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ABSTRACT

                The essays in this collection are designed to provide
an overview of the most pressing issues and ideas with which English
teachers contend today and will contend in the near future. The
contributors, 22 English teachers and educators, have attempted to
view change in a sufficiently broad perspective to enable them to
make responsible predictions about the 1980s, taking into account the
social and economic variables that will necessarily affect the United
States during this time. Titles of the essays reflect concerns for
the following topics: (1) writing and the English curriculum: (2)
literature study in the 1980s; (3) language and the English
curriculum: (4) holonomic knowing (a very generalized model of
holistic learning): (5) oral English and the literacy imperative: (6)
reading and the teaching of English: (7) the basics in the 1980s: (8)
English in the elementary and middle schools: (9) the training of
English teachers in the 1980s: (10) the media, media literacy, and
the English curriculum: (11) computer-assisted English instruction:
(12) English as a second language in the 1980s: (13) English and
vocational education: (14) dealing with sexual stereotypes; (15)
English for minority groups, for the gifted and talented, and for the
handicapped; and (16) needed research in the teaching of English.
(RL)

Education in the 80's:

80's:

ENGLISH

R. Baird Shuman
Editor
University of Illinois, Urbana/Champaign

Classroom Teacher Consultant
Judith Cantera
High School English Teacher
Pullman, Washington
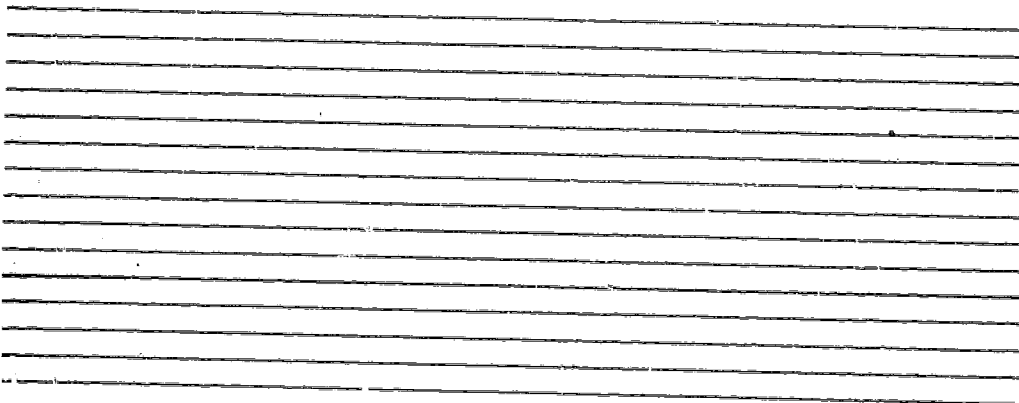
National Education Association
Washington, D.C.

2

The Advisory Panel

Margaret J. Early, Associate Dean, School of Education, Syracuse University, New York

Melvin Graham, Reading Resource Teacher, Bruceton–Brandonville Elementary School, Bruceton Mills, West Virginia

Fay Louise Grindstaff, Professor of Education, Department of Secondary Education, California State University, Northridge

Julie M. Jensen, Associate Professor of Curriculum and Instruction, The University of Texas at Austin

Joseph O. Milner, Chairperson, Department of Education, Wake Forest University, Winston-Salem, North Carolina

Stanley Morse, English Chairperson, C.M. Russell High School, Great Falls, Montana

Frederick B. Tuttle, Jr., Associate Professor, State University of New York, Brockport

Sherry Curtis Vaughn, Ph.D. Candidate, University of Arizona, Tucson, and Title I Consultant at Indian Oasis School District, Papago Indian Reservation

Alice A. Parsons Walner, Wootton High School, Rockville, Maryland

Nancy M. Wells, San Pedro High School, California

William W. West, Professor, College of Education, University of South Florida, Tampa

In memory of

RICHARD FRANKLIN POWERS

5 March 1926—6 November 1978

Children mattered in his life
and
he mattered in the lives of children

Note

Acknowledgments

Contents

6

Editor

R. Baird Shuman is Professor of English and Director of English Education at the University of Illinois at Urbana/Champaign. Among the numerous books he has written are *Elements of Early Reading Instruction, Strategies in Teaching Reading: Secondary,* and (with Robert J. Krajewski) *The Beginning Teacher: A Practical Guide to Problem Solving,* published by NEA.

Classroom Teacher Consultant

Judith Cantera is a high school English teacher in Pullman, Washington.

7

As teachers we are aware of the explosion of knowledge that has occurred during this century. While we realize that individual mastery of the immense, rapidly expanding body of knowledge that is our heritage is no longer possible, we know that our students must acquire skills that will enable them to continue to learn throughout their lives. However, a less frequently discussed, but no less important, consequence of this phenomenon is the need for teachers to continually expand their own knowledge and skills.

The 70's has left us an awesome legacy. As English teachers we are asked to offer students a vision of a multicultural society in which advancement will be based on individual achievement rather than on sex, race, or wealth. Yet we live in a society that is still debating the merits of ERA, busing, and affirmative action; a society in which 20 percent of the population owns 80 percent of the national wealth. We are asked to help all students develop their highest capabilities at their own pace. Yet we work within a lock-step system extending from kindergarten through grade 12 and leading to "higher education." We are asked to help students appreciate the unique capabilities and contributions of all individuals, of all cultures, of standard English as well as of dialects, of languages other than English. Yet we must evaluate our students on their ability to pass minimum competency tests of grammar, mechanics, and usage of standard English. We are asked to prepare students to live productively in a society that receives and transmits much of its information through radios, televisions, films, telephones, and computers. Yet we must still regard classroom televisions, films, and tapes as supplementary materials, unnecessary frills. We are employees of large institutions during a time when many people have lost faith in institutions. We live in a society characterized by mobility and change during a time when a sizeable portion of our population longs for a return to an idyllic past. We are preparing youth for the future during a time when increasing numbers of young people choose suicide. We are teachers of language during a time when James Britton, in his *Language*

and Learning, tells us that we have outgrown the traditional symbols of the family, tribe, or nation that formerly helped young people find a meaningful position in adult society.

What, then, is the role of the English teacher? Should we attempt to recreate the past—study the classics; teach traditional grammar; assign five-paragraph themes; create an orderly world that bears li' ɘ relationship to the world in which our students must live? Should we live in an eternal present—write letters and journals; teach the latest television show; read the current best seller; examine popular presentations of problems with drugs, divorce, and discrimination; offer students a collage from which to construct their own order? Fortunately, there is another alternative—for the 70's has left us not only the chaos of a displaced tradition but also exciting possibilities for the future. A new vision of our society, our achievements, our responsibilities, our future is emerging as we see, hear, read, and write about ourselves as citizens of the "global village." And English teachers who are trained to develop language skills as well as an appreciation of our linguistic heritage are particularly well prepared to help young people synthesize the old and the new to form symbols that will be capable of providing goals and security in this world.

And how can EDUCATION IN THE 80's: ENGLISH help in this task? It is neither a catechism nor a cookbook. It does, however, provide an overview of the most pressing issues and ideas with which English teachers contend today and will contend in the near future. Each author is vitally concerned with one of these issues, presenting a personal view and often suggesting classroom strategies as well. These articles should stimulate us to begin to weave our own configuration for the 80's, to link the experience of the various authors to our own experience, to elaborate new patterns as we weave these ideas into the cloth of our own lives in classrooms with young people. I especially hope that this book will suggest areas for teachers to continue to explore as they realize their vision of the future for and with their students in the 80's.

Judith Cantera
High School English Teacher
Pullman, Washington

In the face of the eons, a decade is rather like a drop of water in a huge ocean, a quantity almost too small to be noted. Nevertheless, in terms of human existence, the degree of change that can take place in a decade may be very great indeed. Ever-expanding technology has made some elements of human existence in 1980 drastically different from similar elements in 1970. For example, during the 1970's the miniaturization of some computer components, along with a substantial reduction in their cost, has made computer technology much more a part of the lives of most of the people who will be reading EDUCATION IN THE 80's: ENGLISH than it was a decade ago. And because of advances in neurophysiology we now have much more information about how the human mind operates and about how people learn.

Within the lifetimes of many readers of this book, television has changed from a curiosity with very limited programming to a part of the daily lives of nearly everyone. As recently as 1945, the town with three televisions was a rarity in the heartland of the United States; today the home with three televisions is not regarded as unusual. The educational implications of this single change are enormous. Television has brought the whole world into our homes, placing untold varieties of experience within easy reach. But even as this has happened, television has been accused of producing a generation of TV junkies who are passive rather than active, who spend half their lives watching rather than doing, and who, according to some, cannot read, write, or communicate adequately because of what television has done to them. Certainly one would not deny that the improper use of any medium of communication can cause disastrous effects; however, one must also approach the problem with an historical perspective that includes knowledge of the fact that when books first came to be readily available, many people predicted that the universities would be driven out of business because no one would attend lectures when they could buy them in printed form and read them.

The contributors to EDUCATION IN THE 80's: ENGLISH have attempted to view change in a sufficiently broad perspective to enable them to make responsible predictions about the 1980's, taking into account the social and economic variables that will necessarily affect the United

States during this time. Crystal balls are at best cloudy objects, but a few generalizations can be made about the crystal ball gazers who contributed to the present effort.

Glimmering through most of the contributions is a fundamental concern and respect for the learner. Although the learner remains central in most of the chapters herein, it is apparent that English teachers in the 1980's will continue to be viewed as the people who are expected to teach the basic skills of literacy. Competency-based testing and calls for accountability will continue to influence English departments at all levels. The back-to-the-basics movement continues to grow, despite the fact that it is often based on narrow interpretations, outright falsehoods about how people learn, and a lack of knowledge of who constitutes school populations in a society that mandates compulsory attendance until the age of 16 or 17; this trend has been encouraged by the popular media, and those who control the pursestrings of our educational institutions cannot ignore the outcry—nor should they.

Among those contributors addressing the basics movement, Tate reminds readers, "The trick . . . is somehow to avoid letting our changing world so confuse us that we lose sight of what it is that we are about as teachers of English." O'Donnell calls for more research on what is basic and on how the legitimate basics can best be taught. One can only hope that his reasoned plaint will be heeded by those best able to undertake the sort of research for which he is calling. Samples calls for teachers to move away from reductionist attitudes toward students and their work; rather, he urges teachers to concern themselves with trying to develop what students know and can do rather than with attempting to find out what students cannot do and humiliating them for their deficiencies.

Duke, Law, Wolfe, Heneghan, Gibbs, Guffin, and McHugh suggest ways of reaching the diverse clientele of today's educational institutions, elaborating on how to benefit from all that a pluralistic society has to offer without allowing the pluralism of that society to be divisive to its members. Cleaver, Morrow, and Powers discuss some ways in which the new technologies can be used to broaden the range of education in English classes. Morrow also concerns himself with the "new literacy," media literacy, which is a step beyond mere visual literacy. It is really a logical extension of the kinds of literacy that Murray and Palmer write about in their respective chapters on writing and reading, and it is closely related in many ways to the oral English with which Klein is concerned in his chapter. Goodman discusses the centrality of language study in the English curriculum, and Hipple writes of the changes taking place in the literature component of English classes as adolescent litera-

ture comes to be an important genre unto itself, a phenomenon that has occurred essentially in the 1970's and that shows signs of gaining in significance during the 1980's.

Tiedt and Golub focus on the teaching of English in the elementary school and the middle school, respectively, and Shuman addresses the question of how English teachers might best be trained in the 1980's. In these chapters, much emphasis is placed on the learners as they relate to the subject matter rather than on the subject matter that must be imposed on the learners. Gamble takes a broad overview of where the profession is going and identifies writing as the single most important area of English instruction in the 80's.

In what is probably the broadest chapter of the book, Samples tells of recent brain research, going into some of the geography of the human brain and into what increased knowledge of the brain's physiology means for learners and for teachers. Because brain research may soon have a profound effect on all learning and teaching, this chapter on holonomic knowing has striking implications for all educators, not for English teachers alone.

No effort has been made to select persons with similar outlooks to contribute to this book. Rather people have been asked to contribute because they have some special expertise in the subject under discussion, in their chapters. As a result, statements in some chapters may, indeed, be contradictory to statements in other chapters. Dissent is wholly appropriate in a volume of this kind, and the editor made no attempt to minimize it.

A time for renewal is upon us. The editor and the contributors hope that EDUCATION IN THE 80's: ENGLISH may suggest to its readers means of renewing themselves as the enthusiastic professionals whom they are.

R. Baird Shuman

Writing and the English Curriculum:
Out of Silence, a Voice

Donald M. Murray

Stephanie Swift caught Aldon Stern watching her through the classroom door. High school students bugged her these days, but Aldon did not. She couldn't get through to him at all. He was one of those who just glowered at life—"absolute" the students would call him in 1986's cliché.

She made herself finish the last sip of coffee and put the thermos in the drawer. She wasn't going to waste twelve-dollar-a-pound coffee even if she'd put it through her new aerator, and she wasn't going to give up having at least one cup of coffee before she started teaching in a classroom that was 43 degrees. It was February, only two months now to spring. The classroom would warm up later with body heat, but this was Monday morning, 8:00 A.M.

The bell sounded in the dimly lit corridor, and she opened the door. Aldon Stern lumbered by her, and she stood back against the chalk-board trying to figure out where she would put chairs for the six students she'd gotten from Mike Hanna's class. It had been a long time since they'd hired a new teacher when one left.

"What time did you get home last night?" Agatha asked.

"One, I guess, or later," Stephanie replied.

Agatha's mother was on the union negotiating committee and spent hours trying to figure out how to force the city to hire another teacher.

13

They decided there was nothing to be done. Stephanie didn't know why she bothered to serve. But no one could afford to strike, not in 1986.

"Here's more dummies."

Stephanie turned to the door and saw a hulking student who could have been Aldon's brother smiling at her. He was carrying a folding chair. She'd gotten used to the bulky sweaters over sweaters that the students wore, and even the mittens that most of them wore in class, but this was the first time extra students had showed up carrying their own folding chairs. The boy moved in followed by five others. They looked at the classroom with her; there weren't any rows any more, just a mass of students.

"That makes 52," she heard herself saying out loud. "Shove my desk over there in the corner by the window and line your chairs up under the chalkboard."

"We going to teach?" said the new boy on the end.

"Perhaps you will." She tried to smile.

I don't know how I can teach this many students writing, she thought. I can't sit behind my desk any more, not and see all the Aldons. "Eye contact," they'd said when she'd been an English education major in the 60's. That seemed a century ago. At 5 feet, 3 inches I'll end up standing on the desk to make eye contact, Stephanie thought.

"Okay," she said to the new students, "You're at the chalkboard; why don't you teach us what you know about writing?"

They just looked sullenly at her. Every time you get a class working, you get new students and have to start over again.

"I know that sounded sarcastic; I didn't mean it to. We teach each other in this class. The students in the class teach me about my writing and I teach some of them about theirs, I hope."

"You write, too?"

"Yes," and she waited, wondering where she learned to wait. It was a lot earlier than that summer program back in the 70's when she learned to write with her students. And then she thought she couldn't do it, not with five classes of 25 students, but she did. Yet this class would make her total class load more than 300 students.

"Well, it's got to be neat," said one of the new students, a thin, intense girl. "Margins and no words not spelled right. You know, the basic stuff."

"Speak up." A voice from the rear. It sounded like Aldon, but he was usually asleep by now.

The girl looked startled, and Stephanie laughed, "I've told them to do that to me. Speak right out. It's noisy in here just with all of us breathing."

14

The girl smiled, jumped up, hesitated, and then turned to the chalk-board behind her. She folded up her chair and started printing neatly. "Neatness," she drew a line under that, and then under that she put "straight margins, good penmanship, punctuation, correct spelling, topic paragraph, topic sentences, order."

The class started to snicker, and Stephanie held up her hand. It was a good thing that Mike Hanna had gone into the army, like so many other teachers. No loss. He'd be a better drill sergeant than a teacher.

A voice boomed out from the back of the room, "That's not writing."

Stephanie turned to quiet him for the moment, but the new girl was being defended by one of the five sitting in front of the chalkboard. "Of course it is. Writing is communicating. You want to get a job, you gotta make it neat."

Stephanie thought that she was getting too old for this. At 43 she'd heard all the arguments and heard them all a hundred times.

"Make what neat?" asked Rebecca.

Stephanie smiled. She once thought that Rebecca never paid attention. She always sat by the window, looking out on the urban landscape of construction halted years ago, as if a mad king had blown a whistle. Every time she looked out the window, Stephanie saw the crane rusting, an artifact from a lost civilization in which she'd lived.

"What do you mean *what*?" said the first new guy.

I was going to get their names before class started. I've got to fill out those forms. We shouldn't have students teaching students, not until the forms are filled out, Stephanie thought.

"The *what* is what it's all about."

"I don't know the *what*."

Aldon boomed, "That's what the problem is. You gotta have a *what* before you have all this other stuff."

Stephanie felt the eyes of all the new students looking at her. She could see that they felt that this was absolutely crazy, and she wanted to tell them that she would have felt the same way once, when she'd been more interested in teaching than in learning.

"The *what* is what you have to say." A quiet voice from the middle of the class. Yes, it must be Norma. "You have to have something to say before you can make it neat, that's all. Neatness is okay, but it comes at the end of the process."

"I don't understand." It was Ms. Neat again, the one who wrote on the board. "You have the *what*. You do the assignment."

"What assignment?" Rebecca asked.

"You know, in the anthology book. You read the story and then

you tell the teacher what he, I mean she, wants." Suddenly the new girl look guiltily at Stephanie, who hoped her face was blank.

"Awh. That's not writing, that's testing."

