were saying, "We don't want to be an IBM card." They have no personal prejudice against IBM; it is just one of those processes that treat them as other than human beings, and that is one of the

things that kids are rejecting. What is going to be the form of an educational program that will prompt students to feel that, "If I miss school tomorrow somebody is going to be terribly upset that I wasn't there, not for ADA purposes in collecting that 70 cents a day, but because this school couldn't get along without me"?

They are raising questions as to whether counselors are on the side of students or on the side of the administration or on nobody's side. A suggestion I made last year almost got me lynched: I suggested that we do away with counseling, but that we select a few people and call them student advocates and that they be fighters for kids. I have come to the conclusion that anybody can make out a program, and that no one could make any more mistakes than counselors make. Perhaps, if we didn't have counselors, teachers would talk to students. Maybe then we would be forced to talk to each other.

Kids also are saying that they are not sure the credential system is the best way to become a teacher. I think we must consider whether the university can stand an alternative system through which people may earn a credential. I am proposing at the present time that a select number of school districts in California be given the right to provide the fourth and fifth years of training instead of the university, and that we look at those people who get a degree from the university. We would train these people and bring in college professors whenever we needed them for the intellectual base they could add, instead of letting the professors use us whenever they need to find out what the real world is like.

The Three Kinds of Schools

I would like to categorize three kinds of schools. For sharing my observations, I have labeled these schools because I think they are part of our problems, or maybe part of our solutions.

Model A—The "Fix the Child" School

The first kind of school is a Model A or "fix the child" school. In this kind of school, the teachers and administrators knew something was wrong, and they concluded that if they could just fix those kids to be the kind of kids they had in mind, the school would run well. These schools are very formal. Teachers call each other "Mister," "Miss," or "Mrs.," and the principal addresses them in the same manner. When the principal or teachers walk down the halls, they do not talk to students; they walk by students without saying anything.

These schools have a very good, very fat curriculum guide. It usually has three columns to the page, and teachers say to each other, "What page are you on in the guide?" One thing you find in these schools is consistency. Everybody knows what is going to happen tomorrow and the next day.

Model B—The Catalytic School

A second model I would call the Model B or catalytic school. This is a change. Teachers in this school knew something was wrong. They wanted to do something to improve it, and they are working very hard on various kinds of in-service programs to see if change can be brought about. They are going through sensitivity group training and T-group training. They have been to Bethel National Training Laboratory. They have worked with Hilda Taba's material and Dick Suchman's materials or the Chem Study and Chem Bond courses. They have had the best people to try to be of help, and somehow or other it should work; but in my judgment it has not worked to make the kinds of changes that are necessary. Some of us have spent our lives trying to make this model work. We believe in the beauty of people and of teachers and of administrators, and we believe that in working with them improvement should come about.

I think there are a couple of problems. For one thing, schools are getting too large. There are a massive number of people in these schools who are not self-actualizing people, who do not get turned on by this particular method. They work very hard to be sure that they are the majority rather than the minority, and they are willing to let those new nuts play around with all that stuff as long as they stay a minority and do not infect the majority of the staff. And that is power; they put pressure on the principal to be sure what he hires. There is a method in most schools, especially secondary schools, to preserve the system; it is called department heads. Department heads tend to hire in their own image to be sure they get what they want—colleagues who will not outclass them and become the new department head.

So we found in the Model B schools that improvement should occur. We also found that if the school had a charismatic principal, it started to move and the plans worked. Then the principal was promoted or he left for another job; and a year later the school had regressed into a non-catalytic model.

The catalytic model I think still needs to be worked with. We need to find ways to put human beings together and keep them excited about

the possibility of living with kids, excited by the fact that one of the ways in which man becomes eternal is by passing on ideas and possibilities to other people.

Model C—Alternative Schools

The third model is one that some of us are experimenting with at present. That is Model C, the possibility of alternative schools. I think this model has its problems, but maybe a part of the solution, too. My point of view is that we cannot change a whole school, but perhaps we could change a piece of a school. We could find half a dozen teachers who wanted to do something, provide them with the funds to do what they wanted to do, give them protection, and let them do it.

As a result, we now are running 15 alternative schools in the Berkeley district, four off campus, eleven on campus. In some instances we are running three schools on the same campus each with a different alternative, each with a different subhead. We think this model has possibilities because it gives options for students and options for teachers. They both have choices for what they want to do.

We now have seven alternative schools at Berkeley High School. When I first suggested that we might establish some alternative schools there, one of the department heads asked me, "If we set up these alternatives what is going to happen to me?" I replied, "You are going to have less power, because you are going to have control only over those who fall within your department, but you are not going to have power over those in the alternative programs." He said, "Then I am going to be against it." I said, "Of course, that is understandable." Such an attitude is apt to be engendered in this situation On the other hand, we are dealing with one of the crucial problems: if teachers have no options and if students have no options, there can be no excitement in learning.

These Are Our Problems

In this paper, I have tried to make several points. First, I have tried to show that there are conditions in the culture that are helping to turn off human beings in schools.

Second, I have asserted that some simplistic answers are being offered among educators, and now some board members, who believe that this tinkering with the schools is going to be the solution to the problems facing American education.

Third, there are business concerns that are going to try to make

money from education, because the business market is down at the present time; and they are going to promote these simplistic answers.

Fourth, I believe that America has not faced its problem of dealing with the poor. I have come to the conclusion that we have not faced it because we do not *want* to face the problem of dealing with the poor, the Black, the Chicano, the Puerto Rican in America.

Fifth, I am saying that schools have not been willing to come up with different alternatives to provide a richer education for the children.

Sixth, I think people have been looking for the wrong thing. Bill Arrowsmith said, "Charisma in a teacher is not a mystery or number of personalities, but radiant exemplification to which the student contributes a corresponding radiant hunger for becoming." It has become frightening to be charismatic. To be charismatic means to lose some security and to take some risks in putting your ideas out for discussion, because that means somebody is going to disagree with you. Too many people are adopting safe positions on educational problems, such as performance contracting, rather than dealing with the complexity of the problems, as I think we are going to have to do.

2. Education for the Young Child: Some Reflections*

Milly Cowles

Programs, both formal and informal, for the education of infants and young children are, of course, an essential part of the school of the future. Yet these programs must be sound psychologically, sociologically, and philosophically. Humaneness in the most compassionate sense of that concept must prevail. The family must be involved deeply in these efforts. Availability of organized programs, both for the development of the young and for parent education, must be universal. The quality of life for the remaining "three score and ten" years or more of each child is at stake.

Professor Cowles presents for us in a most insightful and understanding manner her reflections on what the characteristics of such programs should be. Although visionary as to what all young children should be privileged to enjoy, her recommendations, as indicated in her acknowledgments, are realistic and are being followed in the development of new programs at this level of schooling.

It is time to move in each school district to develop the kinds of educational opportunities envisioned by Milly Cowles.—JGS

"EARLY Childhood Education" is quite an elusive title for an area in the educational spectrum that is open to myriad interpretations. In the past, preschool and/or early childhood education generally was any preprimary work. The emerging consensus now is that early education extends from the earliest formal training to the age many developmental psychologists called middle childhood, the onset of which is around ages seven, eight, or nine. Exactly when any child enters or leaves a certain stage or classification cannot be specifically

* Appreciation is expressed to everyone in the Early Childhood Program, Williamsburg County, South Carolina. They are working toward implementing all of the ideas expressed herein. Critical comments from Dr. Kathryn Daniel and Dr. Frances O'Tuel, University of South Carolina, and Miss Mary Harper and Dr. Nancy McCutcheon, Williamsburg County, South Carolina, have helped the writer more than they will ever know.

determined, but such a determination is not critical in flexible school settings. In the majority of school systems, this division of early and middle childhood splits down the middle the currently prevailing elementary school organizational pattern.[1]

The *now* in early childhood education is fraught with problems and issues that can be resolved to ensure a more cohesive future. The irony within the current dilemma is that children, parents, and school personnel, indeed the entire American society, would be the beneficiaries, if and only if the appropriate persons would act immediately to provide a sound educational base for young children

Critical Problems in Current Efforts

Although certainly not exhaustive, several critical problems which loom as possible partial and complete barriers to the early childhood education field's moving forward into the future progressively and solidly will be discussed first, and then partial solutions and recommendations will follow.

Support for formal or planned educational opportunities for children in the age bracket three through five is severely limited whether one has reference to human thought or to financial underpinnings. Some states still do not support public kindergartens. There are almost universal opportunities for the child in the six-through-eight age bracket to attend school; however, the upper levels of education (particularly secondary, college, and graduate) receive far more financial support. This gives rise to the question, too, of the support of early childhood education in the marketplace of ideas. Yet the early childhood years are regarded by many researchers and theorists as being the most critical and foundational ones for each and every phase of development.[2]

[1] In some circles, the term early childhood education is used synonymously with the term preschool education. Others regard preschool as representing all education prior to the kindergarten level, particularly nursery school education, still others use preschool education to refer to all preprimary education.

[2] Support for programs of education for the young child may be found in, among others, the following: Benjamin Bloom. *Stability and Change in Human Characteristics* New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1964; Jean Piaget. *The Psychology of Intelligence.* Translated by M. Piercy and D. E. Berlyne. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1947; Jerome S. Bruner. *The Process of Education.* Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1960; Jerome S. Bruner. *Toward a Theory of Instruction.* Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1966; Jerome S. Bruner *et al. Studies in Cognitive Growth.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1966; Arnold Gesell *et al. The First Five Years of Life.* New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1940; Maria Montessori. *Spontaneous Activity in Education: The Advanced Montessori Method.* Cambridge, Massachusetts: Robert Bentley, Inc., 1964; J. McV. Hunt. *Intelligence and Experience.* New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1961.

Although the "counter-school" and "store-front" movement has begun in practice and is being discussed, the educational activities for young children are not incorporated cohesively into any existing educational organizational plan and would not be in the counter school in any substantial manner.

Too little attention has been given to adequate staffing patterns, facilities, and preparation of the personnel who will work with children during their formative years. Seemingly, paper or lip-service recommendations have not become reality.

Educators and theoreticians have not reconciled their views sufficiently to provide total, comprehensive programs for children when and where programs exist. Confusion abounds as to which theory and what methods show most promise.

Recommendations for Future Developments

There is the possibility that with adequate planning for implementation and evaluation, early childhood educational practices could influence the whole spectrum of planned or organized education. As documented by most contemporary social scientists, the society in which we find ourselves is so complex that planning will be essential for its productive survival. This is to say further that any kind of subsidized education cannot be haphazardly pieced together without organization or allowed to flounder around historical precedents that are not evaluated in light of today's reality. In defense of public education and its educators, however, they have continued to show willingness to engage in what they view as innovative practices, and they are always held accountable to the general public. Any small study of the history of American education shows that its general practices have not remained static.

The first recommendation is to incorporate universal programs for all children from age three[3] into one cohesive organizational unit within the context of public education, and maintain educational support for them there until they have mastered the foundational skills necessary to move into middle education programming. The legal basis already exists for bonding purposes. Educational administrators are being prepared to run schools in this decade and can supply the leadership needed for support of teachers, other staff, and parental involvement. Each school district will need persons to coordinate the early childhood program. They can plan and implement cooperatively con-

[3] Educational considerations from birth through age two are certainly important, but appear to be more appropriate for future discussions in light of current reality in educational funding for the 1970's.

tinuous evaluation and training programs for administrators, and can work between the various organizational levels within the district.

Attainments of students in the emerging middle school should pick up, after they have completed foundational work in the early childhood program. Chronological age can be used for entrance purposes into the early childhood sequence, but should receive minimal consideration when decisions are being made as to the appropriate time for the child's exit to his new middle years program. The primary reason that chronological age is a decent criterion for the child's initial entrance in a formal school is that the program should be sufficiently flexible to accommodate wisely and well any three-year-old child. Since certain broad boundaries based on the child's mastery of rudimentary language and conceptual, social, physical, and mathematical skills will have to be established for the early years, the child cannot be caught any longer in continuity and articulation problems that have existed for so long.[4] (The middle years curriculum must also be flexibly designed to provide a sequential program.) When different agencies are operating massive programs outside the context of the organized educational establishment, a genius working full time could hardly overcome the inevitable differences between institutions. We see the problems daily in education now.

The educational environment provided for each child must be developed and implemented by intelligent persons who hold broad perspectives and who are open and receptive to new ideas, but who also evaluate carefully to avoid jumping on every new bandwagon and who are not slavishly devoted to the past. Early childhood "models" as seen particularly in the Head Start planned variation programs and in the Follow Through "models" (both endeavors funded by the federal government) appear most of all to be governed by psychological theories that can easily lead to extreme polarization.[5] For example, they range from attempts to apply stimulus-response to new-behaviorism, from the behaviorist school of thought to the use of cognitive-developmental theories. Obviously, the view being taken is that one or more of the "models" will provide evaluative data that tell *us* what to do with children.

The history of the lack of agreement among leading psychological theorists for whatever reason—inability, unwillingness, differences in

[4] See: Esther J. Swenson, chairman. *A Look at Continuity in the School Program.* 1958 Yearbook Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1958.

[5] See: *Educational Leadership* 28 (8): 785-880; May 1971. (Entire issue is devoted to Early Childhood Education.)

value systems—is well documented.[6] Regrettably, early childhood education has probably been more susceptible to the various psychological nuances than any other area of the curriculum. This is primarily due to the fact that early childhood programs have, as their focus, the child and have been less crowded with what ought to be taught directly within time limitations. For example, until recently few professionals in the field were concerned with rigid curricular objectives found throughout other levels of education, such as pencil-paper, rote memorization, "learning-to-read or else" expectations which have prevailed in many primary grades. Those would have to be modified considerably if current primary education is included in the early childhood scheme.

Now, with apparent extreme disagreement and the possibility of more confusion in the future, the entire area must have persons who can assimilate and act upon all knowledge bearing on children and their families without taking sides with the academicians' and scholars' concerns as to which theory they must themselves wed. There are similarities and bold differences within the theories. Since in education we apply our knowledge to very real situations with children, the need for a broad base is imperative.

In order that the first experiences the child has outside the home be productive and self-fulfilling for him, or—to use the idiom of the day—that early childhood education be swinging and doing its own thing with, of course, children as the main concern, we must also develop esthetically pleasing learning environments that are planned around what is known about children and are designed to use in-building and out-of-building space. The learning centers need to be planned to fit the child in every dimension from physical to psychological comfort. The young learner needs to be able to practice a great deal of self-selection of learning activities within a setting that is planned for him individually.

No two children have the same needs at the same time, although it is true that many children may enjoy and profit from group activities of a similar nature. The problem rests in the ability of the teachers to learn enough about each child in order to ensure that the problem of the match[7] becomes a reality in this decade. That is, the child is entitled to live, work, and play in a place that fits him, not one that he must be and live in artificially. To take a simple example, if the child at age four is interested in learning to write and read his name, provision

[6] T. W. Wann, editor. *Behaviorism and Phenomenology: Two Contrasting Bases for Psychology*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964

[7] Among others, both Maria Montessori and J. McV. Hunt have discussed the problem of the match in great detail.

through whatever means one has to devise should be made to honor the child's choice. Why should a young child have to wait until he is six or seven to express a need and meet its fulfillment? Certainly not because some curriculum planner has designed that all children learn to read and write when they are six.

Sufficient knowledge has now accumulated in the area of child development that, with adequate study and insight, the learning environment can cater to the young child's constant quest for activity, both quiet and active. Anyone who has observed very young children becoming quite independent and industrious in their work habits can testify to the child's ability to make wise choices concerning his activities when given the proper environment and encouragement. Some children need to have more space than others and need more freedom to roam productively; therefore, when the outside is used as an extension of the indoor space, the child has the chance to expand his opportunities for learning.

Throughout early childhood, most children are at best still in the concrete stage of thinking. This knowledge has been around for a long time and it causes one to wonder why so many activities in many schools now involve the child in learning tasks that, although they probably do not hurt him, neither are they productive. If, for example, the child needs to look, touch, feel, take apart, and put together a clock to learn about it, why would any instructional personnel draw a diagram, or try to tell the child about the clock? If children need to learn to become independent, why are we not providing the opportunities for self-selection and rich environments that cater to the child's needs? If we planned developmental programs, there would never be a need either for what is termed remediation or for what are, in practice, attempts to remedy past mistakes that have been made when the child is expected to adjust to the environment, whatever the cost, rather than the environment's being tailored to the child. The school would then have to be a place in which the child could see and feel himself as being worthwhile and be able to know what mastery of tasks feels *like* and really *is*.

Staffing and Parental Involvement

Differentiated staffing will enhance the properly planned environment. The patterns used must include men and women who themselves provide healthy models for children. Also, adequate numbers of adults have to be included to ensure proper adult guidance. The early childhood center designed to use and reward both men and women will

provide the balance that the child needs outside the home. Furthermore, when the child has the choice of more than one adult, there is less likelihood that personality battles become reality. Also, more than one perspective is needed in order to plan well for each child. Planning teams can bring more knowledge to the total organization. Teaching assistants added to teams of professionals can also free the professionally better prepared personnel for spending full time in meaningful interaction with children. As financial conditions improve, the school needs the talents too of psychologists, social workers, and health personnel.

The time is late, indeed, for the consideration that must be given to constant, high-level teacher training for all individuals who will work with young children. The day should have been long past when two or three in-service days twice a year are regarded as adequate for personnel who accept the responsibility of working with young children. Even the best undergraduate preparation—or, for that matter, preparation at the master's level or above—cannot suffice for a lifetime of work. This is particularly true when one views the massive amount of literature that is currently available and that must be analyzed.

Further, we must recognize that inferior teacher preparation practices still exist. Often such practices provide only minimal opportunity for teachers in preparation to be in contact with children and educational programs for more than a single semester. College and university preparation for teachers must be in direct association with early childhood centers. Direct association of this kind must begin when the teacher educators have first contacts with the students. Methods and materials cannot realistically be offered in isolation from children. Equally important, teacher educators need constant contact and work with the real world where the *children* are. Then planned on-the-job opportunities can be a part of the professionals' responsibilities for their own growth. If we studied and analyzed constantly, there would never be justification for criticism that education is stagnant, or that we fail to test new ideas.

There is a great need for parental involvement in the educational process. If parents were included in the planning for their children and if regular involvement could become a reality, child rearing practices would improve and parents would give more solid support to the school itself. Each center would have to individualize its parental involvement process just as it would the program for children. It is the right and responsibility of each parent to understand what the goals for his child are and to have a part in the planning to the extent that the rights of both the parents and the professionals are protected; however, if parents and children are to be protected, they cannot and should not

assume the role of the professional. The school is and will be ill-prepared to assume the role of child rearing in totality. Individuality must be preserved.

Goals and Evaluation

Goals for children in the early years can be both reasonable and rigorous. They can be developed on a sequential basis for every basic objective. The early childhood program in Williamsburg County, South Carolina, has developed sequential goals in physical development, language, and mathematics thus far. Each checklist ranges from simple to complex; for example, the language development sequence is divided into six areas that are delineated as (a) pre-reading, (b) auditory and visual skills, (c) decoding and encoding, (d) word and language expansion, (e) functional language, and (f) critical reading and language skills. Learning and interest centers are devised in each area. The child is not rushed through any level, but is provided a learning environment that helps build each area; and he can and will stay there until he is able to move to a more complex level.

Many educators have known for a long time that unless a child has certain cognitive, affective, and physical development he is an unlikely candidate for formal reading and writing activities; however, we have continued to ignore the possibilities inherent in broad sequential goals that are actually operative in the school setting. Rudimentary concepts that will provide the foundation for successful middle years can be developed in the first level of development through the close analysis of what the child needs. All areas can be subdivided in order that learning centers can be devised that provide "real" learning activities formulated around the child's need for being actively involved in what he is doing, having alternatives from which to select. (Adults recognize the need in today's world for a solid foundation.) Through whatever type of goal setting that may be done, the necessity for the child to learn social skills and other social knowledge, classification skills, mathematical skills, and physical skills will be all important in future years. For it is precisely those skills that provide the base for logical and abstract thinking which will, it is hoped, be the ultimate goal for middle and high school education.

Evaluation techniques that are designed for what the school intends to accomplish must be devised. The current readiness tests and primary achievement tests are far too limited to be of any value other than to give the professional a reading as to how his children performed when compared to a "norm" sample. Since these are classified as group tests,

we commit common errors when we pull out any score for *individual* analysis. Furthermore, evaluation will have to be a daily occurrence if the learning environment is to be planned to cater to children's strengths and to their daily needs. Extensive checklists and observational guides can provide more concrete, operational data for daily, ongoing activities than do once or twice a year group tests.

When an individual analysis is made of a child with, for example, the *Stanford-Binet* or the *Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities*. the individual administering the test is the person who really learns more about the child. His report can only partially share what he has learned, and the person reading the report would have to have the frame of reference and experiences that the tester had to share his findings in any real sense. In other words, the professionals working daily with the child must learn and practice diagnostic skills in order to plan fully for each child. This is not to say that individual and standardized testing should be thrown out; but rather to suggest that. in the early childhood period, there is a great need for much more evaluative data in order that the child may be viewed as a whole person who functions in an integrative fashion.

In summary, the recommendations are:

1. Strengthen public education through the extension of an early childhood organizational structure that includes preprimary and primary education

2. Prepare administrators specifically for early childhood education and have their activities coordinated

3. Use all theoretical, foundational, and historical knowledge available rather than being bound to one particular theory

4. Work to eliminate continuity and articulation problems as children progress from one organizational level to another

5. Develop esthetically pleasing in-and-out-of-door spaces that are planned to meet all developmental needs of children

6. Develop curriculum sequences that range from simple to concrete to complex that involve self-selection of activities by learners within the framework of individualization

7. Provide differentiated staffing patterns that include men and women, professionals and paraprofessionals within the context of adequate numbers of such personnel

8. Plan and implement continuous teacher training

9. Involve parents in such a way that rights and responsibilities of both parents and professionals are protected and enhanced

10. Develc easonable, developmental goals for the early childhood years and then tailor them to *each* child

11. Develop evaluation that is formative, summative, and longitudinal.

When one looks carefully at these suggestions it is clear that they are not new. Sadly, however, we have not put them into practice in any systematic manner, and the early childhood years remain the most neglected. If the early chilhood program were supported, the middle school would receive independent learners with feelings of mastery and real accomplishment.

3. The Kinds of Educational Programs We Need for the Middle Years

Charles A. Blackman

The upper level of the elementary school, historically the "grammar grades" of the traditional system of vertical organization, is labeled here the "middle years" (perhaps "late childhood" would be more accurate). This upper elementary level has not been the object of as much discussion and theorizing, nor, probably, of innovation as have the other three levels of schooling treated in this booklet.

Charles Blackman's vision of the kind of program we need in our schools at this level is especially timely and certainly valid. We need much more than the program of skill development in computation, reading, writing, and communication characteristic of the traditional elementary school. In the past, it was at this level, keen observers tell us, that the schools have tended too much to dampen the child's curiosity, stifle his creativeness, deaden his enthusiasm for schooling and, much too often, have fostered self-concepts of failure as a learner. Professor Blackman wants a different kind of "grammar grades," and he has been assisting schools to develop just such a program. His paper depicts what already is being implemented in better schools throughout the nation, but is still sorely needed in those schools that continue to "push kids around."—JGS

OUTLINING future needs is a difficult assignment, for several reasons. Futurism involves some risk taking, and the making of some assumptions about the decades ahead. While not too readily done, one can "easy chair" and then let others play with his assumptions. Yet my assignment—and in a sense the conference format—could be interpreted as a request to propose a *program model* for the middle years. It is at this point that I am in trouble because I am quite convinced that *no* program model—in the sense that we now think about it—will be adequate for any age/grade groups of children or, for that matter, adults in the years ahead.

Let me elaborate a bit. Too many program models—and their accompanying accouterments, such as team teaching and flexible scheduling—are put on as one would wear a coat. They are "installed" or "adopted" as the word of the moment. Once installation occurs we oftentimes proceed to refine them, but only to make them work more smoothly. We again become concerned with maintenance-type activities. And, as we do with a coat, we often wear them beyond the point of useful service; or, perhaps worse yet, we get a new one just to keep up with the Joneses, never really understanding what the change means or how it might serve children. In neither instance is the program model characterized by either a *human* or a *dynamic* quality.

The Challenge of the Middle Years

The world *now,* let alone in the decades ahead, is a place where excitement runs high, where new understandings are being identified at a rate far beyond our capacity to process them or realize their significance, where *change* really is the order of the day, where *learning* cannot become something identified solely with one institution—and something one does only when he is attached to the institution. The learning environment of the school must, it seems to me, be characterized by the qualities of the world in which it exists: excitement, new ideas, processing the meaning of new ideas, *change.* The concept of moving from model to model, decade by decade, not only is not *dynamic* enough; but such a process, as well, usually does not help us examine some underlying assumptions about what school seeks to do. Too often we merely repackage what we have been doing and put it back in the same old basic framework: a four-walled classroom, with a teacher-dominated environment in which there are all kinds of external expectations about what kids should *know* and *do* and *be*—in *that* order! (And sometimes we are not even concerned with *be*!)

For a while I was even resisting the "middle years" limitation of this assignment. Yet it may well be that this was a fortuitous choice. I suspect that presently we are less "up tight" about the school's role with this particular age group than we are with any of the other three this conference focuses upon. In the "early years" we are quite compulsive about having the child learn certain skills, and the public is increasingly concerned about how well we do this. In the "emergent adolescent years"—probably the second easiest place to look at what we are doing—we are still concerned about what children need to *know about,* and we have not been overly successful with our efforts to bring some sense of unity to the school experience. In the later adolescent

years, we are all mixed up with conflicting forces. For years, the specialty/discipline forces have left us with a very much cut-up and segmented program. And we have such false dichotomies to deal with as general vs. vocational, and college-bound vs. general or vocational.

