

3

This dissertation has been
microfilmed exactly as received 67-679

SWARTHOUT, Charlene R., 1919-
AN APPROACH TO AN IN-SERVICE PROGRAM TO
DEVELOP THE CONCEPT OF THE SCHOOL LIBRARY
AS PART OF THE INSTRUCTIONAL SYSTEM.

Wayne State University, Ed.D., 1966
Education, general

University Microfilms, Inc., Ann Arbor, Michigan

© Copyright by

Charlene R. Swarthout

1967

AN APPROACH TO AN IN-SERVICE PROGRAM TO
DEVELOP THE CONCEPT OF THE SCHOOL LIBRARY
AS PART OF THE INSTRUCTIONAL SYSTEM

by

Charlene R. Swarthout

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to the Graduate Division
of Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

1966

MAJOR: TEACHER EDUCATION
WITH EMPHASIS IN
LIBRARY SCIENCE

APPROVED BY:

Adviser

Date

Committee Member

Committee Member

Committee Member

Ann Reis 5/11/1966

Sidney S. Boyd 5/26/66

Richard R. Bishop u

Frank J. Smith u

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The school library has much to contribute to the enrichment of the educational program. However, it is a new resource for many school staffs; an undeveloped one for others. Many of its possibilities for enrichment will be unused unless the interrelationships and implications of educational theory are brought into focus and connected with practice. The desire to help school staffs exploit the learning potential of the school library and its facilities led to this study.

To develop an approach to this concept of the library as part of the instructional system required direction and encouragement. The members of my doctoral committee--Dr. Wilhelm Reitz, my major advisor, Dr. E. Brooke Smith, Dr. Sigurd Rislov, and Dr. Sidney Glazer--were generous with their time, helpful in their suggestions, and understanding in their attitudes. Acknowledgments would not be complete without special thanks to Florence D. Cleary, retired Chairman of the Department of Library Science, whose continuing inspiration, sustained encouragement, and patient assistance led to the conclusion of the study.

Charlene R. Swarthout

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	ii
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
The School Library as Part of the Instructional System	1
Uncertainties Characterize a Decade of Development of the Elementary and Junior High School Libraries	3
Organizing Elements--Fundamental Concepts, Generalizations, Modes of Inquiry--Are Needed	13
Past Studies Point to Need for New Programs	17
Toward the Organizing Elements Through an In-Service Program	24
II. CONSIDERATION OF AN IN-SERVICE PROGRAM THAT INCLUDES THE SCHOOL LIBRARY AS PART OF THE IN- STRUCTIONAL SYSTEM	31
Selection Policy for School Library Materials	31
Foundations of Educational Theory for Cooperative Staff Planning	50
Section 1.--Curriculum Theory to Describe Educational Purpose	50
Section 2.--Learning Theory to Suggest Educational Approaches	78
Section 3.--Child Development Theory to Emphasize the Needs of Developing Intelligence	105

	Page
Educational Competencies and Materials Interact in Co- operative Staff Planning	130
Section 1.--Professional Competencies Required	130
Section 2.--Library Materials Required	157
Instructional Purposes are Promoted Through Cooperative Staff Planning	181
Section 1.--On the Elementary School Level	181
Section 2.--On the Junior High School Level	214
Section 3.--In the Value Dialogue	239
Section 4.--By a Climate of Consideration	259
III. RECAPITULATION	284
APPENDIX	303
BIBLIOGRAPHY	312

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The School Library as Part of the Instructional System

". . . the concept of the library as part of an instructional system, responding to teacher and student needs and even creating needs within that system, is perceived by relatively few school librarians and only dimly by most teachers and administrators."¹

This study proposes to provide approaches for an in-service program for school librarians and teachers which will promote the concept of the school library as a part of the instructional system that responds to teacher and student needs and creates need. To build a concept of the school library as part of the instructional system the following assumptions are made:

1. The school library that is a part of the instructional system will support and promote specific educational needs.

¹John Goodlad, Planning and Organizing for Teaching (Washington: National Education Association, 1963), p. 155.

2. The "selection policy" of the school library (the policy which supports the choice of materials acquired for the school library) must incorporate educational theory.
3. An in-service program designed to implement the concept of the school library as part of the instructional system must permit school librarians and teachers to
 - (a) Understand the structure and purposes of the educational system.
 - (b) Understand the place of the library in that system.
 - (c) Know what is involved in the complicated process of learning.
 - (d) Understand the psychological and intellectual problems of the learner.
 - (e) Understand the ways in which recorded knowledge can contribute to intellectual and emotional growth.
 - (f) Know something of the current trends and probable future developments in that segment of the educational process to which the library is related.
4. To implement the concept of the school library that responds to the needs of students and teachers will require cooperative staff planning.

5. In cooperative planning, the instructional posture of the school librarian will be apparent and this posture will create needs.

Approaches that clarify the concept of the school library as part of the instructional system will first delineate a theoretical base for the selection of library materials to insure acquisition of a library collection that supports a school's instructional system. To make the collection operative and the school library integral to the instructional system, succeeding steps of the study must provide approaches to cooperative staff planning by which the educational dynamics of the school library are released. It will be appropriate, therefore, to delineate a theoretical base for planning, to consider the interaction of professional competencies and school library materials, and to present examples of planning that promote the instructional theory.

Uncertainties Characterize a Decade of Development of the Elementary and Junior High School Libraries

Within the past decade there has been a growing awareness of the critical need for school libraries on the elementary and junior high level. Attempts to meet the demands for such libraries are being made in most local school areas. Federal assistance has made available funds by which acquisitions may be made and school districts are generally quick to seize the opportunity to acquire materials.