Stephanie thought of all the research that was being done—good research into how the brain works and what the writing process is and how language is used. They kept discovering more and more things that the students knew if you listened to them and if you didn't teach them too much. She looked at the desk and knew what the envelope at the corner of the desk said. Next year she'd be assigned to advanced classes. She had the seniority now and she could be part of the new elitism. No more kids who called themselves "dummies," who knew there were no jobs out there for them. When was it that they started the new small classes for the brightest students and dumped the rest on the baby sitters who didn't have enough seniority to teach first track students? She'd even liked the idea when the new School Committee decided not to have most of the students taught. "We have limited resources and we have to concentrate them on the students who can take best advantage of them." It made sense. Something was needed to stop the terminal recession. And if she did take the new assignment, it would mean fewer students and more money.

"What do you mean there are no assignments in this class? What do you do, nothin'?"

"Doesn't she get called up before the Competency Board for not teaching nothin'?"

Stephanie smiled at the double negative. Back in the 70's she would have jumped on him for the error. Not any more, not in front of this class anyway.

"In this class we find our own subjects. We write something that is important to us." Stephanie remembered when Ron couldn't find anything to write about; now he was lecturing the new kids. "We write in our own voice, and then we make it neat."

"You write about anything?"

"Anything, if it's important and worth writing about. You decide."

"And you learn a lot, more than that other stuff," Rebecca said. "We read it and rewrite it after we've read it."

Stephanie kept feeling she should move in and take charge. That was the trouble with her classes; they never gave her a chance to teach. She thought of Aldon who usually slept and Ruth who couldn't write a shopping list and Albert who spelled his own name with an *e* one day and a *u* another, but especially Aldon because he got to her. He looked at her as if he knew something about her that wasn't very nice.

There was a noise in the classroom, and she realized Aldon was

16

pushing his way through the chairs and moving diagonally through the class, right at her. He came and sat beside her on the desk. "I know how you feel. We are all dummies—low track. You know how we get dumped on. I didn't like this class; I didn't trust you." He nodded at Stephanie, and she wondered if she blushed. "But I'll show you how this class works. I got a piece of writing, and I need help on it."

Stephanie was aware of the quiet. It was February, and Aldon had never published before. Every once in a while, in the few conferences she could get in, there would seem to be a glimpse of something in a paper, just a line or two, but when she tried to respond to it, he'd grow sullen and glower at her.

"Listen, this is just a draft." Aldon glared at the class. "I know it isn't right yet, but I need some help, I think. I mean, I think there may be something there, but I just wrote it last night late."

"The rule, Aldon," Rebecca laughed.

Aldon glared at her, and Stephanie said to the new students, "Disraeli, an English politician and writer said, 'Never explain,' and we make it a rule never to explain before we read."

Aldon took his pages in his two fists and opened his mouth. Nothing came out. He cleared his throat; it sounded like a Saint Bernard, "Harumph, harumph." Then glaring at the page he started to read.

My dad couldn't go in to see her nights. He had to work, so I spent the nights in the hospital by her bed. I can see her face still. The light was soft, a night light, but the shadows on her face hard, the face was sharp and sunken. She'd lost a lot of weight. She'd been a big woman, but she'd gotten so light I could carry her when she was still home. She laughed about that, or tried to.

We talked of my married sisters, of Dad and that job he hated, yes, the beer and what he'd do. What I'd do. It wasn't hard, talking to someone who's dying. You don't understand if you haven't done it. At least it wasn't hard for me, not like I expected it to be. She was dying and she knew it and she knew I knew it. It was easier then when we all knew it.

One night I was just sitting there, holding her hand and I didn't feel nothing. I was thinking of football, I don't think I dozed off. She kidded me when I did that. Once I fell off the chair. Another time I put my head down and slept sorta' on her bed, but when I looked back to her there was no pain. She was smiling and all those pain lines were gone. When my sister June's baby first smiled they told me it was gas, but not with Mother. That was a real smile and it wasn't sad at all. Not then. I went to the nurse and then called Dad off the night shift. He cried, but I couldn't. I told him how pretty a dying it was, so peaceful she was. No pain no more.

The class was silent, and Aldon looked up from the paper at last. He glowered around the room, looking at each face. Stephanie watched him. He could outglower anyone. Slowly his face turned to her, and she felt herself hold out her hand. He looked down, puzzled, and then grabbed it. Her hand seemed to disappear in his paw. Maybe it was gone forever. Then it was being pumped up–down, up–down. She had never known why he'd slept in class. She didn't think anyone in the school had known about Aldon's mother.

"That was a nice piece of work, Aldon. I'm so sorry to hear about your mother."

"Yeah. Well," he shrugged. "It was good to write about it I guess. But I want to make it better."

"You know it's good," Stephanie said. They watched the class nodding Yes together.

"I guess. No, I know. For me anyway."

"For any of us."

"Well, I'd still like to know what I can do."

"Maybe you could start nearer the end," Rebecca said. "Weave that stuff in the beginning in later."

"Yeah, if you start near the end," Ron added, "Remember on Anne's paper and Steve's how you had more suspense."

"And give us more information." That was the new girl, Ms. Neat. "If you're willing to tell us. I'd like to know more. My father was sick —he got well—and I wondered."

"I didn't tell you too much?" Aldon asked.

"No. Not enough really," said Paul. "I mean, I guess I was really moved because it was your mother. I mean, I like you and I'm sorry. But I don't really see her, what she'd looked like. I mean, if you're willing to tell."

"Yeah, I guess. I mean I think people ought to know what death is like. We're all gonna do it."

There were a few nervous laughs, but Aldon didn't glower at them. "Yeah, that's all right. Death can be funny, or things around it anyway can be funny."

The bell rang and everyone swept up their books and started out of the room. The new kids folded up their chairs and she started to call them back and get their names for the record. Never mind—she'd get them tomorrow, and she'd have conferences with the new ones while the class wrote or worked in groups with peer leaders. She wondered if any parent cared that high school students were doing so much teaching. Probably not. The new students might have the idea that you had to have a mother die to write a paper. She'd get them thinking about

their own world, whatever it was like. There would be time, and that was good because it took time.

Stephanie picked up the letter from the principal about next year's assignment as the new class poured into the room, trying to push between the rows of crowded chairs to their seats. She wrote on the letter, "Thanks for the opportunity, but I think I'll stay where I am, for another year anyway." She folded the letter and put it in the envelope. The other teachers would think her crazy.

"Hey, Ms. Swift, who's gonna teach today?"

"Not me. You want to try?"

Literature Study in the 80's:
A Look at the Possibilities

Theodore W. Hipple

The future of literature study in grades 7–12 ultimately comes down to two questions: What ought to be taught? How should we teach it? In this regard literature differs from a number of other secondary school subjects like drivers' training, social dancing, bookkeeping, and even, in some schools, grammar, in which a prior question, a "why," exists: Why should we teach it? No uncertainty exists in relation to literature study. Teachers, students, parents, and the public at large agree, though perhaps with varying intensity, that the study of literature in the schools is good. It makes sense, merits its place, and deserves to be maintained and enriched.

Together we embrace certain tenets about the study of literature. We believe that literature is fun, enjoyable, a source of pleasure for students in school and for the adult community they will soon join. We believe that literature provides a record of humankind's yearnings, achievements, and failures and that today's students can learn much about themselves by examining in literature the struggles of others. We believe that the study of literature not only typically affords but, indeed, almost universally forces an exploration of values, both those to be discovered in the literature and those to be developed in its readers. We believe that literature can be a moral force, an instrument that has the potential to benefit humankind in important ways. We believe in

the utilitarian aspects of literature study, in its power to make us better readers. And finally we believe that literature can often be art, a glorious rendering into language of imaginative and significant vision, a subject that richly rewards its careful and continuing study.

No reason now exists to support a contention that these principles will be less firmly held in the 80's. Even giving the deserved nod to the expanding world of technology, one can still assume that literature study will be a dominant part of the secondary English curriculum in the 80's. It is too important, too humanizing not to be. But both the "what" and the "how" of literature study will undergo transformations of some dimension. Students of 1990 are likely to study a somewhat different literature and to study it somewhat differently than did students of 1980.

But before progressing with first the "what" and then the "how" of this literature study of the 80's, I must offer a few caveats, in part for self-protection in case my predictions ultimately prove to be excessively wide of the mark. One caution deals with the nature of educational change—an intermittent, inconsistent, almost (it seems) random process. Schools 30 miles apart can be 30 years apart. The innovation of school A is the time-honored tradition of school B. The new method described in *The English Journal* is adopted by one teacher, rejected by a second, never seen by a third. Moreover, when one focuses prediction rather narrowly, on, in the specific case here, the study of literature in the decade of the 80's, the great and grave possibility exists that forces external and unrelated to literature study will render all predictions useless or absurd. For example, school finance controls far more than simply the study of literature, but it does, to a large degree, control that, too. The presence or, more likely, the absence of money for new short story texts, for field trips to see a production of *Death of a Salesman*, for a remedial reading teacher, for records or films, or for a host of other things can have a dramatic effect on the study of literature. So, too, can state mandates, which, at the time of this writing, virtually ignore literature, though at the same time they force teachers away from it to increase their concentration on sometimes ill-chosen "basic" skills.

THE EXPANDED SOURCES OF LITERATURE

Adolescent Literature

Changes in the "what" of literature study will result more from addition than from substitution. That is to say, most of what is studied in literature classes today will still be studied tomorrow, but there will

21

be more as well. Several broad fields will be added to the standard literature program and, indeed, already are in many schools. (Remember, what may be a breakthrough at one school is old hat at another.) The largest and most comprehensive of these fields is adolescent literature. Adolescent literature has clearly come of age; it is alive and well and living in many teen-agers' libraries, if not always in their English classrooms. Publishers now have young adult departments. The National Council of Teachers of English includes an assembly group, ALAN (the Assembly on Literature for Adolescents of NCTE), which has over 1,500 members. Teachers informed about adolescent literature know Judy Blume's books can go through a school faster than news of an unexpected holiday.

Several reasons can be offered to support the prediction that adolescent literature will play an increasingly important role in the English curriculum of the 80's. First, there is constantly more of it. Publishers are realizing that it sells—to students who buy it in bookstores, to teachers who buy it in class sets, to Hollywood producers who buy it for movie possibilities. What was nobody's child in the publishing world, a misfit that floated from the children's department to the adult division, now has a room of its own. And its own editors and promotional personnel.

Secondly, adolescent literature continues to improve as a subgenre of contemporary fiction. Its authors include writers of the first rank. The best definition of adolescent literature is that it is literature written *for* adolescents, whether about them or not, and a number of really outstanding writers have made that audience their particular goal. I mentioned Judy Blume earlier; her books include *Are You There, God? It's Me, Margaret* and the enormously popular *Forever.* Robin Brancato has written *Winning* and *Blinded by the Light.* Few readers, teen-ager or otherwise, if once they begin, fail to finish Robert Cormier's *The Chocolate War, I Am the Cheese,* and *After the First Death* or Sue Ellen Bridgers' *Home Before Dark.* Books by Bette Greene *(Summer of My German Soldier),* Sandra Scoppetone *(The Late Great Me),* M.E. Kerr *(Gentlehands),* and Richard Peck *(Father Figure)* represent a much higher quality of fiction than that found in the so-called teen-age novels of the 50's and 60's. There are even adolescent books that show signs of becoming "young adult classics," to be read by each new wave of young students; these are best typified by Paul Zindel's *Pigman,* S.E. Hinton's *Outsiders,* and Ann Head's *Mr. and Mrs. Bo Jo Jones.* Though these three are now a decade old, their popularity shows no signs of waning. With adolescent literature of such significant quality now abundant, English teachers no longer need to feel they are slumming or robbing Friday's free reading material when they teach it.

Thirdly, today's adolescent literature deals in immediate ways with today's adolescent problems. To mention all the books and all the problems would be too much, but here are some representative ones: teen-age drunkenness in Scoppetone's *Late Great Me;* teen-age sex, explicitly and graphically portrayed, in Klein's *It's OK If You Don't Love Me* and Blume's *Forever;* rape in Peck's *Are You in the House Alone?;* divorce in Danziger's *Pistachio Prescription;* homosexuality in Scoppetone's *Trying Hard to Hear You* and Holland's *Man Without a Face;* alienation in Cormier's *The Chocolate War;* religious sects in Brancato's *Blinded by the Light;* drugs in the anonymously written *Go Ask Alice;* pregnancy and abortion in Head's *Mr. and Mrs. Bo Jo Jones* and Zindel's *My Darling, My Hamburger;* psychosis in Guest's *Ordinary People* and Neufeld's *Lisa Bright and Dark.* This list, both of the problems and of the books that deal with them, could go on and on, but the point is already evident: adolescent literature has gone well beyond hand-holding and the trauma associated with taking a "C" on a report card home to a stern but ultimately forgiving parent. The summation may well be that if teen-agers experience it, authors for teen-agers will write about it.

Other reasons exist for the emergence of adolescent literature as a prominent aspect of the English program. Adolescent novels are typically short and are written on levels that less able students can handle. Many teachers are now turning to such books as a source of required reading in common. Where formerly all class members read, discussed, took a test on, and wrote a theme about *A Tale of Two Cities,* they now engage in these same activities with Swarthout's *Bless the Beasts and Children* or Robert Peck's *A Day No Pigs Would Die.* The trend seems likely to continue and to grow. Moreover, there is now the Hollywood connection: adolescent books have been made into television movies and have been successful there. To name but three: Blume's *Forever,* Greene's *Summer of My German Soldier,* and Schwartz's *Like Mother, Like Me.*

It is important to reiterate that this use of adolescent literature in English studies will not be reserved for Friday reading days "when all the serious literature has already been completed" or for book reports, as was frequently the case in the past. Rather, such literature will be studied in class, alongside of (or in place of) *Huck Finn* or *Great Expectations.* Teachers are discovering and will continue to discover that they can teach the elements of a novel or explore literary evaluation or conduct values clarification activities almost as well with Bowers' *November, December* as with Bronte's *Jane Eyre,* with the added benefit that fewer students experience reading difficulties. Teachers will accept that the "what" of students' reading is less critical than the "that." It is urgent *that* students read. If they read and profit from the study of adolescent

literature in the high school, they may well go on to become lifelong readers and, by example and instruction, to make readers of their children. On the other hand, if they are bored or mystified by the study of literature that seems beyond them, they may do less reading or none at all in their adult lives.

Television/Movie Literature

The English curriculum of the 80's will also include the greater study of television literature. One incomparably valuable source of literature study will be the continuing and expanding practice of putting the great classics on television. The PBS Shakespeare series offers the most praiseworthy example. *Hamlet* in the 80's will be read and then watched and then re-read—in short, truly studied—because of its showing on PBS. Other shows on PBS represent superior literary and cinematic achievement, too: *Masterpiece Theatre, American Short Stories, Once Upon a Classic.* Surely more and more teachers will come to value such shows as these, not simply because they depict literature but also because they *are* literature.

Then there are the various "mini-series" that the commercial television networks are finding profitable and that teachers are finding teachable. Often these are developed from recent best-selling novels. And though the quality of acting and production is typically less than that on the PBS shows, these can still be fruitfully studied as literature, with explorations into character portrayal, plot development, use of language, and so forth.

Despite how really poor some of them are, despite the justified critical protests made about them, the series shows—the sit-coms or crime fighters or fantasy hours or soap operas—will persist on television. Nielsen ratings being what they are, the television schedule of 1990 will resemble that of 1980 *in name only*. The operative phrase is the italicized one, *in name only*. In other ways the two schedules will be more alike than different, sad to say. *Laverne and Shirley* will have become *Molly and Mary. Eight Is Enough* will be cloned into *Sixteen Is Too Many.* Yet as bad as they seem to some, these programs, the staples of daily television, will become the stuff of many an English lesson. With a long overdue recognition by English teachers that their students watch television more than they engage in any other single activity except sleep (including going to school) will come an increased emphasis on that medium as a source of instructional content. Can students learn about protagonists and antagonists by watching *The Rockford Files*? (I'll use shows now current, though we should all be aware that the ratings game may pull

these shows off the air even before the words see print. Still, their reruns will be around . . . and around . . . and around.) Can they study drama through viewing *M*A*S*H**? Are literary elements such as climax, denouement, irony, and tension sufficiently identifiable in episodes of *Taxi* to permit the use of these shows in a literature lesson? Can students learn to evaluate print literature by engaging in evaluations of television shows? Are the values to be found in *Soap* useful in a classroom?

Prime Time School Television (PTST) believes these questions can be answered affirmatively. This Chicago-based, nonprofit organization prepares television-related study guides for use by English teachers. Although most of these guides are for serious productions of high quality (e.g., *Masterpiece Theatre*), it is but a small step to imagine commercially prepared materials for all manner of TV shows, from *Alice* to *Zorro*. Indeed, one can assume that before the decade is out, teachers of English will be able to purchase several weeks in advance a kind of "teachers' TV guide" for all of the upcoming network shows. Such a guide will. contain rather complete information: detailed plot synopses, script treatments, themes, items of interest about the actors or the production, even sample discussion and composition questions. Teachers can then plan future lessons, knowing in advance that they can assign specific shows to achieve specific objectives. Moreover, the increased availability and sophistication of copiers will make these shows available to all students.

Much of what appears in the immediately preceding paragraphs could have been written about the movies—those seen in the shopping center theater complexes and those seen on the sure-to-expand Home Box Office kinds of operation. Few today continue to question whether movies can be classified as art: they can be; they are art. And students watch them. It follows, then, that the practice already established (but in too few schools) of studying movies as literature will be expanded and that more and more students will be announcing to their parents, "See you later, folks. I've got to go to the Palace Theater to see my English homework."