Not only are we less "up tight," but I suspect that children in the middle years are still quite open to new experiences. Many of them retain an eagerness about learning which provides a very vital component for a rich learning environment.

To the extent it is able to do so, I see the school of the future aiding all who are associated with it (a) to extend their eagerness to learn; (b) to come to relate parts to wholes, to see the wholeness of the world about them; and (c) to view change as a stimulus to growth and not as something to be feared. In addition, I accept John Gardner's concept that "the ultimate goal of the educational system is to shift to the individual the burden of pursuing his own education."[1] These outcomes have guided my thinking in dealing with the characteristics of a learning environment.

Our approaches to similar challenges in the past have been focused largely on program elements for pupils. We have not dealt with the adults who are supposed to aid those program elements to come to life except as *staff* for a program. I would argue that, along with the children, adults in a school are the most important component of the learning environment. Unless they are exciting, growing, changing, creating kinds of people themselves, they are likely to take the edge off youngsters who are seeking to develop these qualities. Therefore, the learning environment needs to be one which speaks to all who share in it. Again, the *program model* concept has not served us well; for while it may provide some initial stimulus for teacher growth, it can rapidly degenerate to a state where maintenance efforts are adequate for its survival and where the role of the teacher is to "staff" the program. Somehow an exciting learning environment must be more than that! Somehow it must provide challenges for teachers as well as for young learners.

Thus I would see staff planning and systematic interaction of staff as an increasingly significant component of the school of the future, not only as a vehicle to provide a more vital program in the usual sense, but to serve as well as a revitalizing device for the adult members of the learning environment. One of the issues or continuing problems I would hope we might deal with later is what would contribute to that revitalization.

[1] John W. Gardner *Self-Renewal: The Individual and the Innovative Society.* New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1963. p. 12.

Schooling for the Middle Years Needed Now

Having rejected the notion of a program model as the way to go, I would like to try, instead, to identify some of the qualities or characteristics of the *learning environment* for the school of the future, to suggest some implications which follow, and to indicate some possible avenues for implementation. I would then like to identify some issues and unresolved problems with which we would need to grapple in moving toward the future. These characteristics should give us a framework to develop *programs* in the future—to the extent that the *program* concept is still useful to us then. At any rate such a statement of characteristics hopefully will enable us to think about our own roles in working with the school of the future—NOW.

In the first place, "school" in the future will be thought of as a *concept* more than a *place*, as an institution which aids or facilitates learning, but not merely learning within a designated building. It will be an institution which aids one to utilize his environment for learning—for living. Our attachment to *school buildings* has enabled us to reduce stimuli, to pre-select environments, to limit options. It has provided us with a convenient corral for children. Yet one of the most important understandings we may be able to help children gain is that of perceiving the world quite literally as a laboratory for learning. What follows from this? Using the out-of-doors. Using the community—people, places, things to do. Perhaps half of our time with children should be spent in direct link with the real world beyond the building. Week-long camp experiences represent a start, but too often we view these as non-school, or we drag a program conceived *inside* to the outside.

Planning for the effective use of the out-of-doors for learning needs to be viewed as a "clean slate" start. That is—we need to ask "What is it that the school should seek to achieve that is likely to be achieved best through effective use of the out-of-doors?" And "What characterizes the uniqueness of the outdoor environment which should be 'captured' to aid learning?" Under some circumstances we may be better able to deal with such questions as "starters" if we are developing summer programs where none has existed before—and where we're not feeling compelled to drag the nine and a half month school year goals and program along as a model. Rather than focus upon "What can we take 'outdoors' that's now 'in'?" we ought to deal with the two questions above and then ask: "What have we learned 'out' which should help us modify and strengthen the program within the school?" One he most serious problems we face is the highly segregated nature of the school program—both horizontally and vertically. With the unity afforded by the environment of the out-of-doors, and experiences in that environment which further learning, hopefully we'll be able to return

"inside" with new issues to face—and a new resolve to achieve greater wholeness with the contrived learning environment.[2]

Again, the *outdoor* notion is but one beyond-the-school building resource. There is so much in our immediate community to see and do and question—no matter what its size or how we perceive *community*. Whether we bring the community in or go to it, our resources for learning are almost inexhaustible.

Another resource is represented by the printed word. Here we have really moved toward the future in some elementary schools in which, quite literally, the materials center is the *largest, most visible, most central, most accessible* space within the building. Here is a place where, in facility planning, we have been able to dramatize the importance of resources, to make them readily available, to invite their extensive use. It is a far cry from the hidden "back room" facility to which, a few years ago, one went only with special permission. We will see more use of disposable, inexpensive materials and a reduction of *texts* in the future, not only to avoid *datedness* but to encourage full use as well.

Obviously electronic devices will play a role in the total lives of youngsters. We will have to recognize the impact of TV and radio on non-school based learning as well as utilize these media in a planned way in school-associated learning.

Another major resource is *time*. Unfortunately I fear that we have let school become clock-bound, even in the middle years. Convenience, desire for a systematic use of time, valuing of routine—all these may have blinded us to other time units for learning. We are beginning now to look at summer programs; but many of these, as was mentioned, are merely extensions of the 9½-month school program. Again the opportunity for a "clean slate" start is crucial. Suppose we had students for blocks of time in an outdoor setting, what might be accomplished in a period of several weeks in gaining a significant appreciation of the world about us? Suppose we used planting and harvesting times not to establish the school year, but as times for intensive periods of learning about the world of nature? In the future we will be less held to a "convenience schedule"—more to a "learning schedule."

To What Ends?

School as a concept; rich resources of the world about us; time as a servant and not as master—to what ends? Three major objectives,

[2] C. A. Blackman. "Perspective: A Curriculum Specialist Looks at Outdoor Education." *Journal of Outdoor Education*, Vol. 3, No. 3; Spring 1969.

in my view, are: (a) to capture and build on an eagerness to learn, thus coming to see learning as an exciting lifetime endeavor; (b) to view the world as a constantly changing place and the individual self as a constantly changing, growing organism; and finally, (c) to sense the wholeness and unity of the world about us. The world is not the bits and pieces place that our cut-up programs make it out to be. Each of these three objectives—and there may be others you could identify—should guide our planning efforts with students. Hating to read, as a product of learning to read, for example, we can no longer tolerate. *Feelings* about learning should be one of our real concerns!

Human Resources

That brings us back, obviously, to the adults' relationship with children. How can we use more effectively the world *as perceived by the child* as the major focus for school-based learning? This summer a friend described his encounter with a nine-year-old girl whom he had just met. He began to talk with her and to question her. The dialogue went on for a while, and suddenly her face lit up. "Hey, I didn't know I knew all those wise things!" How often do *we* really listen—and help a child listen to what he or she is saying?

We have to assure ourselves that we are making the wisest use of the human components of a good learning environment—all of them, youth and adults alike. To utilize the resources represented by human beings, we have to *know* what we have to work with. To me this means that we need to spend much more time planning with students, interacting with students, *hearing* students. While this may border on a programmatic item, it seems to me that the initial time with a "new" group of students needs to be spent in extended activities, which really help people become acquainted with one another and come to see one another as resources for learning. What we do now is quite superficial; in part because we are quite compulsive about "getting on" with *teaching,* and in part because I suspect we have not really realized the depth of the resource which others, regardless of age, represent.

In our human resource use I suspect we need to examine the balance of opportunity for interaction among and between several groupings. In my original notes I had said, for example, between learners and adults, between learner and adult, between adult and adult. Just think how easy it was to use labels in a way which implies that we, as adults, are not learners! At any rate, we need to plan for some time with individual children, some time with groups of children, some time with colleagues—each time in a learning frame for *us* as well as for

children. To capture the real strength of a good relationship between adult and child, our staffing patterns should provide for some continuity of contact over time. How this is done will be determined by circumstance. It may be done by having an individual teacher or a team work with a given group over several years. It may be that some type of rotating team would really permit access for a child to work with a given adult over time. I am sure there are other options as well. The important thing, in my opinion, is that *every* child must come to perceive that he has ready access to an adult he *trusts*—in this instance as an aid to help him process his learning experiences.

Having described some of the major components of a learning environment for the middle years, in the school of the future, I hasten to add that there are many options within which these components can be found. In one school district in central Michigan there are nine elementary schools. Staff members of this district take pride in the fact that there are *significant* differences among and between these schools. Contrary to the practice in many districts, this one values *diversity* rather than conformity. One of our real challenges in the future will be to reduce our compulsiveness about having every school look like every other school. Not only do we need to seek and legitimize *alternative ways* to provide learning environments, but we need to provide the *option* for individual students to choose among alternatives as well.

Necessary Conditions

If we really seek to move further in the directions suggested, what implications follow? While there are many possible areas, I would like to look briefly at three: teacher preparation, both *initial and continuing;* the facilitative role of administrators; and links between school for the middle years and what precedes or follows.

Teacher preparation must not lead merely to a role in which a person *staffs* a program! Somehow, someway, we have to help teachers see themselves as an integral and central part of the child's learning environment. And, perhaps even more important, we have to help them to maintain a perception of themselves as *learners,* too. Beyond these two goals, we need to link resources of schools, colleges and universities, intermediate districts, state departments of education, and other education-related agencies to work together on the continuing task of staff development.

Obviously, if learning environments with the components described here are going to be created and maintained—or better, if we are in the continuing business of creating learning environments like these—

then administrative staff members must see themselves as learners and as a significant part of the learning environment for teachers and children. Administrators who see *control* and *judging* as their primary role are not only likely to inhibit the creating of many components of a strong learning environment, but they are likely to destroy much that may already exist. Support, appreciation for the *strength* of differences, the ability to interpret what is happening with *school*—all these must rest with the administration.

If the middle years go this route, they obviously will not do it in a vacuum. Most of the components I have identified ought to characterize a learning environment for learners at any age or level. The middle years may well be a good place to start; but whatever goes on here should be, in some way, a part of a total revamping of what the school seeks to do.

A place to begin? Where we are, with the concerns we have, sharing with colleagues and children what school might be like. The future is NOW!

4. The Emerging Adolescent School of the Future—Now

Donald H. Eichhorn

For more than two decades now some of our teachers, administrators, and other educational leaders have felt that the junior high school had not developed a program of education that fully served the needs of the group of youngsters just moving into the period of adolescence. True, many excellent junior high schools are to be found throughout the nation; but too many, especially since the 1950's, have sought to be, and truly have been, merely a "junior" to the high school.

High school teachers and administrators, supported by most parents, have regarded the junior high school, in turn, as a preparatory institution for their schools, but one that unfortunately, from their point of view, often did not do the job properly or adequately. When pressure developed in the late 1950's and 1960's for increased emphasis on knowledge and mastery of the disciplines at the high school level, an obvious solution was to snatch the ninth grade youngsters away from the junior high school so that they could be properly instructed in the disciplinary subjects in a four-year program.

In the meantime, the elementary school also became more concerned about content, with the result that many of them "departmentalized" the instructional program in the upper grades. Another development enters the picture: children at all ages were much more mature—intellectually, socially, emotionally, and personally—than their peer-age groups of the 1930's and 1940's. Educators and parents alike felt that something must be done to adapt the school program better to these new factors.

A solution to all of these matters: a new middle school that would much better serve the children in the upper years of the elementary level, and would turn the education of the ninth grader over to the high school.

Donald Eichhorn, certainly a leader in the movement to establish this new type of school, decries the emphasis on grade levels and vertical organization and rightly so; nevertheless, concern about organization has been a major force in the development of the middle school.

Yet now that the middle school has emerged as a major and significant part of our system of schooling, what should it be and become?

As Dr. Eichhorn emphasizes so strongly in his paper, the challenge to educators at all levels, but especially for those directly working at the level of the emerging adolescent, is to develop an outstanding program that will meet not only the educational, but the social, emotional, and developmental needs of these active, dynamic, creative, troubled, inquisitive youngsters. And that is exactly what he lays out in his paper—the lines of development that must characterize the middle school of the future. It truly must be a new school, not a perpetuation of the traditional junior high school, nor a handmaiden of the high school. It has its own unique purposes to serve; let us in curriculum planning not be diverted from this challenge or allow others to impose inappropriate models or structures on this most promising development, the middle school. Donald Eichhorn is accepting this challenge in his efforts to develop an outstanding middle school program at Upper St. Clair.

(The editor suggests that those interested in the movement also read the November 1971 issue of the National Elementary Principal, *published after this paper was prepared.)—JGS*

A POINT of departure in an analysis of school program is, the writer believes, the broad, general goals upon which program develops. While there is little precise agreement regarding the nature and function of a specific program for the middle school level, there is to some degree a general consensus on broad goals. It is helpful to highlight briefly a few of these goals.

Goals of Emerging Adolescent Education

Value Goal

First, the emerging adolescent school should contribute to the development of values. Students in the years 10 to 14 are at a stage in which value orientation is undergoing a transition from a family–adult base to a peer orientation. Youngsters are searching for deeper understandings of relations with peers, family, adults, and society. The school has a rich opportunity to provide activities which will enhance growth in value patterns. Schools will vary in specific approach, but it seems essential that a basic role of the school is to assist students in acquiring values.

In this respect, the climate of the school is indeed vital. The tendency has been to equate learning with fear, repression, and joylessness. The values inherent in such an approach are suspect in areas relating to an individual's mental health as well as those relating to society in general.

Unquestionably, learning can take place in a restrictive environment. On occasion, authors have argued for the values inherent in such an approach. Hudson comments:

> My own suspicion is that progressive schools do make most children happier than authoritarian ones; but that they withdraw from children the cutting edge that insecurity, competition, and resentment supply. If we adjust children to themselves and each other, we may remove from them the springs of their intellectual and artistic productivity.[1]

This point of view has been periodically accepted by U.S. educators. Certainly, the return to rigid subject-centered curricula of the sixties is a case in point. The question emerges as to what values are most appropriate to the cultural goals of the seventies. Bruner, after a decade of curricular experience, comments on this issue:

> It [education] is a deeply political issue in which we guarantee a future for someone; and, frequently, in guaranteeing a future for someone, we deal somebody else out. If I had my choice now, in terms of a curriculum project for the seventies, it would be to find a means whereby we could bring society back to its sense of values and priorities in life. I believe I would be quite satisfied to declare, if not a moratorium, then something of a de-emphasis on matters that have to do with the structure of history, the structure of physics, the nature of mathematical consistency, and deal with curriculum rather in the context of the problems that face us. We might better concern ourselves with how those problems can be solved, not just by practical action, but by putting knowledge, wherever we find it and in whatever form we find it, to work in these massive tasks.[2]

Regarding these two divergent points of view, it seems that educators must view their validity in light of the nature of the emerging adolescent learner. The need of the emerging adolescent for intellectual curiosity, self-motivation, and intense peer interaction would seem to obtain more readily in a less rather than more rigid environment. This is not to say, however, that structure is unnecessary. The nature of the youngster at this level requires a security base and, as values emerge, a realistic degree of structure seems advisable.

[1] Liam Hudson. *Contrary Imaginations: A Psychological Study of the English Schoolboy.* London, England: Methuen & Co., Ltd., 1966. p. 134.

[2] Jerome S. Bruner. *"The Process of Education* Reconsidered." In: Robert R. Leeper, editor. *Dare To Care/Dare To Act.* Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1971. pp 29-30.

Learning Goal

A second goal for the school for the emerging adolescent involves the learning program. This is a crucial age for budding scholars. With the rapidity and diverseness of maturation, emerging adolescents are vulnerable as students At this level, promising students have sometimes encountered learning problems far removed from mental ability. Conversely, student characteristics such as determination, enthusiasm, and curiosity provide unlimited potential for learning. By its philosophy of how learning takes place, a school can facilitate or retard student growth.

A number of aspects of the instructional program should be considered. The following list is indicative but not exhaustive:

1. *Individual Attention.* As students leave elementary school, the range of learning rates and competencies magnifies. It is essential to develop a curriculum and techniques which ensure maximum attention to the learning patterns within the dynamics of the individual learner. This does not imply that individualized attention should be equated only with a self study approach. The emphasis should be placed on monitoring student performance, and measures should be taken to ensure maximum opportunity for development in either an individual or a group context. Early adolescents are at a stage in their development in which they need opportunities to assume responsibility which will lead to self direction. Inherent in this approach is acceptance of consequences of choice as youngsters begin to see the relationship between choice and responsibility.

2. *Performance Basis.* Students should be expected to achieve to a realistic performance standard. This standard should be established, however, not as a group standard but as a personal standard. Through this approach, students hopefully will gain a critical understanding of their abilities and realize a sense of achievement in relation to these competencies. This line of reasoning suggests that every student be expected to achieve learning mastery in relation to his personal standard.

3. *Learning Skills and Processes Versus Acquisition of Content.* Cognitively, the young adolescent is in transition between the concrete operations level of the elementary school and the formal operations stage of the high school. It is vital that emphasis be placed on higher cognitive processes such as hypothesizing, generalizing, synthesizing, and evaluating, as well as on the lower processes such as recalling, recognizing, repeating, and copying. Application of this emphasis again mandates consideration of the individual.

The argument that content is unimportant is not valid. Youngsters should gain considerable content knowledge. This acquisition, however, will not mean a set body of knowledge acquired by all students, but rather a wide range of content knowledge gained as an outgrowth of effort in skills and processes. For example, one student may achieve content knowledge related to the religions in Japan while another may learn a great deal about Japan's government. In both cases, however, the students will have acquired skills in gathering, analyzing, and evaluating data.

4. *Social or Interaction Skills and Processes.* In effect, social or interaction skills are necessary to function effectively in group situations. Group interaction is essential at this age. Such processes as identification, discrimination, clarification, challenge, debate, and compromise are skills in which young adolescents need competency. While these processes are closely related to the learning skills of self study, they are employed in a different context in group interaction.

Similar to the previously expressed thought regarding content, considerable content learning may take place through the acquisition of social skills. This is a natural forum for analyzing problems relating to growth and development or the humanities. For example, science has provided our society with a highly cherished technology. A natural problem for group interaction would be to analyze the positive aspects of this technology while debating solutions to its negative aspects such as air pollution.

Personal Development Goal

A third goal of early adolescent education revolves around personal development. Possibly no aspect of emerging adolescent education is given more philosophic support than personal development. It is usually cited as a part of the rationale supporting the program. Research has clearly demonstrated the validity and necessity for inclusion of personal development in an educational program for this age. Wattenberg's perceptive analysis is characteristic. He writes:

> As we consider the many issues involved in creating middle schools, we must base what we do on a theory as to human development in the first half of the second decade of life and what are the forces which most affect that development.[3]

In actual practice, unfortunately, few schools for early adolescents

[3] William Wattenberg. "The Middle School as One Psychologist Sees It." *High School Journal* 53 (3): 164; December 1969.

give more than superficial treatment to this goal despite exhortations to the contrary. To be effective, personal development instruction must be an integral part of the early adolescent's daily program.

Maturity, or the lack of it, is an important concern for emerging adolescents. This concern reflects itself in all aspects of a youngster's school life and influences his intellectual, social, and emotional progress. Bayley, commenting on intellectual growth, states:

> It becomes evident that the intellectual growth of any child is a resultant of varied and complex factors. These will include his inherent capacities for growth, both in amount and in rate of progress They will include the emotional climate in which he grows; whether he is encouraged or discouraged, whether his drive (or ego involvement) is strong in intellectual thought processes or is directed to other aspects of his life field. And they will include the material environment in which he grows, the opportunities for experience and for learning and the extent to which these opportunities are continuously geared to his capacity to respond and to make use of them Evidently all of these things are influential in varying amounts for different individuals and for different stages in their growth.[4]

Emotional development is crucial at this stage. As students move away from dependence on the family, social relationships become increasingly more vital in their lives. Thus, there is a need to develop a well-defined program in the area of peer relations. This program should have at least two dimensions. First, learning activities should be arranged to ensure maximum interaction with peers and adults. For example, a well-conceived student activity program is needed as part of the curriculum. The concept of "extracurricular" implies that these activity areas are external to program. The opposite approach is needed.

Second, there is need to include guidance programs which enable students to study, analyze, question, and discuss their personal growth and development with regard to relationships with family, friends, and adults. The typical health program falls far short of meeting this need. In most cases, this instruction is best achieved through informal discussions with trusted adults and peers. Emerging adolescents need the reassurance which comes from understanding the growth process. This understanding assists students in meeting the challenges of learning.

These few goals which have been related are not all-encompassing, but hopefully they will set the tone for subsequent program statements.

To suggest a singular pattern for emerging adolescent education of the future is complex at best. The diverse needs of inner city, suburban, and rural youth do not lend themselves well to pat solutions. In addi-

[4] Nancy Bayley. "On the Growth of Intelligence." *American Psychologist* 10: 813-14; 1955.

tion, there are other limiting factors encountered in the reality of local situations such as the status of architectural design, budgets, teacher education, and professional expertise. Nevertheless, there has emerged, in the writer's judgment, sufficient professional awareness to make an attempt to suggest a fundamental pattern. Granted, organizational form will vary considerably from school to school; but organization is viewed here as a means to an end, not an end in itself.

Educational Program for the Emerging Adolescent Learner

Curriculum

Three interrelated aspects of the instructional program will be analyzed: curriculum, strategy for learning, and grouping. Each will be treated in an eclectic manner.

The curriculum of the emerging adolescent school appears to have three dimensions. These are represented in Figure 1.

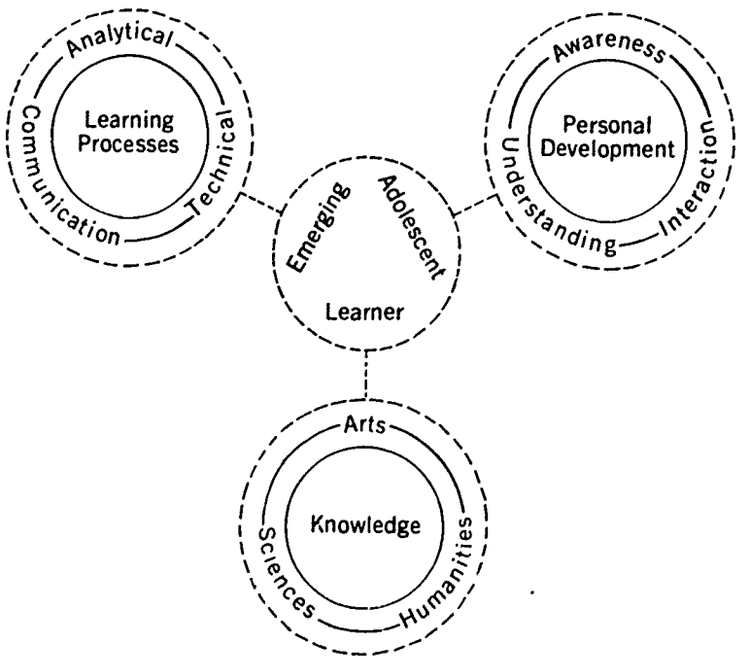


Figure 1. Emerging Adolescent Curriculum

Figure 1 suggests basic principles for the emerging adolescent school program. These principles may be stated as follows:

The characteristics and needs of the emerging adolescent learner are central to school program development.

There are three fundamental curriculum needs. These include the acquisition of learning processes necessary for self education; the actualization of self through self awareness, understanding, and interaction; and the active involvement of the learner with knowledge as it relates to the various aspects of man's heritage and contribution.

1. *Learning Processes.* Fundamental to learning is the ability to acquire knowledge. This ability is a result of one's management of learning competencies. Skills and processes, thus, are essential to a self-directed learner. The school for emerging adolescents will be a laboratory in which every youngster will develop the mental skills and processes necessary for advanced learning.

In the learning laboratory, each student will be involved in a self-pacing design which will facilitate acquisition of learning skills and processes. This design will vary from individual to individual according to the learner's current level of readiness and competency.

Emerging adolescents, irrespective of age or grade in school, possess a diverse range of abilities related to learning skills. This range extends from the concrete stage to the abstract; in addition, there are learning constraints such as auditory and visual perception problems which must be considered. Thus, the requirement that each emerging adolescent needs a highly specialized pattern becomes quite significant.

While there is a need to categorize skills and processes, this grouping should be a radical departure from the highly fragmented subject skill programs currently in effect. Rather, categorization should center on the nature of the skill, for example, communication, analytical, and technical skills, and should stress similarities among them. Communication skills involve symbols and their visual and oral use. Analytical skills involve the practical application of skills and processes involved in logical thought such as gathering, analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating data. There is an interrelationship between these broad categories which aids and reinforces. For example, boys and girls acquire information through reading and listening, and then communicate information orally or in writing after managing this information through higher cognitive processes. If emphasis is placed merely on acquisition of skills and processes, a vital link with cognitive growth is missed.

Technical skills are essential in areas such as industrial education, art, music, homemaking, and typing. These areas of development should

play an important role during the emerging adolecent years and should be taught in a manner similar to the other skill areas of this component.

Apparently there are four general areas for skill and process learning. These include language, mathematics, science, and the practical and fine arts. While interrelated—and these interrelationships should be exploited—skills and processes within each generalized area should be given special attention. It should be emphasized that these general areas should not be equated with traditional content subjects, but rather should be treated as basic areas of logic, structure, symbolism, and process.