However, because the acceptance of the school library as an integral part of the educational establishment is in its infancy, there is need to delineate its selection policy and consider its utilization and position in the total school picture. The "School Library Bill of Rights" asserts the responsibility of the school library as:

To provide materials that will enrich and support the curriculum, taking into consideration the varied interest, abilities, and maturity levels of the pupils served

To provide materials that will stimulate growth in factual knowledge, literary appreciation, aesthetic values, and ethical standards

To provide a background of information which will enable pupils to make intelligent judgments in their daily life

To provide materials on opposing sides of controversial issues so that young citizens may develop under guidance the practice of critical reading and thinking

To provide materials representative of the many religious, ethnic, and cultural groups and their contributions to our American heritage

To place principle above personal opinion and reason above prejudice in the selection of materials of the highest quality in order to assure a comprehensive collection appropriate for the users of the library.¹

This broad, general policy established by the American Library Association indicates none of the specifics of the educational position of the school library. There is no

¹American Association of School Librarians, Standards for School Library Programs. (Chicago: American Library Association, 1960), p. 75.

literature and little practice that defines the possibilities and implications of the school library, or instructional materials center, for the teacher and the oftentimes unprofessional school librarian. Confusion exists also between the concept of the school library as a materials center and the audio-visual instructional materials center. Teachers who have been long accustomed to working without the resources which the school library can make available, know little of what they may expect in services from the library. At the same time, school librarians are frequently products of training inadequately designed to meet the instructional needs of the school. A recent statement by Kenneth Taylor indicates some of the training needs:

As far as I know, the college student who wishes to become a media specialist must assume the obligation of obtaining the correct sequence and diversity of courses himself at most campuses . . . In general, I believe a student should have an excellent foundation in library science, for he will learn administration, organization of materials, cataloging and classification, selection of materials, and gain a philosophy which orients him toward working with children and young people. Many of the principles taught in these courses will be applicable to all media if the student is flexible enough in outlook to effect a transfer of learning. He also needs an introductory course to the audio-visual field, training in local production, and, if possible, study in communication theory. A basic course in curriculum development should pull these together. Classroom teaching experience helps him to understand the goals and the language of teachers.¹

¹Letter from Kenneth Taylor to Library Science Alumni Association, Wayne State University, February 21, 1966.

Thus, the need exists to bring within the broad view of both teachers and school librarians general educational theory, library resources, and technological possibilities and together consider their pragmatic application upon the classroom objectives.

The American Library Association in its 1960 Standards for School Library Programs¹ has indicated the acceptance of the concept of the school library as a materials center. However, while the American Library Association has assumed this position, it remains aloof because its policy prescribes broad rather than specific functions. The especial function of the school library in its relationship to the total school instructional program has not been delineated and there is no stated theoretical instructional base upon which to evaluate the library program and its relationship to the total school instructional program. If one turns to the professional publications of the "Audio-Visual people," who also plan "instructional materials centers," one finds no indication of any concern for books, the mainstay of library resources, and yet does find strong evidence that the concept is of an instructional materials center clustered around the mechanical aspects of the technology and its ability to meet a mass need; at the same time the American Library Association, while recognizing the validity

¹Op. cit., American Association of School Librarians, Standards for School Library Programs.

of materials, has implied that the school library is a materials center which, while it includes technological materials, clusters around the printed word and its ability to satisfy individual need.

School libraries may be the darling late-in-life children of the American Library Association but they are also victims of some of the distresses that may accompany that position. While showering them with fairly generous standards, which reflect quantity rather than kind, the assumption by the parent organization appears to be that school libraries will grow up to resemble its more mature offspring, the public or academic library. A penetrating consideration of the individual characteristics of the infant school library has not been applied to its position in the educational complex. No investigation of the instructional theory it supports has been attempted and, therefore, no theoretical base has been established upon which its selection policy may be developed. If the school library as described by the American Library Association is a materials center, how does it differ from the audio-visual concept of an instructional materials center? What implications do attitudes of instructional theory have for the school librarian and the teacher who uses school library resources? On what theoretical base does it build its selection and program? Goodlad has noted that ". . . the concept of the library as part of an instructional system,

responding to teacher and student needs and even creating needs within that system, is perceived by relatively few librarians and only dimly by most teachers and administrators."¹

In the confusion that surrounds the clouded concepts of the "school library as a materials center" or the "audio-visual instructional materials center," a tendency develops for those who promote S-R as learning theory to take a position on the side of the "instructional material," the mechanical, and those who accept cognitive field to align themselves on the side of the "word," the book or language. Between these two positions of learning theory, on the one side educational purpose is best served by the mechanical, while on the other side, through the quality of language that reflects the depth and breadth of man's experience. By his name, the instructional "materialist"--whether by accident or design--seems to reveal his reliance on material, or the mechanical to promote educational "purpose." If one is to believe many writings in the professional journals of the audio-visual people, purpose appears to be equated with "response." Relatively new in the educational field, audio-visual attitudes seem to be directed toward the goal of developing materials which will satisfy and elicit the demand for a desired response. Confident in their ability

¹Goodlad, op. cit., p. 155.

to manipulate material and response, their studies and designs appear to be toward the end of developing technological devices which guarantee a specific response built into a specific design. The "materialist" borrows from a Madison Avenue world the attitude that accepts the point that anything is possible. If one can sway masses through a technological media, what can be so difficult about eliciting a "desired" response from a prescribed classroom? While admitting that there may be some difference between a "willing" and a "captive" audience, they are confident that the formula will be developed that will guarantee the "desired" response.

While the audio-visual specialists are gestating this body of knowledge and attempting to create a theoretical position based upon essentially mechanical assumptions applied to the mass, the "word" people, as represented by the American Library Association, have more or less ignored the implications of these attitudes upon school library objectives and theories. While libraries have always accepted the individual as the major concern, there is a need to clarify this position particularly in the instructional context of the school library and its material selection policies. While the instructional "materialist" looks to devices which will designate and elicit the "desired" response, the "word" specialist looks to the book experience to promote the "knowing" that mediates between the knower

and the known. The confusion resulting from this either-or attitude is divisive and creates antagonism between audio-visual specialists and librarians which is at odds with the best educational purposes. To best serve instructional needs, the school library must look at the implications of language theory and recognize a cross media approach that admits that the media chosen must serve an especial need inherent in the particular learning purpose or in the individual learner.

School libraries, particularly on the elementary and junior high school level, have in many cases "just growed." Starting as many did through the volunteer efforts of parents and teachers who had little or no library training or skill, they have developed with little understanding of their role in the instructional program of the school. Some school systems recognized the unsatisfied needs of education and, prodded by accrediting agencies, who based their evaluation on American Library Association standards, allocated greater funds to promote school library establishment. Trained personnel were not easy to come by and by virtue of the characteristics of the demands of local systems most adopted measures were designed to meet immediate needs. This expediency in itself might not be disastrous if there were time for the school library movement to naturally mature out of its infancy and awkward stage but events of our decade will not permit such leisurely growth. Federal funds are

immediately available for books and materials, though not for personnel which is in short supply at best, and there will be a great rush to acquire resources without evaluative criteria established and without a theoretical design to guide purposes. At the same time the clamor of the mushrooming audio-visual departments, with their implications that "the book" is out of style, adds to the confusion. The floundering school librarian finds himself in the center of the chaotic storm with little purposeful theoretical educational structure upon which to develop a philosophy and an approach to material. Thus, we find librarians in one school system turning entirely to the "material" approach, in another area a complete rejecting of anything but the printed word, and in between all degrees of indecision as to the role of the school library, its attitude toward material, and its function in the total school program.