The Continuing Classics

Any worries at this time about the classics must be foreshortened: they will survive. And flourish. Why? Because they are classics and repay rereading and reward each new generation of readers—those in the schools in the 80's as well as those in the schools in the 70's, the 60's, and the 50's. Teachers of English will continue to disagree about the

worth of adaptations, including comic strip versions. They will continue to question the value of movie versions. They will continue to debate about the blend of classics to, say, adolescent novels or television shows, about the proper balance. But through all these disagreements and questions and debates, the study of classics will endure; indeed, it will prevail. Long after the novels of Blume have ceased to be printed, after even reruns of *Mork and Mindy* have stopped, after today's Oscar-winning best films have entered history and been forgotten, the classics will still be around.

But they may be presented in slightly altered instructional format. If I had to bet on a single genre for the 80's, it would be the short story. Short, manageable by most students, with quick involvement for readers, the short story may flourish as the answer for English teachers whose students seem never quite to finish (and, in some cases, to start) the longer novel. Thus, the classic authors can be studied via their short stories: Twain's "Man That Corrupted Hadleyburg" instead of *Huck Finn;* Faulkner's "Tall Men" instead of *Light in August;* Hawthorne's "Dr. Heidegger's Experiment" instead of *The Scarlet Letter;* Fitzgerald's "Winter Dreams" instead of *The Great Gatsby.* The hope, a logical and justified one, is that students will enjoy the short stories and then go on to the novels of these writers.

One final word on the "what" of literature study in the 80's, and a negative one at that: censorship. I'd like to say that all censorship problems will cease. They will not. They may not increase, but they will certainly not go away. And the list of books censored will continue to read like an honors list of great books. Teachers will still have with them the usual dilemmas: Where to turn for help? How strongly to wage the principle/principal controversy? (Not too stringently. It's better to keep a job and stay around to try to change community attitudes than to be fired and placed on the corner soapbox with only a few civil libertarians for solace. Literature won't suffer if one book is withdrawn.)

THE INCREASED TEACHING OPTIONS

The "how" of literature study in the schools will be, like the "what," more of the same in some schools, a major departure from previous practice in others. Teachers are already discovering that the preoccupation with a return to the "basics" in many ways resembles a return to the 50's, that the teaching materials and methods that failed then are not much more successful when resurrected now.

Elective Courses

Perhaps the saddest outcome of the back-to-basics movement was that it caused the decline of elective course offerings. To be sure, the electives were guilty of excesses, principally too little writing, but had they been given more time, a chance to set their house in order, balanced programs that included attention to all the aspects of the language arts could have emerged.

It may be more fervent hope than sensible forecast, but I predict a return to the elective programs in the 80's. Elective courses particularly enlivened literature programs in the 70's, and they will do so again in the 80's, though perhaps not so extensively. The return will be cautious, without fanfare: first a few "safe" electives (e.g., "Composition for the College-bound," "Modern American Short Stories") at one school, then a few more at another.

The Emphasis on Student Writing

A major change in the "how" of literature teaching will be the increased attention given to writing about literature. All of the "new" electives will be strengthened to withstand the real and trumped up charges they countered unsuccessfully in the 70's: Most notably that they allegedly failed to include enough writing. The new courses, even courses like "Science Fiction" or "Mystery," will include writing. The five-paragraph theme on the plot of a short story or the development of a character in a drama will still be with us, but, happily, other forms of writing will be added in the literature program. Students will write letters to authors and to characters. They will write diary entries, sample dialogues between characters, sketches of scenes an author could have included but did not, alternative endings, obituaries for characters who die, and advertisements for the literature. And students will write not only about or in response to literature but also literature itself: they will try their hand at writing short poems; short story introductions, if not the entire short story; and scenes from plays. What this kind of writing will assure is that those who teach an elective course, be it "Short Stories from Around the World," "Television's Best Programs," or "Movies Are Better Than Ever," will be able to argue forcefully that it attends to all aspects of English, especially writing.

The Role of the Teacher

That portion of the "how" of literature study dealing with the actual behavior of teachers and students in their classrooms will be much the same in 1990 as it was in 1980. Most classes will still be

teacher-centered. The increased study of television and movies will inevitably and happily produce more classroom media events, but, even in these, teachers will continue to be the producers and directors, if not also the leading characters. This prediction of more of the same is not entirely pejorative. Many fine teachers run teacher-centered classrooms with imagination, with excitement, and with considerable student learning. Yet the hope remains that more teachers will consider such alternative but hardly new strategies as letting students do the teaching, using small groups, videotaping, employing role-playing activities, encouraging free reading, and the like.

Teachers in the 80's may—one must be tentative here—have the opportunity to learn about or review these kinds of alternative strategies through increased in-service programs. These should flourish; i believe the money to support them may become available. Some of the programs will be in the schools, as college professors will find themselves expected to venture "into the field" to get the full teaching loads they can no longer get on campus in an age of declining enrollments. If unions get teachers' salaries more into line with those of other workers, then they will ask for professional opportunities for their clients: financial support for convention attendance, days off to observe other teachers, subscriptions to educational journals.

These teachers will take some of what they learn from the convention or the school down the road or the journal article back to their own classrooms. They may learn to structure literature lessons to permit varied reading instead of having all literature studied in common. They may discover that they can manage a classroom focusing on the "Literature of War," for example, that has 30 different students reading 30 different works of literature: novels like *The Red Badge of Courage* or *Johnny Tremain;* poems like "Dulce et Decorum Est" or "I Have a Rendezvous with Death"; dramas like *All My Sons* or *Mother Courage;* short stories like "Two Soldiers" or "In Another Country." They may even decide to teach formal elements like the components of a short story by deductively drawing information from students who have read any number of different stories.

But they will also learn that even on readings in common, alternative student responses are possible and should be sought. After a class has completed the reading of *To Kill a Mockingbird,* one student may write a character sketch of Atticus, another may create a collage representing the various episodes of Jem's growing up, a third may draw a picture of the courtroom, a fourth may prepare the front page of the *Maycomb Tribune* on the day Tom Robinson's guilty verdict was handed down, and a fifth may prepare a test on the novel.

In sum, more teachers in the 80's will give more students more options about more of the literature being studied. The lock-step beat —Act II for tomorrow, Act III for next Monday—that all must march to in unison will not disappear, nor should it, but the classroom in which lots of different students are doing lots of different things at the same time will be much more in evidence.

It is this combination of a return to electives and a multi-optioned, activity-centered literature classroom that will make the study of literature in the 80's exciting. Add television, movies, and adolescent literature to the mix, and in 1990 I think we'll all be able to say, "Literature study never had it so good."

Language and the English Curriculum

Yetta M. Goodman

To be asked to look into the future of curriculum development in the field of English is exciting and flattering. However, it would be naive for anyone to believe that educational decisions are based solely on professional considerations. Education is a significant institution in our society, and the results and implications of educational curriculum and instruction are inextricably involved with political, social, and economic factors. At any historic point in time, these factors have as much impact on education as do the knowledge and insights coming from the greatest scholars in the educational world. A recent example is the focus on teaching composition because of the "why Johnny can't write" concerns expressed in the popular media.

Yet as I look at the 1980's as an educationist, one who studies education, I want to focus on the educational issues that should have impact on the crucial curricular decisions to be made in the teaching of English. The impact of the other factors I leave to others and to the future.

Three major questions about language and its application to learning experiences must be considered in curriculum development:

1. What do scholars in the field of language *know* that is significant in the development of language curriculum? What is the knowl-

3

edge available that must be understood in order to build appropriate language curriculum?

2. From the knowledge base, what is necessary for teachers to know and what should be organized in such a way to *teach* to students? What do students need to know about language?

3. How can the curriculum be organized so students *use* language in order to maximize their growth in language use?

It is these three questions that the rest of this chapter will explore.

KNOWLEDGE

The scientific study of language has increased greatly, especially during the second half of the 20th century. Most psychologists and linguists who study the way in which children learn language are amazed at the intuitive knowledge that children have of their own linguistic system by the time they come to school.

The evidence that children develop a systematic approach to language learning is growing not only in the area of oral language development[1] but also in the area of written language development.[2] Not only do children intuitively know the rule system of the language they speak, but also they generate new language forms when necessary to communicate. Children learn language because of the human need to communicate, to interact, to be social.

Studies of how language changes and of what influences these changes also have provided insight that has impact on teaching. Scientific studies of languages spoken in a wide variety of settings have resulted in strong evidence that all forms of language are well formed and rule governed, that language difference is based on social group membership and not on qualitative differences of language forms. Languages differ from each other as a result of the influence of many societal factors. Regional and geographic isolation and contact cause changes in language. The roles people hold in society have impact on language differences; social status, sex roles, professional positions, and age differences all have impact on language differences and all change from one group to another. Not only do groups of people show language differences but also any one person speaks differently from setting to setting, depending on both the position that the person holds in the social interaction and the degree of formality of the language setting. Such differences have been found in the speech of children as young as six years old when they use different language structures while interact-

31

ing with four-year-olds when compared to those they use in their conversations with adults.

For educators who are concerned with dialect differences, bilingual education, testing, and evaluation, the knowledge gained from the studies of language variation and change is crucial. We have operated far too long on language myth and elitism. Language power comes not from controlling one single form of a language; language power comes from being flexible with language—knowing which language forms are most appropriate for particular settings and social interactions.

Scholars interested in how humans comprehend text focus on the importance of the interaction between speaker and listener, between reader and writer.[3] Both parties are actively involved in language processing. Again knowledge of language is crucial to understanding the complexity of language in use.

Conclusions from studies focusing on instruction in language have raised serious questions about the direct use of instruction to develop greater use of reading and writing, of speaking and listening. Such studies seem to conclude that the more people read and write, or speak and listen, the more proficient they become in that particular aspect of language use. Learning specifics about language such as grammar, spelling, and phonics may improve scores on tests of grammar, spelling, and phonics; however, such learning in and of itself has little impact on improved speaking, listening, reading, and writing in the everyday use of these language processes.

Language has been studied in many separate disciplines. Students of rhetoric, literature, psychology, sociology, anthropology, philosophy, reading, child language, neurophysiology, and linguistics have all been examining the role language plays in understanding their particular fields. In the past decade scholars from these groups have been interacting with each other and asking the kinds of questions that have facilitated interdisciplinary study and research. This interaction must continue in order to amass greater and more useful knowledge about the nature of language—how humans learn it, how humans use it.

At the present time, many unsolved problems persist concerning knowledge in language. As in all scientific inquiry, including language study, as knowledge grows and develops, there are many new questions to be asked and problems to be solved.

Curriculum developers in English education should welcome controversy in the study of language. Techniques need to be developed to involve students at all levels of schooling in inquiry approaches to the study of language. When children and young people can participate in the excitement that language scholars experience when they are in-

volved in the search for answers to as yet unsolved problems, then language study becomes relevant and meaningful.

WHAT TO TEACH

One of the problems that has always faced classroom teachers is, "What do I share with my students about what I know?" Supervisors of student teachers are often amazed to find the pre-service teacher trying to present, on the first day of his or her assignment, everything that was learned in four years of college. Sometimes new lecturers at the college level will present their own notes from their own college classes almost verbatim to classes they are teaching for the first time. It is important to separate what is known about language from what to teach about language.

Simply because pre-service teachers have had classes in linguistics, Shakespeare, composition, and transformational grammar doesn't justify the notion that this, in turn, should be presented to students in elementary and secondary schools.

There are two general areas relating to language that should be part of the English curriculum and should be explored with students: (1) learning about language, and (2) using language. However, the way the exploration is done and the forms and materials used for such exploration should be based on the concerns and interests of and the relevance to the particular students.

The first area, learning about language, would raise to a conscious level the students' intuitive awareness of language. Humans develop insights into their own language system. Learning about language should build and capitalize on the students' already developed knowledge. All students can explore the varieties of language that they hear at home, at school, at recreational centers, on television. They can explore the language that they speak with different people at different times and in different settings.

Rather than telling students what is known about language, a knowledgeable teacher can encourage the students themselves to discover such knowledge by becoming careful observers of language users and by learning to ask thought-provoking questions about how language is learned and used. Once interest has been heightened because of their personal involvement, the students are eager to participate in the use of resources for future study because they are searching for answers to their own questions. Some may be questions that even linguists themselves haven't yet been able to answer very satisfactorily.

Teaching can be developed around incidental settings such as the following. First grader Kay, age six, was playing in the store corner or$_x$, nizing the shelves and prices. She turned to her teacher and said, "Sometimes two *s*'s say *dressing* and sometimes they say *Russian*." The teacher responded by saying, "Can you think of any other times two *s*'s sound like they do in *Russian*?" Robin, standing by the play register, said, "*Tissue*." At this moment the teacher can go over to the board and list the three words and ask Kay and Robin to keep an eye out for other similar words to add to their list. It is important to organize a classroom in such a way that crucial learnings about language can take place over time. Other students will become interested because Kay and Robin are.

Other language learning experiences are planned as teachers have conferences with students about their writing in order to involve students in editing their own written work.

All these experiences expand the students' knowledge about language. But knowledge alone does not produce competent language users.

LANGUAGE IN USE

Language study in school is very prevalent. Periods are set aside for spelling, phonics, grammar, and vocabulary development. Textbooks and workbooks are used to teach about language. Often readers and literature textbooks are organized to focus on language study rather than to involve students personally in the enjoyment and love of reading.

The ultimate goal of all our language study is to develop proficient users of language. The English curriculum in school should be organized in such a way that the greatest amount of school time is spent on the use of language and only about 25 percent of the time on learning about language. I believe that knowledge about language comes out of its use and should never be a prerequisite to use.

As the same words and phrases are met in different linguistic contexts, their meanings grow and expand. No dictionary study or vocabulary exercise can develop such flexibility.

Curriculum should be developed to involve students in significant experiences with reading, writing, speaking, and listening so that motivation toward language learning is intrinsic and personal.

We need to move away from the old-fashioned notion that struggle and distaste somehow make learning better. Our own personal experi-

ences show us that when we care about what we are learning, the learning is easier and more long lasting.

Teachers need to have knowledge about language but they must also understand how to develop curriculum. Knowledge about language provides teachers with the techniques to help students observe language use, to ask significant questions about language, and to understand the principles and issues surrounding language study. Knowledge about curriculum development provides teachers with the ability to organize experiences and environments so that students discover personal and social reasons for wanting to learn about language and to use language proficiently.

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CHAPTER 4

Holonomic Knowing: A Challenge
for Education in the 80's[1]

Bob Samples

Holistic and *holism* are words that are becoming increasingly popular in all sorts of circles, ranging from law enforcement to medicine. Education is no exception. To some, *holistic education* is synonymous with *affective education* as envisioned during the 1960's. To others, it is education that embraces the mystical and esoteric traditions of non-Western thought. To still others, it means a traditional curriculum reorganized so as to contain both Latin grammar and meditation.

My interest in holistic education started with curriculum revision efforts in the 1960's. At that time, I was caught up more in technologies and methodologies than in theory. For the past 10 years, my interest has shifted more toward theory than technology. Like most who follow this path, I explored formal learning theory and found it too behavioristic and too technological. I explored cognitive psychology, humanistic psychology, and research in neurophysiology. To get back to the roots of my scientific training, I even explored recent ideas emerging from physics.

Had I returned 20 or even 10 years ago to physics as a guide toward understanding education, I would have moved quickly into the Newtonian world of behaviorism. But now physics is not like that. Newtonian thinking, with its on–off, push–pull mentality, is all but relegated to the museums of physical thought. Quantum and relativistic thinking

36

dominate the scene. Cut-and-dried data are scarce. Theories are based on patterns of tentative facts. One collection of facts overlaps other collections here and there, so things that wed whole fields of physics together appear more or less as a mosaic. Even matter is now considered to be patterned energy, and not the tidy electrons and protons of Bohr's day.

The exciting and, at the same time, unnerving part of this is what it does to certainty. If physics, the most exact of the sciences, is, in fact, woven together by uncertainty and ambiguity, where does this leave those of us in education and psychology? Strangely, it leaves us right where we always have been. Certainty has never been any ally in the process of education. In fact, it is easy to conclude that every trend toward certainty has made things less certain. More disruption of learning nearly always results from increased attempts to ascertain what is learned—a phenomenon understood long ago in physics as "the uncertainty principle." Observers always affect the phenomena they observe.

In a way that is what this chapter is about. How do I affect that which I observe? Does my perception affect what I see? If so, what are the consequences of how I perceive?

Holism is a perceptual thing. As such, it is also attitudinal. As we explore some thoughts about holonomic knowing, I hope the outcome is clear: far more is included in knowing than is generally supposed. Also, I hope the use of *knowing* rather than *learning* is clear. Knowing is the holistic, nonspecific result of accumulated experience while learning is specific and linked to changes in behavior. Moreover, I will argue that knowing, like the structure of matter, is the result of overlapping patterns of energy-encoded experience in the entire brain as well as in the entire body of each person. The quality we call holonomic knowing is a far more generalized model than the metaphors of circuits or computers or the traditional geographics of memory storage in the brain. Because it is a more generalized model, it provides many more ways to gain access. Thus, teaching for holonomic knowing is far more varied and diverse than ordinary practices.

NEUROPHYSIOLOGY AND HOLISM

In a way that seems puzzling, our culture has remained generally aloof in regard to holistic approaches to education and learning. This has been clear in the way the educational technologies of planning, testing, and evaluation have become more rigorously cognitive in the past several decades. Student learning in such ecologies is judged more and more

on its conformity to the rational-logical modalities of reasoning dominated by symbols.

During the last decade, a growing wave of investigation in neurophysiology has emerged that has brought this one-sided focus into question. Brain researchers such as Roger Sperry, Joseph Bogen, and Michael Gazzaniga have begun gathering an intriguing base of data that suggests clearly that there are multiple modalities of knowing. Moreover, these various modalities are to a large extent separated in opposite sides of the cerebral cortex.

The findings of these researchers, as well as those of dozens of others, have supported the notion that the cerebral cortex may be seen as divided into hemispheres. These hemispheres are separated by a thick bundle of nerve fibers called the *corpus callosum*. The left hemisphere frequently specializes in the performance of rational, logical, sequential, and time-ordered tasks; the right hemisphere performs the complementary functions that are analogical, metaphoric, intuitive, and spatio-visual.