Student grouping in this component is by its nature highly individualistic. Architecture which permits an open, informal laboratory setting is most desirable. In this setting, students can work as individuals within larger informal areas. This facilitates the differentiation of materials, human resources, and independent programs necessary for self study. Yet self study can proceed in the context of a variety of learning programs. The size of the group can range from one to "X" number of students, depending upon the learning objectives involved. Informal groupings occur based upon social interests in conjunction with learning programs. This permits individual self study as well as interaction to sharpen each youngster's progress. It also provides for peer compatibility as students can arrange themselves based on maturity and interests. Forced grouping based on group objectives seems to be neither effective nor desirable.

The teacher's role is to analyze learning patterns, construct learning programs for each student, and carefully monitor progress in relation to individual programs. Teachers must be intimately aware of current achievement and learning problems encountered with each student. They also must have expertise in a variety of teaching techniques, including independent, small, and large group approaches. It is particularly crucial that they be able to diagnose learning problems and suggest solutions.

2. *Knowledge Dimension.* Acquisition of knowledge is a vital aspect of the emerging adolescent's learning program. Although there is little attempt at promoting a set body of content knowledge, students will be heavily involved in a wide range of content learning. Man's past accomplishments, present challenges, and future aspirations will be the basis of this curriculum.

These elements will be taught in an integrated or interdisciplinary curriculum. Subject matter from the humanities, arts, and sciences will

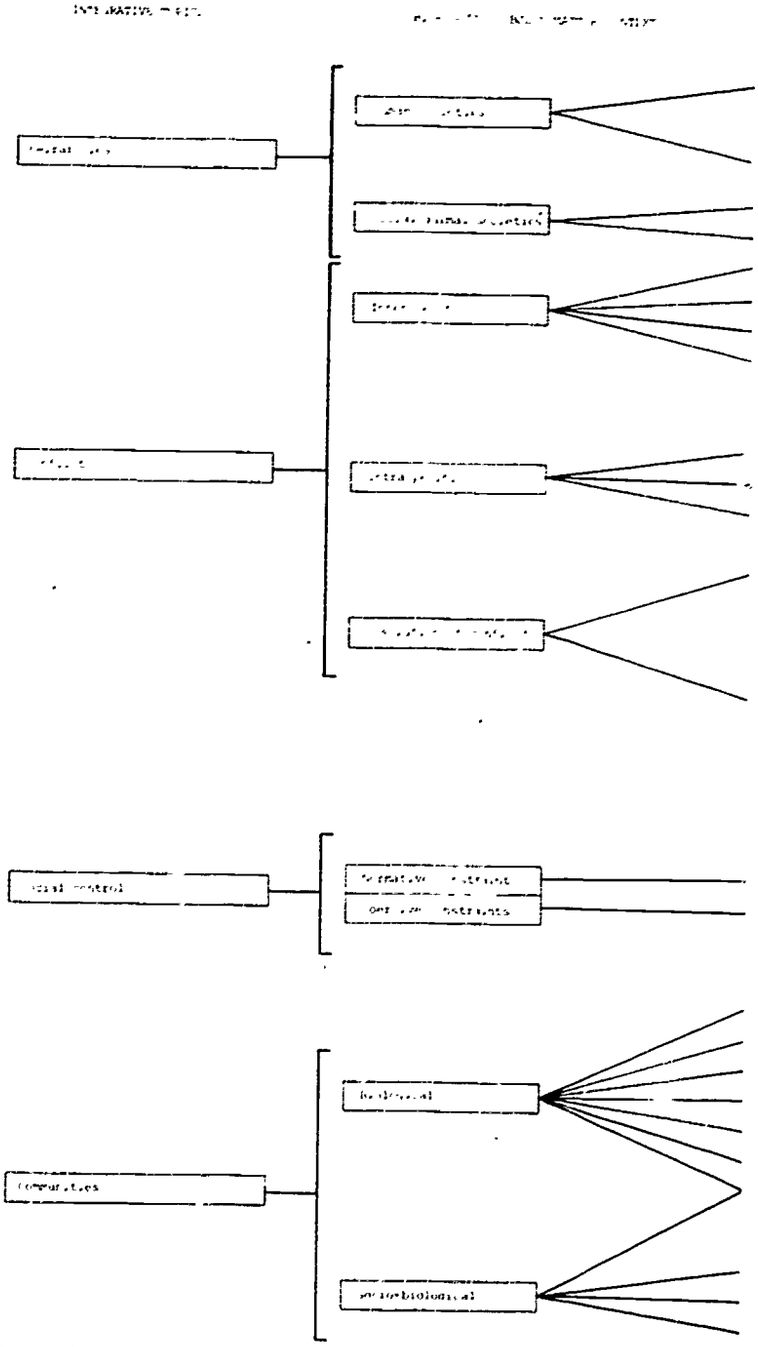
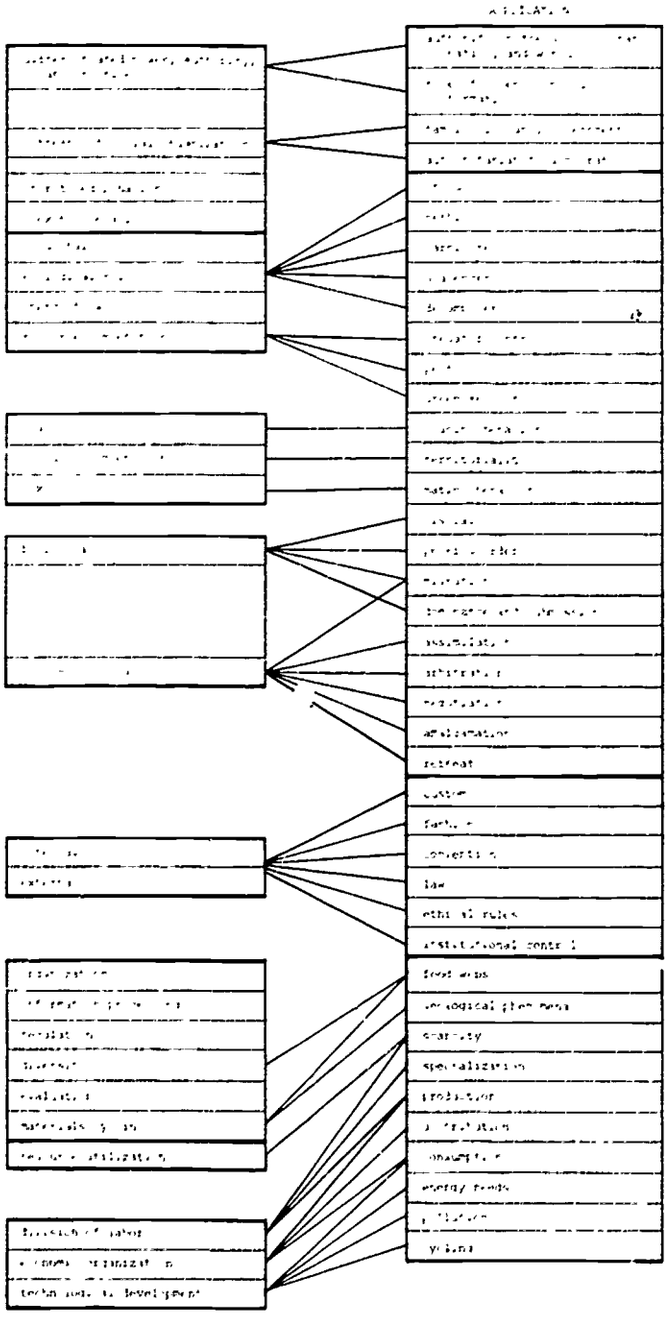


Figure 2. Competition, Accommodation, Cooperation



form the basis of this integration. This approach will have a thematic base out of which a whole range of interrelated topics will emerge.

For example, one of the most farsighted projects related to middle level curriculum is the current attempt of the Biological Sciences Curriculum Study group at Boulder, Colorado. Figure 2 (pp. 44-45) represents a thematic approach to integrated content as the BSCS group envisions it.[5]

Thus this approach will emphasize content, but in a much different context. Youngsters will work with content in perspective. For example, a unit might involve technology and its relationship with science and government. In this approach, some students will study the historical evolution of technology and its many contributions as a result of scientific effort, while others will form governmental and community action groups to debate the issues and suggest solutions for problems encountered with technology's effect on the environment.

This phase of the curriculum should stress students' interests and capitalize on characteristics such as creativity and enthusiasm. There should be a strong emphasis on analyzing man's contributions, but also an equally strong emphasis on active involvement in man's relationships and problems within our culture.

Related areas such as art, music, and creative expression should be a part of this integrated curriculum. These areas are part of our culture and should be studied in context. There are, of course, skills and processes involved in these areas which certainly can be taught in the learning laboratory component; however, their cultural impact on man necessitates their inclusion in the knowledge phase of the curriculum.

The learning strategy which seems best to meet the reasoning of this component is one of individual inquiry and group interaction. Performance objectives should be designed around the social and interaction skills and processes basic to group involvement. Youngsters should actively pursue knowledge and be given the opportunity to seek creative solutions to issues and problems involved.

Student grouping in the component should be based on social maturity. Again, if these groupings are informally achieved simply through student choice, learning will be greatly enhanced. This grouping pattern should not be based on age or grade level, but rather on maturity.

Special interest activity programs which have used this approach,

[5] James S. Eckenrod, Paul DeH. Hurd, Frederick A. Rasmussen, and James T. Robinson. Biological Sciences Curriculum Study "A Multidisciplinary Human Sciences Program for Middle Schools." Boulder, Colorado. Sponsored by the National Science Foundation, 1971. p. 36.

that is, activity selection based on interest regardless of grade, have met with considerable success.

The teacher's role in this component centers on the nature of the goals for instruction. Thus, a teacher will be asked to assist in the development of integrated themes, possess and use teaching skills which will facilitate student inquiry, and employ principles of group dynamics in the many interaction activities. In addition, a teacher must create an environment which promotes dynamic learning.

3. *Personal Development.* Personal development naturally is very much a part of the first two components discussed. Its vital importance, however, necessitates special emphasis.

Of significant importance for emerging adolescents is an understanding of physical growth. With an understanding of maturation, the youngster is able to cope with a very rapidly changing life pattern. Without such an awareness, a favorable self-concept will not occur and learning will be jeopardized. Some knowledge of physical–social growth is essential, but probably more important are opportunities for emerging adolescents to discuss peer and family relations. Unless the developing adolescent is aided in coping with the realities involved, particularly with current and persistent problems in relations with others, serious consequences often occur.

Instruction

Instruction may take many forms, ranging from group discussions to individual counseling. While the guidance staff plays an important role, the individual teacher, custodian, teacher aide, and secretary are the front line adults who must assume prime responsibility. Adults working with emerging adolescents should be well grounded in knowledge of age characteristics and possess techniques which permit them to function effectively with this maturation level. Sweeney summarizes this role by stating:

> The effective adult will be a person who sincerely values and cares about other people. He will be a good listener, i.e., a person who can understand both the verbal and nonverbal communication of the other person. In addition to being a good listener, he is able to communicate that he has understood. This person could be described as open to new or different ideas while still possessing a philosophy of life that guides his behavior without imposing it on others. He is a trusting person, one who is aware that others may not be trustworthy at times, but who is willing to be mistaken until proven otherwise. He has a capacity for helping other persons to honestly confront matters of relevance to

them which are otherwise too threatening or anxiety producing for them to cope with rationally.[6]

A number of programs could be suggested for personal development; but if a teaching staff reflects Sweeney's philosophy, almost any program will enable youngsters to develop in the right perspective. One area of considerable importance, however, is the need for an organization which requires that each youngster have direct access to an adult who is intimately aware of this youngster in all aspects of his life. This relationship must be based upon mutual trust and respect so that the youngster feels secure and can function responsibly.

In this section, an educational program has been suggested based upon this writer's belief that any program for this age group must be founded upon the age characteristics and educational needs of youngsters at this level.

Current Challenges in Emerging Adolescent Education

• *Can middle school educators move beyond the argument of which grades should be in the middle/junior high school?*

This argument is grounded more in emotion than professional logic. Assuming there is a separate level of maturation between the childhood years of the elementary school and the adolescent years of the high school, one must argue that a youngster, regardless of years in school, should be placed at his level of maturation. This precludes rigid differentiation between fifth and sixth grades and between eighth and ninth grades. Anyone who has ever worked with emerging adolescent youngsters will attest to the fact that there are middle schoolers who belong in the high school and high schoolers who belong in the middle school.

If one attempts to analyze a "seventh grader," he might quickly discover that this youngster may be physically an adolescent, working at a sixth grade level in reading but achieving mathematics at an eighth grade level. The great diversity among middle school students suggests that for all practical purposes a graded structure is obsolete. Likewise, to argue that the sixth grader belongs in the elementary school because the elementary principal feels that the sixth grade provides leadership is ill-advised and inconsequential. Rather the youngster and his needs ought to be the focal point for placement.

[6] Thomas J. Sweeney. "Adult Models for the Emerging Adolescent." Paper prepared for the meeting of the ASCD Council on the Emerging Adole cent Learner, Washington, D.C., 1971.

This raises the issue of criteria for middle school placement. Should youngsters be grouped according to academic achievement, chronological age, physical and social maturity, or a combination of factors? At present we group youngsters based largely upon chronological age and academic achievement, with little reference to physical and social gradation. Is this defensible in light of the stated purposes of education for the emerging adolescent learner? Are we not in reality saying by our graded placement that the middle school is for the sixth, seventh, and eighth grade achiever—not for the early adolescent?

If the middle school is ultimately to reach its potential, the fundamental pupil arrangements for instruction must be based on physical–social maturity. Within this physical–social grouping, instruction should be structured in a continuous progress format so that students could progress as their abilities and interests permit. As has been suggested earlier, student grouping should be as informal as possible, that is, association by maturity level and interests rather than by forced grouping arrangements.

• *Can middle school educators develop proper perspective regarding the place and function of organizational technique?*

Educators of emerging adolescents traditionally have started with form and organization as an end rather than a means to an end. Theorists have expounded on ungradedness, departmentalization, core, team teaching, and modular scheduling as ways to ensure improvement in instruction.

There is no quarrel with any of these approaches because each has and can provide sound direction, given the right set of variables. What this writer quarrels with, however, is the attitude which implies that unless one fully subscribes to one or the other, the chance for instructional success is greatly reduced. Each school district's "chemistry" is different and what succeeds in one area is not necessarily going to succeed in another.

These devices should be considered as tools. For example, a top professional teacher will develop a learning objective and then select a technique which seems most applicable to success given a particular class, the state of available hardware and software, and appropriate time. His selection may range from class demonstration to a field trip. The typical administrator in the early adolescent school, conversely, will often apply an organizational approach regardless of staff interest and competence, in-service capability, or plant facility.

Administrative structure provides potential. It does not necessarily provide improved education. It behooves middle school educators to

analyze carefully student characteristics and staff competencies before coming to any conclusions regarding organizational structure.

• *Can educators devise an acceptable method of reporting student progress?*

The traditional marking system has been devastating in its effect on attempts at improving education. Instructional processes which seem best for this age level center on the individual, while traditional marking systems are based upon group performance. By attempting to placate parents' demand for traditional marking, instructional improvement is either compromised or altered in such a manner that emphasis is returned to group techniques which facilitate group marking. This cycle either limits or defeats progress. The challenge is to develop a communications program so that parents are informed of a child's progress in a manner which is acceptable to the parents but which does not destroy program.

• *Can educators of emerging adolescents create an effective alliance with higher education, state departments of education, and professional associations?*

The principle of early adolescent education has been with us for more than a half century. The impact which it has had on higher education and state departments of education, with a few notable exceptions, has been remarkably limited. As one scans higher education course offerings, one is dismayed by the paucity of training available to future middle school teachers. The prevailing attitude continues to be: prepare teachers for the elementary and high school and the middle school/junior high school staffing will take care of itself.

The chief criticism is that this lack of emphasis deprives students, at a crucial period, of the professional expertise that the elementary, high school, and university levels enjoy. One cannot dispute the need for specialized teachers on the elementary and high school levels, but one finds it difficult to accept the position that middle or junior high school teachers need less specialized training.

The basic problem is a lack of recognition that this level has traditionally received. State departments of education recognize elementary and secondary levels, assuming that the solution to problems such as certification and reimbursement can be applied to the school in the middle. The answer quite likely is not in creating further bureaucratic structures, but in redesigning those in existence so that the attention necessary for this level to succeed will be forthcoming.

There is a crucial need for professional associations, representing all levels of education, to pool their talents in an effort to aid and sup-

port the development of program for youngsters in the middle. Elementary, secondary, and university leaders need to join the efforts of leaders in emerging adolescent education to find viable solutions. While school districts throughout this nation initiate changes in early adolescent education, progress is curtailed and even ended by restraints imposed by related agencies.

- *Will the middle school accept in practice the theory of uniqueness?*

Throughout the 20th century educators of early adolescents have proclaimed philosophically that they represent schools which bridge the elementary and high school levels. In practice this philosophy has meant that a student enters as of grade 6 or 7 a modified high school or, if you please, a modified adolescent school. Curricular programs all too often are adolescent programs—one step lower. Today, there are some indications that educators are beginning to view middle schools as extensions of the elementary or as schools for children—one step higher.

This writer is firmly convinced that research and logic have clearly indicated that there is a developmental level between the childhood years of the elementary school and the adolescent years of the high school. In the final analysis, there is only one middle school differentiation. This differentiation is the developmental uniqueness of its student clientele. On occasion, educators have stated that if all students could be placed into one building, there would be little necessity for organizational levels. This belief must be challenged on the grounds that there are different levels of physical, mental, and social development, and it is absurd to believe that schools can educate students in a physical–social vacuum.

Future

The future of any endeavor depends upon the expertise and commitment of its advocates. The emerging adolescent movement is no exception. There are many positive indications that educators of early adolescents in America today possess both of these ingredients in ample measure.

As has been indicated, there are significant challenges for successful implementation of the basic philosophy and program for schools in the middle. Possibly the greatest challenge for the future of middle schools is the willingness of those committed to this organization to pioneer creative programs designed specifically for the early adolescent learner.

While in many cases these programs have yet to emerge, the future worth of this level of schooling demands that they be created.

The promise of middle level education lies in its potential. It presents educators with immense possibilities. If educators are content merely to apply the inadequate approaches of the past, middle schools will simply go the route of former organizations. If, however, educators are prepared to study the characteristics and needs of these unique students and initiate an imaginative approach to program development, the promise of the future for middle school education can be fulfilled.

5. The Kinds of Educational Programs We Need for the Later Adolescent Years

Mark Shedd

During the discussion of Mark Shedd's presentation of things that should and could be done to improve the quality of the educational program for high school youth in urban cities, he remarked that probably he would not be superintendent of schools in Philadelphia after the following week. A candidate for mayor of the city had apparently vowed to oust Shedd because of his efforts to work with youth on a more realistic basis. This candidate was elected, new board members were appointed, and Shedd resigned. (For further information on the Philadelphia Story, see Saturday Review—Education, *February 5, 1972.)*

This situation illustrates one of the most serious problems facing the school of America today—securing a broad base of support among citizens, and especially parents, for a dynamic, challenging educational program needed NOW. This problem is considered in Professor Alexander's paper: it is also one that must receive much more attention by teachers and administrators everywhere.

It would have been informative, if feasible, for such persons as the candidate for mayor not only to have heard Dr. Shedd discuss changes needed in our high schools: they would also have profited through hearing some highly wrought high school students from another urban city (who had come to the conference on their own initiative) describe the high schools in their city. It was shocking to hear them, in their raw reality, describe teachers and principals and a program of education that is still based on the 1893 model of elitist education—a concept that you educate youth for submission to the adult society rather than educate them for self-fulfillment and self-direction in a changing world.

Mark Shedd was trying to do something about these outmoded approaches to youth education. His paper lays out desirable lines of development. Continue to hold fast, Dr. Shedd, in spite of such setbacks, to your concept of a more relevant education for youth.—JGS

"THE kinds of educational programs we need—NOW" . . . are the kinds that work! The sad fact is that a great deal of what we have now is *not* working, and the breakdown is particularly acute in the urban sector. With this in mind, I would submit that it certainly would behoove us as educators and curriculum developers to come up with something that *does* work.

In Philadelphia, we think we have come up with a few new wrinkles to educating the secondary school student, yet we are making only a small dent in a massive problem, mainly because for so very many years in the past no one really had the guts to ask the question: "How are we going to prepare now so that six, eight, or ten years from now we won't find ourselves with the same staggering problems, or, for that matter, problems of an infinitely greater magnitude than those that face us today?"

We can no longer hide behind the old saw that says if the student does not learn it is the student's fault. We have to face up to the fact that *all* students are capable of learning, at different levels and at different speeds, and if they do not learn, then the system is at fault; it is our fault, not the student's. We simply can no longer be content with educating the bright pupils and letting the rest row their own boat up the river of joblessness and uselessness. We have done that for too long now, and in case you think this is all rhetoric, let us look at a few facts.

The Way It Is Now

In big cities across the country, one out of every three high school students drops out of school, and the ones that come to school attend only 70 percent of the time. Worse yet, the average inner city high school student reads two years or more behind national norms.

Absenteeism alone has a staggering impact on the ability of urban youngsters to learn. During the past school year, we had in Philadelphia approximately 18,000 high school students—some 30 percent of our enrollment—absent every day. That is an almost unfathomable 3,240,000 student days lost during the school year. In junior high school another 10,000 youngsters (20 percent) were out of school each day, for a loss of another 1,800,000 student days. At the elementary and kindergarten levels an additional 17,500 boys and girls (10 percent) missed school every day, for a yearly loss of 3,150,000 pupil days.

Standardized test scores indicate that some 40 percent of the children in our elementary schools, or 56,000 youngsters, read at such low levels they can be considered functionally illiterate. And more than

6,000 of these children, who are totally disillusioned with the learning process because they cannot read, simply drop out of our schools each year.

Yet these problems certainly are not confined to the big cities. Suburban areas, too, have their share. Dropout rates and absenteeism are rising at an alarming rate there, too. Student activism is closing school after school for days at a time. And in the area of high school drug abuse, nationwide statistics are staggering.

- There are some 18 million students in the nation's public secondary schools, and somewhere between 16 percent (President Nixon's estimate, which he labels "deliberately cautious") and 25 to 35 percent of them (the estimate range of most doctors, educators, and drug abuse authorities) are experimenting with marijuana. This means that up to 6 million students are taking drugs illegally.

- Some 12 to 15 percent (up to 2.7 million youngsters) are taking marijuana and other "soft" drugs on a regular basis.

- From 2 to 3 percent (or some 500,000 youngsters) are hooked hopelessly on hard drugs like heroin.

- In Pennsylvania, a survey by the state health department showed that 11 percent of the state's high school population, or 123,000 students, are frequent users of illicit drugs.

- In New York City alone, there are more than 100,000 heroin addicts. Approximately 25,000 of them attend the city's public schools. In 1970, 900 persons, including 224 students, died from the use of heroin. In 1966, 30 New York students died from heroin.

- In Philadelphia, drug-related deaths climbed to 186 in 1970, more than five times the number of local servicemen killed in Vietnam. In 1970, 805 drug cases came before juvenile court, compared with 17 in 1965 and 403 in 1969.

- Nationwide, arrests of persons under 18 for narcotics violations grew an almost unbelievable 1,860 percent from 1960 to 1968, according to the Federal Bureau of Narcotics.

A tragic example of the failure of some past efforts of education at the secondary level may be seen in drug abuse education. Addressing herself to health education professionals, Angela Kitzinger, formerly of the California State Department of Education, says:

> Having carried responsibility for drug abuse education for some 70 years, what have we accomplished? We have indeed exposed generations of high school students to thousands, perhaps millions, of assembly programs designed to scare out of them for all time any curiosity about, inclination toward, or hankering about narcotics. We have written hundreds, probably thousands, of courses of study and curriculum guides.
>
> Yet look at the state of affairs today—a generation of young people increasingly committed to drug abuse; a generation of adults who view alcohol, nicotine,

and over-the-counter drugs as necessities of life; a drug-oriented society. Insofar as we are accountable, wherein have we failed? And where do we go from here? [1]

That statement can easily be applied to many other areas of high school education. I would like to address myself now to Dr. Kitzinger's plea: "Where do we go from here?"

I think the first direction we can travel is to recognize that whether students are turning on with drugs, or turning off through absenteeism, or tuning out by dropping out, they all have one big thing in common: They are turning to alternatives to what they have now; the great majority of them are disenchanted, disillusioned, or disgusted with the kind of education they are getting in our high schools today. That is where we *all* have failed.

And the worst part of it is that the kids have been trying their darnedest to tell us this for years. Their music, for instance, is deep in this kind of lament, and the spokesmen for the young have been trying to penetrate our generally deaf ears.

Marshall McLuhan, who is as much a philosopher of youth as he is a philosopher of the media, had this to say several years ago:

> The young today live mythically and in depth. But they encounter instruction in situations organized by means of classified information. Subjects are unrelated; they are visually conceived in terms of a blueprint. Many of our institutions suppress all the natural direct experience of youth.
>
> The student finds no means of involvement for himself and cannot discover how the educational scheme relates to his mythic world of electronically processed data and experience that his clear and direct responses report.
>
> The young today reject goals. They want roles—r-o-l-e-s. That is, total involvement. They do not want fragmented, specialized goals or jobs.
>
> The dropout represents a rejection of nineteenth-century technology as manifested in our educational establishments.[2]

To this contention, McLuhan quickly adds:

> Today's television student is attuned to up-to-the-minute "adult news"—inflation, rioting, war, taxes, crime, bathing beauties—and is bewildered when he enters the nineteenth century environment that still characterizes the educational establishment, where information is scarce but ordered and structured by fragmented, classified patterns, subjects, and schedules. It is naturally an environment much like any factory set-up with its inventories and assembly lines.[3]

[1] Angela Kitzinger. "The Role of Health Education in Drug Abuse Education." *School Health Review*. November 1969. p. 25.