The recognition of the need for the school library as an integral part of the instructional program has only recently become a reality and while the American Library Association has included school libraries as one of its concerns, it has such widespread interests and deep involvement in the needs of public libraries, special libraries and the problems of information retrieval, it has not given the very individual problems of the school library--a primarily instructional enterprise devoted to the development of the ability to think--the thorough study they deserve.

While it has acknowledged the school library's concern with materials when it established standards for the school library as a material center, it has not gone deeply into the implications and delineation of the educational needs they must serve. Should the library association be expected to study this concern or is it primarily an educational problem? Accepting the library's long institutional history of preserving the culture and serving the individual needs, it has viewed the school library as a miniature reflection of the parent body and education has been more or less willing to accept this view. Much dialog today concerns itself with the problems of the school library's relationship to the public library in terms of service demands. This problem would be on its way to solution if the character of the school library were defined in terms of its unique instructional position within the educational structure. The basis for the school library's selection of material and its theoretical position in the total school institution has not been clearly stated. If the school library is to serve the instructional needs of the educational structure, is it not up to the educator to define its characteristics and delineate its position in the conflict between "the word" and "the material?" The theoretical base upon which the school library's "selection policy" and instructional position is established must come from educational theory.

In making the school library an integral part of the

instructional program, two problems are presented. The first is a theoretical problem to provide an instructional base for the school library's "selection policy" and the second is a curricular problem inasmuch as the directions taken encompass the content decisions of the teacher and the curricular sensitivity of the librarian. Theodore R. Sizer in his recent article, "Reform Movement or Panacea?"¹ points to the lag in the adoption of educational "method" as John Dewey described it and states that while attempts at curricular reform are being activated in all phases of educational concern, "RESEARCH" would be impossible at this stage. A period of seat-of-the pants development is needed before any kind of respectable testing may evolve. As a part of this development, an in-service program is appropriate.

Organizing Elements--Fundamental Concepts,
Generalizations, Modes of Inquiry--
Are Needed

A number of factors--school libraries, librarians, teachers, students--have impact upon the "concept of the library as part of the instructional system." The American Library Association, Education Division, in March, 1965² indicated concerns from various parts of the country for:

¹Theodore R. Sizer, "Classroom Revolution: Reform Movement or Panacea," Saturday Review. Vol. XLVIII No. 25, June 19, 1965, p. 52.

²American Library Association, Education Division Newsletter, No. 53 (Chicago: American Library Association, March, 1965).

1. The need for facilities for basic preparation of elementary school librarians.
2. The need for continued training of the partially qualified.
3. The need for involvement of teachers to insure good library use.
4. The need for a greater awareness of educational trends in philosophy and program.

Because of the inability of professional schools to satisfy the immediate need, the Education Division suggested that more "institutes" be planned to present curriculum and subject matter specialists in training programs designed to relieve the obvious shortage.

In this demand for in-service programs is a basic need for the school library to build a "selection policy" that reflects specific instructional goals and acknowledges the personal dimensions (in contrast to the mass dimensions envisioned by the audio-visual departments) that books and materials bring to the learning process. There is also a need to bring teachers closely into the process of selecting material to meet their instructional needs. Together the library and the teacher must be brought into a continuing process of curriculum building. Staffs must conscientiously develop a diversity of curricula and try to create diversity within each single curriculum as well. Dependence upon curriculum guides is not enough because in general they,

. . . do not identify the organizing elements that are to tie together specific learnings in the curriculum. They tend, rather, to specify content to be taught and materials to be used. This is the exact opposite of what should be. The curriculum plan should specify the organizing elements--the fundamental concepts, generalizations, and modes of inquiry to be developed throughout the school--and set forth illustrative organizing centers by means of which these elements might be developed.¹

A definition of the role of the teacher and the school librarian in the attack upon the problem of the conduct of instruction is needed. An understanding of the professional competencies and expectations of each role is needed. Beyond the education of the librarian in the philosophy and technical skills of librarianship,

. . . he must understand the structure and purposes of the educational system of which his library is a part, and the place of his library in that system. He must know what is involved in the complicated process of learning. He must also understand the psychological and intellectual problems of the learner, and the ways in which recorded knowledge can contribute to his intellectual and emotional growth. He should certainly know something of the current trends and probable future developments in that segment of the educational process to which his work is related. Above all, he must become something of an authority in a substantive field . . .²

If this analysis of competence applies to the school librarian, it must also apply to the classroom teacher.

¹Goodlad, op. cit., p. 29.

²J. Shera, Student Use of Libraries (Chicago: American Library Association, 1964), p. 130.

School staffs need over-all, broad understanding of theory, objectives, means, and evaluation. Teachers need to understand school libraries, librarians, and materials. School librarians need to understand teachers, the implications of subject matter, and curriculum responsibility as well as their instructional and leadership roles.

To promote this degree of competence, the following positions seem appropriate:

1. A "selection policy" based on instructional theory will clarify school library needs.
2. A clarification of teacher roles and school librarian roles will encourage more productive use of instructional materials and promote more professional planning.
3. In the reorganization of the conduct of instruction, it is necessary to involve the staff in cooperative planning that identifies goals, the means for reaching the goals, and the kinds of desirable behavior to be encouraged.
4. Cooperative planning is essential to "whole" curriculum attitudes.
5. Cooperative planning requires common theoretical bases plus individual and specific professional competencies.

6. Commitment to diversified instructional materials, combined with a knowledge of their particular application, will promote student learning.
7. Little experimentation or long range evaluation will be conducted when the immediate school staff is not involved in cooperative planning that considers goals, means, and desirable behaviors.
8. A clarification of the implication of educational theory upon pragmatic application in planning will encourage heightened professional attitudes and promote more specific evaluation.

Past Studies Point to Need for New Programs

While Goodlad, an educator, has written most pointedly about the "concept of the library as part of the instructional system,"¹ in a search of recent doctoral dissertations² in education reveals no study that concerns itself with such a concept. However, writings about libraries have traditionally been under the auspices of the American Library

¹ Goodlad, op. cit., p. 155.

² From a survey of Dissertation Abstracts. Vols. XV-XXV, Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Microfilms, Inc., 1955-1964, a publication which includes abstracts of dissertations completed at major universities.