Research further indicates that these lateralized hemispheres can function synchronously. They support each other and, in fact, are highly dependent on each other. While it is simplistic to talk of left-brained or right-brained persons, it is clear that one's experience, described as *learning style,* may frequently favor one learning ecology over another. Further, it is clear that the process of education in contemporary American society favors one modality over the other.

Though more will be said later about instruction, it should be noted that most educational technologies are created to further left-brained wisdom. Yet, it is apparent to nearly all researchers in this area that the *whole* brain learns during the process of education. While the formal structure of language—its spelling, grammar, and logic—is in residence in the left hemisphere in most people in our Western society, its tonality, its rhythm, and its very song are in the right hemisphere. One cannot effectively teach the left without the right.

The single most important implication of this research is that in the normal brain, each hemisphere is a complement to the other. Each hemisphere is also an access route to the other. The historical overindulgence in left-hemisphere-mode teaching emphases has slighted what can be—and possibly must be—an overwhelming ally in instruction and learning.

There is little doubt that these ideas provide fruitful implications for education. However, the hazards are just as real. It is easy for the uninitiated to cry for the lateralization data to be proof of dichotomization. Both David Galin and Robert Ornstein have urged caution in

regard to the runaway tendency for those who view the lateralization data base as substance for dichotomies. The dichotomy—the on–off, black–white, love–hate contexts—is deeply engrained in Western philo- sophical traditions as well as in Judeo-Christian religious traditions. Even those who popularize the ideas of lateralization must admit that, although critical functions are specialized in one or the other of the hemispheres, there is a latent residue of the experience related to that function in the whole brain. In other words, all human experience encodes itself into the whole brain, but, as I will suggest later, it is encoded in different modes of knowing.

In educational research and other cultural settings, it is clear that the medium used to retrieve that encoded experience determines which hemisphere tends to respond. If I ask about a rose in language, the language-dominant hemisphere (typically the left hemisphere) provides the dominant response. If I ask a visual question about roses, the visual hemisphere (typically the right hemisphere) has the primary tendency to respond. The issue becomes even more complex if I ask for smells, colors, textures, and metaphors about roses. "Roseness" is clearly en- coded throughout the entire brain.

THE HOLOGRAPHIC BRAIN

Karl Pribram, a neurophysiologist at the Stanford Medical School, has moved with grace beyond this classical paradox exemplified by the dichotomous hemispheres. Some of his work has involved the surgical removal of large portions of the cerebral cortex because of tumors or malignancy. Pribram became fascinated with the completeness of re- covery of many of the patients after this assault on their brains. He discovered that even after areas of the brain that had specialized in certain functions had been removed, the "knowledge" related to that specialized function seemed to permeate the whole cortical area. As his research continued, it became clear that nearly all the missing cortical functions could be reinstated if the rest of the brain could be encouraged to cooperate in submitting its knowledge regarding the missing func- tions.

Pribram quickly recognized that a dichotomous model couldn't work. It was clear that the cerebral cortex acted far more like a holisti- cally integrated system than like a pair of differently labeled storage bins. He began a search for a model that was not inherently biased against this holism. His choice was to move toward the theoretical model of the hologram.

39

Pribram is using the hologram as his primary metaphor. A holo-
gram is a physical system in which optical data are stored nearly homo-
geneously throughout the medium. This means that one can view what
appears to be a still "photograph" from different angles and get quite
different perspectives. Moreover, high-quality holograms can contain
motion so that the pictures seem to move as one views them from
different vantage points. The most significant aspect of this metaphor
is that a hologram can be chopped up and viewed with magnification;
each fragment contains the majority of the optical information of the
entire hologram. Pribram finds this a good metaphor to describe how the
brain works.

For example, if a hypothetical patient has that portion of the left
cortical hemisphere removed that had specialized in the spelling, clas-
sification, and pronunciation of the flower *rose*, then those modes of
knowing about rose would at first appear to be lost. Yet, if a wider array
of ways of knowing about *rose* is appealed to, it becomes clear that the
patient knows a great deal about *rose*. In other words, the logical rose
might be lost—but the experiential rose still permeates the rest of the
brain.

The holographic model is much richer than the lateralized model,
without rejecting the data base of lateralization. For example, there is
no denial in the holographic model that there are tendencies for certain
functions to be carried out by either the right or the left hemisphere.
But clearly the holographic model is more closely related to the whole
experience that is encoded in the entire brain, rather than the specifics
of the mental media used in the processing. The lateralized model has
a tendency to emphasize the specific modality of processing experience
in the brain, rather than stressing the completeness with which the
whole brain synthesizes the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor as-
pects of the experience.

ADVANTAGES OF THE HOLONOMIC MODEL
FOR EDUCATION

The primary advantage of the holographic or, as I prefer, holonomic
model is that it creates a mindset of completeness rather than fragmen-
tation. For example, assume that a person has undergone brain surgery
and is entering a rehabilitation program. If this person's therapist as-
sumes that certain memory banks have been removed from the brain,
then the tendency is to focus on what is *not* there. Such is generally the
case with those who use fixed models of brain function. The holonomic

model is much more dynamic. With holonomic knowing, experience is not stored in specific locations in the brain. Rather, it is woven into shimmering patterns of neural energy throughout the brain. Removing a portion of the brain only removes a portion of the pattern. The holonomically oriented therapist gives attention to the pattern rather than to the locus of surgery. In other words, one model biases an observer to focus on *what is no longer there*, while the other model encourages her/him to focus on *what is still there*.

Therapy through use of the deficit model requires an intensive, highly focused reconditioning of specific lost skills. Therapy through use of the holonomic model involves a celebration of those remaining portions of the patterns of knowing that support the experience surrounding lost skills.

. The implications of the holonomic model for education are obvious. If we think that human thought is reductive and guided by deficit qualities, then we will educate in that way. We will teach in increments using specific media. We will test and evaluate on narrow parameters of human experience. If a child does not learn at a rate we prescribe, then we intensify the child's exposure to that specific skill or knowledge base.

This is in contrast to holonomic methodologies. In these, the focus is on the celebration of the pattern of knowing that surrounds specific experience. Skills are approached in context. Teachers would view the whole mind as an access route for the expression of the child's wisdom. Teaching would increase access to the holonomic patterns of the child's past and present experience.

Lest this sound romantic, it would be well to recall that models in the mind influence perception awesomely. A physicist, looking at the universe through the models of Isaac Newton, can never see what Einstein saw. Newtonians search for straight lines in curved space.

Ken Peterson, now at the University of Utah, is one of the finest teachers I have ever met. He once told me, "Teaching is easy if you assume that each student already knows all that they need to know to be here." At first, I took this to be a glib witticism. Now, however, I see it as a profound insight into the foundations of holonomic perception. To Ken, teaching is the act of celebrating a student's patterns of inherent wisdom to higher levels of richness.

Peterson never sees learning disabilities; he sees learning assets. Children with immature skills have less apparent arrays of maturity in other characteristics. It is these areas of maturity that he sees and honors. No one can comfortably explain why, but when students' true assets are honored, the areas of less maturity gradually vanish.

41

11

HOLONOMIC KNOWING AND WHAT'S RIGHT

Perhaps one of the real mistakes we have made is to allow our culture to become so problem oriented. When people are problem oriented, they are trained to see things that are wrong. Problem-seekers are generally reductionists. Once I overheard one such problem-seeker say, "Every kid in this room has a problem—and I'm going to find out what it is!" The reductionist therapist, like the reductionist teacher, has a tendency to focus on deficits. Each becomes a specialist in the diagnosis of deficit qualities. Each learns to seek and see what isn't there . . . each looks for what is wrong, not for what is right.

Holonomic knowing pushes "what is wrong" into the arena of last resort. When a teacher begins instead with "what is right," those things that can be considered as wrong by some have the tendency to correct themselves with minimum intervention. The holonomic model of mind assumes a resonant synchrony among all of the aspects of a person's experience. A good metaphor might be that of an ecosystem in nature. When the millions of various elements of an ecology function, they function in harmony. If an imbalance emerges, then the deviation corrects itself and returns to normal. Yet in nature, what is normal? Often ecologies respond to imbalance by shifting normalcy to a new kind of equilibrium. Things change, but, in terms of equilibrium, they stay the same.

The holonomic model changes our perception of most learning disabilities as well. A person is generally diagnosed and designated *learning disabled* on the basis of performance criteria. Once a disability is discovered, there is often a tendency to focus or specialize the student's experience so as to increase her or his exposure to the diagnosed deficit. This is in contrast to a more holistic approach that would support and extend the variety of access routes to the areas of competence that the student has surrounding this so-called deficit. Because disability specialists have a tendency to limit rather than extend the varieties of experience, it is possible that they cut off access routes toward growth. It is possible that the diagnosis of a learning disability is a statement that reflects the impotence of the diagnostician more than any inadequacy on the part of the learner.

HOLONOMIC MODES: VISUAL, KINESTHETIC, AND AUDITORY

Holistic education, far from being a catchword of the late 1970's, is thus a goal, a mission, a statement of real potential in fulfillment of the whole person. The model is inclusive, not limiting; it encourages a wider, more unified perspective.

In Fritjof Capra's powerful statement, *The Tao of Physics*, we are clearly pushed toward a richer realization that human perspectives related to subatomic physics are transcending Newtonian vision and moving toward a more holistic view. Jonas Salk argues that such holism is, more likely than not, genetically endowed. Holism is not a cliché, but an archetype. It is manifested in the description of mind work offered through the work of Karl Pribram, with the metaphor of the hologram.

My own work, for nearly two decades, has been focused on expanding the array of access routes to knowing in both psychology and education. It is clear, from the results of the exploration of hundreds of investigations, that there is a greater array of pathways into the workings of the mind than might once have been thought.

Visual, kinesthetic, and auditory pathways exist to facilitate reasoning in ways that clearly enhance the classic focus of education, the cognitive skills. Visual, kinesthetic, and auditory modes—far from being frills in the curriculum—have been shown through numerous studies to be highly effective ways for large numbers of children (and adults) to enhance and extend reasoning. In Gresham, Oregon, attention primarily to visual reasoning has significantly improved performance in the three R's. Movement as a legitimate arena of exploration has accomplished equal credibility in Ft. Myers, Florida. Attention to combinatorial and synthetic thought has been accompanied by grade-level leaps in reading and writing ability, evidenced in studies with students using William Gordon's synectics approach.

A view of holistic education seems to be emerging that transcends the perspectives of both the cognitive and the affective disruptions of the 1960's. This view includes more than an honoring of logical maturity simultaneously with affective competence. It seems to involve more than a concern for accommodation to culturally approved reason and emotional competence. Holistic education and holonomic knowing are created from having access to the expression of a variety of modes of knowing as one communicates. By contrast, the narrow parameters of standardized testing provide a far too limited perspective of human capabilities.

Standardized testing can, however, become a facilitator for holistic education. If schools insist on evidenced improvement in standardized test scores as criteria for learning, then let us rush to its accomplishment. If we increase the frequency of visual reasoning, and if we honor body reasoning through movement as in kinesthetics, and if we nurture auditory reasoning—in addition to the more linear and abstract conventional skills—the evidence suggests that performance on standardized tests will improve dramatically.

It is well to emphasize that these modes of experience are holistic.

43

Visual experience is far more inclusive than verbal. Body movement utilizes the vestibular system, the most forgotten of our basic senses. Jamake Highwater in his excellent book, *Rituals of the Wind*, clearly demonstrates that the philosophy, psychology, and history of Native American peoples are encoded in their dance and rituals of movement. Because the complexity and maturity of this record could not be "read" by Europeans, it was easy to label the people "savages." Similarly, auditory holism goes far beyond listening to formalized verbal and musical input. In a series of investigations I conducted, I found that small children performed admirably in matching photographs of people they did not know to tape recordings of those people talking.

All of these modes—visual, kinesthetic, and auditory, in addition to verbal and abstract—should be utilized in all curricular offerings. The holonomic modes enhance comprehension and performance in all disciplines. My colleagues and I have used these modes with persons from the first year of life to the eightieth. As one might suspect, it is more "normal" for younger children. Yet this does not mean that it is impossible as one gets older. For 10 years, we have offered week-long seminars at the time of the summer solstice. For seven days, we immerse about 60 adults and children in an environment that nurtures more holistic approaches to career, leisure, and personal life. Of the more than 700 persons involved to date, nearly three-fourths have reported job changes, increased creative output, and more capability to "cope." Nearly all report what they perceive to be highly positive changes in their personal life-styles.

Thus, it is clear that the holonomic modes have great power. In the typical public school setting, courses in art, physical education, and music offer the highest probability that holonomic knowing will be experienced. Yet such courses provide no guarantee. Art, music, and physical education classes can be as fascistic as the worst of math and grammar courses. Visual reasoning and visual knowing are different from "art," although the same media are often employed. Kinesthetic reasoning is awesomely different from calisthenics and folk dancing. Auditory knowing and acuity are different from music appreciation.

The creation of holistic education and a curriculum that enhances holonomic knowing is more an issue of attitude than of new materials, new architecture, and new funding sources. The treacherous side effect of demands for higher accountability is that we strip the curriculum of those experiences that do nurture a wider array of holonomic pathways.

Yet it is becoming more and more clear that neurophysiology, physical theory, and macrobiology are leading us toward higher levels of awareness of the interrelatedness of all experience. The brain is a

holonomic system, energy patterns in the very structure of the physical universe are holonomic systems, and the evolution of organic systems is holonomic.

There are many specifics to explore. Yet it seems clear that we, in education and psychology, owe it to ourselves and our students to resist the Newtonian temptations of the past. Our obvious compulsions to diagnose and evaluate are symptoms rather than truths. In far too many cases, the technology of diagnosis and evaluation has taken precedence over humaneness. I have worked with searchers and researchers whose intent was to protect their models, rather than to celebrate the mind.

We can learn to teach . . . in the ways we live. We can celebrate schools that extend experience, rather than reduce it. We can enjoy a unity with nature, with the mysticism of volvox and Andromeda. And we can regain the courage to know that measurement is convenience. We can regain the conviction that there are things we know that need not be measured and, whether measured or not, will continue to exist.

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Oral English and the Literacy Imperative

Marvin Klein

There are at least two fundamental factors that will shape the direction of oral language instruction in the curriculum of the English language arts during the 1980's. One is our increasing understanding of language as "the house in which we live." It shapes in critical ways our sense of self and, even more fundamentally, our ability to get along in the world. A second factor is our heightened sense of community awareness regarding the purposes and directions of public education and the responsibility of the schools for meeting the needs of a contemporary society.

In the case of the first factor, there has been a long-standing tradition of acknowledgment of the role of language generally and of oral language more specifically in shaping our perceptions of reality. Language philosophers as well as classical rhetoricians have long proclaimed the point. And, at least in concept, few have denied its validity. However, it has been only in more recent history that we have extended the functions of oral language to include responsibility for assisting in cognitive growth of the individual. Although language was seen as an accompaniment to such cognitive growth by Piaget and others in the first half of this century, more recent work by developmental and cognitive psychologists and by developmental psycholinguists asserts increased and more subtle roles for language in shaping the intellectual ability of the individual.

We can note, for instance, the long-standing, comprehensive work of the Russian developmentalists during the past 30 to 40 years. Primarily led by Lev Vygotsky and his students, this research in language and cognition has established critical new insights into important relationships between these two modes of action, language and cognition.[1] The general tenor of that work suggests ties between the two modes that are close and largely sustained through the life of the individual. This work has been supplemented in efforts by British sociolinguists, such as M.A.K. Halliday and Joan Tough, as well as by a number of other researchers in this country.

In short, oral language serves purposes perhaps even more basic than being a tool for the transmission of information or a mode of self-expression. And as schooling is forced to redefine roles and responsibilities in the immediate future, this is a point that will assume increasing importance. With a burgeoning knowledge base and more sophisticated technology pressuring the educational system, decisions regarding choices of focus must be made. One most likely alternative will be a continued reduction of emphasis upon knowledge per se and more emphasis upon the development of reasoning and thinking skills that are most likely to be useful in processing and monitoring this growing knowledge.

The second factor—heightened public sensitivity to the responsibilities of the schools—is also already being felt in many quarters. Demands for accountability, tightened budgets, critical examination of test scores, and curriculum policy decisions by parents and community representatives could be only a possible beginning which is signaling a new social consciousness. The question of major new societal direction notwithstanding, it is clear that we should anticipate increased community input about curriculum matters in the schools. Federal programs require such involvement and the pattern appears firmly set. Pressures for meeting the most pragmatic of social demands may be anticipated. Amongst the likely pressures are those for increased oral communication skills as an important concern of the English language arts.

Oral language continues to be our primary communication mode. Decisions about us—our personalities, our social and professional competence—are made on the basis of our ability to use this language in oral exchange with others.

Developments then in the English curriculum area will be shaped by two powerful, albeit significantly different, factors. Research and theory are suggesting that oral language is important for learning generally. Social pressure will demand a response to the significant need for effective oral communication skills as prerequisite to personal and economic advancement in our lives.

An emphasis upon oral communication within the English language arts curriculum will represent a fairly dramatic shift from current practices. In their *High School English Instruction Today,* Squire and Applebee observe:

> Speech and oral language skills are similarly neglected in the meager 4.9 percent of class time they receive, although teachers agree that they should stress these even at the expense of other activities. One re-emerging pattern is the semester of required speech, usually introduced at the tenth grade level, but in the long run proficiency in oral language cannot be developed through only one semester of work. It requires the continuing attention of the teacher of English at all levels of the high school program and a conscious emphasis on oral activities during other phases of English instruction.[2]

In spite of their position here, one can observe that in Squire and Applebee's 12 hypotheses of quality English programs, oral communication and/or speech are never referred to—only literature, writing, and language (in the sense of grammar and usage) study are included.