[2] Marshall McLuhan and Quentin Fiore. *The Medium Is the Massage*. New York: Bantam Books, Inc., 1967, pp. 100-101. Copyright © 1967 by Marshall McLuhan, Quentin Fiore, and Jerome Agel. All rights reserved.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 18.

Simon and Garfunkel, in a song that sold millions of copies, told us about the students' view of the generation gap—of the lack of communications between youth and adults, between teachers and students—when they sang:

> And in the naked light I saw
> Ten thousand people, maybe more.
> People talking without speaking,
> People hearing without listening,
> People writing songs that voices never share
> And no one dare
> Disturb the sound of silence.[4]

What McLuhan is saying is that most schools and school systems have become anachronistic. They are out of phase with the everyday realities of their students' lives. They do not illuminate the concerns of youngsters. They appear disconnected from the "real" world. They are irrelevant.

McLuhan is on the right track, I believe, whether or not one is in complete agreement with his criticism or his particular world-view. He is on the right track because he is *trying to listen to what kids are saying* and trying to make some sense out of it in terms of today's world. For we can talk about many "realities"—social and otherwise—in big city school systems.

There is the reality of anachronistic buildings, and the reality of fiscally-starved systems; the reality of low test scores and high dropout rates; the reality of segregation; the reality of teachers who lack the experiences to work with and feel comfortable with kids from slum backgrounds. All of these realities are operative to a greater or lesser extent in any urban school system, and they are important. There should be no mistake about that.

Yet I would maintain that all the money, the most exciting new facilities, integrated student bodies, teachers with a world of training, and classrooms with electrified environments and every shelf swimming in attribute games, paperback books, and special science material *will not really make the difference unless we can connect with the reality of the kids.*

Schools in the Mold of the Real World

And if we are going to connect with that reality, we are going to have to give students the kinds of educational options that will take

[4] From: "The Sound of Silence." © 1964 by Paul Simon. New York: Charing Cross Music, Inc. Used with the permission of the publisher.

precedence over drugs and gangs and whatever else diverts today's youngster away from academic pursuits.

Yet even if we can all agree that education must mean creating options, must mean focusing at least as much on process as on product, must mean enabling students to respond to stimuli in a flexible, varied, and creative way, the question still remains, which stimuli?

Part of the answer to that question, I am convinced, is to be found in the way schools connect to the society around them.

To begin with, any analysis of our urbanized, technologized, fragmented, specialized, and rapidly changing world reinforces the importance of a curriculum that emphasizes process over and against content. We and our children are increasingly bombarded by a huge range of stimuli and the welter of new events, new situations, and new knowledge.

I do not think I have to belabor the obvious: this means a curriculum which emphasizes the skills of rational thinking and analysis; the emotional and intellectual ability to cope with a bewildering array of forces and influences and make sense out of them; the ability to control and shape environment rather than being helplessly manipulated by it, whether the forces of manipulation are defined as the mass media or socioeconomic forces.

The Coleman Report finds that a child has an innate sense of his ability to control his own destiny. Translated into pedagogical terms, this means increasing emphasis on discovery techniques of learning, development of rich and varied school environments which permit children to explore and question and to make mistakes without being condemned, graded, or degraded for them.

Such a view calls for a curricular process which involves students in goal setting and encourages goal-directed behavior and guided independence. At the secondary school level, this means, for instance, that the most important thing we can do is involve students directly in the planning of curriculum, as well as in more traditional areas of student participation, such as the establishment of dress codes, and, I might add, this is precisely what we are doing in a number of our large high schools in Philadelphia through establishment of joint student-teacher-parent planning bodies.

At the elementary school level, this view means creating a classroom and adopting a mode of teaching which relies heavily on improvisation--individualizing instruction to let the inclinations, interests, and experiences of each child guide his learning as much as possible.

If this seems to imply criticism of our standard school curricula, and I trust it does, I think it important to stress that the criticism is

structural and environmental, not personal and individual. For the basic need I am discussing, and the kids are demanding, is a need to change the structure and environment of schools. This is inherent in what it means, today at least, to relate schools more closely to the realities of urban America, and to create new options for the citizens of urban America. This relationship means more, let me hasten to stress, than simply simulating in the classroom the kinds of situations existing in the society at large.

In part, to leave process and to emphasize content for a moment, such a view means schools which deal directly and honestly with the problems and issues of the day, which may call for less emphasis on the War of 1812 and more emphasis on the war on poverty. It may call for an emphasis on group process and group dynamics in schools, especially if we are to confront directly the interpersonal and intergroup problems which are at the root of so much racial tension in this country.

Knocking Down Walls

Such a view of curriculum certainly means, I believe, eliminating the institutional walls which so often alienate and divide schools from the life of their communities. Just as we are getting away from the idea of the self-contained classroom and building schools without walls to permit team teaching and more flexible, diversified, and individualized approaches to instruction, so we should be getting away from the idea that instruction is contained by the structural walls of a school. The best place for learning for some kids may well be in a storefront; for all kids, no doubt, some instruction best takes place in the ghettos, the art museums, the city halls, or the industries of our cities.

To create schools without walls, then, means both to take the classroom out into the real world and to bring the real world into the classroom. Yet it has another dimension as well, and that is to bring the values, aspirations, needs, and concerns of the community into the classroom. Ultimately, I believe, this means moving well beyond our traditional concepts of what community involvement has meant and opening the doors to community members as full participants in the procedures and decision making of schools.

Here again, the phrase "community participation" connotes a number of things to me. It implies, for instance, a much greater effort by the schools to shape vocational programs to the changing needs of business and industry. It also means eliminating the hostility gap between low income communities and their middle class oriented schools. I do not think there is any doubt that an alienated or apathetic

community thwarts the basic purpose of education. Such a community sets up an environment that thwarts the spirit of adventure, discovery, and pride that must accompany learning.

Again, a new process is important—a process that may take the form of neighborhood curriculum committees or of neighborhood boards. And a new attitude is important as well—an attitude that supplants the condescension of "culturally deprived" with the equality of appreciation for "other cultured." Value judgments, as we all know, can be murderous in school if it is the child's whole existence which is being judged.

I believe the schools have a lot to gain, in the long run, by breaking down the walls between classroom and community, between professional and layman, although I realize the process is threatening to some and never painless. Yet I think the community—particularly, but not exclusively, the ghetto community—has a lot to gain as well. For to live in a ghetto is, by definition, to be cut off from the sources of power and the exercise of power. Schools can start to give the community a chance to determine its own destiny, while simply reaffirming the basic tradition of lay control of education policy. And this, I should note in passing, means decentralization—budgetary, curricular, and otherwise.

Total School Experience

I have tried so far to give some sense of what I mean by testing curriculum against the reality of the kids, of redefining and programming education more in terms of that reality, and of connecting schools to the society around them.

Yet perhaps the most important aspect of all is a curriculum which is based on the recognition of the school as a social organism. Curriculum to me does not mean simply certain kinds of content, X skills in Y subjects in Z years. It does not even mean simply a much closer integration of teacher education and curriculum content which is inherent in the notion of curriculum as process. That is, the content cannot be separated from the way it is taught, despite the prevalent practice in our universities of separating methods and content courses.

Rather, curriculum means the total school experience. It means the atmosphere in the hallways and the quality of relationships between people in the school—between student and student, student and teacher, teacher and teacher, teacher and principal.

Part of this is a matter of curriculum philosophy—the extreme need for a balance between the affective and cognitive domains. Part of it is a question, again, of the influence of the student and the influence

of community in a school. A big part is the whole question of expectations: What the school communicates to students and community about themselves, what the teachers communicate to each other about teaching, on both the verbal and the nonverbal level, and through the whole system of behavior and rewards encouraged in any school. Occasionally, we have all entered schools where the silence is deadening, the order stifling; where regimentation is mistaken for discipline and spontaneity is interpreted as impudence; where the teachers kowtow before the principal and the students kowtow before the teacher. When this happens, I would argue, this is the curriculum of the school; this is the real instruction and the lessons found in lesson plans are all but irrelevant.

Obviously, I am not telling you something you have not heard before. Silberman said it most eloquently and pointedly in *Crisis in the Classroom:* many others similarly have attacked this kind of educational sterility. What I am saying is that instead of merely attacking it, and agreeing that it is no good, we simply have to do something about it and do it quickly.

One of the first things we can do is to junk what I like to call the three tyrannies of education: time, space, and the system. Perhaps nothing is more at odds with student enthusiasm in secondary schools than the traditional lockstep of the bell schedule, where the bell rings every 47½ minutes, dictating a move here or there, come hell or high water, regardless of whether a class has finally gotten its teeth into something that is really interesting. "Forget it," the bell says. "Your time is up. Move on."

And space—so many desks in an eggcrate classroom. So many eggcrate classrooms in an eggcrate school. So many eggcrate schools in an eggcrate school system. That is tradition. Yet open space, with plenty of room to move about, to be free to learn about different things in different classrooms at different paces—that is education.

Then, perhaps the most trying, the most frustrating of all problems facing the school administrator, particularly the big city superintendent, is the system, the bureaucracy—where it takes forever for fresh ideas to filter up from the classroom and for positive action to filter back from the top.

Finally, when you wrap all three in the shroud of impending financial disaster that eats constantly at the very foundation of public education in America today, you have a pretty good idea of what is wrong with our schools.

No wonder we are concerned with education of the future. Things simply cannot do anything but get better!

Seriously, there *are* ways to rejuvenate today's secondary education,

and if we can still manage to keep just one breakneck step ahead of the specter of bankruptcy, we just might be able to accomplish this important task.

Certainly, the term "relevance" has been all but ground into the dust by now, and most of us have instituted programs in ecology, black studies, consumer fraud, drug abuse, and the like, in an effort to establish a link with the reality of kids, a curriculum of concerns. This is a major step in the right direction. Yet my contention is that we have just begun to dent the tough crust of tradition, to get underneath it, to chip it away, and to get at the real roots of a better educational thrust.

We have to get more into computers and gaming, into TV cassettes and other innovative media approaches to making education infinitely more interesting, even entertaining. If we do not, the performance contractors will be clamoring for the chance.

We have to substitute new thought processes, like affective education, for the old sit-down-shut-up-and-memorize-the-facts school of learning. We have to develop alternatives for what we have today, whether they be new and vastly sophisticated science curricula designed to turn out a new generation of Einsteins, or simply better vocational education, career development, and work-study programs that will enable our graduates to walk out of high school right into a good job.

However, I warn you right now that whatever we come up with, the students have to be a part of the process.

Kids today are influenced like never before by the society around them. People are being maimed and killed on TV sets every night, both by the enemy in Vietnam and on the street corners of America by policemen and private detectives and gangsters and who knows how many other TV-land good guys and bad guys packing guns.

There are civil rights riots and college campus riots on the tube right in front of their eyes. They can get drugs just about anywhere. Some of their parents are swinging. Dad launches into all kinds of admonitions about the evils of marijuana while he thinks nothing of getting pleasantly inebriated on martinis.

The breakdown of what has long been a rigid value system in this country is occurring right before their eyes, in living color. So they have established their own value system, their own revolt against what they consider duplicity of the adult generation. And they want a piece of the action in any changes affecting them from here on in, particularly when it comes to education.

And I contend we can and should give them a piece of the action. It is either that or repression, and the last person who tried repression this side of the Iron Curtain—Adolph Hitler—did not fare too well.

Two Exciting Programs in Philadelphia

One way we can give them a piece of the action is through programs like affective education, education built around the concerns and emotions of kids instead of what we adults think their concerns and emotions are; an education that emphasizes process rather than rote facts.

We have more than 9,000 students now in such a program in Philadelphia. They use a variety of affective learning techniques, such as fantasy, improvisation, synectics, role playing, group dynamics, and games, right in the classroom. Students are openly encouraged to express themselves and their concerns.

Goals of the program are to help students develop more positive attitudes toward learning, toward themselves, their teachers, and their peers by gaining a greater conscious control over themselves, their interpersonal relationships, and their environment.

An extensive evaluation last year, involving affective education students and a control group, shows the program is working. For instance:

Students in affective classes viewed their classroom climate as dramatically different and more interesting than did students in control classes

Students in affecrive groups demonstrated more positive attitudes toward their teachers.

Affective students were absent from class half as often as control students and received considerably fewer discipline referrals.

They also differed dramatically from control students in what they felt they learned during the year.

This, I would submit, is the kind of curriculum of concerns, the kind of education that deals with the reality of kids, that we will see in the high schools of the future; and there is no reason we cannot begin to do it *now*.

Another new concept we are bound to see much more of in the schools of tomorrow is the whole idea of schools without walls, where the city is the classroom, and students learn both the basics and almost anything else they want to learn.

Again, in Philadelphia we have considerable experience in this area with our Parkway Program, the country's first so-called school without walls. Youngsters may learn photography at the Museum of Art, literature at the public library, journalism at the *Philadelphia Inquirer,* politics and government at city hall, business at the Insurance Company of North America or Smith, Kline & French, or perhaps car repair at the corner garage and botany in Fairmount Park. Students

pick their own courses, help select their own teachers, and generally make education fun. It is really no wonder, then, that in the latest lottery to expand the program we had some 10,000 applicants for 125 places.

Evaluation here, as you might guess, closely parallels the affective education program, and entrance has become so sought after that for some reason or other, all the old taboos of suburban parents sending their youngsters to a city school are somehow forgotten when it comes to Parkway. As a matter of fact, suburban parents and educators have just this year established two Parkway-type programs of their own, and invited some 70 or 80 of our youngsters to come on out and join in.

Realistically, I am not about to say that with a few Parkway-Program bandages and a couple of shots of affective education you are going to cure all the ills that face secondary education today. That would be absurd. Even if we could wave some kind of magic wand that would transform all our high schools into Parkway setups with small classes and unique facilities, and then wave it again to train 3,000 teachers thoroughly in affective techniques, you would still have problems of discipline, absenteeism, racism, and gangs, and you would still have thousands of youngsters caught up in the whole vicious circle of urban poverty and despair.

What I am saying is that if we begin today to listen to our students and begin, with them, to put together Parkway-type experiences and to plan to build affective techniques into our schools of the future, maybe, just maybe, your children and mine won't be sitting in a conference 20 or 30 years from now trying to figure out what in blazes to do about the sorry mess in the high schools of their day.

I hope, I strongly hope, that they will not have to ask themselves the same soul-searching questions we are asking ourselves.

6. A School for Tomorrow

Jack R. Frymier

Professor Jack Frymier, in his intense and dynamic way, pleads for a different kind of school in the future. Dr. Frymier, of course, believes in the school as an essential social instrumentality; but he foresees that some basic reforms are needed if it is to survive as an institution. He then presents for us a broad plan for the school of tomorrow—NOW.

Of the three fundamental factors on which a program of schooling is based—the nature of knowledge, the nature of society, and the nature of the individual—Dr. Frymier charges that the schools of the past and of today in most instances have based their program, both curriculum and instruction, principally on just the first two of these factors. They have accepted the functions of transmitting knowledge or preparing the individual to be an effective, contributing member of the social group, but they have neglected to a great extent the complete and full development of the individual.

The remainder of the paper presents in a lucid and imaginative manner the broad outlines of a curriculum of a school and the correlative modes of instruction and organization that will enable the school of the future to fulfill its basic function—the nurture of each individual in terms of his own specific needs. This is a most challenging call for the reform of schools before it is too late.—JGS

Introduction

THESE are disturbing days for schoolmen. Forever admonished to change their educational ways, schoolmen have tried mightily, but apparently to no avail. After almost fifteen years of superhuman effort, Silberman maintained that there is now a "crisis in the classroom." And so there is.

Silberman's statement describes what almost every experienced observer of the American educational scene already knows: most schools are dull and boring, and attempts o change them have not resulted in

either the kinds or the degree of improvement that many thoughtful persons feel absolutely must occur.

There is now another set of factors which must be coped with and considered. There are new, negative forces pressing for expression in public schools that make the crisis even more acute. Because these forces are not as clearly etched in people's minds as was the launching of Sputnik, and because the motivations of many persons associated with these forces are very positive in every sense of the word, the existence of a crisis is not always obvious. Even so, the crisis is real and the forces will not go away. Educators and those concerned with schools and schooling must find ways to cope with these forces or public education will be fractionated. It will literally split apart and be dismembered; its unity of effort will be destroyed.

What I have just said is a dire prediction, and must be explained. That I will attempt to do. Before I proceed along that line, however, let me hasten to add that in no way do I think that public schools will disappear or cease to be. That will not happen. Public schools have been a part of our heritage and a part of our culture for a long, long time. And there will still be public schools fifty, a hundred, or a thousand years from now, if man can last that long. It is almost impossible to get rid of social institutions, once they become firmly established, whether they function in a manner consistent with the larger purposes of the society or not. How else does one explain the continued survival of the Jewish religion in Russia, the private school in England, or the American Legion in the United States? None of those institutions represents the mainstream of social thought in the cultures of which they are a part. Some, in fact, are vigorously opposed, but they continue to survive. And when an institution works to serve socially approved purposes, as the public school does, there is absolutely no reason at all to think that it will evaporate or go away. That will not happen.

However, I would guess that unless schools change dramatically in the next few years, the heart of the educational function—helping youngsters develop and learn new concepts, attitudes, and skills—may very well be assumed by other institutions and other groups in our society, and the school will be left with the residual function of containment and control.

One of the functions which schools presently serve is the custodial one. Schools keep youngsters off the streets, out of the job market, and away from the house so the parents can work. The custodial function is not generally assumed to be the primary function of schools, but it is an important role which schools perform. What may happen in

future years, however, is that schools may shift their emphasis. If other segments of society assume primary responsibility for helping children learn, then schools may drift to the containment and control functions almost without knowing it. And if that occurs, schoolmen will have missed an opportunity to provide the nation and its youth better schools and better learning.

Divisive Factors

What are the forces and developments which seem to hold the potential of fractionizing public education? I think there are many. Let me cite a few. Again, let me remind the reader that I do not personally feel that the motivations of people associated with these efforts are necessarily suspect or evil. Some of them are, from my value perspective, anyway, but most are the expressions and conceptualizations of people sincerely interested in improving schools and schooling. Even so, it is my considered judgment that the fractionizing effect of these efforts has already begun and will continue.

The private school movement—in the South and elsewhere—is dividing people regarding the concept and practice of public education. In some southern communities the rise of private schools has placed the very existence of public education in jeopardy. It is hard to believe that those who—pressing an archaic and (from my point of view) inappropriate ideological notion of human relationships—argue for white dominance over Blacks and segregated schools have any real interest in the education of the young. The logic of their experience runs backward rather than forward, but the impact of their efforts on public schools is very real in many communities.

Those who advocate and support the alternative schools and storefront schools in the northern urban areas create the same kind of impact, though to a somewhat lesser degree. And the motives of these people are very different. They simply want better education than the public schools are providing, and they see such schools as vehicles toward such an end. The fact that their operations may divide the community and split educators and education is beside the point.

Performance contracting is another force which has begun to fractionize the public schools. School boards have understandably been searching for newer and better ways to help young people learn. When private companies promise to do the job better than public schools for the same or less money, school boards are naturally attracted to such a plan. But what will it mean in five, twenty, or fifty years if a commercial corporation, whose explicit intention is to make a profit, assumes primary

responsibility for helping children learn to read or compute or develop social skills or analyze values? What will that do to the public schools? What will it do to the nature of the learning that those children will experience? What if specialties develop and all of the learnings are subcontracted to different commercial interests? Will it all add up in the life and mind of the young who will be involved?

The voucher system holds the same kind of attraction and the same kind of threat, in my opinion. Theoretically it is a powerful idea. Building upon the concepts of free enterprise and personal choice, it sounds good when described in abstract form. Yet can we ignore the fact that some people who support the notion in theory stand to gain privately if it is adopted? Can we ignore the fact that narrow and parochial interests are pushing the concept, hoping and arguing for public tax dollars to support particular ideological or religious points of view? The separation of church and state has been one of our greatest strengths since the beginning of the republic. Are we to give up such a separation for a purported financial saving, while at the same time splintering public education?

Community control, negotiations, learning centers built into the home—all these are fascinating developments on the educational scene in recent years. All are efforts to improve education, but all are pulling the schools and school people further and further apart, despite the positive intentions and noble ideals of almost everybody involved.

These are the kinds of forces which are tending to fractionize the public schools. These forces exist. They are part of the educational reality today. I do not deplore their development, but describe their existence, and indicate what I think their impact may be during the years immediately ahead.

Alternative Approaches

If my observations of the educational scene are correct (and they most certainly may not be), the question then becomes: "What should schoolmen do?" Three alternatives seem possible. We can assess the drift and direction of the times, accept the changes, and grab the ball and run. Or we can marshal our forces and defend the public schools as they presently are. A third alternative is to try to change the schools from what they are to something quite different and infinitely better than we have ever dreamed of before.

Perhaps school people ought to do what they can to hasten the demise of the public school. Perhaps its era has come and gone. Maybe we ought to turn our creative energies to conceptualizing newer and

better private agencies, personal operations, or completely new and different social institutions which could assume the many diverse functions which public education now performs.

At first glance that alternative is the most attractive to me. It sounds as though it would be intellectually exciting and professionally fun. But the stakes are too high. There is much more to be lost than could possibly be gained if we go that way. In terms of my values, I want to opt for another way to go.

How about choice number two, supporting and defending what schools presently do? In terms of all that we know about the weaknesses and failures of the public schools, that is hardly a good enough goal.

Having said that, I should quickly add that I feel the public school has tremendous strengths, too; but the very strengths of the public school may be its downfall, unless we are adept and creative. The dinosaur was very strong, but it disappeared and exists no more. Strength is not enough. The capacity to cope and adapt and change is imperative. The public school is something like an Army tank: it possesses fantastic power and strength and has extremely thick walls, but it is very vulnerable in spots, is extremely slow moving, and requires tremendous amounts of support and fuel.

Of course the schools have strengths. They do many things well. However, the strengths and power of the public schools of yesterday are neither sufficient nor appropriate for the new and more demanding problems of today. Schools must possess strength, but they must be able to change. If they are to survive at more than the custodial level, they absolutely have to change. Schools and schooling must become different, better institutions than they are right now. Much different and much better, in fact. That point seems clear. I cast my lot with option number three. Schools have to change.

Since Heraclitus we have heard that "these are changing times." And so they are. But if change is a constant factor, the pace of change is not. The world is turning faster, so to speak, in the sense that many of the people of the world are experiencing more situations per given unit of time than any people have ever experienced before.

Describing the individual life as a great channel through which experience flows, Toffler reacts this way to the bewildering sensations which come from the pace of today's life:

> For while we tend to focus on only one situation at a time, the increased rate at which situations flow past us vastly complicates the entire structure of life, multiplying the number of roles we must play and the number of choices

we are forced to make. This in turn, accounts for the choking sense of complexity about contemporary life.[1]

Norman Cousins makes the same point in a different way when he maintains that "it has been more than a hundred years since 1940." [2] One hardly needs to document the fact that times change, and yet there are data that show that schools and schooling have not changed much throughout the years. For instance, a recent advertisement in a national magazine presses the point like this: "Have students changed too much, or have the schools not changed enough?" If the implication in that question is correct, then educators have both special problems and unique opportunities in the years ahead. But what about the charge? Have the schools failed to keep pace with the times? The only honest answer to that question must be "yes."

Meager Changes Thus Far

In a study supported by the Carnegie Corporation, Silberman describes the failures of educational reform as follows:

> . . . the reform movement has produced innumerable changes, and yet the schools themselves are largely unchanged. . . . things are much the same as they had been twenty years ago, and in some respects not as good as they were forty years ago, when the last great school reform movement was at its peak.[3]

Peter Drucker approaches the point in a different way. Arguing from a purely economic point of view, he states: "There are no dumb children; there are only poor schools." [4] He then goes on:

> . . . teaching and learning are bound to undergo tremendous change in the next few decades. They will be transformed Economic necessity forces us to tackle the job, no matter how great the resistance of citizens and educators . . .
>
> The first teacher ever, that priest in preliterate Mesopotamia who sat down outside the temple with the kids and began to draw figures with a twig in the sand, would be perfectly at home in most classrooms in the world today. Of course, there is a blackboard, but otherwise there has been little change in tools and none in respect to methods The one new teaching tool in the intervening 3,000 years has been the printed book. And that few teachers really know how to use—or else they would not continue to lecture on what is already in the book.

[1] Alvin Toffler. *Future Shock*. New York: Random House, Inc., 1970. p. 33.

[2] Norman Cousins. "The Age of Acceleration" In: William W. Boyer, editor. *Issues 1968*. Lawrence: University of Kansas Press, 1963. p. 3.

[3] Charles E. Silberman. *Crisis in the Classroom*. New York: Random House, Inc., 1970. pp. 158-59.

[4] Peter Drucker. *The Age of Discontinuity*. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1968. p. 347.

The priest in ancient Mesopotamia was also the first doctor. If he returned today to a modern operating room in the hospital, he would not conclude that he could do as well. Yet today's doctors are no better men than the first doctors were. They certainly are no better than the "father of medicine," Hippocrates. They stand on his shoulders. They know more and, above all, they know better. They have a different methodology. They have different tools. As a result they do entirely different things, and do them differently.[5]

Drucker's point is that educators have not developed adequate tools—concept and artifact that will enable teachers to extend and expand the impact of their effort to help young people learn. And though Silberman would argue that the problem is not simply one of increasing the efficiency of the school,[6] as Drucker implies, they both agree that today's schools must be described in static rather than dynamic terms.