Association and educator's references are oblique or non-existent. Frances Henne describes an ambitious project proposed by the American Library Association in 1946 to study education for library work with children and young people. Many categories were outlined in the proposed projects and provision was made within these categories "for separate study of children's work in public libraries, young adult work in public libraries, and school library work, with the last-named covering full-time librarians and teacher-librarians in all types of schools."¹ (Italics mine.) In 1947, one year later, the project was considered obsolete and discarded when the move began to change the fifth-year professional degree from the bachelor's to the master's. One unfinished segment of the project would have been useful to this study. Mary Virginia Gaver² began a questionnaire study of ways in which selected classroom teachers used the school library's resources as part of the instructional program. From this beginning implications were to be drawn about content to be incorporated in the professional education of teachers.

¹Frances Henne, "Structuring Library Education Curriculums for Preparing Librarians of Material Centers," The School Library as a Materials Center. Proceedings of a Conference under the auspices of the U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. (Washington: U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1963), pp. 53-62.

²Ibid., p. 54.

A doctoral dissertation in 1957 by Frederick R. Cyphert¹ provides a concept of the position of junior high school libraries in Pennsylvania. Answers to extensive questionnaires submitted to seventy-three schools covering the following topics were tabulated:

Instruction in the skills of library usage

Purposes and extent of the use of library materials

Teaching practices and library uses

Working relationship of teachers, pupils, librarians

Library services as affected by physical aspects
and personnel.

From his findings the following conclusions and recommendations were made in several categories:

AGENCIES: Many of the distant and varied institutions and agencies, concerned both directly and indirectly with efficient library service, have done too little that is effective in promoting better education for early adolescents through library utilization. Textbook writers and such agencies as the United States Office of Education, the American Library Association, and the National Education Association have failed, with a few notable exceptions, to produce materials widely effective in helping practicing administrators, teachers, and librarians understand and

¹Frederick R. Cyphert, "Current Practice in the Use of the Library in Selected Junior High Schools in Pennsylvania." Ann Arbor: University Microfilms, 24,738, 1957.

employ methods and devices for expanding and nourishing the librarians' services in the education of junior high school students.

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS: The principal as the status person should act as a catalyst to promote the productive interaction of teachers and librarians. He should study with his faculties the educational objectives of their schools, and a part of these studies should be devoted to a consideration of the place of the library in the facilitation of superior instruction. He should consider the philosophy of his school, the influence of the size of his student enrollment, and particularly the design of his curriculum in determining the role of the library.

SCHOOL LIBRARIAN: Junior high school librarians should spend a greater proportion of their time in curriculum study, both in the classroom with pupils and in the conference room with teachers. Much of the librarian's teaching ignores many of the same principles of good instruction that they would ask the faculty of their school to employ. The junior high school librarian should have a course in the function, methods and curriculum of junior high school. A minimum of one year successful classroom teaching should be prerequisite to school librarianship.

TEACHER: Junior high school teachers are in need of additional training in the function and utilization of library resources in curriculum development. Teacher

training institutions should give increased attention to the introduction and emphasis of the study of library services and materials. Much needs to be done to enhance the library awareness of teachers.

SCHOOL LIBRARY: The junior high school library should be more widely recognized in educational literature and practice as a distinct and specialized field of library endeavor. The library is a service and coordinating agency; its prerogatives should be subordinated to and harmonized with those of the instructional program. Regarding the library requirements of schools, no set standards have been developed on the basis of scientific evidence. Likewise, in no case has a statement of standards been announced which adequately recognizes the qualitative as well as quantitative aspects of school library service. Too little reliable information exists concerning either the value or the relationship existing between effective library utilization and various teaching methods and techniques.

In 1961, the School Library Development Project¹ noted twenty study and investigation needs. Among these were:

- (1) the junior high school library--objectives and services,
- (2) the role of the school library in team teaching, (3) the influence of various factors--such as accessibility--on the

¹School Library Development Project, "Research Needs of the School Library Program," (Chicago: American Association of School Libraries, May, 1961).

utilization of library services, (4) the integrated use of reference materials in the instructional program, (5) the contributions of school library materials to the learning process, (6) the program of library instruction (the teaching of library and study skills), (7) the role of the school library in the in-service training of teachers, (8) the relationships of school and public library services--distinctive functions of each and area of cooperation, and (9) the education and in-service training of school librarians. Two important projects are under way which will relate to some of these needs. The Knapp School Libraries Project,¹ a program supported by The Knapp Foundation, Inc., is a long range study to demonstrate the impact of elementary and secondary school libraries on instructional programs. The Foundation has supplied funds to increase materials collections, create or enlarge library staffs, assist in equipping resource centers, and support other necessary personnel. The second study by Alice Lohrer,² under Title VII, is conducting a survey of the nation's schools for the purpose of identifying school library programs which actually serve as instructional materials centers by providing

¹Project funded by the Knapp Foundation, Inc., and administered by the American Association of School Librarians, a division of the American Library Association, and a department of the National Education Association.

²Henne, op. cit., p. 54.

services and all types of print and nonprint materials for use by teachers and pupils.

A second phase of this study relates to the professional preparation needed by school librarians or instructional materials specialists to administer a school library program as an instructional materials center. Three hundred college catalogs are being analyzed in relation to the programs offered. A comparison of the offerings available and the recommendations of the school librarians and instructional materials specialists in the field will be made later and used in drawing up the guidelines for future programs of preparation for specialists in this field.

A study by Hagrasy¹ established a positive relationship between teachers' backgrounds in library skills and reading and their students' achievement in these areas. To analyze the teacher's role in library service, he used four sixth grade classes in each of two schools, both of which had libraries with librarians. The measures used for students consisted of a library skills test and a record of total reading for a six-week period. The teachers responded to questionnaires about their reading background and the amount of library instruction in their professional preparation.

¹Saad M. el-Hagrasy, "The Teacher's Role in Library Service: An Investigation and Its Devices," Ph.D. dissertation, Rutgers--The State University, 1961. Summary in Journal of Experimental Education, 30, June 1962, pp. 347-354.

The American Library Association, Education Division,¹ report in March, 1965, notes that in the total quantity of research, including doctoral dissertations, in the period of 1957-63, the percentage of that focused on the field of education for librarianship is low. A close scrutiny of these titles indicates that they do not concern themselves with school librarianship, but rather with education for librarianship in more general terms. Further, it should be noted, that "major works dealing with the professional education of teachers have not been sufficiently analyzed for the implications they yield for the education of school librarians."²

Toward the Organizing Elements Through
an In-Service Program

This study proposes to build a structure for an in-service program by which school staff members--librarians, teachers, and administrators--may engage in productive planning that includes the school library as part of the instructional system. In this design the relationship of educational theory and practices as it affects a school library program will be woven together into a comprehensible design.