Eight years later, Moffett and Wagner, in *Student-Centered Language Arts and Reading, K–13,* suggest:

> A critical part of the bias against student language production has been the exclusion or slighting of activities allowing students to use oral language. Like creative writing and journalism, speech and dramatics are gaining ground today as elective courses, sometimes in lieu of a required English course, but in many places they are still exotic options, and seldom are they ever matter-of-factly incorporated into basic language arts at the elementary level or into English at the secondary level.[3]

Recent reviews of oral language instruction practices in Wisconsin, Washington, and Michigan (1975–1978) reflect much the same pattern.[4] Approximately 75 percent of the high schools in these three states offer speech communication courses. However, only about one-third of the schools surveyed required such courses. In Wisconsin, where practices in the elementary grades were surveyed, approximately 75 percent of the school districts reported attention to "speech" in grades K–6, and approximately 50 percent included study in "creative dramatics." Only about 25 percent of the reporting districts maintain consistent involvement somewhere in grades K–12 in forensics.

To whatever extent such surveys reflect the state of the curriculum, we may assume that there has not been a dramatic change in the past decade or so in the commitments of public schools to "speech." However, several important things are not revealed in these data. One con-

48

tinuing unknown is the role of oral language and instruction in its use as part of the broader educational program. How much attention is given to oral language in curriculum areas such as reading, language arts, or social studies, for example, is not at all clear. Also, the role that the contemporary shift in conceptual focus from *speech* to *communications* has played in moving oral language focus to other domains of study is not clear.

In addition, more recent developments, such as the inclusion of oral literacy in the U. S. Office of Education's reorganization of Right to Read to address all key basic skills including oral language facility, have not had time to reshape curriculums in major ways.[5] Nor, for that matter, has a great deal of contemporary theory and research presented in the professional literature filtered through the implementation process. However, questions that are posed regarding practical problems with oral language are being addressed more fully. For example, instructional areas such as oral language that have not seemed amenable to paper–pencil testing have traditionally been troublesome for schools where accountability and performance have been equated. Now an increasing array of approaches to evaluation and assessment of oral language is becoming available.[6] In addition, work in developmental psycholinguistics and communications generally has shifted emphasis recently from language parts—words, phrases, sentences in utterances—to larger discourse. Even areas such as reading theory and research are turning to discourse analysis models as more viable routes to improved comprehension as well as to language production.[7]

What we are seeing then are strong indications of movement both within the teaching profession and without to redefine literacy in such a way as to place oral language into a more central area of focus at the same time when oral language is surfacing more conspicuously as a critical force in both cognitive and social development.

Considering factors such as these, the author proposes the following regarding oral language in the English curriculum in the 1980's:

1. A general retrenchment of the English curriculum will continue. Elective programs will be reduced in number, and options within such programs will be cut back. Oral language electives will not suffer, however, as much as electives in areas such as literature. A skill development focus will dominate most elective courses, and language production—talking and writing—will receive a greater portion of total instructional emphasis in systems where the elective approach is strongly entrenched. Overall, however, the more important changes will be subtle in appearance—less

observable even to the outside viewer than to the staff within. These changes are suggested next.

2. The entire approach to instruction in the traditional English curriculum will broaden in perspective. The directions of theory and research, societal need, and a sense of larger community responsibility will place pressures on current curriculum boundaries. The English/speech dichotomy will continue to weaken, and the notion of communication arts will grow progressively stronger. Further, functional competence rather than oral language skill per se will be stressed. If there is an overriding notion that will govern the domains of language production and consumption which have traditionally fallen under the aegis of "English," it will be "literacy." Indeed, we may view the 1980's as a decade vested with a "literacy imperative." The primary areas of study will begin to look different from the modes we have become used to—literature, language, and composition, or, for that matter, reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Discourse modes—both oral and written—will more likely be treated in terms of situational context, propositional networks or structures, and cohesion factors, rather than via genre or encoding/decoding type.

3. A K–12 orientation toward the development of oral language (communication) facility will become more dominant. Literacy as a global concept will demand a holistic approach and a developmental bias for effective implementation. And literacy competencies will be seen as more than minimal skills that can be taught in selected high school English or speech courses. The fragmentation of disciplines that share significant responsibilities for developing literacy will become a thing of the past; the more comprehensive perception of the educated individual being fostered by current social and psychological imperatives simply does not allow for the separate goal formulations of disciplines as they have existed in the schools. As pointed out— elsewhere in this volume, shrinking enrollments and tightened budgets alone will force retrenchment and coordination of efforts. The solidifying of the efforts of those with responsibility in facilitating oral language might be one of the few positive benefits of factors such as these.

4. The language of instruction and the language of the classroom generally will receive more attention, with staff development becoming a more important feature of the school operation.

50

Current interest in the reading register of the teacher of reading as it relates to metalinguistic awareness in young children is a good example of the directions being formulated. Young children, for instance, appear not to have mastered the reading register of the teacher—the terms *word, letter, sentence,* etc.—as soon as we had assumed.[8] Whether they need to at an early stage is still open to debate. However, the fact that we need to address more specifically the nature of the language of instruction and how the language environment in the classroom shapes learning at all levels is becoming more apparent. The lessons of the Watergate watershed are giving way to a concern for the subtlety and nuance implicit in any language use the primary function of which is management or control. To some extent, at least, management is an important responsibility of the teacher. Hence, the need for a conscious sense of how given speech acts, assertions, and directives shape the learning environment of the class is critical. Current postures assumed both in the literature and by important institutions such as state and federal agencies suggest that the oral language of teaching as well as that of curriculum will assume greater importance in the 1980's. We will be concerned with formulating K–12 oral language curriculums that will develop more effective communication skills, and, in addition, we will place more emphasis on self-examination, attempting, first, to increase our awareness of the impact of the language of instruction and, further, to become more proficient in the use of that language in order to assure more effective learning environments.

The "literacy imperative" is likely to dominate most of public education during the decade of the 80's. In some senses this will require re-examination of the entire K–12 curriculum, not just the area traditionally known as English. Further, it is quite clear that the earlier perception of literacy as the area of those skills related to decoding print or reading is no longer adequate. Any meaningful definition of literacy must include the entire range of language-producing and -consuming skills because literacy, by nature as well as by social demand, is a multimodal concept. An orally inarticulate reader is neither likely nor desirable in these times.

Though global in concern, the responsibility for developing literacy skills will continue to fall upon the shoulders of those who have historically been entrusted with their teaching—the English teacher, the language arts teacher, and/or the speech teacher. The critical difference we

51

face in the 1980's, however, is that the literacy imperative has behind it a sustained social force shaped by an incredible public commitment and an institutional enforcement potential that have not been present in the past. Such a commitment, coupled with economic factors and continuing research in the functions of oral language, means a new resolve that teachers in traditional structures will have difficulty addressing. Old disciplinary lines must yield and more comprehensive and global stances be assumed.

The potential is great, for although we are finding societal pressure impinging on turf that has historically been ours as classroom teachers, the fundamental decision—whether the literacy we strive for is minimal or optimal, whether it is defined in terms of narrow, disjointed skills or in terms of more functional, comprehensive competencies that give our students the intellectual and linguistic capabilities to shape their futures —is ours to make. And that, in itself, is enough to make the 80's an exciting decade for the teacher of oral communications in our schools.

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Contemporary interest in notions such as *metalinguistic awareness* and the role of that awareness in the language of the classroom has increased dramatically. Note especially work by John Downing, Ignatius Mattingly, and Courtney Cazden.

Reading and the Teaching of English

William S. Palmer

In *The Wired Society: A Challenge for Tomorrow,* James Martin empha-
sizes the influence of electronic devices in our present society:

> History can be learned with programs as gripping and informa-
> tive as Alistair Cooke's *America.* University courses modeled on
> England's Open University use television and remote computers;
> degrees can be obtained via television. Computer-assisted instruc-
> tion, which was usually crude and unappealing in its early days, has
> now become highly effective. The student watches color film se-
> quences or reads still frames and is asked to respond periodically
> on a keyboard. His or her response determines what will be shown
> next. The computer reinforces the material until it is learned. To
> prepare such programs, there has grown up an industry as large as
> Hollywood and just as professional. Program production is expen-
> sive, but one program is often used by hundreds of thousands of
> students. You can learn hobbies, languages, mathematics, cooking
> —all manner of academic and leisure subjects. The world supply of
> such programs is rapidly growing, and most can be obtained on
> request on the home communications facilities.[1]

Discerning educators realize and accept this trend in these times of
automation and technology; much knowledge, indeed, is being acquired
through electronic media. This acknowledgment, however, does not
mean that the use of print is diminishing in our schools and society. To

the contrary, Kenneth Boulding has referred to this era as a time of printed information "overload,"[2] and a visit to a well-stocked book store will reflect this point. We now find in print cat calendars, various kinds of crossword puzzles, and "how-to" books—how to play golf, how to sun-tan successfully, how to disco dance, how to cook, how to read palms, even how to get all you want out of life. Then, there are numerous books concerned with physical exercise—bicycling, swimming, sports without pain, the psyche side of sports. Also, we can find the "complete" books—from those on running, walking, and medicine to those concerned with nutrition. In addition, there is a variety of textbooks as well as general information books on such topics as sailing ships, feet, songs, kites, horses, dogs, fishing, insurance, vitamins, babies, careers, piloting, sex, and skin and skin care. And the list goes on and on.

Thus, even in these times of the electronic revolution, print remains another principal source for use in learning. In the 80's, the attention focused upon the need to improve reading instruction at all levels will only continue to increase for many reasons, but primarily because of the two that follow. First, print is a necessary mode for much learning because it possesses its own unique characteristics that preserve and convey information *differently* than do other means of acquiring information.[3] Therefore, we cannot assume that the use of print and the use of other methods of acquiring information (such as through electronic devices) can become an either–or choice for all learning tasks. Secondly, more than ever before, there will be ever-developing emphasis on encouraging greater reading flexibility if students are to cope with the continuous accumulation of wide and varied sources of print.

What implications, then, does the preceding perspective of the use of print have for teachers of the 80's? Basically, there are three: (1) the need to achieve as great an understanding as possible of the reading process, and especially of recent psycholinguistic contributions; (2) the need to delineate key limitations of competency-based reading testing movements and, at the same time, to develop some sensible alternatives; and (3) the need to help students succeed in reading many different kinds of printed discourse.

THE READING PROCESS: LINGUISTIC CONTRIBUTIONS

For many years the reading process has been typically defined in relation to a series of diverse skills and subskills through descriptive explanations of their interrelationships. Many definitions of reading, then, are attempts to clarify the reading process by arranging these

skills, primarily of a cognitive kind, in hierarchies which, in turn, are attempts to explain how one skill builds upon the preceding one through a structural arrangement. Because hierarchies provide systematic organization of skills into main categories and subcategories, they are presumed to increase one's understanding of the reading process.

To some extent, this taxonomic viewpoint of the reading process has given us some insight into what happens when one reads. But the preceding description of reading is much too simplistic, limited, and mechanistic. As Arthur Gates said years ago:

> Reading is not a simple mechanical skill; nor is it a narrow scholastic tool. Properly cultivated, it is essentially a thought process. However, to say that reading is a "thought-getting" process is to give it too restricted a description. It should be developed as a complex organization of patterns of higher mental processes. It can and should embrace all types of thinking, evaluating, judging, imagining, reasoning, and problem-solving. Indeed, it is believed that reading is one of the best media for cultivating many techniques of thinking and imagining.[4]

In this definition of reading, Gates identifies elements involved in the reading process that are more complex than those identified and discussed in most taxonomic models. Not only does he list an array of diverse types of thought but also he considers both cognitive and affective factors in reading. But Gates' definition omits a most significant element in the reading process, one that of late has increased our understanding of this complex process. The missing element is *language*.

Through relatively recent research findings, we now know that reading involves both language and thought. And Gates' perception of the reading process, similar to taxonomic models, fails to deal with language, how it is structured, and how it is patterned in different modes of printed discourse. Thus, taxonomic insights into the reading process frequently fail to suggest both how words and syntactic structures come to be associated with comprehension and how the reader, in turn, processes information. Our increased understanding of reading as both a thought process and a language process has come primarily from the fields of psychology and linguistics.

Recent developments in psycholinguistics indicate that theory-based information processing models offer the promise of a clearer and more precise understanding of this complex activity. Combining both language and thought, Kenneth Goodman[5] psycholinguistically defines reading as "a complex process by which a reader reconstructs, to some degree, a message encoded by a writer in graphic language." Both Goodman[6] and Frank Smith[7] theorize that a reader reconstructs a message by making use of both visual and nonvisual information.

Nonvisual information transcends the text or printed material being studied. First, nonvisual information involves the students' ability to conceptualize and the extent of their previous experience in reading, particularly in relation to the topics at hand. Second, nonvisual information involves the students' knowledge of language and their familiarity with the structure and patterns within forms of written discourse.

Visual information, on the other hand, involves other, yet similar, complex strategies of information processing. The redundancies within printed language greatly influence the students' tasks of making correct decoding responses. Redundancy in print occurs at a number of levels. There is featural redundancy in individual letters; for example, some letters are curved while others are straight. The same kind of featural redundancy occurs in words. There is much redundancy within the structure of words because in the English language, patterns of features tend to occur only in certain combinations. These highly consistent patterns of features are examples of *orthographic redundancy*. Redundancy also extends across sequences of words and involves syntactic and semantic constraints. Reading thus comes to be perceived as an activity done to reduce uncertainty in print.[8]

To reduce uncertainty and obtain meaning, readers do not need to make use of all the information available to them. Instead, they take the most direct route and use as few cues as necessary to reach their goal —comprehension. An understanding of language structures and of the fact that every bit of information may be conveyed by several cues makes it possible for readers to predict and analyze the printed grammatical patterns after identifying a few elements within. The context in which the language occurs, created by the previous meanings readers have gathered, allows them to predict meanings that follow. To comprehend during reading, then, students *predict* as they read, *selecting* only the most productive cues and *sampling* the graphic language as they test their predictions. When predictions are not confirmed, readers then engage in greater visual analysis.

The implications of psycholinguistic theories for an increased understanding of the reading process thus become more apparent. Instead of letting students become passive identifiers of letters and words, English teachers of the 80's must encourage them to become active searchers for meaning during reading. We will also need to help students expedite this process. Instead of perpetuating instruction in reading with a set of discrete and fragmented skills, we must help students go directly from graphic language to meaning—without getting needlessly bogged down in the process.[9]

COMPETENCY-BASED TESTING MOVEMENTS: EXPLORING ALTERNATIVES

Among reading authorities, there is much debate concerning what constitutes the reading process and how reading should be taught. Two viewpoints tend to polarize within this diversity. On one hand, some argue for the need for a greater integration of reading with the expressive language arts, for varied and eclectic methods of teaching reading.[10] At the other extreme, many educators and state legislators argue for "minimal" and measurable competencies in reading.[11] This latter movement raises two chief concerns: (1) what are some characteristics of tests that are to be used in an attempt to measure minimal reading competency and (2) how are student results on these tests to be interpreted?

Characteristics

In reference to competency-based reading tests, Robert J. Tierney notes the following limitations:

> They tend to focus instruction on minimum rather than maximum reading skills.
> They tend to be culturally sterile rather than culturally pluralistic.
> They erroneously assume that minimum competencies are known, credible, and measurable.
> They assume that all individuals acquire the same skills, in the same amount of time, to the same extent, by the same methods.[12]

Tierney, like others who agree with the above, does not negate the need for standards of competence in the teaching of reading. His primary point, nevertheless, is that in no way can a student's performance on these tests be considered a sufficient means of measuring reading competence. Therefore, he concludes:

> Legislatively mandated minimal competency testing erroneously assumes that these competencies can be defined for all students, agreed upon by all persons, and measured. Such legislation overlooks the limits and dangers of testing and alternative ways of defining and determining student growth.[13]

Interpretation

The interpretations of competency-based test results have n used recently in many states to determine whether students at certain critical stages in their schooling should be *promoted* or *retained*. Such use —or misuse—of these tests has created much controversy. In the 80's, however, there is the likelihood that the dangers and misuses of compe-

tency-based reading tests will be rectified. There is much potential that local and state agencies will agree with the position adopted and approved recently by the Board of Directors of the International Reading Association:

> No single measure or method of assessment of minimum competencies should ever be the sole criterion for graduation or promotion of a student. Multiple indices assessed through a variety of means, including teacher observations, student work samples, past academic performance, and student self-reports, should be employed to assess competence.
>
> Furthermore, every effort should be made through every possible means to remediate weaknesses diagnosed through tests. Retention in grade or non-promotion of a student should be considered as only one alternative means of remediation and one that should be considered only when all other available methods have failed.
>
> For these reasons, the Board of Directors of the International Reading Association is firmly opposed to efforts of any school, state, provincial or national agency which attempts to determine a student's graduation or promotion on the basis of any single assessment.[14]

INCREASING READING FLEXIBILITY

Futuristic trends in the uses of print, already noted, suggest that our students will interact with wider and more varied forms of printed discourse than ever before. Consequently, they will need as much experience and assistance in reading information written differently for different purposes. Basically, they will need the capacity to read with ease three primary kinds of printed information: functional, technical, and literary.

Reading Functional Print

Functional reading, sometimes equated with "survival reading," includes tasks from reading calorie-count charts on products in grocery stores to reading various "how-to" manuals. We must not assume, however, that sources of functional reading are always easy to comprehend. In the 80's, English teachers will be using a variety of functional reading materials required within our pluralistic society. Thus, English teachers must become increasingly conscious of those characteristics found within different sources of functional print. Some examples follow: slanted information, false inferences, unproportionate analogies,

and hidden meanings and motives, such as can often be found in the language of advertising or editorials.