Neither Silberman nor Drucker, however, are "professional schoolmen." Maybe they do not know what schools and schooling are really like. But Goodlad and Klein's study of classroom practice supports their observations. These authors report:

One conclusion stands out clearly: Many of the changes we have believed to be taking place in schooling have not been getting into classrooms; changes widely recommended for the schools over the past 15 years were plunted on school and classroom door.[7]

My own studies of educational developments and change make the same point in a slightly different way: schools have changed, but the changes have not made a significant difference in the lives and minds of those we teach.[8]

Our intentions have been noble and our efforts have been real. Even so, the changes have not "paid off." Schools and schooling are not keeping pace with the dramatic changes of the times.

In another place I have outlined why I feel our change efforts have not been as effective and successful as we all hoped they would be: not only is education as a social system theoretically incapable of self-renewal and rational change, but we have asked the wrong questions, manipulated the wrong variables, and employed the wrong assumptions.[9]

[5] *Ibid.*

[6] Silberman, *op. cit.*, p. 203.

[7] John I. Goodlad, M. Frances Klein and associates. *Behind the Classroom Door.* Worthington, Ohio: Charles A. Jones Publishing Co., 1970. p. 97.

[8] Jack R. Frymier. *Fostering Educational Change.* Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1969. Chapter 2.

[9] *Ibid.*

The Basic Factor in Planning

There is another reason, though, and it is both much simpler and much more profound: children differ. Anthropologists suggest that every man is like all men in some ways, like some men in other ways, and like no other man in still other ways.[10] Thus each child is like all other children, like some other children, and yet like no other child. Teachers and curriculum developers must have precise and adequate information regarding the ways in which all children are alike, the ways in which some of them are alike, and the ways in which each youngster is unique.

All children are alike in that they are born, are dependent upon others for an extended period of time, have one heart, two kidneys, and the like. Youngsters are like some other children in terms of their sex, the kind of language patterns they acquire, their developmental patterns, and their immediate community environment. Each child is unique, though, in terms of his genetic pattern, the kinds of past experiences he has had, the way he sees himself, and in his personal aspirations—what he hopes to become.[11]

The educator's problems relate to the degree of similarity of program and experience that is both appropriate and possible, while preserving and actually fostering individuality. Those are not simple problems, to say the least. I accept the fact that some similarity of educational experience is both appropriate and possible for all children, but I strongly suspect that many of our reform efforts have failed because we did not pay enough attention to the fact that children differ.

For example, if one looks closely at the innovations in curriculum in recent years, he is struck by the fact that we have tended to "take the old program out" and "put a new program in." It may be true, as Goodlad and Klein point out,[12] that the reason education has not been improved is that the innovations have not actually been tried—school people think they try them, but the innovations are actually not implemented all the way. Even with that reservation, there is still reason to believe that what school people have tried to do is substitute a new program, a new set of procedures, a different organizational scheme, a new something-or-other, for the old way of doing things.

[10] Clyde Kluckhohn and Henry A. Murray. *Personality in Nature, Society, and Culture.* New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1948 and 1953 pp 53-67.

[11] Here and elsewhere throughout this paper I have drawn heavily on my own chapter, "Can Curriculum Meet the Needs of All Children?" In: Walter Lifton, editor. *Education for Tomorrow.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1970.

[12] Goodlad and Klein, *op. cit.*

In thinking and working this way, what usually emerges is the classic model of experimental design: two groups, one labeled "experimental" and the other labeled "control." The experimental group employs the new curriculum materials, the new methodology, the new something-or-other, while the control group continues in the traditional approach of the conventional curriculum. Many have criticized this way of evaluating experimental programs,[13] and rightly so; but regardless of criticism, the actual logic of experimentation has been along these lines. Even when formal and elaborate comparative evaluation has not been made, the general posture nevertheless has been one of comparing the new program with the old one, if only in crude and subjective ways.

What most frequently occurs is that one group (for example, classroom, building, or series of classrooms in different buildings) is identified as the experimental group, and paired with another group of roughly similar size, socioeconomic background, ability, and age. Both groups are pretested in terms of the outcomes desired (generally achievement of some sort), then the experimental group is subjected to the special treatment—new textbook, new methodology, or other innovation, while the control group goes through their learning experience in the established way. At the end of a given period of time (for example, six-week grading period, semester, year, or longer), both the experimental group and the control group are given a post-test measure.

Depending upon the idiosyncracies and competencies of the researchers involved, along with such factors as sample size, number of variables manipulated and controlled, and the like, the most typical study made would be of the statistical significance of the difference of the post-test means for the two groups. Graphically portrayed, such a comparison tends to look something like Figure 1.

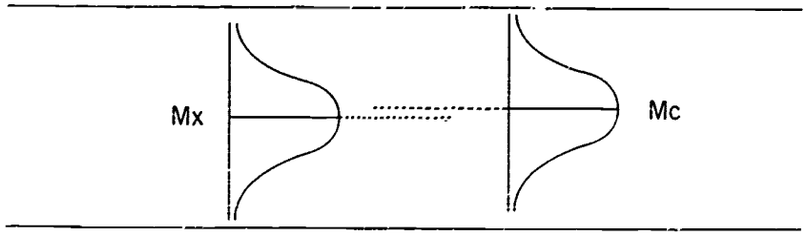


Figure 1. Comparison of the Means of "Experimental" and "Control" Groups

[13] For example, see: Daniel L. Stufflebeam. "Evaluation as Enlightenment for Decision Making." In: Walcott H. Beatty, editor. *Improving Educational Assessment and an Inventory of Measures of Affective Behavior.* Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1969. pp. 41-73.

In practice the statistical significance of the difference between the means (that is, the distance between the dotted lines) is usually determined by computing a *t* value or doing analysis of variance (*F* test), or employing some similar statistical test. Studies which have been done, and the general experience of many people who work in education, support the finding that there is *no significant difference.* In a review of almost three hundred research studies along this line, it was found that "no significant difference" is the most frequently reported research result.[14] Other studies of educational change report similar observations.[15]

If one studies the diagram in Figure 1 carefully, and explores the assumptions implicit in that kind of comparison, several inferences can be made. First, by employing the "experimental-control" approach, what is actually being tested is a *group solution.* That is, when we take the old math program out and put the new math in, what we are actually presuming is that one *group solution* is better than another *group solution.* In the same way, when we compare the new way of teaching foreign language with the traditional way, or the new physics with conventional physics, or "Words In Color" with basal reading, or team teaching with the self-contained classroom, what we have actually done is to take out one *group* approach (that is, traditional) and substitute for it another *group* approach (that is, modern or experimental). The assumption behind that assumption is that there must be, somewhere, *a* way of sequencing subject matter, presenting information, or organizing the school *which is best for all children.* Nonsense! There is no *one way* of doing anything in school which is best for all children. There is no one way which is best because children differ.

Some children learn best when subject matter is presented to them in such a way that they "discover" the basic constructs, the fundamental generalizations, for themselves. Other children learn better when subject matter is sequenced deductively rather than inductively, and they go from the whole to the part rather than the other way around. Some youngsters learn better when they experience things directly and concretely, other youngsters learn better vicariously or when they are told. Some students learn better when their learning experiences are spaced in short segments over an extended period of time. Other students learn better when they are completely immersed in a learning experience without interruption for a short period of time. Some learn better

[14] Frymier, *Fostering Educational Change, op. cit.,* Appendix A.

[15] See: Wilbur Schramm, "What We Know About Learning from Instructional Television." In: *Educational Television, The Next Ten Years.* Stanford: Institute for Communication Research. p. 54.

when they are functioning under the direct guidance and supervision of a more mature person such as the teacher, while other students learn better when they are left completely on their own. Some learners do better when they "see" a stimulus, others do better when they kinesthetically "feel" it, still others do better when they "hear" phenomena described in spoken terms. *There is no best way of doing anything in education,*[16] because children differ. And it is precisely where their differences are most significant that learning is most affected, that is, their previous experience, their concept of self, their motivation to learn, their immediate home background, and the like.

To state it in religious terms, children are different because God made them that way. And because God made children different, He Himself could not devise a program, a methodology, an organizational scheme which would be best for all children. If God were a curriculum director, in other words, He would not look for or attempt to devise one curriculum guide, one teaching technique, one particular evaluational procedure, one given organizational stratagem, or one anything which would supposedly *meet the needs* of all children. There is no one best way of doing anything in education, except as it might apply to a given child. Children are different.

Though it is most certainly true that children are like all other children in some respects, and like some other children in other respects, it is also very true that in still other respects each child is like no other person. Those unique variations are the crucial factors that affect learning in very profound ways. If we are seriously concerned about meeting the needs of every child, as most people maintain, then we absolutely have to build a whole new concept of education for the years ahead. We need a wholly new way of thinking about learning and teaching. "A School for Tomorrow" represents my own effort to outline what I think such a school might be.

In the pages that follow I have tried my hand at thinking through the totality of a school. Purposes, curriculum, instruction, organization, evaluation, teacher education—these and other pieces are examined in some detail. That I have not been able to "pull off" the whole thing satisfactorily does not discourage me. Hopefully these ideas will trigger other persons to generate their conceptualizations. I think of "a school for tomorrow" as the kind of educational institution that I would like to see develop from conception to reality. These pages, in other words,

[16] If the reader wishes more evidence on this fundamental concept, see: Lee J. Cronback and Richard E Snow, *Final Report: Individual Differences in Learning Ability as a Function of Instructional Variables*. Stanford, California: Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching, 1969 (ERIC ED 029 001).

describe my hopes rather than my predictions, but I would like to think that public schools will move this way. For what it is worth, therefore, these are my ideas regarding what education and public schools might be like in the years immediately ahead, if we think hard and begin to move right now.

Purposes

Education is not without direction. The purposes or goals of education are always implicit in the endeavor if not expressly stated, and they can be ferreted out if not already there for all to see. And purposes supposedly relate directly to students' needs.

Most educational theorists make the point that the purposes of education stem primarily from three sources: the nature of knowledge, the nature of society, and the nature of the individual.[17] These are not the only sources, to be sure, but they do represent three places where schoolmen can go for information and inspiration when they contrive experiences for students in schools.

For example, the structure, domain, and methods which are unique and peculiar to each of the various areas of scholarly inquiry are all aspects of the nature of knowledge. The ways of the poet, for example, are different from the ways of the physicist. In like manner, the conceptual and working tools of the economist are different from the tools of the biologist. The aspect of reality to which they address their attention is different. The fundamental concepts and associated facts are different too. Even the history of each discipline is unique and gives it an emphasis and flavor of its own. We can draw upon these kinds of information in our attempt to determine what students need to learn.

Another source from which we can draw is what we know about the nature of society: population patterns, demographic data, cultural values, institutional expectations, sentiments, and norms. Whether we use the traditional conceptualizations and data of sociological thought[18] or the newer statements,[19] what we know about the nature of social institutions and their traditions and changes represents another important source for ascertaining what students need to learn.

A third source we can employ in determining what students need is what we know about the nature of the individual—his biological,

[17] Ralph E. Tyler. *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950.

[18] See: Edwin G. Goldfield, editor *Statistical Abstract of the United States.* Washington D.C.: U.S. Bureau of Census, 1961.

[19] See: Charles Reich *The Greening of America.* New York: Random House, Inc., 1970.

physiological, and psychological structure and function: blood chemistry, perceptual defenses, cognitive style, neurological processes, achievement patterns, intellectual structure, and the like.

Educators have traditionally gone to these three sources—the disciplines, the society, and the individual—for both information and inspiration about relating school purposes to students' needs. Curriculum is regarded as something like the seat of a three-legged stool: a solid base with three even supports. The seat of the stool represents the program, with one leg rooted firmly in what we know about the nature of knowledge, another leg rooted firmly in what we know about the nature of society, and the third leg rooted firmly in what we know about the nature of the individual. Such an idea is neat and understandable, but it is as wrong as wrong can be.

Educational programs never actually reflect that kind of balance and equivalent use of sources. What apparently happens is that those who build programs and operationalize curriculum subconsciously rank these sources in hierarchical terms in their own minds, according to their own values. Certain sources are held to be more important than others, and the hierarchical ordering reflects this fact.

In theory, persons responsible for determining purposes and building educational programs use these three sources of information equally. In practice, the various sources are drawn upon in varying degrees. The result is that different philosophical positions are taken that reflect the individual value systems of the people involved.[20]

For example, to presume that what we know about the nature of knowledge is of greatest worth and that what we know about society and the individual is of lesser worth will reflect a particular kind of philosophical posture—a value position—about what students need to learn and need to know. Let us call that assumption number one. That assumption characterizes most of the secondary schools, colleges, and universities in the United States today. These institutions are discipline oriented, and are organized and operated on the basis of subject matter concerns.

If we shift our logic and assume that what we know about the nature of society is of greatest importance and that what we know about the disciplines and the individual are of lesser importance, then we are operating from a very different kind of philosophical stance. Let us call this assumption two. In my experience, this is the kind of assumption that characterizes most elementary schools in the United States,

[20] Virgil Herrick, *Strategies for Curriculum Development*, Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1965. Chapter 1.

where the primary concern is for the group. Cooperation, politeness, taking turns, being quiet—all social expectations—are stressed.

To presume that what we know about the nature of the individual is of greatest importance and the other factors of secondary importance represents a very different kind of philosophical position about education. Let us call this assumption three. In my experience, there are very few classrooms or schools anywhere which reflect this ranking of curriculum sources as the basic way of meeting students' needs. Some "way out" schools such as Summerhill are probably efforts in that direction, and individual teachers here and there implement such an assumption in their classroom every day. By and large, however, there are very few models to which we can turn if we want to see or understand this kind of assumption in actual practice.

Because the different assumptions described here give rise to different kinds of educational purposes and goals, it is crucial to try to understand how such assumptions are actually related to students' needs. And students do have needs: academic needs, social needs, and individual needs. The question is: which needs are most pressing and most important at any given point in time?

The problem, at least in part, is one of ends and means. I want to argue that man is the end, subject matter is the means, and society is the result. I want to argue for assumption three.

Assumption number one is essentially a vocational assumption. If an individual wants to become a mathematician, then he needs to study mathematics. If he wants to be a farmer, then he needs to study farming. If he wants to be an airplane pilot or physicist or poet or plumber, then he has to pursue those areas of inquiry that are directly related to his particular vocational interest.

Assumption number two, on the other hand, is essentially a philosophical position. It presumes that the student needs to learn that which will enable him to become an effective, contributing member of society. At root, it presumes that the school should be an instrument of social purposes working to achieve social as opposed to individual or subject-matter ends. There can be no doubt that schools have always assumed this responsibility, but the question is: should this be the primary and overriding concern, or should it be of secondary importance? In my judgment, schools should be established and maintained by society for the purpose of serving the needs of those inside the institution rather than those outside. To argue that the primary purpose of the school is to serve the needs of society is to adopt the basic logic of every totalitarian society which ever existed. While schools obviously must pay

some attention to the problems of acculturation and socialization, in my opinion that should not be their primary purpose.

Thus we come to assumption number three. What does the individual really need? In physical terms, we know a lot about what people need, but when we shift to psychological or educational needs, there is a great void in what we know. All men need water and food and oxygen, for example. We know with considerable precision, in fact, which foods and which ingredients are absolutely essential to the maintenance of life. Can we conceptualize and accomplish research studies that will tell us, more specifically and accurately than we now know, which ideas, which stimuli are essential to meet the individual student's learning needs? Let us explore this problem in more detail.

The directions of the educational enterprise, the purposes of the school are never as neat and clear-cut as the logic of this discussion would imply. Purposes and goals always represent a blend of concerns and a mixture of values. Yet purposes do differ, and practices and programs differ, depending upon which assumption is involved. I submit that the school for tomorrow should be built upon assumption number three.

If we begin by stating that what we know about the nature of the individual is most important, it follows that schools and schoolmen will be concerned about and will be teaching in the direction of individual needs. Yet meeting individual needs has been talked about and advocated in American education for more than a century. In the section which follows, I shall take another—I hope fresher—look at individual needs.

Curriculum

If one begins with the premise that man is the end, it follows logically that subject matter is the means. This concept, stemming directly from assumption number three, presumes that curriculum is a means to a human end. There is nothing sacred or even worthwhile about subject matter, except as a means for answering human needs.

Deducing such a concept from assumption number three suggests that the curriculum in the school for tomorrow will have a different character and be based upon a different set of considerations than the curriculum in the school of today.

Let us begin the discussion of curriculum by postulating one additional thing: Life is worthwhile. Life is important. Life has value.

Life is an individual phenomenon. Life, or the absence of life, is a characteristic of individual human beings. Groups do not have life.

Even though we may sometimes say "that was a dead group" or "our group came to life today," such statements are metaphorical, and are made only for the purpose of communicating more effectively.

Nor do the academic disciplines and fields of knowledge possess life. Whatever history and mathematics and poetry are, they are not "alive." They do not live and breathe, give birth or die, make love or war. Men can do those things. Life is a characteristic of individual men. Life is an individual phenomenon.

Starting from the premise, then, that life is worthwhile, it seems reasonable and appropriate to ask: What can schools and schooling do to maintain and improve an individual's life? Whatever schools do, in other words, ought to move in the direction of life processes rather than the opposite way. The curriculum ought to be life supporting and life enhancing, not life destroying or life diminishing. Because life is an individual phenomenon, anything and everything which goes on under the aegis of the school should directly contribute to life-maintaining and life-improving ends.

Basic Questions in Planning

In thinking about curriculum we should learn to employ the kinds of logic and ask the kinds of questions that persons who have worked to maintain and enhance physical life have used. But the study of curriculum as a means of preserving and enhancing intellectual and emotional life should not be subsumed under life sciences.

Many people regularly and creatively work at the business of comprehending, preserving, and improving what might be described as man's physical life. Biologists, physiologists, nutritionists, and physicians, for example, all work at perpetuating and upgrading the physical aspects of individual life. Are there basic questions they have asked, methods they have used, or research they have accomplished which would be useful in the work of maintaining and improving intellectual and emotional life?

A careful look at what physiologists or nutritionists or physicians do suggests that over the years they have learned to ask certain questions about the physical aspects of life in order to determine how to maintain and improve it. Five questions, at least, seem central to their endeavors.[21]

First, *what is essential* in order to maintain and possibly improve physical life? What foodstuffs? What minerals? What vitamins?

[21] Jack R. Frymier. "Some Answers Must Be Questioned." In: William M. Alexander, editor. *The High School of the Future: A Memorial to Kimball Wiles.* Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1968. pp. 27-39.

What ingredients or elements are absolutely essential in order to maintain physical life?

Is hamburger essential? Is milk essential? Is spinach essential? Is orange juice essential? The answer to all of these questions is obviously "no."

Yet some things are essential. Oxygen is essential for the maintenance of life. Protein is essential. Water and iron and calcium are essential, too. Over the years researchers have identified a number of ingredients and factors which are absolutely essential in order to maintain life. Without them the organism will deteriorate and eventually die.

The second question is: *How much is essential?* How much water is essential in order to maintain physical life? How much protein? How much oxygen and iron? And so on. The quantity question is the second crucial question which researchers in these fields have learned to pose.

For most of the essential ingredients it would appear that there is both an upper and a lower limit to the quantity question. For example, although the human organism has to have water in order to survive, it cannot handle 20 or 40 or 100 gallons of water a day. The body cannot consume and process and utilize that much water in any limited period of time. Likewise, the human organism cannot survive for any extended period of time on a thimbleful or even a cupful of water a day. It must have more than that for life to be maintained. If he had to, an individual could probably cope with and utilize two or three, maybe four gallons of water every day. Likewise, a person could probably exist, for some time anyway, on as little as a quart, or perhaps even a pint of water every day. But there is both an upper and a lower limit to the quantity question, and there is an optimum amount, too.

The third important question is: *Where are these essential ingredients found in usable form?* Iron is essential for life to continue. Without iron the hemoglobin is affected, and eventually the blood cells lose their capacity to absorb and transmit oxygen throughout the organism to the various cells. There is iron in my pocket knife, but it is of no use to me at all. I could chew on my knife all day and not get any essential iron for my body to use. In like manner, there is oxygen in sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4), but it will hurt me rather than help me if I try to get oxygen that way. In the very same manner the oxygen which is present in carbon monoxide is hurtful rather than helpful; it is not in a usable form. Thus the third question: Where can I get it?

The fourth question is: *How much of any essential ingredient is present within the parameters of any given source?* How much iron

is present in a pound of calf's liver or a tablespoonful of Geritol? How much Vitamin A is included in a glass of carrot juice or one soft boiled egg? How much fat is present in a butter patty or a glass of milk or three strips of bacon fried crisp and brown? Describing the content of essential ingredients is important if professionals hope to *prescribe* what any given individual should have to meet his needs.

Under what conditions will the ingestion of these essential ingredients be most helpful to individuals in maintaining and improving physical life? The human organism must have oxygen, that much we know, but it is also evident that each and every human being in the world has to have access to oxygen continuously. One can go without it for one minute, perhaps even two, but all of the oxygen in the world will not help maintain physical life once the supply has been interrupted for even a very short period of time. The temporal conditions affecting the availability of oxygen, therefore, are very important if life is to be maintained.

Time affects the individual and his fundamental needs in other ways. For instance, although the organism needs water, it can survive for several hours without it. Protein is essential, too, although an individual can maintain life for many weeks without it. But eventually the individual has to have protein or he will die, and eventually he has to have water or he will die. Time is one of the condition-factors, therefore, which affect the maintenance and improvement of life.

Other conditions are important, too. Calcium is required in greater quantity during certain growth periods than at other times, but it is essential at all periods of life. Vitamin E is essential, also, but it is needed in huge amounts if the individual has been severely burned. Vitamin K is essential, but in greatly increased amounts if excessive bleeding is expected (for example, during surgery).

Sequencing of intake is another factor affecting the well-being of the organism. Many persons know the impact upon the individual of his drinking bourbon on an empty stomach as compared to eating fatty sausages for half an hour and then drinking bourbon. The results are strikingly different. Sequencing food stuffs into the organism in one way results in one kind of impact. Sequencing them in another way results in a different kind of impact. Simultaneous consumption may result in still another form of impact.

There are other temporal parameters, for example, the body needs more salt during hot weather, more oxygen during exercise, less ascorbic acid during summer months, and more lecithin after middle age.

Using These Questions in Curriculum Planning

The point is, there are conditions which are most conducive to the maintenance and improvement of physical life, and researchers have identified them. These five questions about physical life illustrate the nature of the thought process and some types of research questions involved. Persons in education who are concerned about curriculum may be able to approach the problems and possibilities of maintaining intellectual and emotional life by asking similar questions. Educators do speak of "food for thought" and "intellectual diet" and "watered down" programs, for example, so the analogy may not be at all inappropriate. Suppose we press the same questions in curricular terms. What kind of logic will unfold?

What is essential for the maintenance and improvement of intellectual and emotional life? What facts? What concepts? What principles or generalizations or subject matter or cognitive inputs are absolutely essential for intellectual and emotional life to prevail? Must every individual consume the concept of democracy, for instance, or know that $2+2=4$? Is it imperative that every human being take in factual data about quadratic equations, sentence structure, verb usage, the First Amendment to the Constitution, *Macbeth*, number theory, or time lines? What subject matter is absolutely essential to the maintenance of intellectual and emotional life?

Deciding what is essential (what ought to be taught) is relatively simple and straightforward if we start with the disciplines or start with social concerns. If we start with individual concerns, however, the answers are not so readily apparent.

The second question is: *How much is essential?* How many facts? How many concepts? How many generalizations or principles are absolutely essential in order to maintain intellectual and emotional life? Theoretically, the problem is similar to the problem of consumption of physical food. In all probability there can be such a thing as cognitive overload or stuffing—too much input—and there can obviously be such a thing as stimulus deprivation—too little input. When the human organism is deprived of at least some kind of stimulation, it withers and dies. We have enough evidence from stimulus deprivation studies such as those of Hebb[22] and Berlyne[23] to suggest that some stimuli

[22] D. O. Hebb. *The Organization of Behavior*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1949.

[23] D. E. Berlyne. *Conflict, Arousal, and Curiosity*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1960.

are absolutely essential. Or, we can throw stimuli at students so rapidly and with such volume or vividness that they cannot handle them; they get a kind of cognitive indigestion, if you please. The quantity question is real and very important.

The third question is: *Where are these essential ingredients found in usable form?* We do not really know what is essential, but if we did, we would probably know where to find it. We know, for example, that a history book contains a certain kind of content, a science film contains another kind of content, and a mathematics workbook contains another kind of content. We know where such content is located in usable form. But in other areas we do not know. For example, we have little idea what usable content is contained in an hour's counseling session or a field trip to the zoo, the bakery, or the firehouse. We do not know what students get out of such experiences. And even when we do know, for example, that there are certain quantitative concepts portrayed in a mathematics book, we are not really very clear about exactly what that content is. We know something about the third question, but not a lot.

The fourth question is: *How much content is included within the parameters of any given educational unit?* How many facts or concepts or principles are in this textbook as opposed to that one? What is the content of a given lecture? How many ideas, how many generalizations are contained in an hour's science film? Or again, how many facts, concepts, principles, or generalizations are present in the field trip to the zoo, or the counseling session, or the reprimand or the whipping that we sometimes give young people? What is the content of content, so to speak? What is included in the educational experience we contrive and prescribe that will, when the student has partaken of it, nurture and improve his intellectual and emotional life?