¹ American Library Association, Education Division, op. cit.

² Henne, op. cit., p. 53.

The worth of a scholarly enterprise is not gauged exclusively by its compliance with the criteria of the scientific method in its narrowest sense. With the increasing urgency for the synthesis of research findings, for instance, scholarly writing (though not research in the usual sense) may constitute a greater contribution to science than does research on a trivial problem no matter how adequately it meets the criteria of science. Might it not be more profitable to define research on the basis of its contribution to the attainment of truth--either through discovering heretofore unknown relationships among phenomena or through establishing a greater degree of orderliness among what is already known?¹

A number of factors influence the successful inclusion of the school library as an integral part of the instructional system. These factors include the school library materials, the educational purpose promoted by the interaction of the school staff, and the learning needs of the students. To insure the acquisition of materials in the school library that will support an instructional system, it is necessary to develop a library materials "selection policy" that arbitrates between the standards of the American Library Association and the impact of the Audio-Visual Departments. For this policy the implications of selected language and instructional theory which emphasize individual learning needs and the contribution made by materials to these needs will be considered. Relevant to this emphasis are the writings of Langer, Cassirer, Bruner, Frank and others which stress the need for symbolization and conceptualization and

¹George J. Mouly, The Science of Educational Research (New York: American Book Company, 1963), pp. 60-61.

suggest principles upon which the school library materials selection policy may be developed.

Inherent in these principles are instructional demands and implications for cooperative staff planning. Accepting the role of theory in cooperative planning as being that which helps us to understand what we are dealing with so we can discover how to facilitate those processes which tend toward the ends we want, establishment of a theoretical foundation upon which school staff planning may be developed is desirable. Thus, a schematic design for approaching cooperative planning includes a review of selected curriculum theory, of learning theory, and of child development theory. Emphasis in curriculum theory will be upon Miel's spiral concept because it traces the development of curriculum theory and upon Goodlad's descriptions of the societal, institutional, and instructional levels of curriculum because they establish a hierarchical order of curriculum theory which may serve to clarify planning objectives. By tracing the development of learning theory from its philosophical roots to the current conflict between S-R and Gestalt theory, a mediation between these learning theories will be found in the suggestions of Meierhenry, while White's competence studies support the conative value of materials in the learning process. A historical review of the readiness concept in child development theory introduces Piaget's qualitative stages of intellectual development with their accompanying

implications for educational practice built upon the inquiry process as described by Hunt and Suchman. Thus, the theoretical base is established for the cooperative planning by which the concept of the school library as part of the instructional system is made operative.

With the foundation established, two influences affect the development and operational conduct of cooperative planning--the professional competencies of staff members and the nature of materials. As a member of the school staff there are implications for the school librarian and though each staff member contributes to planning through his professional specialization, competence for each includes the knowledge and skill to provide for the specifics of learning. Thus, a review of competence will include relevant recommendations from the studies of B. O. Smith, Fattu, Goodlad, Bruner and others, and it is expected that the specialized competencies and the instructional competencies of the staff members will meet and complement each other. The second influence upon cooperative planning--the nature of materials--calls for staff familiarity with school library materials and their instrumentalism. Therefore, a review of Gerbner's theory of communication will emphasize some of the implications for communication in school materials. Although the school librarian has a specialized role in promoting the use of materials, Taylor's suggestions for the selection, utilization, and production of school materials will indicate

implications for both teachers and students.

With a theoretical base established and with a consideration of some appropriate methodology and of the nature of materials, cooperative planning moves into the operational stage. Therefore, examples of planning that incorporate the theoretical position, reflect instructional concerns, and utilize materials will be suggested for the elementary school on the primary and intermediate level, for the junior high school, and for the value dialogue that promotes the democratic ideal. Because the implementation of cooperative planning depends upon a supportive environment, recommendations concerning the attitudes and conditions that create an atmosphere for cooperation will be reviewed.

Thus, through the consideration of four major steps--the development of a school library materials "selection policy," the establishment of a foundation of relevant educational theory, a discussion of professional competency and the nature of materials, and the presentation of suggested planning examples--the design of an in-service program for the school staff is built. It is through the cooperative planning that may be developed by the in-service program that the "concept of the library as part of an instructional system, responding to teacher and student needs and even creating needs within that system" will be implemented.

Therefore, the specific purposes of the study are:

1. To delineate a theoretical base upon which

selection of books and instructional materials for school libraries may be established.

2. To delineate the broad educational base required for the school staff to promote effective cooperative planning.
3. To indicate how competencies of individual staff members meet and complement to promote instructional purposes and utilization of materials.
4. To present examples of planning that promote the instructional theory, indicate the instructional role of the school librarian, and the cooperative roles of staff members in planning.

CHAPTER II

PART I

SELECTION POLICY FOR SCHOOL
LIBRARY MATERIALS

CHAPTER II

CONSIDERATIONS OF AN IN-SERVICE PROGRAM THAT INCLUDES THE SCHOOL LIBRARY AS PART OF THE INSTRUCTIONAL SYSTEM

Selection Policy for School Library Materials

The character of the library collection reflects the character of its supporting institution, thus, the concept of the school library "that is part of the instructional system" must be built on its library materials "selection policy." To protect freedom of choice, it is customary for librarians to refrain from making "selection policies" that are overly structured and specific. However, a selection policy" may safely--without endangering freedom of choice--rest upon the generalities of a theoretical base. Because it is the role of theory ". . .to help us understand that with which we are dealing so that we can eventually discover how to facilitate those processes which tend toward the ends we want and how to inhibit those processes that tend toward undesired directions,"¹ selected educational theory may

¹Herbert A. Thelen, "Insights of Teaching from a Theory of Interaction," The Nature of Teaching: Implications for the Education of Teachers, Edward A. and Rosa Uhrig Memorial Lectures. (Milwaukee: The Edward A. Uhrig Foundation, 1962), pp. 19-20.

provide a base for a school library "selection policy." The school library collection that is based on such a policy becomes a primary force in the building of the concept of the school library that is part of the instructional system.