Reading Technical Print

Making technical passages simple to read, particularly in content areas, is not an easy task. Teachers interested in improving the teaching of technical reading must keep the following points in mind:

1. Teachers frequently assign great quantities of content that is often highly technical. We must become increasingly conscious of this fact: there is a difference in the ease with which we read different sources of printed discourse. Some forms, like technical expository information, exemplify typically difficult reading information. Moreover, the greater the amount assigned, the greater the reading task becomes for the student.

2. Of much significance in the reading of technical material is the vocabulary load—the kind, number, and frequency of specialized terms used.

3. In order to comprehend technical information in print, the student must be exposed to more than the mere sound and sight of the specialized vocabulary. Equally as significant, each one must understand the concepts behind the technical terms and how they are used in a particular context.

4. The reader of technical information will also need to comprehend the sequencing of events, why they have been so arranged, and why and how the specific and specialized words are used within the different parts of the printed material. In addition, the reader must be capable of perceiving relationships among these elements within the printed structure.

5. Perceiving relationships when reading technical information is difficult because it often involves critical reading skills of the highest order. In reading to gain technical information, the reader has to put many thought processes to work and at many different levels of abstraction.

At times, the student will need to do more than *analyze* and *discriminate*, although frequently, and sometimes simultaneously, she or he will need to perform these basic mental activities.

In the 80's, more than ever before, teachers will need to become increasingly aware of their reading assignments by asking themselves if they have been *assumptive.* An assumptive teacher assumes that the

reader has already the knowledge and experience background required to understand the content in print. In a similar fashion, teachers will need to become increasingly conscious of writers of materials for students to read who also make similar assumptions—such as that the reader has the same skills of language comprehension as the authors, that the elements and structure of content used by the authors are familiar to the students, and that the students are capable of mastery. Teachers must remember that frequently what the writer takes for granted, the reader has to figure out for herself or himself. The writer of materials for students, then, can choose to present her or his thoughts in any order, but the reader is constrained to the syntactic order through which the writer presents these thoughts.[15]

Reading Literature

In the 1970's we became more conscious of the personal, emotional, and social needs of our students, reflected in all media. Current newspapers and magazines now feature articles based upon some of these concerns. To illustrate, read some banner headlines: "Early Pregnancy Looms for Teen-Age Girls"; "Homes Needed for Runaways"; "Teen-Age Son Kills Parent"; "How Teen-Age Con Artists Rob Elderly"; "Pre-Teen Pregnancy—How to Cope"; "Nontraditional Jobs for Girls"; "The Abandoned Child—Single, Searching, Scared"; "Bed-Wetting—Trigger for Child Abuse?" "Course Offered to Help Adolescents Cope While in Prison"; "Teen-Ager Held for Aggravated Kidnapping and Robbery." And, the topics continue to abound—dealing also with broken homes, drugs, mental illness, alcohol, death, the occult, and communal living.

Not only must English teachers of the 80's teach literature, but also they must use a variety of literary sources.[16] Sources of literature should include career books, biographies, historical novels, poetry and/or drama, science fiction, fantasy, the classics, high-interest–easy-reading books, and popular materials and magazines. The wide and varied sources of literature must be taught primarily for the following three reasons.

First, *students need to read literature for pleasure and personal involvement.* A major contribution of literature is to help students learn more about the human condition—to help them find their own identity, who and what they are, and what they can become. In literature, students read about characters living through crises. They learn to identify who the other is, and for what he or she stands—his or her reality, then, as an individual.

Second, *students read literature to extend their ability to comprehend and manip-ulate new concepts and thought relationships.* Within literature, there is much opportunity for thought and concept development; for the awakening of subconscious ideas; for the exploration of new hopes, answers, and feelings. Literature, with its many facets for reflecting life, serves as a source of "reading growth" for our students. Through literature, students gain additional experiences at different stages of their human adventure. Thus, literature supplies the students with much power in reading—power to *extend,* power to *realize,* power to *share,* power to *participate,* power to *experience,* if only vicariously.

Third, *students read literature to transcend the "here and now."* Through literature, students are capable of generating variations in experiences that permit all sorts of concomitant delights. Among an array of charac-ters and situations, they discover those elements into which they can project their own emotions, their own personalities. Through vicarious responses to literature, our students extend full use of images, memo-ries, feelings, and intuitions. When students respond to literature vicari-ously, they go beyond the "here and now."

Like all teachers in the 80's, English teachers must become increas-ingly accountable for assisting each student in the mastery of skills needed to comprehend different kinds of printed materials written for different reasons. What we all as teachers must keep in mind, however, is this most important point: *Our students read differently at different times because they read different materials for different reasons. We must also remember that our students read materials written differently in a similar way at times and for similar reasons. For example, they may read any printed matter, whether it be classified as functional, technical, or literary, with varying degrees of cognitive, creative, and analyti-cal thought.* Thus, in planning for improved instruction in reading, we will need to increase our knowledge of what skills seem most appropriate to teach, at what time, with what content, and to which students. We must also continue to offer students opportunities to read with both thought and feeling, with both emotion and interest.[17]

The times are ripe for "student centered" reading curriculums in the 80's. Whatever else English teachers decide, we should continue to use the student's *self* as content. Each student's personal contribution to this learning act places reading activities in as broad a context as possi-ble. It is this multifaceted perception of reading that we teachers must possess if we are to teach reading with power. In turn, it is the ability to read with such power that our students need and deserve—and not a bit less.

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The Basics in the 80's

Gary Tate

To think back over the changing face of English studies during the 1970's is to become aware of the folly of prediction. How many of us, in 1969, foresaw the changes that were to occur during the next decade, changes such as those described so well by Vernon H. Smith in the April 1979 issue of *The English Journal*? How many of us, in 1969, would have predicted a back-to-the-basics movement that has affected almost every educational institution in this country? How many of us would have understood the force with which the so-called "new vocationalism" has diminished the prestige of the various liberal arts curriculums? How many of us would have foreseen the nationwide outcry for competency testing at all levels of education? These questions could be continued almost indefinitely, but I need not belabor the obvious.

Some teachers probably saw *some* hints, in 1969, of things to come, but most of us were caught unaware. Why? In part, at least, we ourselves are to blame. We become so engrossed in the day-to-day problems that face us as teachers that we forget our past and have no time (we say) to think about the future. And so we muddle along, day by day, until we find ourselves in the middle of an educational change that we might have been prepared for, had we occasionally looked back and ahead as well as just down. I am not suggesting that we should be able to foresee every slight shift in the educational winds. I argue only that

64

without a sense of where we have been and without an interest in the future, we as teachers are doomed to a life of surprises, many of which will make little sense and many of which will disturb or even anger us.

I am aware that changes occur as a result of events (political, social, technological) over which we as individual teachers have little control. And these events sometimes have a significant impact on whom we teach, how we teach, and where we teach. Therefore, we must all not spend the best parts of ourselves striving after certainties, tranquility, and permanence in our professional lives. We must, in other words, live in a world in flux, teach in a world in flux. Seen or unforeseen, change will come. The trick, of course, is somehow to avoid letting our changing world so confuse us that we lose sight of what it is that we are about as teachers of English. Or, to put it another way, we must decide what is essential, what is "basic," and so study and teach that; no matter what changes occur, we continue to focus on what should be our central concerns.

I do not know what will happen in the world, in our profession, during the 1980's. I do know, however, that what is basic now will remain basic because beneath the shifting surface of social change, technological change, and pedagogical change, there lie certain funda- mental, essential concerns that all English teachers should hold in com- mon. To describe or define these features of our discipline in detail is difficult, but I think it essential that we all try to do so, for without a firm sense of who we are and what our jobs are as teachers of English, we are doomed to be swept along unthinkingly as new waves of teach- ing methodologies, "innovations," and technologies toss us about from term to term, from year to year.

I would suggest, first, that most of the changes that are likely to occur in the 1980's will have to do with matters of less than primary importance. This has been true in the recent past, and I see no reason to suggest that things will be different—except on the surface—during the decade of the 80's. Being an optimist, I find it, of course, almost inevitable that new and significant ideas about the teaching of writing, literature, and language will surface during the next few years. It is also inevitable that new instructional techniques will be introduced as we learn more about how children and adults learn. What we test and how we test will continue, I think, to be an issue of heated debate. Specula- tion about most of these matters will appear in other essays in this book. But I would hope that all such changes and debates will not distract us from our essential task, our basic job. Our profession would be healthier today had we not, in the past, been mesmerized by secondary matters, matters that have too often sapped our strength and weakened our

65

spirits. Not that some of the issues, theories, and problems were not important. They *demanded* our attention, but not our *entire* attention. We should always save the better part of ourselves for those basic matters that I am suggesting will not change.

To be specific, our essential job as English teachers is to help students find that reading is both profitable and fun, to help students learn something about their language, and to help students become better writers and speakers. No matter what happens during the 1980's, these objectives should remain constant and should engage most of our time and as much energy as we can muster. Whatever distracts us from these basic tasks should be avoided—or should engage as little of our attention as possible. Each of us should ask again and again: What am I doing as a teacher that is not *directly* related to helping students read better, write better, and/or speak better?

Let me now suggest some of the good things that might happen during the 1980's in each of the areas I've mentioned: literature, composition, and language. All that we simply wish for will not come to pass, but if we both hope and work, much can be done.

The study of literature at all levels of education will, I think, become more personal. More and more students and teachers will begin to see literature of all kinds as a transaction between author and individual reader, a transaction in which every reader's response is unique—and to be respected. It will become unfashionable, I hope, for teachers to believe that one "right response" is the only acceptable response to a piece of writing. At the same time, the study of literature just might become something more than the study of literary history, of the lives of famous authors, of the meanings of technical terms. What might happen, if we are all wise enough, is that literary studies in the 1980's will focus on the reading of individual works of merit in such a way that students become better readers, not better literary historians, not better test takers, not better writers of "research" papers. I spoke of reading as profitable and enjoyable, but the two cannot be separated or set in sequence. For some readers, the enjoyment derives from the profit; for others, the profit derives from the enjoyment. And we cannot, should not, define either term in an attempt to make it apply to all students. If, as we so often claim, we respect the individuality of each student, then we should show our belief in this individuality by respecting, listening to, and discussing students' reactions to the literature that they read, even when these reactions seem to us naive or idiosyncratic. Above all, we should stop labeling student responses as "wrong."

An increasing national interest in doublespeak, disclosure, and the English language as a tool of manipulation will cause us, during the

66

coming years, to examine our language in order to discover more than the eight parts of speech. I do not wish to get involved in the continuing controversy about the merits of various grammatical systems, nor do I think this is the place to do more than predict that the relationship between the study of grammar and the study of writing will remain a healthy controversy during the 1980's, a controversy that will not, I think, be resolved during this decade. I would suggest, however, that more and more excellent teachers, from the elementary grades through graduate school, are realizing that the study of our language can be fascinating to students if that study involves more than the study of grammar. Many students are fascinated by the history of our language and by the ways in which a knowledge of that history affects attitudes about present-day English. As students from different cultures and subcultures intermingle in our classrooms, dialect study will become increasingly dramatic and essential. How human beings acquire language is a topic of central interest to those of us who are interested in helping students read better, speak better, and write better. Language acquisition is, in addition, a fascinating topic in its own right. It is entirely possible, therefore, that during the 1980's more and more of us will begin to see the value of a language study that is far more than the study of grammar. And we need not wait until students are in high school or college to begin this study. The earlier, the better.

Nothing in education during the past few years has been more dramatic than the nationwide interest in the teaching of writing. This interest will continue and possibly show increased intensity during the 1980's. We will, I think, see more clearly than ever before that it is the job of *every* teacher to help students improve their writing. While the heaviest burden will continue to fall on the teacher of English, there will be a growing awareness that the English teacher cannot "do it all." But we can and will do much. We will, I hope, begin to see—as many see already—that the effective teaching of writing involves more than a term paper, a unit on grammar, and complaints about the illiteracy of students. An increasing number of schools will work, during the 1980's, to provide all students with opportunities to write often and in a variety of modes. Students in English classes who are asked to write only about literature and only in "formal" prose are denied the opportunities necessary to gain that flexibility of thought and style so characteristic of good writers. Frequent writing—of all kinds—will also free many students from their fear of writing, a fear that makes the putting of words on paper a slow and painful experience.

If teaching loads do not decrease during the 1980's—and I doubt that they will—how will all this writing get evaluated, marked, and

graded?[1] Our profession has struggled with this problem for many years now. I hope that in the next decade or so, the question will seem less important, not because teachers will have fewer students in their classes but because we will come to realize, as some do already, that people write to be read, to be heard, not to be evaluated and graded. Teachers who assign only the amount of writing that they can "mark" thoroughly are doing a great disservice to their students. It has been said many times before, but I will repeat it: all papers need not be analyzed for every error; all papers need not be graded. If students know that what they write is being read, most will be satisfied—and many will be delighted. Grades must be given, of course—at the end of term. In the meantime, both students and teachers should be engaged in the frequent writing of many short pieces of discourse so that students will learn to write to be read, not to be graded.

To many readers, my predictions, my hopes, for the 1980's will seem terribly old-fashioned. But that, of course, is just the point. What is *really* basic, as we are fond of saying—reading, speaking, and writing —will not, I think, change during the 1980's or after. In spite of all attempts to add to or ignore one or more of these concerns, in spite of all attempts to redefine "English" and the role of the English teacher, these three basic concerns abide. And they are sufficient.

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1 Editor's Note: The annual NCTE publication *Classroom Practices in Teaching English* focuses on how to deal with the paper load in its 1979–80 edition.

English in the Elementary School: What, How, and Why We Teach

Iris M. Tiedt

The elementary teacher holds a key position in the total English language arts curriculum because it is during these early years that attitudes and basic understandings are first established. The philosophy of instruction adopted by each teacher, whether implicit or explicit, therefore, is of crucial concern as we consider development of English instruction in the 80's. Rational unification of theory and practice is essential for a healthy English language arts curriculum—one that demonstrates awareness of the reality of children's needs, how learning really takes place, and what knowledge will prepare young people for the future.

REVIEWING THE ASSUMPTIONS

Elementary teachers can identify a set of common instructional beliefs based on their knowledge and training, their own sensitivity to the problems that influence both teacher and student, and their personal desire to improve English language arts instruction. Most teachers would agree on the following basic assumptions:

1. The teacher is the key to what happens in the classroom. Students respond to the teacher's enthusiasm, and they want the

teacher's approval. The teacher determines what is taught, and his or her expectations often influence what children achieve. What teachers actually *do* in the classroom reveals their beliefs about teaching.

2. Much learning takes place before children enter school. Children's language development and experiential background begin at birth so that they come to school with knowledge and skills that can be built on. The hours spent outside the classroom continue to offer resources that add to the richness of the curriculum.

3. Language skills are not learned in isolation. The primary skills of listening and speaking provide a foundation on which successful writing and reading depend. Not only is writing, the most difficult of the language skills, supported by oral language, but also it is closely allied to reading through the encoding–decoding processes as well as through the writer–reader relationship.

4. Language skills are used throughout the school curriculum. Listening, speaking, writing, and reading are ways of learning and responding to new experiences and information developed in conjunction with content from history, art, music, mathematics, and science.

5. Students learn by doing. They must write in order to learn to write and read in order to learn to read. If students are to listen, speak, read, and write effectively, the teacher must involve them in language activities that have real purpose, and the purpose for each activity should be clear to the students.

6. Children have a natural love of language. Teachers can promote this enjoyment of language and use it to motivate students as part of a language arts curriculum that includes word-play as well as the more serious study of language structure (grammar).

7. The learning of language begins as a self-motivated activity and should proceed in this way. Essential to the concept of self-motivation is the role of self-evaluation.

8. Children need to feel successful in what they undertake and to know that what they produce is acceptable. Positive reinforcement helps children develop a positive self-image and feelings

of self-esteem. Secure in the knowledge that they are accepted, children can continue to grow.

9. The needs and abilities of individual children differ. Concern for the individual means that we must recognize different modes of learning and provide for alternative choices. Individualized instruction includes opportunities to work alone as well as to interact as part of a group.

10. The teacher's most appropriate role is that of a guide, a facilitator of learning. Rather than closely supervising student activities, the teacher should plan the curriculum and devise strategies that teach students to operate independently.

11. Learning such broad skills as composition and comprehension is more important than mastery of facts. Covering content will, therefore, be secondary to developing student abilities to compose, synthesize, and evaluate or to understand, analyze, and generalize.

12. Parents can play an active and beneficial role in the schooling of their children. Although teachers can provide expertise and guidance for parents, both teachers *and* parents should work cooperatively for the good of the individual child.

If we accept these 12 basic assumptions about language arts instruction, then it follows that we will design a curriculum that carries out the implications of each one.

DESIGNING A LANGUAGE ARTS CURRICULUM FOR THE 80's

Curriculum is never created in a vacuum. Influenced by societal trends, new research findings, and changing values, language arts instruction will change inevitably as a result of forces that exist both inside and outside of the classroom. Educators need to recognize these influences and to evaluate what they have to offer in terms of curriculum development rather than to permit change to occur without question. At a time when teachers must assume a leadership role in designing a curriculum that reflects what they believe about teaching children, they are faced with the paradox posed by Margaret Mead:

We are now at the point where we must educate people in what nobody knew yesterday and prepare in our schools for what no one knows yet, but what some people must know tomorrow.[1]

Setting Goals

The goals for a language arts curriculum in the 80's should be based on the beliefs identified above. These goals will center around the needs of children in a changing society with emphasis on skills and knowledge that will prepare young people for living in the twenty-first century. These goals can be expressed in terms of two basic processes: (1) thinking and (2) communicating.

Thinking. The primary focus of the language arts program for the 80's must be on thinking. Although this language process is subsumed in everything we do, it is often ignored as educators compose lists of proficiencies to be attained by students. A language arts curriculum that focuses on thinking will stimulate questioning and experimenting. It will teach children to respond to the world thoughtfully.