I suggest that we probably do not know much about that, either. Sometimes we have an intuition that one history book has more content in it than another, but we cannot talk about that content precisely. Most of us, for example, even though our own field is not life sciences or nutrition, know more about the amount of carbohydrates or the number of calories in a soda cracker or a french fried potato than we do about the number of facts or principles in a book that we teach in our own subject matter field. The nutritional information, in fact, is much more widespread and much more understandable than our own field. We do not know the content of content.

How about the fifth question? *Under what conditions will the*

consumption of certain kinds of intellectual ingredients be most conducive to optimal intellectual and emotional life? Which things should come first, and which things second? Should they be presented with pressure or with praise? Should they be accompanied by punishment or reward? Should they be apportioned over specified units of time or made available in quantity in big blocks of time?

Interestingly enough, we are apt to think that we are very knowledgeable in the "conditions" area. Most of us, for example, are not uncomfortable at all about asserting that one set of content has to precede another. That is what the whole notion of scope and sequence is in curriculum. This comes first and that comes second; or this content ought to be presented at this age level, as if we know a lot about the conditions which are most conductive to optimum intellectual and emotional life.

We do have some ideas about these conditions questions, but the differences among individual learners are so great that many of the assumptions upon which we operate are almost always wrong. For example, even if voluminous research indicated that a certain temporal pacing was most appropriate for an average learner—for example, spaced intervals of three hours a day every other day for three weeks—for some individuals it would be wholly wrong. Just as certain people, on the basis of their physiological structure, consume certain amounts of alcohol resulting in one kind of impact, consuming the same amount will have another impact upon other people. Or, the consumption of certain amounts of salt will have one kind of impact on some people and a very different kind of effect on other people. And even though we think we know what may be appropriate for an average individual, *individuals are not averages.* I do not think we have a very good understanding even about what conditions are most appropriate to serve best the individual's intellectual and emotional life.

The five questions are: What is essential? How much is essential? Where is it found? In what quantities and under what conditions will it be most conducive to maintaining and improving intellectual and emotional life? The questions are intriguing but frustrating, but they might generate a whole new area of curriculum research if we pose them within the framework of assumption number three. It is not the purpose of this paper to answer these questions. I do not know the answers, but I feel that the questions are very basic.

Curriculum based upon assumption number three will probably be different in other ways, too. For example, in the conventional school the curriculum usually manifests itself in *large pieces* with a relatively

fixed sequence, so that the number of combinations of pieces or ways of combining them is small. This is apparent, for example, with the traditional textbook (or textbook series of several grade levels) in which the curriculum "chunk" has 243 separate pages, say, bound on one edge in such a way that the sequence is fairly rigidly prescribed. Because the *size* and the *sequence* restrict variation or combination of the pieces, opportunities for creativity on the part of the teacher are limited. Further, the basic organizing construct inherent in the conventional curriculum is usually a thematic or logical approach. Such an organizing principle is supposedly for the child, but it actually represents instead the academic scholar's fundamental concerns.

In the school of the future, curriculum content will occur in a large number of small pieces, the sequences possible will be infinitely varied, and the number of possible combinations (permutations of pieces) will be extremely large. This means that the teacher will have a genuine opportunity for creativity within the curriculum, assuring a fresh approach and an excited teacher every time. The curriculum will not become boring to the teacher as the conventional one does, because novel arrangements and new and different patternings will bring new insights and fresh perspectives to the teacher year after year.

The conventional school's curriculum is organized for the scholar, and the basic concern is for *storage*. The curriculum of a school for tomorrow will be organized for the teacher's use and the basic organizing concern will be for retrieval rather than storage. To say it another way, the conventional curriculum is organized much like a library: good for putting materials into but difficult to get them back out of. The curriculum of the future will have thousands of pieces, stored in any one of a variety of ways (even randomly, perhaps), but each piece will be instantaneously available to the teacher who needs a particular bit of subject matter to fit a particular student's particular learning need. Such a curriculum will require a different concept of instruction. In the next section we will explore some of the theoretical aspects of teacher-pupil interaction in a conventional school and in a school for the future.

Instruction

Teaching-learning situations involve teachers and students in interactive relationships within some kind of organizational context. Although contextual factors are extremely important, they will not be dealt with in this paper. My intent is to focus instead upon teacher-student relationship, and to explore that relationship and its interactions

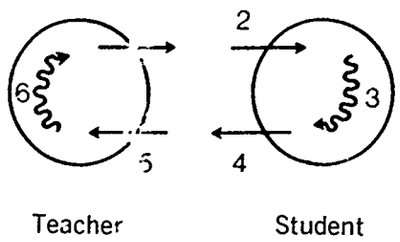


Figure 2. Conven .onal Teaching-Learning Interaction

in detail. The central pro osition is that we must turn the ' hole interaction around. The lo i: of teaching in the conventional school is backward and wrong, if : want to build a school on the basis of assumption number three.

Two Models of Instruct on

Figure 2 portrays gra hically the educational process as it typically occurs in a conventional s hool.

The logic of conventional teaching starts (at point 1) in what might be called teacher output be' avior. That is, the teacher says something, or otherwise behaves in sc. e manner that gets the teaching-learning cycle under way. "Everybo, open your books to page 73"; or "Betty, go to the board and write this problem down"; or "The lesso n today deals with the use of the apostrophe." After the teacher output behavior occurs, the student (at point 2) is expected to receive the lecture, demonstration, or data, to comprehend it and give it meaning (point 3), in order to respond with the correct behavioral output (point 4). In other words, in the conventional logic of teaching and learning, *teaching begins with the teacher's output behavior,* and ends when correct feedback occurs (point 5).

Good teaching, in the conventional sense, is defined as the extent to which the student's output behaviors (4) follow directly from and are a function of the teacher's output behaviors (1). To say it another way, in the conventional school the student's response is expected to be consistent with and directly related to the stimulus the teacher provides in his own behavior at p nt 1. Good learning in the conventional school is defined as the .x ent to which what the student does (4) is consistent with and relate' to what the teacher does (1). Such a model presumes that the student not only ought to but does follow the teacher's lead.

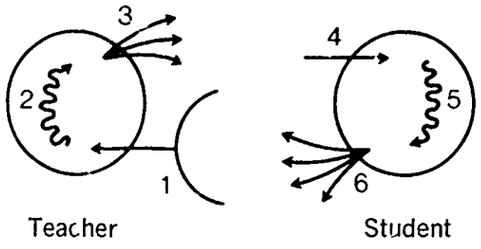


Figure 3. Teaching-Learning Interaction in a School for Tomorrow

The conventional method works beautifully for "transmitting the cultural heritage" (assumption number two) or "learning about the subject from the scholar's point of view" (assumption number one), but it makes no sense at all on the basis of assumption number three, which gives primary emphasis to individual needs. A graphic portrayal of a teaching-learning interaction which presumes that what we know about the nature of the individual is of more importance than what we know about the nature of society or the nature of knowledge might resemble Figure 3.

In this model the teacher's first professional act is one of intake or observational behavior (point 1). After the teacher sees, hears, or otherwise observes the student's output behavior (point 6), he then interprets the behavior (point 2) in the light of his past experience and professional training, and attempts to make sense out of the observational data which have come to him through the intake process at point 1. Following this interpretation of the student and his needs, the teacher responds (point 3). Teacher response follows from and is a function of the student as stimulus: what the teacher does comes after and is a function of the student's behavior as perceived by the teacher. Such an approach literally turns the conventional logic of teaching around.

Some might want to argue that such a reversal of logic and roles is unwarranted. Perhaps an analogy or two will help to clarify the logic involved.

Physicians, whom most would recognize as performing highly professional and important helping roles, function primarily on the basis of the interactive relationship outlined in Figure 3. That is, the physician's basic task is to receive information from and about the patient (intake behavior as represented at point 1) in order to assess the problem and diagnose the patient's difficulty. Following this, the physician interprets what he sees and hears, and pieces the observational

data together in his mind (point 2) before he prescribes or tells the patient what to do (point 3). The most effective physicians are those who are most skilled at observation and inference (diagnosis) and whose directives, decisions, or prescriptions follow directly from and are precisely related to the patient's need (as manifest at point 6).

The same is true of effective waiters, architects, and others who serve in helping roles. They work to make careful observations of the patron's or client's needs, and then they respond in ways designed to serve those needs The effective helper, in other words, gets his cues by observing his client's needs, and his skill in meeting those needs is reflected in the appropriateness of the helper's own output behaviors (3). The skill with which the person providing help (whether physician, waiter, architect, or teacher) is able to receive fully and comprehend adequately the pattern of needs of the person being helped is crucial to helpful and appropriate output behavior on the helper's part (be it prescription for healing, plan for building, meal for eating, or stimulus for learning).

There are many other important factors about this model of teaching-learning. Going back to Figure 3, we note that a variety of student output behaviors are represented by the several arrows at point 6. These several arrows are meant to describe two kinds of phenomena, both of which are important. First, the range of behaviors which might reasonably be expected to be evident among a number of different students, and second, the range of behavioral variables which might reasonably be expected to be found within any one student.

Applying Models in the Classroom

The conventional logic of teaching focuses upon differences within the group and between groups, whereas the logic being suggested here for the school of tomorrow focuses on differences within the individual and between individuals. To point out that "Bill is different from Mary," or "Joe and John are different persons with different learning needs," is to state the obvious, but the conventional logic of teaching provides no mechanism or theoretical rationale for dealing with the obvious. Because the conventional logic of teaching begins with teacher output behavior, students are expected to receive and understand and behave in appropriate ways dictated by the teacher's own overt behaviors, regardless of the students' differences or their individual learning needs. *Differences between students* are important factors and can only be recognized and attended to if teachers seek to receive information about such differences and needs as the first act of professional behavior. *After*

they recognize these differences, they will be in a position to respond in differentiated ways according to their experience and their understanding of the students' differentiated learning needs.

The second pattern of differences is equally important. Individuals differ, we know, but these differences manifest themselves through a host of important variables within each individual. For instance, ability is an important personal variable, and so is achievement, but they are not the same. Likewise, age, personality structure, motivation, and creativity are among the many important factors that relate to learning. And all exist within every child in varying degrees. Those of us who work in education know that all of these variables are important, but we usually lack the kind of experience and training necessary to cope with them either conceptually or operationally.

Suppose, for example, that we try to think about and describe variations *within individuals* and *between individuals* in a holistic way. People are totalities. They live and learn and function as total entities. If we are to try to comprehend the infinite range of variations that characterize all men, we need to have some way of thinking, some theoretical approach that will help us discern and comprehend the infinite range of nuances that are so important and perplexing to educators.

Suppose we start by identifying several characteristics or dimensions of individual behavior that are both important and relatively discrete. Let us begin by listing five: ability, motivation, achievement, creativity, and cognitive style.

These factors are probably related, but they are usually thought of as "different" variables—different phenomena—within that totality that we think of as the human organism. Working with just these five factors (and most persons would argue that others are equally or more important), suppose we begin by trying to think about each factor in a trichotomous way. When we think about ability, for example, we can try to imagine three different kinds or levels of ability, however one chooses to approach the task: High Ability, Average Ability, and Low Ability.

There is no doubt, of course, that trying to think about ability in such a simplistic, trichotomous way does a tremendous disservice to all that we know about the richness and variation in human ability. In fact, that point is the basic thesis of this entire paper. However, as a way of trying to think about diversity in theoretical terms, the reader is encouraged to withhold his objections, for a time at least, and try to conceptualize precise ways of thinking about people *as total human beings.*

For example, if we can think about three levels of ability, perhaps we can also envision three levels of motivation, three degrees of creativity, three kinds or levels of cognitive style, and three levels of achievement. All of the reservations the reader has about dealing with complex phenomena in simplistic ways apply here, too. Even so, if we can withhold judgment for a bit longer, perhaps we can outline a concept in crude but beginning ways.

Starting with the five postulated variables or aspects of individual behavior, we can create a series of types of individuals, each one fundamentally different in one or more important ways. For example, a person might be envisioned as having high ability, high motivation, high achievement, high creativity, and high cognitive style. That individual would be a very different person from one characterized by high ability, low motivation, high achievement, high creativity, and high cognitive style. When just one variation is introduced into the behavioral *pattern,* significant differences appear. In the same way, a low ability, low achievement, high motivation, low creativity, and high cognitive style person would be still another entirely different kind of human being, needing an entirely different kind of curriculum content and instructional style than either of the other two.

The point is: people differ. We need conceptual tools, curriculum materials, instructional procedures, organizational arrangements, and evaluative devices that will enable us to discern and comprehend the differences in important educational ways.

This line of reasoning could be developed further—that point is probably apparent by now. What is being outlined is a way of thinking about teaching and learning that turns the logic of teaching around. In addition, conceptualizing and operationalizing the differences between individuals and within individuals—instead of concerning ourselves with the differences between groups and within groups—is an important step. It becomes necessary to devise both concepts and operational tools for describing and inferring from and about the many differences within and between individuals in schools. That means, of course, that the school would have to be organized differently. In the section which follows, some of the organizational factors that relate to a school for tomorrow are explored.

Organization

If we can declare educational objectives in growth rather than control terms and have them based squarely upon the individual's learning needs, if we can approach curriculum in such a way that we

select and devise experiences and content that maintain and improve both the quantity and quality of intellectual and emotional life, and if we can turn the logic of teaching around so that teachers respond to students rather than insisting that students respond to teachers, then the next set of considerations we face will be organizational. Time, space, staff, materials, and resources must be related in such a way that they give focus and power to the educational effort. That is what organization ought to be about. In a school for tomorrow the relationship of these factors would be very different from the relationships which exist in schools today.[24]

The two most conspicuous aspects of school organization today center around the concepts of logical equivalency and the notion of the group. The basic organizing constructs of the school presume that each teacher should work with a group, and that every teacher should get exactly the same amount of everything that every other teacher gets.

In a school organized to assure personalized instruction and individualized learning, professional personnel would be differentiated in both function and responsibility. In an elementary school, for example, there might be five master teachers, each having primary responsibility for 150 youngsters' learning. These children would range in age from six to thirteen (all grade levels). Master teachers would be highly competent general practitioners of teaching, with doctors' degrees and extensive training in all subject matter fields and experience with children of all ages. Their salary should be about 2½ times the average teacher's salary. They would spend about 85 percent of their time with children in a one-to-one relationship and about 15 percent coordinating and supervising.

A typical eight-hour day (with no homework papers to correct or lesson plans to make, the school day would be extended) might be so arranged that four hours would be devoted to individual children on a 20-minute, one-to-one basis, with children visiting the master teacher according to a planned schedule. One hour and a half might be devoted to supervisory and coordinating activities with the specialists in the school. Two hours and a half could be available for additional 20- or 30-minute sessions with individual children on an unscheduled basis.

By using themselves in highly focused ways with individual children, master teachers would *first observe* and *then respond* with specific suggestions and instructions. These would be based upon their

[24] Jack R. Frymier and Charles M. Galloway. "Personalized Teaching and Individualized Learning." In: Virginia Rapport and Mary Parker, editors. *Learning Centers: Children on Their Own.* Washington, D.C.: Association for Childhood Education International, 1970.

intimate interaction with and knowledge of each child. For example, they would observe student behavior in a clinical way (in a one-to-one setting, watching overt behaviors, studying particular test scores, listening to speech articulations, noting manifestations of anxiety, developing and studying case histories, watching muscular movements during writings), and they would guide learning activities with students for subsequent specialized purposes (listening to *this* lecture, reading *that* book, participation in this discussion group for three days, building such-and-such a model, visiting a given plant manager who employs a particular human relations technique with his staff). They would use dictaphones and other devices to maintain a continuous and comprehensive record of contact with each child, and these records would be available before and during each one-to-one interaction. Such teachers would not be givers of information, record keepers, scorers of tests, or graders of homework. They would be extremely sensitive and highly trained general practitioners of teaching with in-depth knowledge of the basic disciplines, of learning, motivation, personality structure, measurement, and the fundamental learning skills.

Four groups of specialists would work under the five master teachers' direction and supervision. One group might include six persons especially competent in the areas of reading and the language arts. Two of these might be highly proficient in developmental reading and literature, two in diagnostic and remedial reading, and two in expressive communicative skills (writing, speaking, spelling).

Another group might include two persons trained in mathematics and the natural sciences, two in mathematics and the physical sciences, one registered nurse who might teach health and safety as well as serve as the school nurse, and one person trained in physical education.

A third group might include eight persons with a particular competency in various areas of the creative arts and humanities. Two of these might have extensive training in music, two in art, and four in social studies and group processes.

A fourth team of four persons might consist of one counseling or clinical evaluator, one psychometrician, and two instructional materials center specialists. These specialists should probably receive about the same salary as a fifth-year teacher.

The master teachers and the various specialists would require about ten secretaries (one to work for each of the master teachers, one for each of the four groups of specialists, and one for the principal) and about twenty homeroom managers who would provide the continuity, "homebase," and basic record cumulation files. Homeroom managers should be especially warm, accepting, and nurturing persons,

but not necessarily trained beyond clerical level. These paraprofessionals should probably receive approximately one-half the salary a regular teacher receives.

To have educators of three different levels of professional competency (that is, master teachers, specialist teachers, and paraprofessionals) would mean that at any given time the 750 children might be dispersed this way among the various staff members: 5 children with the five master teachers; 18 children with the six reading and language arts specialists; 12 with the four math-science specialists; 8 children for a nurse-health educator; 20 with the physical educator; 40 with the music educators; 20 with the two art educators; 40 with the four social studies educators; one child with one counseling evaluator; one child with one psychometrist, 570 children with twenty homeroom managers; and 20 with two instructional materials specialists.

Evaluation

With the primary emphasis on growth rather than control, evaluation and assessment procedures will be different. In the conventional school, evaluative devices and approaches have been characterized by so-called "objectivity." In the school of the future more attention will be given to so-called "subjective" approaches. This does not mean that objective tests and the like will not be employed. It does mean that the blind alleys which have been worked on by some persons in the measurement field will not be pursued further.

For example, any careful consideration of testing in American schools reveals that most of the evaluative devices currently used are based on the logic and assumptions of the Army Alpha Test, which was developed more than half a century ago: the tests are pencil and paper, multiple choice, verbal, and timed. Further, most tests are relatively long, and reflect a concern for statistical considerations rather than reality considerations. Much greater attention has been paid to reliability problems than to validity questions, even though validity is a far more crucial consideration.

In a school for tomorrow, master teachers will use themselves as superbly trained data processors, making clinical-type observations of youngsters and sorting out the nuances of individual variation with both subjective and objective approaches. They will cultivate themselves as observational tools, in other words, and spend their energies receiving and interpreting information from and about students before prescribing learning activities for each student individually.

Objective tests will be shorter, more valid, and exclusively diag-

nostic. They will enable teachers to identify specific achievements, motivations, learning difficulties, perceptual problems, and the like with pinpoint precision. Further, test scores would not be used as instruments of restriction or threat, as they often are today, nor would they be employed as a basis for grouping students, since the fundamental organizing construct of the school will be the one-to-one relationship. Accumulations of achievement scores (for example, as reflected in the cumulative grade point average—GPA) would not reflect the logic of denial that is implicit in such operations today. The conventional marking and grading system, for instance, averages all marks together, thereby holding a student's lack of learning against him rather than against those who failed to teach him. Such assumptions would be changed.

Evaluation instruments and devices in a school for tomorrow would, in the main, be shorter, mostly nonverbal and non-timed, and not pencil and paper. The development of such procedures would be based upon a wedding of the clinical with the objective approach, and would open up an entirely new field of test development and research in the area of education and psychology.

Teacher Education

Having sketched in outline form what a school for tomorrow might look like, we come to the question: What would the teachers be like? It goes without saying that preservice education and in-service education for such a school would be very different from programs for the schools of today. Without doing full justice to all aspects of a completely reconceptualized approach to teacher education, let me attempt to sketch some of the characteristics of the new programs which would be possible if a school for tomorrow became a reality.

Preservice Preparation

At the preservice level different kinds of preparation would be necessary for at least three different kinds of teachers: generalists, specialists, and homeroom supervisors. Because the training, responsibilities, salaries, and functions of these different types of teachers would vary so greatly, their preparation would have to vary, too.

The general practitioners of teaching, who would have primary responsibility for the education of a number of children with whom they would always relate on a one-to-one basis, should be superbly trained in all of the subject matter fields and for learners of all ages and

abilities. This would require at least seven, perhaps eight years of formal education beyond the high school, and such graduates would start teaching at a much higher starting salary and with much more responsibility than beginning teachers now have. Since not more than about 20 percent of a faculty would work at this master teacher level, a vigorous selection process should help tremendously to stabilize the group in the profession and simultaneously assure them of the elaborate professional preparation required to function at that level. That is, the extended period of training would discourage those persons who often enter the teaching field because they could not find employment elsewhere, or who are only waiting until they get married or find a better job.

Further, during the seven or more years spent in learning to be a master, a prospective teacher could acquire extensive experience with young people of all ages and with the totality of knowledge—such things as child development, personality structure, motivation, cognitive styles, learning disabilities, intellectual processes, and the like. He should also have a good grasp of several teaching fields and understand fully the structure and intricacies of the disciplines, the interrelationships among fields of knowledge, and have extensive training and experience in such areas as psychometrics, counseling, case studies, observation of individuals, and tutoring. What I am proposing is a doctoral level program (differing in almost every way from the conventional doctorate in education) that would prepare a master teacher to be a superb general practitioner of teaching. As such, master teachers would be in charge of children's learning, and the specialists would work under their direct supervision and control.

Specialists would be more highly specialized than most persons with masters' degrees are today. They would be finely honed in special areas, and would generally work with very small groups of students in very precise teaching-learning experiences as prescribed by the master teachers. These people would probably work with children of all ages, but in a narrow subject-matter field or process way; therefore their area of specialization would probably be about one full year's professional training in such things as word attack skills, psychometric testing, value analysis, number theory, speech correction, aesthetic appreciation, vocabulary development, constitutional history, ethology, and other subject matter fields.

The paraprofessional group would have much less formal training, and should be selected primarily on the basis of the kinds of people that they are: supportive, helpful, and patient.

During the time of their preparation, these teachers would all have

experiences which would be primarily professional rather than academic. The intent of those responsible for their preparation should be to have these prospective teachers work hard (probably 40 to 50 hours a week in class) in laboratory and clinical situations; but term papers, lists of readings, theses, and other academic experiences would be minimized. Living and working with real children and real ideas in intensive experiential situations should characterize the preservice programs. By emphasizing professional rather than academic experiences, no downgrading of the quality of ideas or content is intended. What is intended is a deliberate emphasis upon the use of knowledge as a vehicle to help children develop and grow. Education is an applied field, in other words, and professional preparation should be designed to help the prospective teacher use his information and experiences to facilitate growth in other persons.

In-Service Education

At the in-service education level new concepts of teacher education would be essential, too. In general terms, a school for tomorrow would employ "Theory Y" instead of "Theory X"[25] as a set of assumptions about motivation as it relates to teachers working to improve their professional performance. Besides that, a number of different assumptions about staff development would also characterize the school of the future.

As schools and schoolmen presently function in their "war against ignorance," all of the troops are on the front line and none in reserve. Staff development in the school of today places about one teacher with every 30 children, but there are no extra resources in terms of staff, time, or materials to provide flexibility and resourcefulness in meeting the needs of children in their efforts to learn. And because every teacher is expected to work every day, week after week, with time out only for coffee and lunch, the opportunities for reflection, thought, and growth on the part of professional staff are minimized or eliminated entirely.

What is needed is a new concept of staff development in which a portion of the professional staff (say, 10 percent) are purposely scheduled for a specified period of time (say, 10 percent) for professional growth and development. Such a policy would, in conventional terms, increase class size slightly, but if 10 teachers in a 100-teacher school had 18 days of in-service time to work together and plan and grow, who knows what powerful personalities and excited teachers

[25] Douglas MacGregor. *The Human Side of Enterprise.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1960.

might be interacting with youngsters day by day? The logistics of such an arrangement might vary greatly (five teachers could work together nine times during the year for two days at a time, or any other combination that seemed to make sense), but the basic principle of *scheduling* opportunities for staff development and professional growth is imperative. Further, rather than schedule the entire school district or one building faculty for one day before school in the fall and another at midyear, by using the concept of "professionals in reserve" it should be possible to arrange schedules so that hard-working teachers could escape from the fantastic demands of six hours of contact with classroom groups, five days a week. Small groups of staff, working together as a team and over extended periods as part of a staff development plan, could undoubtedly cope with some of the very difficult problems of personal growth, materials collection and development, and meaningful visits to other institutions or experts for consultation and advice.

Such a procedure would not cost any district any more money at all, but it would presume a deliberate scheduling of time for small groups of staff to learn and grow in their own varied professional ways.

Schools and schooling have to change. That means that schoolmen, too, will have to change. The pressures and forces operating in America today dictate just that. I feel that purposes, curriculum, instruction, organization, evaluation, and teacher education all have to become different if they are to be better than they are today. This paper outlines my own beginning thoughts on what a school for tomorrow might be like. If we want a school like this (or any other school of a different kind), however, we must start working today. Tomorrow may be too late if public education is to survive. The stakes are high. The time to begin is now.

7. Curriculum Planning As It Should Be

William M. Alexander

Formal, organized programs for curriculum planning have been the vogue for at least a century. For example, courses of study and manuals were issued by state departments of education in the 19th century, and the reports of the nine conferences of the Committee of Ten were made available in 1893. Teacher participation in the preparation of curriculum guides has been a practice in most school systems and state programs since the Denver Public Schools launched its extensive program in 1922.