Specialized Needs of the School Library

In establishing a "selection policy" for the school library, acceptance is made of the general principles which are currently incorporated in the selection of material for a school library. These principles include choices of books and materials for values of interest and enlightenment, for representation of all points of view concerning problems and issues of our times, and for the basic factors of truth and art. Reputable, unbiased, professionally prepared selection tools will be consulted as guides. Materials should be selected by professional library personnel in consultation with administration, faculty, students and parents. Final decision rests with the professional personnel.

A school library is, however, a specialized library. Though it serves broad interests, it serves specialized purposes. These specialized purposes dictate specialized concerns of selection. To serve an instructional program, it must serve the needs of instruction. A broad general collection is not necessarily specialized enough to meet the needs of knowledge, of learning, of the students. Such specialized needs require certain structured balances of

choices which will serve these needs. Current statements about selection indicate the primary objective of a school library is to implement, enrich, and support the educational program. The 1960 Standards for School Library Programs, established by the American Library Association, specifically outlines the obligation of school libraries to this objective.¹ Statements made by the American Library Association in this regard are necessarily general. To each library is left the responsibility for fulfilling this obligation in a way that will meet the needs of its own school.

The purpose of this section of the study is to describe selection criteria beyond the stated general objectives for school libraries that will support and be integral to a hypothetical instructional system. To implement such a "selection policy" will require that librarians be knowledgeable in all concerns of the system. This includes broad understandings of curriculum movements, learning theories, and developmental studies for a base or foundational knowledge. It includes the professional competencies of education woven together with the specialized skills of librarianship in cooperative planning techniques with the school staff. It includes recognition of the cognitive and conative needs

¹American Association of School Librarians, Standards for School Library Programs (Chicago: American Library Association, 1960).

of teachers and students and has implications for their affective needs.

Implications of Language Theory

Language theory, with its symbolic and cognitive approaches to curriculum, is employed to establish a "selection policy" for the school library which is part of this instructional system. The position is taken that the "word" is the beginning of instruction. The "word" is defined as that body of educational resource that relies heavily upon language as a staff, support, or means to promote learning. This includes the visual which is represented by the illustration, the filmstrip, the movie, or the graphic, but assumes that the visual dimension demands a name which moves it into the realm of the "word," language, in order to promote the intended concept. By its nature, it also includes the audio which represents the "word," language, in its most primary form. The "word" responds to the individual's need for objectification and when approached in a transactional dimension of learning activity, offers opportunity for "knowing" to mediate between the "knower" and the "known." Transaction is considered to be the interaction that develops between the student and the materials of instruction. Each works on the other to contribute to the learning. "Material" that serves this transactional dimension will not seek response but will respond to the

learning needs of the individual by conveying linguistic concepts in many forms.

In response to cognitive demands, the "word" has been used as the beginning of instruction because the motive of language is the transformation of experience into concepts.¹ Language is symbolic activity which is the expression of man's basic need for symbolization. It is a continuing activity and a fundamental process. This need may be described as a "hunger for names"² and it appears in every normal child at a certain age. By learning to name things, a child learns to form the concepts of those objects and he is on his way to satisfying his desire for the detection and conquest of an objective world. The development of speech then becomes a process of progressive objectification and language as a whole becomes the gateway to a new world. This places a high priority on recorded language forms because they represent man's fundamental process of symbolization and verbalization. They are basic to the development of knowledge. When Langer said that "language is conception and conception is the frame of perception,"³ she suggests that language becomes the frame that surrounds what we "see"

¹Suzanne Langer, Philosophy in a New Key (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1957), p. 103.

²Ernest Cassirer, An Essay on Man (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1944), pp. 169-179.

³Langer, op. cit., p. 102.

and permits us to capture its essence and preserve it. Language is more than a means of communication, it is a fundamental part of existence.

The Need for Concept Formation

Accepting these values of language and how it satisfies the basic needs of the child for symbolization and verbalization, recognition must be made of the fact that there is a distance between concept formation and concept attainment. Misconception may be developed. Concept formation may be considered preconception and preconception may turn out to be misconception. To clarify conception and render it useful there must be a "knowing" that mediates between the "knower" and the "known." This transactional relationship is

. . . essentially a dynamic process whereby the knower relates himself cognitively, by imputing meaning to the world and then responding to the meaning which he himself has invested in, or projected upon situation, events, and persons. These meanings arise from the knower's conceptions and assumptions, his frame of reference, what he believes, expects and actively seeks, and how he perceives situations as he strives to maintain his life space and to pursue whatever goals and purposes he has set for himself.¹

There is this personal quality included in a conception while a concept represents the public domain.² This cognitive

¹Lawrence K. Frank, The School as Agent for Cultural Renewal (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1959), p. 26.

²Langer, op. cit., p. 58.

relationship between the "knower" and the "knowing," this activity of "knowing," then is subject to the dynamics of many personal forces. Perception is dictated by personal reference and demands a variety of examples and clarifications to promote conception. To promote the activity of "knowing," instruction must provide the individual many ways of encountering learning. Thus the school library, serving the needs of the individual for symbolization, will also provide him with the means of "knowing" by making available many forms of the "word." The instructional need to provide symbolization in a variety of forms for clarification lays the foundation for the synthesis of the "word" and "material" in the school library by looking upon the "word," language, to provide the "knower," the student, with the ingredients for symbolization, perception and conception and by considering "material" as the conveyance which provides the variety of recorded forms of the "word" as means of discovery and presentation whereby the knower may promote his "knowing" activity.

Having described the "word" as the foundation of instruction, "material" as the conveyor of its use, to develop the school library "selection policy," consideration for cognitive processes must be included. Such learning processes include concept formation, "whole" versus fragmented learning, inquiry, interrelationships, structure and mental

relationship between the "knower" and the "knowing," this activity of "knowing," then is subject to the dynamics of many personal forces. Perception is dictated by personal reference and demands a variety of examples and clarifications to promote conception. To promote the activity of "knowing," instruction must provide the individual many ways of encountering learning. Thus the school library, serving the needs of the individual for symbolization, will also provide him with the means of "knowing" by making available many forms of the "word." The instructional need to provide symbolization in a variety of forms for clarification lays the foundation for the synthesis of the "word" and "material" in the school library by looking upon the "word," language, to provide the "knower," the student, with the ingredients for symbolization, perception and conception and by considering "material" as the conveyance which provides the variety of recorded forms of the "word" as means of discovery and presentation whereby the knower may promote his "knowing" activity.