As children endeavor to comprehend the world around them, they will respond to new experiences and discover the excitement of dealing with ideas. They will learn to analyze as well as to synthesize as they integrate affective and cognitive aspects of learning. Our aim should be to bring these modes of learning closer together for, as Piaget observed, they cannot be separated:

> Affective life, like intellectual life, is a continuous adaptation, and the two are not only parallel but interdependent, since feelings express the interest and values given to actions of which intelligence provides the structure.

Communicating. The second focus of language arts instruction must be on communicating, a primary purpose of language. Children of all countries eagerly acquire language as they struggle to speak to those around them. They learn to communicate through attentive listening followed by self-motivated, immediately reinforced practice in speaking. Much later, they learn to communicate through the complex skill of writing.

Children who communicate effectively recognize their own worth and have strong feelings of self-esteem. Accepting themselves prepares them for accepting others as they learn to appreciate the similarities as well as the differences among individuals. The productive side of communication—talking and writing—permits children to share their personal feelings and observations with peers. Through listening and reading (the receptive skills), they hear the voices of others like themselves who share universal problems and concerns. They discover the excite-

ment and challenge of interacting at a personal level and later extend their communication skills to reach a broader audience.

Communicating is, of course, directly related to thinking, since we can express only what is stored in our brains. Inadequate vocabulary and concept development limit what children can think and, therefore, what they are able to communicate. As we consider goals and objectives for communicating, therefore, we will find that they must be closely integrated with those specified for the thinking process and will, in many cases, involve "feeding the brain."

Stating Goals. Children learn through experience, developing language competencies under such broad categories as valuing, describing, relating, discriminating, generalizing, and judging or evaluating. Students will apply these competencies as they think about what they hear and read, and their responses will require the use of oral or written language. Responses to literature, for instance, might be expected to occur in this way:

Valuing: Students will state what they like or admire and what they reject in the literature as they explore varied content and different genres.

Describing: Students will identify and describe such elements of literature as character, setting, plot development, point of view, and dialogue which will serve as models for their original composition.

Relating: Students will make connections, see similarities, and relate literature to their own lives as they share the emotions expressed by a character or observe a different family's way of living.

Discriminating: Students will identify and discuss differences, for example, in the behavior of two characters or the handling of a topic by several authors.

Generalizing: Students will state concepts abstracted from literature such as the universal need for love or the perception of death as part of life.

Judging: Students will evaluate the content or writing style of specific selections as they compare and contrast or argue their own points of view.[3]

Such goals encourage the development of broad proficiencies that will last a lifetime. Whether we reach our goals will be determined by the subject matter we teach and by the strategies we employ for teaching that content.

Focusing on Concepts and Skills

Determining the concepts to be taught and the skills to be developed in the elementary language arts program brings us to the examination of English as a subject of study. Clearly, there is a body of information related to the English language itself and to products based on language—that is, books, speeches, dramas, and films. In addition, there is a body of information related to languaging skills which require practice if performance is to be adequate.

Certainly, time must be allocated to the study of language, literature, and information about using language with the greatest effect. The study of this content, moreover, provides the vehicle for practicing the most effective use of language.

The English Language. Children who are studying English should learn the fundamental aspects of its structure: phonology, morphology, and grammar. *Phonology,* the study of the sounds English speakers use as they speak, forms the basis for the encoding–decoding process as students relate sounds to the symbols we use in written language. *Morphology,* the study of meaningful elements of language, is essential to the composition and comprehension of both spoken and written language. And *grammar* tells students how English speakers assemble words to compose both oral and written sentences.

In addition to these basic elements, we need to stress a variety of interesting aspects of language that will make its study appealing to young people:

1. *Dialectology:* Regional vocabulary and pronunciations; bidialectalism; the concept of standard English; comparing American and British English

2. *History of English:* Beginnings of the language; relationship to other languages; origins of English words; changing spellings; linguistic change

3. *Usage:* Conventions of using English; levels of appropriateness; developing an "ear for language"

4. *Semantics:* Denotation and connotation; using a thesaurus; the effect of context on meaning

5. *Body language:* Meaning without words; cultural variations; conventional gestures; intonation

6. *Wordplay:* Puns, epithets, euphemisms, onomatopoeia, alliteration, rhymes, word games.

Literature. Children's literature offers a rich store of enjoyment and information. Literature is more than books written for children. It takes many forms and can be experienced through all of the senses. To guide children in exploring such a breadth of content and to enable them to experience literature to the fullest, we must select from thousands of picture books, poetry books, novels, and biographies that are available today. We must also plan to take advantage of literature's stimulus to learning as children discuss books, write dramatizations, read aloud together, view films, and compose music to accompany a favorite poem.

Languaging Processes. Not only do children need to practice using language skills, but also they need information about how to improve their languaging abilities. In order to learn how to speak any language, there is no doubt that you must practice speaking it, and the same is true of learning to read and write a language. Students need to discuss their own use of language, the problems they encounter, and how they can overcome these difficulties. For example, admitting the difficulty of writing (handling the conventions as well as the physical act of hand-writing) may enlighten both teacher and student as they work together to facilitate the writing process.

Children should be aware, furthermore, of the interrelationships among the language arts. Knowing how speaking and listening are related may clarify the students' effective use of these skills. Students should also realize that oral language provides a strong foundation for their learning to read and to write.
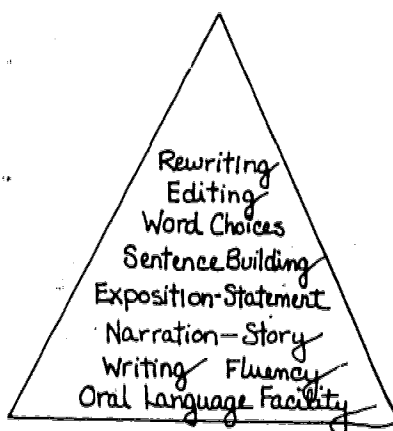
Selecting Teaching Strategies

The instructional strategies selected by teachers determine the strength of any language arts program. The strategies described here have been selected because they reflect the assumptions about teaching discussed earlier, and, furthermore, they will continue to be effective in the 80's and beyond.

Reading Literature Aloud. Picture a teacher reading *Pippi Longstocking, Homer Price,* or *Charlotte's Web* aloud to a group of children. All eyes are on the teacher. The students respond appropriately as the story pro-gresses. There is a sigh of regret as the teacher closes the book. This familiar activity is widely used, particularly by primary grade teachers, to add pleasure to the elementary curriculum. As an outstanding teach-ing strategy, however, its potential has yet to be fully realized, for as teachers read aloud, they are teaching—

1. *English grammar:* Varied sentence patterns.

2. *Vocabulary:* New words in context.

3. *Composition skills:* Imagery, dialogue.

4. *Literature concepts:* Characterization, plot development.

5. *Listening skills:* Comprehending spoken language.

6. *Cognitive skills:* Making inferences, drawing conclusions.

Centering on Composition. Based on a strong oral language foundation and using literature as a stimulus and source of information, the teaching of writing provides an exciting focus for the integrated language arts curriculum. The following holistic model, designed for K–12 levels, provides a framework for the curriculum[4]:

Rewriting
Editing
Word Choices
Sentence Building
Exposition-Statement
Narration—Story
Writing Fluency
Oral Language Facility

Students learn the technical skills of writing (mechanics and spelling) and tips for improving their own writing as they are engaged in the writing process. They become involved in producing writing before focusing on style and before learning to edit and revise their first drafts. Sample activities for each stage of development include:

1. *Oral language facility:* Storytelling; asking questions; acting out

2. *Writing fluency:* Making lists; keeping journals; writing personal anecdotes

3. *Narration—story:* Writing dialogue; experimenting with point of

view; creating a children's book; examining the work of noted authors

4. *Exposition—statement:* Topic sentences; expository paragraphs; letters; the I-search paper

5. *Sentence building:* Grammar of the sentence; sentence-combining; style

6. *Word choices:* Accepted usage; connotation—denotation; word-play

7. *Editing:* Use of proofreading marks; reading aloud to check grammar; peer evaluation

8. *Rewriting:* Preparing to make writing public on the bulletin board, in magazines; sharing with parents.

Implicit in this approach are the facts that students should write frequently and for varied audiences and that they should be involved in evaluation.

Developing a Literature Program. A literature program can be planned to incorporate the two strategies described. The advantage of a planned program is that literature is taught rather than presented only peripherally. Such a program becomes the center of a wide reading effort that stimulates children's thinking and their responses to literature; it also makes use of such sound practices as:

1. *Sustained silent reading: Everybody* in the whole school reads.

2. *Reader's theater:* Children read the roles in a story after adapting it for this purpose.

3. *The reading center:* Here children listen to stories on tape or read books and magazines, as well as writing their own stories.

SUMMARY

As education "shifts into the future tense," in the words of Alvin Toffler,[5] the language arts curriculum should reflect the best of what we know about teaching. The process we have described here—designing a curriculum based on selected goals and appropriate teaching strategies—will enable us to create a strong, but flexible language arts program that will prepare students to live in the 1980's. This process will also enable us to continue adapting and adjusting the language arts program to fit the changing needs of the future.

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_____ CHAPTER 9

English in the Middle School
Jeffrey N. Golub

The middle school has become a most paradoxical institution: On the one hand, it reflects the educational community's acknowledgment that there is, indeed, something unique about the instructional needs and the developmental level of early adolescent students. Yet, the nature of both the curriculum and the instructional approach in the middle school has been influenced mainly by the demands of the back-to-the-basics movement, a force that—with its emphasis on accountability and student learning objectives—has kept English instruction from being truly responsive to the uniqueness of the students involved. The greatest disappointment of the basics movement, in fact, is the loss of perspective that has resulted. We seem to have lost perspective of what is worth knowing, of how students learn, and of what should be the role or function of the teacher in the classroom. I don't know if the number of middle schools will continue to increase during the 80's; but if this educational concept is to survive at all, an instructional approach that is both unique and appropriate must be developed for the middle school. In this chapter, then, I want to identify what I see as some of the elements of this lost perspective and describe some options for instruction that might emerge as a result of regaining our perspective.

THE INTERPERSONAL ELEMENT IN EDUCATION

One of the significant distinguishing characteristics of the early adolescent child is his or her search for identity. The child's self-image is emerging as "self"-consciousness at this time and is particularly susceptible to change and influence. The perspective that seems to be ignored, however, is the way in which the child's self-image develops. A *transactional* perspective of this process asserts that our self-image develops in response to how we see *others* seeing us. An appropriate analogy occurs as a result of the fact that it is literally impossible for us to see our own face; instead, we must look *outward* at something else —in this case, a mirror—and note the reflection that that outward object affords us. In the same way, persons look to others to gain some sense of their own value and worth. In his discussion of this process of transaction, John Stewart states, "Every time persons communicate, they are continually offering definitions of themselves and responding to definitions of the other(s) which they perceive."[1] The appropriateness of our behavior and our acts of communication, for instance, can be evaluated only by gauging their effect on our intended audience. From this perspective, our self-image becomes an *interpersonal* phenomenon, continually subject to modification and further development in response to our perception of the quality of our communication encounters. John Stewart and Gary D'Angelo summarize the importance of this process: "The quality of our interpersonal relationships determines who we are becoming as persons."[2]

Given middle school students who are struggling with this process —defining themselves through their interactions with others—we can shift our curriculum focus and restructure our instructional approach to facilitate their personal growth. By working to help students gain increased control of their communication behavior, we can enable them to control the ways in which they present themselves (their "self") to others. Our goal in English instruction in the middle schools, then, should become the development of students' *communication competence.*

THE NATURE OF COMMUNICATION COMPETENCE

The Speech Communication Association recently completed an extensive research project involving the use of questionnaires and surveys to assess the nature of functional communication competencies. As a result of the data collected, the following five functions of communication were identified and categorized:

1. *Controlling.* These are communication acts in which the participants' dominant function is to control behavior: for example, commanding, offering, suggesting, permitting, threatening, warning, ...

2. *Feeling.* These are communication acts which express and respond to feelings and attitudes, such as exclaiming, expressing a state or an attitude, taunting, commiserating, tale-telling, blaming, disagreeing, ...

3. *Informing.* These are communication acts in which the participants' function is to offer or seek information: for example, stating information, questioning, answering, justifying, naming, pointing out an object, demonstrating, ...

4. *Ritualizing.* These are communication acts which serve primarily to maintain social relationships and to facilitate social interaction, such as greeting, taking leave, participating in verbal games (pat-a-cake), reciting, ...

5. *Imagining.* These are communication acts which cast the participants in imaginary situations and include creative behaviors such as role playing, fantasizing, speculating, dramatizing, theorizing, and storytelling.[3]

Communication competence "refers to a person's knowledge of how to use language appropriately in all kinds of communication situations,"[4] and the SCA researchers identified four communication competencies basic to each of the above five functions:

When people work to develop communication competence, they are concerned with "putting language to work" for them in the following ways: (1) enlarging their *repertoire* of communication acts; (2) *selecting* criteria for making choices from the repertoire; (3) *implementing* the communication acts chosen; and (4) *evaluating* the effectiveness of communication employed.[5]

The major assumption of the SCA research project is that—

. . . the *function of communication* is of paramount importance. . . . Whether students are seventh graders or seniors in high school, they perform all five communication functions. The difference in age is not in the presence or absence of these functional abilities, but in the levels of sophistication with which they employ communication acts. In terms of the four levels of competence, more experienced students (1) give more examples, give more ways of handling the communication in the activity (repertoire); (2) use a greater number of criteria and more appropriate criteria in selecting communication acts (selecting); (3) employ communication acts

81

effectively in more varied contexts (implementing); and (4) make sounder judgments about the effectiveness of their communication acts (evaluation).[6]

IMPLICATIONS FOR ENGLISH INSTRUCTION

The SCA report, with its exploration of the nature of oral communication competence, is just beginning to exert an influence on secondary school curriculums. I expect it to have a *major* impact on the teaching of English in the 80's, particularly in middle schools, changing both the focus of the curriculum and the methods of instruction. Some of these expected changes include:

1. *An increased emphasis on informal student talk as a vehicle of learning.*

Students must be given the opportunity to practice a variety of oral communication behaviors if they are to enlarge their repertoires. Work in small groups, role-playing activities, and response-centered class discussions can all contribute to the development of this facet of communication competence. The use of "fishbowl" discussions, in which an outer circle of students observes the behavior of an inner circle of discussants, can provide the feedback necessary for the evaluation and subsequent improvement of students' oral interaction. Too often, students' informal classroom talk is regarded as a nuisance, interfering with the "real" content of English instruction. The SCA report complements the transactional perspective of the communication process, however, because it indicates that students' talk is a phenomenon for study in its own right and that instructional methods should be designed with this insight in mind.

2. *The simultaneous development of* **both** *oral and written communication competence.*

There is a remarkable similarity between the range of oral communication functions identified by the SCA report and the continuum of functional writing established by James Britton. Britton's continuum ranged from "poetic" or "reflexive" writing (writing close to the self) to "transactional" or "extensive" writing (writing directed outward to communicate information to another).[7] In the same way, the oral communication functions range from the "reflexive" (feeling, imagining) to the "extensive" (informing, controlling). The implication of this similarity of functions appears to be a call for instructional strategies designed to develop students' communication competence in *both* the

82

oral and the written modes. An assignment aimed at improving the students' ability to give directions clearly (informing, transactional function), for example, could be presented with two variations, one for each mode. Classroom instructional methods should have students "flowing" from talking to writing and back again to talking. Students might engage in an oral pre-writing activity (sharing responses to a film; working through a creative drama exercise), "flow" into an appropriate follow-up writing exercise, and then gather in small groups to share what they have written. We should see more of this "flowing" from talking to writing in the 80's because, according to the transactional perspective of communication, both the oral and the written modes involve persons in *perception-sharing*, and it is *this* skill that should become the focus of English instruction.

3. *An instructional approach that emphasizes* **experiential** *learning of communication processes.*

As a process-oriented perspective of the language arts continues to gain acceptance in the 80's, we can expect to see increasing use of experiential methods of instruction. Such an approach has students working through a variety of communication experiences with the teacher cast in the role of *facilitator*, one who is available to respond to the students' insights that emerge from their interaction with the experiences.

The change in the teacher's function—from that of a disseminator of information to that of a facilitator in experiential learning situations —is especially important. A basic principle of perception states that persons do not simply respond to their environment; rather, they select from it and interpret it, and their behavior, in turn, is influenced by their interpretations and selective perceptions. Given this phenomenon, not just students in the middle schools but rather those at all educational levels need to explore their perceptions through language and to share their perceptions with others. The teacher as facilitator can provide a learning environment conducive to such exploration and sharing.

CONCLUSION

While communication competence is a desired goal at *all* levels of education, it represents an especially appropriate direction for English instruction at the middle school level in the 80's. The intimate relationship between one's self-image and one's communication behavior must

be acknowledged and dealt with in the classroom, and teachers' recognition of this concern would provide the middle schools with an educationally sound perspective and purpose, both of which are sorely needed at this time.

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The Training of English Teachers in the 80's

R. Baird Shuman

A predictive essay gives one the opportunity to dream; to build castles in the air; to construct new, more nearly perfect worlds than the one in which we all presently live. Indeed, the very fact that the contributors to this book are combining dreams with responsible prediction may, in some small way, move their dreams a step or two closer to becoming realities in the new decade. Nevertheless, all of us in writing our chapters have had to take into account as realistically and honestly as possible all of those factors in the decade of the 80's that would encourage change and, equally, all of those factors that would inhibit any departure from the status quo. In this chapter I will attempt to view the social and economic pressures that will in various ways determine the course of teacher education in English during the 80's and beyond; I will also attempt to present some of the ideals toward which the profession might be striving as it considers how best to train teachers for the twenty-first century.