Yet as Richard Foster pointed out in his opening paper, something is still awry. Teachers generally will not use new guides even though they participated in the preparation; materials prepared by national groups may win little acceptance; adoption of proven new practices or methods is slow, if they are not rejected completely; and criticism of the schools continues unabated. The whole purpose of this Conference was to bring to the profession a vision of what the school of the future should be like, and the hope is that the profession and the citizens will set about NOW to develop such a program of education for its children and youth.

How do we, the teachers, administrators, and citizens of each school community, set about to implement these plans and programs for better schools (or others, if yet better ones may be devised)? Professor Alexander brings to this question a great deal of firsthand experience—a classroom teacher at one time, a curriculum coordinator or director in three great school systems (Cincinnati, Battle Creek, and Dade County), a school administrator, a professor of education with curriculum theory and planning as a specialty, and a consultant to school systems throughout the country.

First, he believes that any planner must have a clear conception of what constitutes a valid design for a curriculum for students at all levels—early childhood to young adulthood. His proposal holds the promise of a much better program of schooling for all students.

Then Dr. Alexander lays out the process by which the entire

school community should work together to develop the kind of program envisioned. Does he not put his finger on what has gone awry in the past by urging us to make the individual school itself the primary center for curriculum planning and then involving everyone with an interest in that school in the process of planning and implementing? Let us get on with the job.—JGS

PUBLICATIONS in the field of curriculum for some 50 years now are replete with descriptions, exhortations, prescriptions, charts, and models as to how curriculum planning should be done. Beginning with Franklin Bobbitt's 1918 *The Curriculum* and his activity analysis approach, through many volumes on curriculum and curriculum planning, there is no lack of theories as to how it ought to be done. And many of these works have either reflected or influenced practice, for most prescriptions are paralleled by at least a few related, written curriculum plans. Certainly there is no shortage of these plans; each year at the ASCD Conference hundreds of curriculum guides are exhibited, with last year's printed list of them running 106 pages.[1] Perhaps it is the sheer mass of the formulas and guides that caused a critic as prestigious as Joseph J. Schwab to declare that "the field of curriculum is moribund." He said we had "reached this unhappy state by inveterate, unexamined, and mistaken reliance on theory."[2]

Despite the weight of existing materials on the topic as one who has contributed his share of the pages of both formulas and guides, I am glad to have another chance to come up with a better, hopefully more workable, proposal than those which have either led us to or not deterred us from today's unhappy state of affairs. We are in the midst of strongly conflicting currents in American education and especially in the field of curriculum development and various auxiliary and related aspects of education.

One very great force would push curriculum planning back to all that has been previously decried and denied by most curriculum theorists and practitioners: the focus on narrowly defined objectives, whether they are called minimum essentials, behavioral objectives, or prescriptions. These foci were minutely defined through activity analysis in the 1920's and now appear again as curriculum prescriptions and performance criteria in the 1970's. They can be drilled and tested,

[1] Harold E. Turner, chairman. *Curriculum Materials 1971*. Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1971.

[2] Joseph J. Schwab. *The Practical: A Language for Curriculum*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1970. p. 1.

and their execution made the basis for accounting for school expenditures.

A strongly conflicting force, tending to come from the profession rather than from taxpayers, urges that schools become more humane. This force, appealing to most of us since to be inhumane is sinful indeed, pushes us back to the child-centered informal schools of the 1920's and 1930's in the United States and perhaps to their counterparts across the Atlantic today. Certainly, we do want to personalize curriculum options and individualize instruction in more effective ways than allowing children to progress at varying rates through uniform sequences—but it is easier to prescribe than to personalize.

Still another force comes from the angry critics, parents, and students who would abandon public schools, letting the curriculum for each child be whatever the home, the media, the community, or perhaps the alternative form of schooling selected, would have it be. This force tends to be more negative than positive, and it is indeed difficult to incorporate its proposals into a plan for improving the curriculum. Yet the criticisms of inefficiency, bureaucracy, learner abuse, and mindlessness sting, and underline the seriousness of need for far more effective curriculum planning than now generally exists.

We are faced then with the sobering knowledge that past theories and processes of curriculum planning, however much some are revived in current movements and demands, have not worked, either to effect education that is good enough for these times or to bring about professional unanimity as to what makes for good education. Even many professionals who have been most prolific in their publications and other efforts to bring about better planning and execution are disillusioned. In his chapter for the NSSE 1971 Yearbook on curriculum, James B. Macdonald asserted that "the development of the curriculum in the American public schools has been primarily a historical accident."[3] He explained this fact as a result of the complexity of the forces involved, but called for more rational input into the process of planning. In their book *Behind the Classroom Door,* John Goodlad and his associates summarized their investigations of the first four years of school, years for which cooperative and effective planning is frequently assumed to exist, in such critical statements as this:

> We endeavored to secure evidence of curriculum plans being developed by the school faculty as a whole or by committees of that faculty. We encountered

[3] James B. Macdonald. "Curriculum Development in Relation to Social and Intellectual Systems." Chapter 5 in: Robert M. McClure, editor. *The Curriculum: Retrospect and Prospect.* Seventieth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1971. p. 95.

only one example but, admittedly, evidence here was very difficult to obtain. Nonetheless, neither observations nor interviews with teachers and principals revealed faculties at work on curriculum problems and plans. In general, each class operated as an individual unit, taking curricular direction from textbooks, courses of study, and teachers' experience.[4]

Reluctantly but equally truthfully, I can add that my own observations and certain related investigations[5] in middle and high schools during the past few years indicate a similar state of affairs in most schools above the primary level. In addition, these studies yield two observations that I believe highly pertinent to the present topic. On the negative side, one sees so very many schools in which the obsession with time for teachers to plan obscures more fundamental processes and goals of planning, frequently reducing it to a series of rapid-fire decisions on immediate problems with little effort to relate present crises and tasks to long-range goals. On the positive side, those cases, admittedly too rare, in which comprehensive planning has been done by the individual school faculty, with adequate representation from the community and student body, give much hope that careful planning at the school level can and does make a difference.

Some Basic Assumptions

Turning to the kind of curriculum planning that should be, I must perforce indicate my bias or hunch as to what has been wrong with curriculum planning in the past. My hunch is not unique; it is the same which has motivated many curriculum developments of the past—conviction that the dominance of the subject design of the curriculum must give way to more crucial and relevant aims of school and society. The turn-away-from-the-subjects efforts of the past have not been successful, and I can only hope that a new proposal to this end now finds a more fertile ground in the conflicts and dissatisfactions of today. Certainly, review of the plans made and implemented today and yesterday leaves no doubt that the dominant assumption of past curriculum planning has been the goal of subject matter mastery through a subject curriculum, almost inextricably tied to a closed school and a graded school ladder, to a marking system that rewards successful achievement of fixed content and penalizes unsuccessful achievement,

[4] John I. Goodlad, M. Frances Klein, and associates. *Behind the Classroom Door.* Worthington, Ohio: Charles A. Jones Publishing Co., 1970. p. 64.

[5] See: William M. Alexander, Vynce A. Hines, and associates. *Independent Study in Secondary Schools.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1967; and William M. Alexander and others. *The Emergent Middle School.* Second enlarged edition. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1969. Chapters 9 and 10.

to an instructional organization based on fixed classes in the subjects and a timetable for them. The subject design is the very core of the establishment that today's critics would have us assess, humanize, or dismantle, depending on the critic. Many of the same critics still assume continuation of the subject curriculum, although the assessors would have us individualize its learning, and the humanists would have us open it to inquiry. Only the deschoolers might turn to other goals, although to what and how seem somewhat uncertain from their writings.

The proponents of curriculum designs built around social functions, areas of living, and similar foci and some of the core curriculum advocates and other theorists have for at least 50 years assailed the inadequacy of subject designs, and many curriculum plans have attempted at least briefly to implement innovative organizations of curriculum opportunities. Yet with the swing away from the child-centeredness of the thirties and forties and the reinforcement of cognitive goals by the curriculum projects and the innovative learning aids and instructional organizations of the past two decades, the subjects and the closed curriculum they formed have dominated curriculum planning. In fact, the subjects were never so entrenched, for the innovations have improved their content and presentation and the commercial producers have developed a massive arsenal of supplies to teach them. I liked the recent comment by Ronald Gross on the effect of innovative programs:

> The "innovative" programs were undertaken in well-established schools with fairly conventional philosophies. They were not based on new ideas about the role of education, or the nature of the child, or the place of culture in a democratic society. They focused on practical methods of achieving the traditional end of schooling—the mastery of basic skills and subject matter.
>
> These innovative approaches changed the climate of American public education in the late fifties and early sixties. What they achieved has been important, but what they failed to achieve, unfortunately, has been even more important.[6]

Today's dissatisfaction with a curriculum geared to the subjects points to the acceptance of some different assumptions about the goals and processes of schooling. Here are four assumptions which I consider basic to successful curriculum planning.

1. *The central goal of schooling, and therefore of the curriculum and its planning, is the development of the self-directing, continuing learner.* Statements of this goal abound in the literature, but the hard

[6] Ronald Gross. "From Innovations to Alternatives: A Decade of Change in Education." *Phi Delta Kappan* 53: 22; September 1971.

facts of practice all but deny its existence. Actually, observers could infer very opposite goals of schooling:

> One objective must be to dull the curiosity of our students, because most children leave school less curious than when they started. Another objective would be to diminish or extinguish the desire to learn, because most students enter school with a much stronger desire to learn than when they leave.[7]

Charles Silberman saw the schools as suffering from "mindlessness," and no wonder, since he viewed the purpose of education as "to educate educators—to turn out men and women who are capable of educating their families, their friends, their communities, and, most importantly, themselves," and further defines this purpose in these terms:

> Of what does the capacity to educate oneself consist? It means that a person has both the desire and the capacity to learn for himself, to dig out what he needs to know, as well as the capacity to judge what is worth learning. It means, too, that one can think for himself, so that he is dependent on neither the opinions nor the facts of others, and that he uses that capacity to think about his own education, which means to think about his own nature and his place in the universe—about the meaning of life and of knowledge and of the relations between them.[8]

In our 1965-66 survey of independent study programs we were able to identify less than 1 percent of the secondary schools of the United States as having such programs that met our criteria relevant to independent study goals. In the ensuing years many schools have adopted new scheduling arrangements which provide independent study time, but I am not at all convinced that this time is planned so as to influence the development of independent study interests and skills. If the central goal I am assuming were really dominant in curriculum planning, the fundamental criterion of curriculum opportunities would be their contribution to the development of increasing self-direction and independence.

2. *The individual learner is actively involved in planning his own curriculum, in an open process that eliminates the "hidden curriculum."* In 1957 an ASCD brochure on *One Hundred Years of Curriculum Improvement, 1857-1957,* included the statement that:

> More recently the philosophy of democratic participation and the recogni-

[7] Kathryn V. Feyereisen, A. John Fiorino, and Arlene T. Nowak. *Supervision and Curriculum Renewal: A Systems Approach.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1970. p. 131. By permission of Appleton-Century-Crofts, Educational Division, Meredith Corporation.

[8] Charles E. Silberman. *Crisis in the Classroom.* New York: Random House, Inc., 1970. p. 114.

tion of the dynamic nature of learning have led to emphasis upon teacher-pupil learning. For the past 20 years schools have been experimenting with ways to improve the process by which children and young people help set the goals, plan the activities, and evaluate the results of their work with the leadership of the teacher.[9]

The post-Sputnik clamor for academic excellence beginning late that same year apparently put an end to this movement. In the ASCD 1971 Yearbook, James B. Macdonald, writing about "The School as a Double Agent," declares:

> The vast majority of schools, teachers, and other concerned persons do not trust students. The basic assumption of the schools' orientation to students is that students will do the wrong thing (what you do not want them to do) unless you make them do the right thing. If this were not so, most school policies and classroom disciplinary procedures would not be justified. Surely, faith in the worth, dignity, and integrity of individuals is not in evidence.[10]

A high school student whose article was included in *How Old Will You Be in 1984?* in a similar vein asked.

> Why can't we make school worthwhile enough from the standpoint of the student? Why can't we institute more relevant courses, and after very basic requirements, which even less intelligent students realize as necessary, allow students to judge for themselves what will benefit them? You can tell them what's good for them, but you can't make them like the subject. And those that do like something can take advantage of it without worrying about room for it on a schedule including nonhelpful studies. Maybe we'll interest more people in school if we give them a choice—if we give them responsibility.[11]

My assumption says "Yes" to this student's question, a question that has played no small part in student unrest of recent years: "Yes, we can—indeed we must—allow students to judge for themselves what will benefit them." Only this assumption, and planning which enacts it, can eliminate the "hidden curriculum" of student strategies to pass the hurdles of the formal curriculum. The M.I.T. psychiatrist Benson Snyder recently gave testimony to the importance of this hidden curriculum in his book on that subject, noting:

> I have found that a hidden curriculum determines, to a significant degree, what becomes the basis for all participants' sense of worth and self-esteem. It is

[9] Prudence Bostwick, chairman. *One Hundred Years of Curriculum Improvement, 1857-1957.* Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1957. p. 7.

[10] James B. Macdonald. "The School as a Double Agent." Chapter 13 in: Vernon F. Haubrich, chairman and editor. *Freedom, Bureaucracy, & Schooling.* Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1971. p. 237.

[11] Bob Weinzimmer. "Compulsory Education—Good or Bad?" In: Diane Divosky, editor. *How Old Will You Be in 1984?* New York: Avon Books, 1969. pp. 88-89. © 1969 by Avon Books.

this hidden curriculum, more than the formal curriculum, that influences the adaptation of students and faculty. I know of no kindergarten, high school, or college that is without a hidden curriculum which bears on its students and faculty. Though each curriculum has characteristics that are special to the particular setting, the presence of these hidden curricula importantly affect the process of all education. The similarities in these hidden curricula are at least as important as the differences.[12]

John Holt was dealing with the same phenomenon when he wrote:

> For children, the central business of school is not learning, whatever this vague word means; it is getting these daily tasks done, or at least out of the way, with a minimum of effort and unpleasantness. Each task is an end in itself. The children don't care how they dispose of it. If they can get it out of the way by doing it, they will do it; if experience has taught them that this does not work well, they will turn to other means, illegitimate means, that wholly defeat whatever purpose the task-giver may have had in mind.[13]

I have tended to write and speak about the "curriculum planned" and the "curriculum had." My present assumption is that curriculum planning as it should be will no longer foster or even tolerate the existence of two curriculums, the school's and the students'. The only way to end this dualism and all of the barriers to effective education involved is to bring students more openly and fully into the planning process as full-fledged partners.

3. *The learner progresses along a series of curriculum continuums, each within a curriculum domain, rather than up an educational ladder.* I like very much the notion of curriculum as a continuum rather than a set of subject areas and objectives. Harold Shane described a curriculum continuum as "an unbroken flow of experiences planned with and for the individual learner throughout his contacts with the school," and noted that implementation of this concept would eliminate such fixtures of present schools as failure, double promotion, special education, remedial work, annual promotion, dropouts, compensatory education, report cards, and marks.[14] I see the curriculum continuum as a general notion to emphasize the infinite possibilities of the curriculum and to eliminate the notion of the graded, marked, standardized curriculum. For planning purposes it seems useful to think of a cur-

[12] Benson Snyder. *The Hidden Curriculum.* New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1970. pp. iii-xii.

[13] From: John Holt. *How Children Fail.* New York: Pitman Publishing Corporation, 1964. p. 24. Quoted in: Ronald and Beatrice Gross. *Radical School Reform.* New York: Simon & Schuster, Inc., 1969. p. 66.

[14] Harold G. Shane. "A Curriculum Continuum: Possible Trends in the 70's." *Phi Delta Kappan* 51: 389-92; March 1970.

riculum continuum as Shane's "Personalized Curriculum Continuum," that is, as the series of learning experiences an individual has. I would further modify the notion to the series of learning experiences within a particular curriculum domain, a concept to be explained shortly.

If and as the notion of curriculum as a continuum gets accepted, the dominant question of schooling would become "What did you do?" or, even more hopefully, "What did you learn?" rather than the present "What did you get?" Anyone who reads the delightful work apropos the latter question, *Wad-Ja-Get?,* must be impressed with the massive evidence of the ineffectiveness and, worse, the inappropriateness of our dominant marking system. As the authors note: "From the elementary to the graduate level, most of the student's or the teacher's life in school revolves, directly or indirectly, around the grading system." [15] In my judgment, it is difficut to overemphasize the stranglehold of marks and all they relate to in schools. It is not enough simply to develop new marking systems, to which sooner or later old labels will revert, for we have been tinkering with marks and reports for many years to little avail. A different conception of educational purpose must prevail and, with it, a different set of curriculum parameters.

4. *The school is a management center for curriculum and instruction rather than a self-contained locus of schooling.* Bruce Joyce cited, in his chapter for the NSSE 1971 Yearbook on curriculum, our past assumptions about schools and teachers as a major factor in "the dilemma of the curriculum field":

> By focusing on a certain kind of educational institution (the school) and by focusing on functionaries (teachers) whose roles have developed within the constraints of that institution, the curriculum field has forced itself to operate within parameters so restrictive that it has been unable to develop strong, validated theory and it has been impotent to improve education.[16]

Like Joyce, I would not therefore argue for abandoning the school, but we can see for it very different functions in the future. Probably, as Toffler predicts, advanced technology will make unnecessary the continuation of mass assembly of students in schools and change markedly the locale of education:

> A good deal of education will take place in the student's own room at home or in a dorm, at hours of his own choosing. With vast libraries of data available

[15] Howard Kirschenbaum, Rodney Napier, and Sidney B. Simon. *Wad-Ja-Get?: The Grading Game in American Education.* New York: Hart Publishing Company, Inc., 1971. p. 14.

[16] Bruce R. Joyce. "The Curriculum Worker of the Future." Chapter 13 in: Robert M. McClure, editor. *The Curriculum: Retrospect and Prospect, op. cit.,* p. 314.

to him via computerized information retrieval systems, with his own tapes and video units, his own language laboratory and his own electronically equipped study carrel, he will be freed, for much of the time, of the restrictions and unpleasantness that dogged him in the lockstep classroom.[17]

The independent, self-directed learner whose development is our goal may well be able to carry on his continued learning without the aid of school, although it can be hoped that some schools would always have resources that could be used by students of various ages. However, learners do not become fully independent and self-directing in their early school years; and most will probably need the help of the school at least through adolescence in arranging their learning opportunities, and in providing many which foster the development of self-direction.

Good schools have always sought to utilize the best resources available, but it is only recently that the concept of the school-without-walls has been dramatized by reports of the Parkway School in Philadelphia and other such schools making extensive use of community resources. An earlier model, the community school, brought the community into the school and served diverse functions for its citizens. Today the prevailing idea may be to take the school into the community, but what seems really needed is full recognition of the educative possibilities of many experiences in various locales and through many media. A school center to coordinate educational resources is essential. The assumption here is that the curriculum is no longer to be planned as events that occur only inside the school but, instead, wherever is most desirable and possible. The existence of a plan and a center for developing and implementing the plan seems all the more critical as the concept of curriculum is thus broadened.

Curriculum Domains

Traditionally, curriculum components have been identified as the disciplines, with passing attention only to the activities, services, and special programs. Yet some major goals are sought, if at all, through the latter. The term "curriculum area" has become so identified with the subject design that I find "curriculum domain" hopefully different and more inclusive of all learning opportunities. "Domain" defined as "a field for thought, action, etc.," becomes in curriculum planning a field for thought and action relative to a single but comprehensive, major educational goal. Thus a curriculum domain encompasses all learning opportunities available to achieve such a broad goal. Materials from the

[17] Alvin Toffler. *Future Shock.* New York: Bantam Books, Inc., 1970. p. 275.

disciplines are essential, but categories of the curriculum are created by goals rather than disciplines. The boundaries between domains remain very elastic because many learning opportunities, including entire disciplines, may serve more than one goal. For the purpose of curriculum planning, the domains may be useful ways of designing a curriculum for the particular population served by a single school center, and especially for facilitating vertical curriculum planning between school levels. Four broad goals are seen as setting the domains for most populations, although it is expected that each school district and center would determine its own domains.

Personal development. Recognizing that the entire purpose of education may be considered as aiding the development of each person, the reference here is to that considerable portion of the curriculum seeking in many ways at all levels to aid the individual in identifying and serving his personal needs and potentialities. Despite periodic debate over whether the school should serve the "whole child," few would deny that educational progress, academic and otherwise, is inextricably related to the total growth and development and well-being of the child. Communication skills seem a part of this domain, as do most curriculum opportunities related to so-called "general education" objectives. Planning for personal development would also encompass guidance and other services to individual students; health and physical education; and exploratory activities that give each student many chances to discover interests for later specialization.

Human relations. American educational goals have usually included strong emphasis on citizenship education, social welfare, human rights and relationships, and similar phrases encompassed here in the term "human relations." Certainly a continuous and essential goal of education in a human society, especially one which prizes democratic values and processes, is ever-improving human relations.

This domain, too, includes a plethora of curriculum possibilities: the various areas of knowledge in the social sciences and humanities; languages; social interaction and organization within the schools and other institutions of the community; the participation of students in these institutions; and specific studies and skill development activities related to particular human relations problems within the school and community such as those involved in cultural and ethnic differences and conflicts.

Continued learning skills. In practice much schooling has been preparatory to more schooling, the assumption seeming to be that the

more knowledge one acquires in school the better prepared he becomes for acquiring still more at higher levels. Beyond reading and limited attention to other knowledge-acquiring skills, little emphasis has been placed on the skills through which learners will continue to learn effectively outside and after school. The dramatic lessons of ever-increasing change are clear as to the futility of expecting individuals to store up during the 12 to 16 school years enough information to solve future problems of adjustment. Instead there is now wide agreement as to the school's central mission of developing lifelong learners—individuals who are both motivated to continue learning and have the basic skills to do it.

This curriculum domain includes such standard curriculum provisions as instruction in reading, listening, viewing, and speaking. It also includes plans as yet to be generally made for teaching more advanced learning skills: interviewing, inquiry, discussing, interacting; using various information retrieval systems, including those made possible by computers; analyzing issues, selecting alternatives, trying out ideas, and other problem-solving skills; evaluating sources and ideas; generalizing; and others. Especially needing emphasis in future curriculum planning are the learning skills related to group interaction and those utilizing the computer.

Specialization. The specialization domain is even more difficult to categorize than the others, for depth in any of the other domains may become specialization for an individual. Yet American education clearly seeks to provide an enormously wide and varied range of opportunities for individual students to work to some depth in the interests, tasks, or careers which are chosen on the bases of interest and qualifications. Specialization for career purposes is generally delayed until after high school; yet many adolescents still terminate or interrupt their education before or upon finishing high school. Even younger students, in middle or perhaps elementary schools, develop strong interests, as in music, art, sports, and various knowledge areas, that can be the basis of extended instruction and independent study. Thus this domain includes such school areas as those traditionally classified as prevocational or vocational, and perhaps now as career development, and in addition almost any area that can be pursued in depth by the individual selecting it for specialization. Specialization also includes such cut-across learning opportunities chosen on the basis of individual interest as work experience, community service, or extended study in another school center, community, state, or nation.

These four domains—personal development, human relations,

continued learning skills, and specialization—represent a classification of major educational goals and related learning opportunities that seems fairly universal. It is not assumed that each school center would necessarily have curriculum plans within each of these domains, nor that additional domains cannot or should not be developed. The essential idea is to have a broader grouping of curriculum opportunities than in the traditional division of schooling into the disciplines and the nondisciplines. Such a broader grouping gives the basis for more functional and vertical planning and wider involvement of the persons concerned. It also should ensure the wiser selection of subjects and subject content.

The Curriculum Plan

Before describing in further detail the processes of curriculum planning as they should be, certain concepts should be reviewed. *Curriculum* is viewed throughout this paper as the planned program of learning opportunities to achieve broad educational goals and related specific objectives for an identifiable population served by a single school center. The planned program is arranged within categories just described as *curriculum domains.* The *curriculum plan* is an advance arrangement of learning opportunities designed to achieve a set of objectives for particular learners; usually it would be appropriately developed for a single curriculum domain, although it could be utilized for seeking several goals simultaneously. Generally it is written, but as a set of tentative agreements reached by a group of planners for achieving a set of objectives formulated for a particular group of learners. The complete plan includes, in addition to its objectives, three essential elements of the curriculum system: curriculum design, curriculum implementation, and curriculum evaluation.

Curriculum planning, then, embraces the various functions involved in the choice of educational goals and curriculum domains, and within each domain the choice of objectives, curriculum designs, instructional modes, and evaluative procedures calculated to best attain the goals. Planning must properly assess the various bases from which goals are chosen; weigh the impact of external forces and variables; determine the possibilities of the internal ones of design, instruction, and evaluation; review feedback from the curriculum plan during its implementation and evaluation; make changes as indictated and possible; and study evaluative data about the progress of learners on the continuums, replanning the various elements as the data indicate.

The task is formidable, and the most one can do in further describing it is to indicate some highlights and possibly innovative ideas hopefully meriting later discussion and exploration.

The Role of Students

About the only decision in curriculum planning which has to be made for students rather than with or by them is that of the broad goals and domains which define the scope of the curriculum. These decisions are essentially political ones determined by legislatures, boards of education, and other controlling bodies, and all the groups and forces which affect these decisions. Hopefully, input from students and adult groups representing students and data about them are powerful determinants of the decisions. But whether or not a school provides a curriculum plan in the personal development domain is not a decision in which students at the public school level usually have a direct voice. Once this goal and domain are agreed upon at some level external to the student population, students should and may have many means for affecting decisions regarding the nature of curriculum opportunities to be provided.