Having described the "word" as the foundation of instruction, "material" as the conveyor of its use, to develop the school library "selection policy," consideration for cognitive processes must be included. Such learning processes include concept formation, "whole" versus fragmented learning, inquiry, interrelationships, structure and mental

operations. Kirtley Mather¹ of Harvard has said that to communicate concepts is the urgent task of education. With concepts the student may master the overwhelming flood of discrete facts. The communication of concepts provides the patterns, the templates for ordering and understanding events, for interpreting facts and making them meaningful. The activity of "knowing" permits clarification of the conception (personal) to the acceptance of the concept (public) by providing opportunity for the student to understand and validate learning through relating himself in new ways to the world. Within "knowing" the student must encounter ways to present his learning. To achieve concept attainment, or arrival at the "known," the "knower" needs to be challenged with the opportunity to exercise his full powers in a technique of discovery. There must be developed a "learn to learn" process which extends "knowing" into the "knower's" relationship to the world. This includes an opportunity for presentation of the "knowing" in such a way that it may be evaluated as either a concept attainment or a misconception to be discarded.

The Need for Discovery

There is a repetitive paradigm of the knower → the knowing → the known. The student, the "knower," with his personal conception acts in "knowing" to discover and through

¹Frank, op. cit., p. 27.

presentation arrives at a concept, the "known." To develop the "knowing" requires the activity of discovery before the student may arrive at the "known," or sometimes the unknown. This process of discovery is essential to provide concepts that are meaningful, that may be retained the longest and that are most available for future thinking. This is true because,

. . . (a) the experience of data gathering (exploration, manipulation, experimentation, etc.) is intrinsically rewarding; (b) discovery strengthens the child's faith in the regularity of the universe which enables him to pursue causal relationships under highly frustrating conditions; (c) discovery builds self-confidence which encourages the child to make creative intuitive leaps; and (d) practice in the use of the logical inductive processes involved in discovery strengthens and extends these cognitive skills.¹

The school library that looks upon itself as a discovery center must concern itself with the acquisition of the "word" and "materials" to meet these cognitive needs. The school library will be looked at as a laboratory devoted to the continuing process of discovery.

The Need for Presentation

To clarify and refine discovery the student must have the opportunity for presentation of the discovery. E. Brooke

¹J. Richard Suchman, "Building Skills for Autonomous Discovery," Merrill Palmer Quarterly, Vol. 7, No. 3, p. 148.

Smith¹ says that for learning to become a part of the individual, there must be a progression of steps by which learning is strengthened. There must be an opportunity for the student to "talk over with himself" his symbolization, to carry on conversation--"a parallel monologue"-- which provides for a rehearsal of an idea, followed by a dialog in which ideas may be reformed and finally a presentation in some form which gets ideas into line. Presentation follows discovery and serves to make conception a personal possession for the "knower." The activity of "knowing," discovery and presentation, provides a use for the substance of the "word" and "material" becomes the tool by which symbolization, the "word," is clarified, projected and refined for the individual student in his process of discovery. "Material" may also be the tool by which his presentation of the discovery is made as he moves in learning from the "knowing" to the "known" but provision must also be made for additional production equipment. "Material" and equipment may be used by either student or teacher to clarify symbolization in the process of presentation designed to implement the learning process. The school library "selection policy" then provides the paraphernalia for production and presentation to implement the discovery and presentation of concepts and meet their conative needs.

¹E. Brooke Smith, Class Lecture at Wayne State University. Spring, 1964.

The Need for Interdisciplinary Relationships

If concepts provide the patterns and are the templates for ordering and understanding events, for interpreting facts and making them meaningful, there are implications for "whole" versus "fragmented" learning and there is little place for the idea of teaching facts or for insisting upon memorizing names and so-called generalizations which are often empty verbalizations. The teaching of facts, memorization of names, etc. offers the student little opportunity to discover ways of relating himself to the world or of making these facts and generalizations meaningful and operative in his life. To promote "whole" learning, consideration must be given to relationships that link together implications of a concept. There is a need to reduce fragmentation of knowledge that creates artificial lines of demarcation both within a field and across subjects. Understanding of the relationships among the various fields of learning is a prime need of education. The librarian, with his knowledge of trade books and range of other media, can do much to develop the understanding of these relationships through careful selection and acquisition of books which are representative of such relationships. Selective use of such material will be employed in production of specific illustrations to meet instructional purposes. The difficult teaching problems posed by "integrated" subject matter which

cuts across subject boundaries can be solved to a great extent by the school library's selection and production of material to implement and encourage this approach to teaching. Combined with the "selection policy" that is concerned with this need and the school librarian's skill and competence in bringing order to these materials, teachers will be enabled to proceed more confidently in developing interdisciplinary concepts. In this matter it might be wise to remember Whitehead's caution that the best teaching does not try to introduce students to too many subjects . . . let the ideas introduced be few but important. Especially let the ideas be presented in every combination possible that the student may experience the "joy" of discovery. What education has to impart is an intimate sense "for the power of ideas, for the beauty of ideas and the structure of ideas."¹ Bruner² has called this the sense of intellectual potency.

In the matter of interdisciplinary relationships, there are implications for the instructional posture of the school librarian who may be the teaching individual most logical to assume seminar leadership as students explore these relationships. To relate the students' learning to

¹ A. N. Whitehead, Aims of Education and Other Essays (New York: The MacMillan Company, 1929).

² Jerome S. Bruner, The Process of Education (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1960).

life as he knows and sees it becomes possible and meaningful in a study of ideas. Arthur O. Lovejoy¹ suggests that "unit-ideas" need exploration. He describes "unit-ideas" as types of categories, thoughts concerning particular aspects of common experience, implicit or explicit presuppositions, sacred formulas or catchwords, specific philosophic theorems, and larger hypotheses, generalizations and methodological assumptions of science. Most certainly Lovejoy was asking for this exploration on a very scholarly level but exploration of "unit-ideas" has educational worth on the elementary and junior high school level. Man's common humanity, man's interdependence, man's folklore are unit-ideas which can cut across subject boundaries to provide important learnings with immediacy value. The school library becomes a natural place for this kind of exploration. The school librarian's knowledge of his collection is the key to his ability to assume instructional leadership in idea seminars.