SOME CONTROLLING FACTORS

Perhaps the greatest adjustment all Americans have to make during the 80's is that of realizing that their nation's long undisputed position

as the world's leading economic power is in serious jeopardy. The symptoms of this jeopardy—seemingly uncontrollable inflation, a continuation of a negative balance of payments to foreign countries, an increased energy problem—have already made themselves felt very directly in the area of school finance, which affects everything that goes on in schools. There exists every indication that the situation will become worse before it becomes better. It is not inconceivable that the 1980's could in many fundamental economic respects very much resemble the 1930's. A severe recession before the end of the decade, and most probably within its first five years, is a virtual certainty; an economic depression that might begin here and spread to the rest of the world is certainly not an impossibility.

Superimposed upon this somewhat discouraging economic scenario is a social scenario that will also necessarily affect the ways in which teachers will need to be trained in the years immediately ahead. Among the elements of this scenario, one must consider the following: (1) the third largest industry in our nation today is the illicit drug industry, trailing after the energy and automot.ve industries; (2) the second highest cause of deaths among today's youngsters of school age is suicide, a course of action chosen by youngsters as young as 8; (3) our nation is rapidly becoming multilingual, and in particular the number of Spanish-speaking people is growing so fast that in many urban areas of the North and Midwest, Spanish is the only language that populations of entire schools can deal with; in the states that border Mexico—California, Arizona, New Mexico, and Texas—the same situation exists even in the smaller towns; (4) increasing pressures are being exerted on school districts to implement racial and ethnic integration which means, on the one hand, that teachers will be dealing more frequently with students who use dialects or languages different from their own and, on the other hand, that the number of private schools will rise meteorically as parents resist attempts at integration;[1] (5) severely handicapped students will be mainstreamed into regular classrooms; (6) teachers throughout the country will increasingly (and predictably more militantly than ever in the past) work through labor unions and through professional organizations to assure their rights as professionals; and (7) much educational decision making will increasingly fall into the hands of local education councils, including in their membership numbers of students and local citizens sufficient to outnumber any teachers and school administrators who might be included in the membership.

DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS

The much heralded decline in the birth rate in the 60's and early 70's has resulted in marked declines in school enrollments, and it is anticipated that these declines will continue at the secondary level well into the 80's, although modest gains in elementary school enrollments are expected by the mid-80's. *The Chronicle of Higher Education* reports, "Since 1973 the annual production of new teachers has dropped an estimated 42 per cent."[2] Nevertheless, the present supply of teachers of English and many other subjects far exceeds the demand. If this situation persists—and it must be remembered that several factors other than the birth rate could affect it—further declines in teacher education enrollments will be experienced, probably with the following results: (1) many private colleges and universities, feeling severe budgetary pressures, will discontinue undergraduate teacher training programs which have been sustained at great expense for a decreasing number of clients; (2) major colleges of education in the largest and most prestigious public universities will minimize or totally discontinue teacher training programs and concentrate primarily on educational research and on offering graduate-level courses to those who are already certified; (3) more states will take the step that California took more than two decades ago, requiring a fifth year of higher education for those seeking certification —a move that presumably would bring back into being many of the MAT programs that were abandoned during the late 70's.[3]

Two major factors could mitigate the oversupply of teachers in English. First, the average age of secondary school teachers is now over 40, which indicates that larger numbers of teachers will be retiring in the 80's than at any time in the past. It would be naive to predict that retirees will be replaced on a one-for-one basis; however, retirements will account for large numbers of new positions.

The second factor has to do with class size and work load. The National Council of Teachers of English recommends that secondary school English teachers teach no more than 100 students a day. Presently, the typical teacher load is between 140 and 150, depending on where one finds his or her statistics. The 60-hour week, which has long since been replaced in industry by one of 40 hours (and, in some cases, by one of 36 or 38 hours), is still a reality for conscientious English teachers. Ultimately their professional organizations and their unions will alter this situation, and when this inevitable action occurs, there will be a substantial teacher shortage, particularly of English teachers because the subject involves a paper load so enormous as to require a

compensatory reduction in class size. However, when such a change comes, states that are hard pressed economically may take drastic action, such as dropping the sch ol-leaving age to 15 or even to 14 in order to control expenditures.

THE CLIENTELE OF TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAMS

Just 6.2 percent of the students who will be graduated from college in 1982 presently plans to prepare for teaching careers.[1] But as undergraduate enrollments dwindle, it becomes increasingly evident that rapidly changing technologies, the dizzying proliferation of new information in areas of learning concerned with communication, and the drastic changes in the populations of the schools in which today's teachers work are making the re-education of those presently engaged in teaching a pressing, even urgent, need. In the 80's, I would predict that many states will come to demand a fifth year of training for those seeking initial certification and that increasing pressures will be put upon those already in service to complete additional college- or university-level work. The oversupply of teachers can be dealt with practically in this way, and the long-term professional outcomes should be desirable.

Given the large numbers of practicing teachers who presently need retraining, those institutions that continue their teacher training programs and that offer work at the graduate level should find a substantial constituency to serve. In the 80's, we will probably see many colleges and universities (1) setting up programs that will bring teachers to the campus for a full year of combined teaching and graduate training;[5] (2) offering more short, intensive courses, some of them lasting for two or three consecutive weekends, for example, through which teachers can upgrade their skills; (3) scheduling more late afternoon and evening courses during the regular school year so that teachers will be free to attend them; and (4) giving increased attention to sending professors out into the field to work directly with school districts and the teachers in them—this would be brought about not so much by offering the conventional after-school workshops, but by establishing a close affiliation with an individual school for a substantial length of time, perhaps even to the extent that the professor would teach elementary or secondary school classes on a regular basis over an extended period of time. I feel that one day every professor of education in a teacher training institution will be required to return to an elementary or secondary school setting for a given period (probably four or five mon*hs) every 5 to 10 years and to become actively involved in the activities of that school.

Such a program would have a profound and immediate effect upon the practicality of teacher training curriculums.

THE CONTENT OF TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAMS IN ENGLISH

The content of teacher training programs in English should reflect English as it is defined by the schools. The narrow definition of English as a subject presented in 1965 by the Commission on English of the College Entrance Examination Board has proved to be wholly inadequate, suggesting as it does that, "the scope of the English program be defined as the study of language, literature, and composition, written and oral, and that matters not clearly related to such study be excluded from it."[6] Huge areas that are legitimately part of any modern English curriculum—listening, media literacy, journalism, drama, and improvisation, for example—were excluded from the Commission's definition.

Teacher training programs that resist change will not attract students and will eventually collapse. Students will not be attracted to programs that fail to make them competitive in the job market, and traditional training programs will not equip their graduates to compete successfully with others who have been trained in special ways or in special areas.

It is fundamental that English teachers must have strong backgrounds in their major, but this should not be interpreted to mean that a strong literary background is, in and of itself, enough. Every person presenting himself or herself for certification in English in the years ahead should have taken organized course work in at least the following areas: a major English or American author; a genre; literature relating to a particular theme; English literature before 1800; English literature after 1800; American literature before 1900; American literature after 1900; a foreign literature, modern or classical; literary criticism; history of the English language; modern descriptive grammar; oral interpretation; freshman composition; advanced expository writing; and creative writing. A comprehensive background in the teaching of reading, some of it with a psycholinguistic emphasis, is also a vital need for teachers of English. This gamut, of course, clearly points to a five-year teacher training program in English.

Over and above these specific course requirements in English and related fields, I believe that teachers in the 80's will substantially increase their employment possibilities by equipping themselves in one or more of the following ways:

1. Become sufficiently fluent in a foreign language to be able to use it as a medium of instruction. American public schools enroll many students who do not speak English, and schools are under legal mandate to provide instruction for them in their native tongues. The most commonly encountered foreign languages in today's schools are Spanish, Greek, Japanese, Chinese, Arabic, and Italian. "The category of the less commonly taught languages (i.e., all languages other than English, French, German, Italian, Latin, and Spanish) accounts for only 1% of the nation's secondary school enrollments and 10.2% of the postsecondary enrollments. Yet these languages are spoken by over 80% of the world's population."[7] It should also be noted "that of 22,737 secondary schools in the United States, 4,344 do not offer [instruction in] a foreign language at all."[8] An English teacher who can double in a foreign language is more likely to find a teaching job than one who cannot.

2. Take course work in special education in order to learn something about working with the physically and/or mentally handicapped. Learn braille or the manual language of the deaf.

3. Learn enough about the operation and programming of computers to be able to offer leadership in the establishment of programs of computer-assisted instruction.

4. Know how to coach something, be it football, drama, or tennis. Learn enough about journalism to be able to work knowledgeably with the school newspaper or yearbook.

5. Have a sufficient concentration in a second field to be able to teach in that field.

THE PRACTICAL COMPONENT

Teachers in the 80's will be expected to complete extensive pre-student-teaching practicums, usually equaling at least 100 clock hours, which will be arranged and closely monitored by a teacher training institution. Because this early exposure has already been mandated by many states, more and more students will have had extensive contact with youngsters of the age group that they are preparing to teach before they begin student-teaching internships. They will also have done extensive microteaching that has been videotaped for them to use in analyzing how they teach.

The trend in the 80's will be for longer student-teaching intern-

ships, most probably ranging in length from a full semester to a school year. Teacher trainees will also be encouraged to live for a period of time in a cultural situation drastically different from the one in which they have been raised. Northern Colorado University at Greeley has long had a program that enables students to live in urban ghettos, on Indian reservations, in small farming communities, and the like as part of their training program. Such programs will proliferate. Some teaching internships will rotate—two months in a typical suburban school, two months in an inner city school, two months in an education program based in a prison or a nursing home or a children's hospital, two months in a reservation school or in a barrio or in some other unique setting.

WHO WILL TRAIN TEACHERS?

Teacher training will probably remain the responsibility of colleges and universities unless these institutions prove to be so resistant to change that school people must persuade state legislatures to turn the professional component of teacher training (along with the dollars to finance it) over to them. This could happen if academicians fail to take an active interest in teacher training and if they fail to take a realistic view of what sort of training one needs in order to become an effective teacher. The lines of communication that opened between academicians and educationists through their joint planning of and participation in the NDEA Institutes of the 60's have, in most cases, fallen into disuse. They must be reopened if our institutions of higher learning are to continue to be the major agencies for teacher training in the United States.

REFERENCES

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2. *Chronicle of Higher Education* 18: 7; February 26, 1979.

3 James B. Conant strongly urged the establishment of fifth-year programs in *The Education of American Teachers* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1963), as did Alfred Grommon, editor of *The Education of Teachers of English for American Schools and Colleges* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1963).

4 *Chronicle of Higher Education* 18: 7, February 26, 1979.

5. An example of this is the University Associates Program in Rhetoric, which the author directs, at the University of Illinois, Urbana/Champaign. This program brings to the campus 8–10 experienced secondary school teachers who hold at least master's degrees

in English or English Education and who are on sabbatical leaves from their school districts. The University pays them half their regular salary in return for which they teach three sections of Freshman Rhetoric each semester. They also take courses at the University, and most of them, when they return to their home districts, are engaged in staff development work as well as in classroom teaching.

6. *Freedom and Discipline in English* New York. College Entrance Examination Board, 1965. p. 13

7. "Report of the MLA Task Force on the Less Commonly Taught Languages." *ADFL Bulletin* 10 (i) 7, 1978

8. "Report of the MLA Task Force on the Commonly Taught Languages." *ADFL Bulletin* 10 (i) 2, 1978

The Media and the English Curriculum

Betty P. Cleaver

English teachers have generally found the teaching of literature to be a valid concern. But over the years the English curriculum has been stretched to accommodate not only literature but also all the contents its practitioners and critics have deemed appropriate. At various times the English curriculum has included business letters, history of the English language, Shakespearean plays, Black English, American literature, transformational/generative grammar, haiku poetry, and film making. English teachers have questioned the appropriateness of some of these topics, much as they have disagreed sharply on whether to include the study or use of media in the classroom.

When the word *media* is dignified with a definite article, as in the title of this chapter, it is commonly understood to refer to broadcast or publicly disseminated music, word'   ᴜs, and/or speech. In the context of the classroom, *media* us⸱⸱⸱   refers to the broad range of audiovisual instructional materials and the equipment necessary for their use. Actually, instruction in American classrooms has included the use of media since the hornbook was first used to teach children the alphabet, but books and other printed materials are seldom considered in the same light as audio and visual materials, and they are never referred to as *aids*.

AUDIOVISUAL MATERIALS

Speak, Look, and Listen, published in 1944, was one of a series of pamphlets on communication put out by the National Council of Teachers of English; it stated that, "Audio-visual aids can help enrich the child's understanding because they broaden the possibilities of experience upon which thorough understanding is based."[1] The Council further suggested the establishment of an English laboratory that would include provision for typing, reading, studying a globe, viewing a motion picture, or staging a play. At the same time, its use of language could be interpreted to mean that audiovisual materials were not central to the curriculum: they were "aids." When motion pictures and filmstrips were first introduced into the classroom, they had to be considered as aids, as enriching materials, because they were so few in number. Teachers did not have the opportunity to preview and select from a wide range of materials as they do today. Unfortunately, we still use the term *aids* to describe the rich resources at our command, and the implication that audiovisual materials are supplementary is still present.

During the 1980's, teachers will be trained in classes at their educational institutions and in workshops and conferences of their professional associations to select the audiovisual and/or print materials most appropriate for particular learning goals. The following sample goals illustrate the usefulness of such materials in the classroom:

1. *To help students understand that the same passages in a play can be presented so differently that an audience will have different perceptions of and reactions to it, depending on the actor or actress who portrays a role.* This might mean that the class would read *Hamlet* and then view several film interpretations of the play, perhaps contrasting Nicol Williams' *Hamlet* with Laurence Olivier's earlier production.

2. *To emphasize the richness and variety of spoken language.* Students would be asked to use an audiotape recorder to record tales and experiences related by an older member of the family. The same tale would be written out in formal language and also listened to as it was recorded. This could lead to a study of dialect and a history of the changes in language.

These activities should be routine. They are not innovative; in fact, they are yesterday's methods. It is disquieting that they could be seen as new, but to many practicing teachers, they are. After a study of English instruction at Illinois community colleges, Rose Marie Lynch reported:

94

I discovered a dismaying lack of knowledge about educational innovations. Many composition instructors seemed totally unaware of methods and materials that long ago passed the experimental stage. . . . The significant revelation in this study was not that so few instructors said they were involved in innovative work, but that so many instructors were so badly informed. Most of the approaches that were identified as innovative were standard, traditional approaches.[2]

The change in the use of audiovisual materials will be one of integration. Materials will be chosen because they can advance a particular goal; they will fit neatly into the whole teaching and learning environment. A teacher will go to the library/media center with a teaching problem and will select print or audiovisual materials to solve it. Teachers will have a greater knowledge of learning resources, and will be less likely to start their search for materials by asking for a particular *form* (e.g., "I want to use a movie next week," or, "I want to find a filmstrip").[3] The search for materials will be facilitated by a computer terminal in the school or a district media center. The White House Conference on Library and Information Science (November 1979) has strongly recommended that schools join together in a network to list and share their learning resources. Subject searches by computer are still unsatisfactory, but in another 10 years it will be possible for the English teacher to get computerized printouts, perhaps by requesting a list of materials appropriate for a study of Civil War literature. One could make the request more specific, stating that materials should be visual, produced in the last five years, appropriate for grades 7 and 8, and focused on the social conditions that led to conflict. The terminal would then print out a list of instructional materials, giving the title and location of each. The technology for this already exists; we have not had the interest or the will to demand that technology serve the schools as it serves business.

Media can be used in the classroom to provide vicarious experience, to stimulate ideas, to extend the students' world. They will also be used to provide students with alternatives in content and teaching style. Some of the media will be placed in a carrel where students can view and listen individually or in groups. Some of these audiovisual materials will be correlated and arranged to form self-instructional modules, providing opportunities for advanced study for the gifted student and for remediation for others. Students come to school from diverse backgrounds, with varying interests, skills, and knowledge. This diversity can enrich the English class as students explore the language and litera-

ture of the curriculum and share their unique language and literary heritages with each other. This same diversity calls for the teacher to individualize instruction, to use alternative approaches to a single goal. During the 80's we will begin to use learning resources in more humane and sensitive ways.

Thus, while the forms of audiovisual instructional materials may change, the greatest changes will take place in the way they are selected and used. They will be integrated into the whole pattern of teaching and learning in an effort to provide alternative paths to common goals. The dichotomy of print and audiovisual will tend to disappear as the search for materials for teaching and learning emphasizes substance, not form.

THE ELECTRONIC MEDIA

The electronic media could have been included in the discussion of audiovisual instructional materials since they carry visual and auditory messages, but they might have overshadowed the simpler forms. When we talk about television, it seems to assume a life of its own for its detractors as well as its admirers.

Electronic and laser technology makes possible the transmission of moving images via satellites in outer space as well as the projection of three-dimensional images which we can walk around. Our capacity for invention has outdistanced our ability for translation. It seems highly speculative to predict that a three-dimensional image of the Globe Theater could be projected into the classroom air—but this is well within the realm of possibility *now*. It seems unlikely that such an image could be received by dialing a number on the telephone, or that teachers could retrieve images from a visual bank as they now retrieve books from a library—but these are also possibilities.

It is tempting to focus on the inventions that will be available to teachers in the 80's, but any predictions we might make, even the wildest surmises, can only be pale shadows of the things to come. Technological advances are germane only as they relate to our conceptual development, our ability to understand and explain the relationship of technology to human experience. C.P. Snow deplored the division between humanist and scientist in our culture,[4] and in a small way this alienation is intensified every time the English teacher consigns the technology of instruction to the science classroom.

The fear that technology will dehumanize education has led to an insular attitude that must change. The moving image—