At least two major types of participation of learners in curriculum planning are envisioned. One type is the involvement of students of appropriate maturity in decisions about the basic curriculum plan. Certainly high school students can and do sit in on planning groups, and their contributions are prized in a growing number of high schools that are utilizing, even if belatedly, student involvement. Ways must be found to have increased participation of younger children, perhaps through parent and teacher spokesmen.

The other type of participation essential to planning in all curriculum domains and for all learners is that of the direct consultation of the learner about his own personalized curriculum continuum. For this all-important phase of curriculum planning, there seems no substitute for the close relationship of a teacher-counselor and the individual learner. Despite the use of various forms of specialized teaching in elementary schools, there generally remains some arrangement whereby each child has a teacher who is his particular advisor. Although too many middle schools follow the departmentalized program of the predecessor junior highs, many of them do utilize some form of home base arrangement in which each child has his own teacher-counselor. At the high school level similar arrangements are highly desirable. Galen Saylor has proposed the use of "directors of personal development" for this purpose:

In my opinion, every high school should have a corps of top-quality staff whom I would call "Directors of Personal Development." Each of these directors would be fully responsible for guiding and directing the development of a group of students—hopefully not more than 30, but, at least at the outset, considering the cost, perhaps more than that.[18]

The functions ascribed to these directors by Saylor include continuing diagnosis and appraisal, with appropriate professional help, of the students' talents, capabilities, and potentialities; planning of the students' educational programs; supervision of students' activities; conducting tutorial seminars; and working closely with parents, community agencies, and other staff members involved.

Thus, the role of the student in curriculum planning is most of all as a planner of his own curriculum continuum. This includes of course his participation in planning activities of the groups of which he is a member. At appropriate levels he is also a participant in decision making relative to the total curriculum plan of the school. In my opinion no single factor in curriculum planning as it should be is more significant and more promising of fundamental change in the curriculum than the active involvement of learners in determining their own curricula, with the fullest and wisest possible counsel of responsible adults.

Role of the School Community

Each of my four assumptions about curriculum planning as it should be points to new roles or emphases for parents and other adults in the school community. As to the first—the goal of developing self-directing, continuing learners—the closest cooperation possible is needed from parents in assessing the self-directing potentialities and progress of their children and from community educative agencies in opening up their resources to the schools. Parent-teacher conferences will need to turn from questions about how Johnny is doing in school to how Johnny is doing at home, at the public library and museum, before the TV set, and on family trips. Closer cooperation of school faculties, library and museum staff members, TV programmers, Scout leaders, Youth Club directors, tour conductors, churches, and social welfare agencies may mean the need for boards of community education responsible for working out arrangements for exchange of personnel between edu-

[18] Galen Saylor. "The High School of the Future: A Humane School." *The Humanist* 31: 12; May/June 1971. For further development of this proposal and description of the personal development domain, see also: William M. Alexander, J. Galen Saylor, and Emmett L. Williams. *The High School: Today and Tomorrow.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1971. pp. 403-409.

cational agencies as well as planning for schedules and facilities that ensure widespread and round-the-clock use of all curriculum opportunities within the community.

As already emphasized, the active involvement of learners in planning their own curriculum continuums should include the involvement of parents in understanding and assisting the selection of appropriate objectives and learning opportunities. For younger children this parental involvement is essential in part because of learners' immature judgment and communication abilities, but for older children it seems equally critical for the desperately needed bridging of the generation gap.

The assumption about curriculum as a continuum will never get into widespread practice without continuing interaction with parents and the public in general. Whether this is best done through continuing study groups on the purposes and processes of education, or through *ad hoc* groups dealing with specific problems of marking systems, and other aspects of pupil progress, or through parent groups organized around the student advisory plan, or some other means, seems a decision to be made within each school community.

The account in *Wad-Ja-Get?* of the PTA meeting on the grading system at mythical Mapleton High School is a provocative discussion of some issues to be faced in dealing with changes in this area of vital concern to parents.[19] My own bias would be toward large-scale involvement of parents and others interested in discussion of educational aims and results. The fundamental change in orientation of education from subjects to be hurdled to goals to be achieved needs all the interaction possible between school and home, and curriculum leaders need every means of communication at their disposal to bring about understanding, to consider reactions, and to formulate plans agreed upon within the school community. I would hope that continued interaction would arrive at somewhat more comprehensive plans than one for a change in the marking system, but without doubt the latter has to become a major consideration at some point.

The fourth of my assumptions, regarding the function of the school as a management center for curriculum and instruction, in particular demands a realignment of community educational forces. Especially is there a very significant role for community people in the domains of human relations and specialization. Previous experience with community councils in these domains has been mixed as to success, but there seems no other adequate way to bring about cohesive approaches to these basic goals. Perhaps each school center should have its community advisory

[19] See: Kirschenbaum, Napier, and Simon, *op. cit.*, Chapter 12.

council with competent specialists advising these groups on the many problems incident to opening up the curriculum to human relations problems and opening up the community to student participation in many enterprises appropriate for student learning experiences. Some of the following suggestions made with respect to the high school may have implications for schools at other levels or, especially in these days of cross-community busing, for the entire school district:

1. Establish a community council for each high school in a district that includes more than one high school.
2. Have periodic reports made to the community council by representatives of the school's student council indicating how students believe the community can help the school.
3. Similarly, have reports made periodically by representatives of the school faculty.
4. Use community media as fully and objectively as possible for reporting school programs, accomplishments, problems, and needs.
5. Promote and service student forums on community issues.
6. Provide maximum opportunities for high school students to participate in community activities.
7. Cooperate in providing meaningful work experience for as many high school students as possible.
8. Use community resource persons to give expert service in curriculum planning and instruction.
9. Open the community to students who wish to use its facilities for independent study.
10. Throughout the year, open the school, after hours, for adult education, and for recreation.[20]

Managing and Coordinating the Planning Process

It is not within the scope of this paper to present a detailed systems approach to curriculum planning. If such an approach is really desirable, it needs to be worked out within the possibilities and limitations of each school district. Certainly it is appropriate to think of the curriculum as a system, that is as a set of components so related and organized as to attain the ends for which the system is established, and I have been presenting my thinking in these terms. Use of the systems concept offers some advantages to curriculum planners. Past efforts to plan the

[20] William M. Alexander. "The Community Can Save Its High Schools from Mediocrity." *The Humanist* 31: 14-15; May/June 1971.

curriculum have tended to lose sight of the integral relationship of objectives and learning opportunities; in a systems approch the objectives are central in decision-making activities, including those major ones relating to learning opportunities. Past efforts to plan the curriculum have also tended to be piecemeal and fragmentary; in a systems approach the planners are concerned with the total process and try to utilize all appropriate data and deal with all relevant factors as they work out the steps to be taken to achieve their goals.

Yet if a systems approach is interpreted to necessitate the creation of a curriculum designing unit outside the school, whether an agency of the district or one contracted with by the district, I have extreme doubt as to its efficacy. It is the individual school center in which most important curriculum decisions must be made. Using all the help possible from external sources, it is still the school faculty and students who must come to grips with the realities of what objectives are real and attainable, what experiences are possible and fruitful, what materials and equipment are useful, what results are attained and not attained, and how to modify plans accordingly. In these planning operations at the school center certain principles of management and coordination seem most significant:

1. As already emphasized, it is the *student and his teacher-counselor* who must make decisions regarding his progress on his own personalized curriculum continuum. Whatever prescriptions and programs are available from outside sources, their choice and sequence is a highly individualized matter; and even vast storerooms of prescriptions and programs may not contain the really independent study guide that must be worked out with his teacher's help by the individual interested in exploring some question, hobby, issue, or task important to him.

2. The *teaching team*—whether interdisciplinary, intradisciplinary, or otherwise organized—should be in position to make fundamental decisions regarding the scope and sequence of learning opportunities within the particular domain for which team members are responsible. Especially important are their decisions as to the instructional modes they will use and when and how: individualized self-teaching, guided independent study, laboratory-type experience; group discussion, inquiry, and analysis, or combinations of these. Prior decisions, too, are critical at the team level; for example, a middle school team developing a curriculum plan in the domain of human relations must choose whether to use a subject design utilizing specific studies in the social sciences and humanities; a selection of persistent human relations problems and

issues; an analysis of the essential skills of human relations to be taught as the basis of activity and skills groups; a selection with students of individual interests and problems related to human relations in the classroom, school, or community; or others, including combinations of these. The decisions as to design of curriculum opportunities and implementation through instruction ultimately anticipate the entire range of the domain for this population.

3. The *school faculty and student body,* sometimes independently and sometimes working through jointly representative committees and councils, have many decisions to make regarding the curriculum plan. Unfortunately, most such decisions have too frequently been made on a crisis and perfunctory basis. Processes which involve advance preparation of position papers, work of task forces, and reports of experimentation and innovation can lift the level of faculty meetings. Student councils, too, need the stimulation of real decisions and opportunity for debate and study of the issues. The level of faculty and student decision making can be raised by use of the curriculum domain organization of the curriculum, as feedback and proposals concerning dynamic goals replace those concerning required and elective subjects and relative time allotments. It can also be raised by the leadership of the curriculum coordinator in promoting teacher initiative and providing for teacher collaboration in curriculum change.

4. The *curriculum council,* as a body representing all schools, levels, and curriculum domains and serving as a clearinghouse for interschool discussions and recommendations, remains a potent force in effective curriculum planning. Having helped to create one of the early such organizations in Battle Creek, Michigan, some 25 years ago, I am especially pleased to see its widespread use today and note with special interest its inclusion in a comprehensive treatment of a systems approach to curriculum renewal.[21]

The significance many school districts attach to the work of these councils is illustrated by a current nine-page statement defining the organization and structure of the "Central Curriculum Committee" in the Millburn Township, New Jersey, Public Schools; a summary statement describes well the general purpose and operations of such councils:

> The Central Curriculum Committee is a representative body of the elementary, junior, and senior high school faculties which meets once each month to plan in-service meetings, to consider proposals for initiating curriculum projects, and to make recommendations to the Superintendent of Schools regarding significant change in the curriculum. The Central Curriculum Committee is

[21] See: Feyereisen, Fiorino, and Nowak, *op. cit.,* Chapter 13.

aided in its work by commissions and subcommittees which, after intensive studies, make recommendations for action.[22]

My experience with these organizations suggests that the council's role does need clear definition, and that the council should have a major role in developing broad agreements to provide a framework for planning curriculum domains vertically for learners, from school entrance to exit. It also provides for the exchange between school centers of plans for experimentation, data as to projects under way and completed, and ideas for modifying goals and domains and developing new ones. Here too is the place to assess the potential of new curriculum projects and innovations for achieving the goals and contributing to the domains of the systems. A major problem of our early councils—the somewhat lethargic interest of many teachers and more parents in the curriculum—does not seem a drawback today. With the currently almost explosive interest in curriculum development, the problem may well be to maintain an orderly agenda and to make continued progress in curriculum improvement without interruptions and lost motion from ill-considered administrative pressure and board action.

This does not seem the setting in which to discuss the relationships of school districts, the state, the federal government, and other external but potent influences on curriculum planning. I see these relationships as having two principal bearings on the process described herein. In the first place, as already stated, the external controlling bodies necessarily and actually have great influence on the setting of educational goals and curriculum domains. Hopefully the final determination is within the local school district and even the individual school center, but the influence of the external bodies and forces is certainly to be expected and tolerated or, better, capitalized upon. In the second place, these external forces also have powerful resources to assist in the curriculum planning–implementation–evaluation cycle, and the availability of these resources is one of the primary facts to be known to curriculum planners. Not only dollars, which are indeed determinants of the curriculum, but curriculum models, resource persons, coordinating and clearinghouse services, research and other reports, instructional materials, and assessment programs are available from these sources, hopefully to be used as needed rather than as enforced by fiat.

Facilitating Curriculum Planning

Curriculum planning will be as it should be only as curriculum

[22] "Curriculum Development Program." Millburn, New Jersey: Millburn Township Public Schools, undated. p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

leaders and school administrators in general secure and provide the necessary support services. I would emphasize at least six types of support that seem especially critical.

1. *Staff development and collaboration.* Relatively few schools and fewer school districts have enough staff members experienced and qualified in the planning processes described to put these processes into full operation. Undoubtedly the quality of planning can be effectively improved through more deliberate staff development to this end. Student-teacher planning in the personal development domain, indeed of curriculum continuums in general, may well need to be carefully monitored by other teachers, counselors, and/or curriculum coordinators to help the novice teacher become proficient in diagnosis and prescription. Team planning by teachers previously accustomed to planning for their own classes only or by beginning teachers encounters many frustrations—sometimes so difficult that any real planning purposes are abandoned, and team teaching becomes "turn" teaching. Again, monitoring and helping by experienced team leaders and curriculum coordinators and principals may be essential to get planning off the ground. And a curriculum council does not share and disseminate, or lead in experimenting and innovating, by being told this is its function. In Battle Creek, as previously mentioned, the curriculum council was helped enormously by an elementary consultant who worked tirelessly with individual faculties and individual council members to bring about understanding of the council's task and cooperation in getting it done. It is the communication—and I do not mean manipulation—that goes on outside and in between council meetings that illuminates issues, stimulates discussion, and brings about the real sharing and moving forward that these organizations can contribute.

Another principle to be gleaned from past experience has operated in many successful curriculum planning situations: the influence of collaboration of teachers and other staff members in innovative programs. In Battle Creek, for example, we were involved in the program of the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation, and I am sure that there were no developments that moved curriculum planning forward more directly than the communication with consultants working in the several centers and the collaborative endeavors with teachers in other school districts. With all of the similar observations from the consortia of the past, such as the Eight-Year Study, the Southern Study, the Bureau of Intercultural Education, and others, and, more recently, the Title III centers, it is disappointing that so many school districts have continued to work in isolation, or at least for their

teachers to be in isolation from those in other districts, frequently nearby ones, engrossed in the same experimentation. It is not surprising, but it does confirm these observations, that the Kettering I/D/E/A League of Cooperating Schools found great strength in the cooperation of the professionals in the schools leagued together across district lines:

> In a League-type situation, however, most of the "consultants" are teachers and principals in the schools. Thus, the innovative program is shaped by cooperation among working classroom professionals who encounter similar practical problems day after day. If successful, they can offer help. If failing, they can call for help. They know, as that much-overworked word has it, that the help will be "relevant" to their daily classroom experiences.[23]

It would behoove the facilitators of curriculum planning to have their innovative staff members leagued with other teachers in other schools and even in other school districts. The isolation of an experimental group within a particular school center is inevitable as pilot approaches are used in the change process, but this isolation and the accompanying tendency to return to the norm of traditional practice can be overcome through the stimulus of association with other curriculum "pilots."

Another essential aspect of staff development for curriculum planning is that of preservice education. Admittedly many persons engaged in the education of teachers are far removed from actual curriculum planning processes of the schools, but many others do get involved. More careful definition of teams and roles within the teacher education institutions would help not only in utilizing the specialized skills and experiences of their staffs, but in the involvement of local school planning processes and planners. Certainly teachers in training should have some specific training modules in individual student diagnosis, counseling, and instruction, in team planning, in planning with groups of students, and in participation in a variety of school planning groups and curriculum councils.

2. *Curriculum leadership for the school center.* If curriculum planning is to be as major a concern of the individual school center as it should be, we can no longer evade the issue of providing curriculum leadership. I do not question the advisability of the larger district's having a curriculum director to lead in community involvement and curriculum council operation, and to provide advisement and resources for planning at the individual school center. Neither, however, do I

[23] I/D/E/A Annual Report, 1970. Dayton, Ohio: Institute for Development of Educational Activities, Inc., An Affiliate of the Charles F. Kettering Foundation, 1970. pp. 11-12.

question the absolute necessity of the individual school center's having on its staff, or at least sharing with a very few other schools within the really small district, a person with definitely specialized abilities in the various processes of curriculum planning.

Most past arguments for national curriculum planning, state and interstate controls and compacts, and other external, centralizing arrangements have justified their position by the paucity of qualified local leadership. The turnover to industry has some of the same rationale. Endless debates of the past over whether the leader should be the principal or a curriculum coordinator, the generalist or the specialist, have really not been on target. The crucial issue is whether the educational program of the school requires that some one qualified person be responsible for enlisting the resources, facilitating the processes, and advising the participants in planning, implementing, and evaluating the program. A "No" on this question is unthinkable, and it is high time that the training of qualified persons and their employment and assignment to individual school centers be accelerated. If the school district wishes to assign this responsibility to principals, then it must employ principals who have the necessary qualifications. If it is to be the curriculum coordinator, or one or more team or unit leaders, or some other position, again the problem is to identify the person with proper qualifications. The qualifications should include, as a minimum, training in group process, goal setting, team planning and teaching, use of instructional resources, individual counseling, curriculum theory and research, and community relations. Undoubtedly each controlling board would add to or otherwise change these qualifications to conform to the needs of the school district. My major suggestion is that we move toward providing a curriculum leader, whatever his title, for every school center, and focus on development of the necessary skills.

3. *Incentive funds and risk capital.* One of the assets of our curriculum council in Battle Creek in the late forties was the nearness of the Kellogg Foundation and its frequent contributions of funds to assist in-service education and experimental programs. During the years since, I have observed how frequently it was only the school district that had some extra funds that was able to develop a new thrust in curriculum improvement. Change was an extra and rare luxury! Title III has provided many districts with risk capital, and this has helped greatly in many places; but the most critical aid may be the relatively small grants made to individual experimenters and small units within a school center as incentive and support for a novel but promising project. The inclusion of these funds in the operating budget recognizes change

as an expected and desired goal of the system. Nolan Estes carried his experience with Title III from USOE to his superintendency in Dallas in the form of a "Pennies for Innovation" fund that gives many Dallas teachers and principals the little extra needed for a new improvement effort. I read with interest a report of the Curriculum Council in Great Neck, New York, on its administration of a research and development fund. The 1969-70 report annotated 11 projects in process and listed 22 that had been completed, with the Council's function described in these terms:

> The Council continues to consider, for possible recommendation to the Superintendent, innovative programs proposed by Building Faculty Curriculum Groups, individuals or groups of faculty members, students, and members of the community. For the purposes of implementing such recommendations, if they are accepted, it monitors a Research and Development Fund provided for in the school budget. It also receives interim reports and final evaluations of such projects.[24]

This is an interesting illustration of the utilization of a coordinating council (in Great Neck one including representatives of administration, teaching faculty, and high school student body) that actively guides curriculum improvement efforts through both clearinghouse services and special fund monitorship. Placing such responsibility for incentive funds in the hands of a major curriculum decision-making body gives it a still better chance to stimulate and guide needed changes.

4. *Data for decision making.* Too much of our curriculum planning in the past has relied on the opinions and experiences of the planners, with a paucity of data on which to base decisions. The curriculum council I once chaired in Battle Creek had none of the data from Title I, III, IV, and other federally-sponsored research increasingly available to councils today; neither did it have the opportunity to have immediate feedback from closed-circuit television, or to review its own actions via videotape, or to have its minutes taken by tape recording and reproduced by instant duplication! With today's resources in technology, surely we can do better.

The teacher-counselor helping his student to identify strengths and weaknesses and opportunities needs not only the usual cumulative record of the student, but much information about his learning style disability and ability, and preferences, as well as the full catalog of learning opportunities available. With computer printouts, rapid duplication services, and instantaneous communication facilities, counseling and the direction of personal development should be far less hit-and-miss than in

[24] "Curriculum Development Council, Annual Report, 1969-70." Great Neck, New York: Great Neck Public Schools, September 30, 1970. p. 14.

previous decades. The team teachers need not only their records and recollections of the students they teach, but much data about possible resources in school and community for developing their domain. The school faculty, and the student council and interlocking councils as well, can be guided in decisions by reports of experimentation within and outside the school, by polls of student and parent satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and by recommendations based on data studied by the school task forces and committees.

5. *Student and community involvement.* Throughout this discussion of curriculum planning as it should be, reference has been made to involvement, both extensive and intensive, of students, parents, and other adults in the curriculum planning process. It is believed that this more than any other change in curriculum planning may be the key to improved education. Successful involvement cannot be had for the asking, and many cautions have arisen from experiences of the past few years in decentralized administration, community participation, and student involvement developments. To me, these experiences indicate that changing involvement roles need to occur slowly but surely in particulars rather than as a dramatic overnight revolution. Granted that revolution may be forced upon us in some situations and that the time is all too short and the need very great in most, it is most of all important for involvement to be successful and to be ever-widening. If, as Macdonald told us in the NSSE Yearbook excerpt previously cited, the schools do not trust students, basic trust will not come through some overnight change in policy and organization. Small and hopefully peaceful confrontations, in which mutual success is experienced and mutual confidence is developed, would seem the proper approach. At the University of Florida, a continuing action conference with representation from students, faculty, and administrators was able to identify many students' concerns and take appropriate actions regarding them before the wave of unrest hit other institutions. Might such patterns of joint study be the basis for more widespread student involvement?

As to parent and community involvement, the major suggestion here is action by the administration to create small advisory councils corresponding to the curriculum domains. Whatever their title and number in a particular school community, it would seem highly appropriate for representatives of the school community to be fully involved in the planning of curriculum opportunities relating to the major goals of personal development, continued learning skills, human relations, and specialization. Indeed, it is unlikely that a school center could get very far in planning effective curriculum opportunities in the human

relations and specialization domains without extensive cooperation from the community, and certainly parent and community resources help is needed with the other domains.

6. *Specialized services.* Closely tied as curriculum planning must be to the mainstream of students and faculty, it does involve highly specialized services. In addition to the technological aid required for data processing and for information retrieval systems in general, the curriculum planning groups need much help in each step of the process. Even if the domains are set at another level, the school curriculum planning groups will need assistance in clarifying the scope of each domain and in extending their knowledge of the possible learning opportunities related to each. Specialists in each domain may need to be trained or recruited within the school district. The explication of objectives within the domain and at the level of their students' continuums also requires much help, as school districts requiring the preparation of behavioral objectives have found. The importance of the objective-learning linkage is so great that the formulation of specific objectives cannot be left to publishers, contractors, and exchanges. Even in planning their instructional modes for implementation of the curriculum plan, teachers will continue to need help in attaining the skills prerequisite to the modes I have suggested as best alternatives for the foreseeable future: individualized self-teaching, guided independent study, laboratory type experience, group discussion, inquiry and analysis, and combinations of these.

And it is within the curriculum evaluation cycle that planners require specially expert services, for few teachers as yet have acquired the skills involved. If the curriculum leader cannot provide the necessary expertise, specialized services of a research and evaluation unit may be essential. In fact there seems much reason for such a unit to be established in most district curriculum offices. Whether this unit should be external to the curriculum organization for the purposes of independent audits seems to me an unnecessary question; granted that objectivity is desired in evaluation, the inextricable relationship of evaluation to planning is also a factor to be considered. Cannot we assume sufficient professional integrity to employ our own auditors, expecting them to use defensible techniques, but also expecting the immediate and full use of feedback from the evaluations with the active collaboration of the planners and the evaluators, if these must be different persons?

Specialized services are essential, too, in the dissemination of curriculum plans and releases about them. Recently I have been examining a sampling of curriculum guides—as any of us can do by visiting the

exhibit at the ASCD annual conference—and have been much impressed by the variety of materials developed within school districts and the relatively good quality of many. From one school district—Jefferson County, Kentucky—I have even received a manual on "Curriculum Writing," and it seems to me to be a very good idea for the school district to give its curriculum planners some minimum guidelines as to format and style of their written plans. Much as we may have been distressed by the specificity of earlier directions for preparing lesson plans and statements of specific objectives, and the more recent behavioral objectives binge, the importance in curriculum planning of objectives and plans does support the need for instruction as to their preparation, so long as the quality of the plan rather than the format of its presentation takes priority.

Yet my suggestion regarding dissemination has most to do with the need for very specialized help in writing, illustrating, and editing materials for use by students, parents, and community personnel. Schools continue to handicap their own fine aims and efforts by sending home poorly prepared statements and by giving students poor models of writing and worse communication of instructions, regulations, and plans. As the school center moves to openness and to involvement of the personnel of the community, it simply must provide specific and lucid statements about its aims, its programs, its needs, and its requests. Curriculum planning as it should be must be interpreted fully and well; probably one of the qualifications of the curriculum leader must be in the area of editing and writing, as well as other forms of communication.

From Curriculum Planning As Is to As It Should Be

Curriculum planning in our schools today ranges from being practically nonexistent in far too many schools to incorporation of perhaps all I have suggested and even more in far too few. I see no shortcuts to closing this gap. What is needed most of all is a reaffirmation of faith in the learner and his teacher as the focus of planning, and in the potential of the individual school center as the locus of its most significant phases. If we can work diligently within these beliefs to develop the requisite services, leadership, and staff development, with a much fuller involvement of students and community and a much wiser use of technology, perhaps the millennium in curriculum planning is closer than it seems. Redefinition of educational goals and curriculum domains, more critical use of objectives and learning opportunities, more feedback from trial and error, and especially more cooperative endeavor of professionals, citizens, and students, seem required. To secure these steps,

would that we could call a moratorium on anger and dissension within and outside the schools; since we cannot, I propose that the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development and every other interested professional organization—and, indeed, every professional—disseminate in every way feasible positive suggestions and aids for use of what we already know and what more we can discover about curriculum planning as it should be. This paper represents one small step by one ASCDer to this end.

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