The Need for Subject Matter Structure

Another educational purpose that must be served through the school library's "selection policy" is the selection of materials that serve to increase understanding of the structure of a subject. Profound changes concern today's

¹Arthur O. Lovejoy, Essays in the History of Ideas (New York: G. P. Putnam & Sons, 1948), pp. 1-13.

educators. The vast increase in bodies of knowledge which constitutes the disciplines called science--the social, the physical and the biological--are overwhelming. The Fifty's saw a growing need for education to determine useful bits and pieces of content but the problem is greater today. Knowledge must be not knowledge of the facts but knowledge of the facts interpreted. To this end the study of the "structure of a discipline consists--in part--of the body of imposed conceptions which, (1) define the subject-matter of that discipline, and (2) control its enquiries."¹ Conceptions must be considered guiding principles of inquiry, not immediate fruits. To the conception must be added the process of discovery that brings out the facts, what meanings should be assigned to them and what decisions are to be made about them. Within the discovery process the student must be allowed the opportunity to make a selection of facts that will support his conception. The "selection policy" of the school library must support the students' inquiry process by providing vertical and horizontal continuums of subject matter.

The Need for Provision
for Modes of Thinking

Within the activity of inquiry the student must be

¹(Speech) Joseph J. Schwab, "The Concept of Structure in the Subject Fields" for Council of Cooperation in Teacher Education of the American Council on Education (20th Annual Meeting), Washington, D. C.: October 20-21, 1961.

able to identify modes of thinking that are useful to a particular discipline. Where there is overlap in modes of thinking, Peterson¹ has said the student must understand that "empirical statements are verified by tests conducted in terms of experience, whereas moral statements are verified by reference to criteria or principles of judgment. On the other hand, analytic statements depend for their truth on an agreed upon set of rules, and follow logically from accepted definitions." The instructional posture of the school librarian is significant in this regard because in working with the student the librarian must be instrumental in developing the "grammar" of thinking--defining, classifying, explaining, cause and effect, explanation from antecedent conditions, conditional inference, comparisons and contrasts, evaluating, designating and theorizing. The student's choice of materials will encourage or confuse development of such "thinking grammar" and the teaching librarian must be alert to the learning demands in these skills.

Summary: Selection Policy

The library will become the major resource and center for learning activities. To carry out this concept, library functions and procedures

¹Arno A. Bellack, "The Structure of Knowledge and the Structure of the Curriculum" in A Reassessment of the Curriculum (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964), pp. 33-35.

must be re-defined. The resources offered will include not only books in abundance but also microfilms, charts, recordings, filmstrips, videotapes, and other materials to whet the appetite for learning and to feed the hunger for understanding.¹

The "selection policy" that creates this discovery center will include materials that encourage discovery, permit presentation, reveal relationships and are appropriate to individual disciplinary structures. This does not mean to say that all materials currently chosen for school libraries are not valid for instructional purposes but it does mean that the "selection policy" will evaluate these materials in the light of their ability to satisfy the individual's learning demands for discovery, presentation, relationships and structural appropriateness. Such a policy will strive for balances in its collection by choices of materials that reflect ranges of disciplinary and interdisciplinary search. It will include classifying and cataloging techniques that will extend the usefulness of the collection in these connections.

In summary the "selection policy" for school library materials that will serve the instructional system will be sensitive to:

- a. The instructional needs for concept formation by providing all the storage forms of symbolization that contribute to and encourage the

¹John Goodlad, op. cit., p. 125.

personal dialogue that stimulates the individual student's perception.

b. The learning needs of

- (1) Discovery by providing the "word" and the "materials" that permit the student to form hypothesis, principles, and generalizations.
- (2) Presentation by providing the student with the means of production so that his "knowing" may be presented in appropriate form.

c. The Curriculum needs for

- (1) Interdisciplinary relationships by providing the scope of materials necessary to encompass the many facets and societal implications of ideas.
- (2) Subject matter structure by providing a balanced collection representative of the structural elements of individual subject matter.
- (3) Modes of thinking by providing a sufficiently representative balance in the collection of empirical, moral, aesthetic, and analytical approaches by which the individual student's logical mental operations may be developed.

Inherent in this policy are implications for classifying and cataloging techniques that will extend the usefulness of the collection. The traditional role of the school librarian, which concerns itself with the guidance of reading and the enjoyment of books, is still vital. Along with this role, there are implications for the teaching role of the librarian which will support the instructional goals of the school and seek to promote the discovery and presentation of the "knowing" activity through contact with the individual student, through contact with seminars of students, and through cooperative staff planning.

This "selection policy" for school library materials can insure the acquisition of a school library collection that supports the school's instructional system. To fulfill its educational promise, the collection must become operative. The succeeding steps of this study are directed toward approaches for the development of cooperative staff planning through which may be insured the release of the educational dynamics of this school library collection.

PART II

FOUNDATIONS OF EDUCATIONAL THEORY
FOR COOPERATIVE STAFF PLANNING

- Section 1.--Curriculum Theory to Describe
Educational Purpose
- Section 2.--Learning Theory to Suggest
Educational Approaches
- Section 3.--Child Development Theory to
Emphasize the Needs of Develop-
ing Intelligence

Foundations of Educational Theory
for Cooperative Staff Planning

Section 1.--Curriculum Theory
to Describe Educational Purpose

Cooperative staff planning that releases the educational dynamics of the school library collection is built upon a foundation of educational theory--curriculum theory, learning theory, and child development theory. It is through this planning that the concept of the library as an integral part of the instructional system will be perceived. To do this planning effectively the teaching staff (and both teacher and librarian are herein considered teaching personnel) should approach school problems with basic educational awareness. They should understand the long-range goals or objectives of education, they should have a general awareness of the opposing curricular theories, they should appreciate the attempts to analyze the learning process, and they should understand students' needs for the development of intelligence. Either through unawareness or apathy, many exciting ideas and theories which would enrich, stimulate, and dramatize individual teaching situations are often ignored. To exist in a vacuum, unmoved and untouched by the broader aspects of educational activities is wasteful of a large reservoir of creative stimulus.

Certainly, it is true there is no unified common theoretical agreement among educators in these matters. Where in the world can agreement be found on important

matters? The teaching staff that can understand and accept this turbulence can also appreciate the demands of their own students' needs and find a middle ground of creative opportunity from which attack can be made upon their own teaching and learning problems.

A day dawns in which the realization of the school's need for resources and instructional materials is springing up all over. Hardly anyone would consider the school library or instructional materials center an extravagance or frill. A new appreciation for the role such resources can and must play in teaching and learning has developed. Teachers long accustomed to "making it on their own" with little more aid than the textbook must understand what they may and should expect from the school library. School librarians--teaching librarians-- not "keepers of the books"--must understand teachers' needs that they may meet and anticipate their arising problems. This must be a cooperative effort if children are to benefit from available resources and instructional materials. Cooperation means coming out of the "cell" and participating. Talking the same professional language helps break down the walls of subject matter specialization that tends to encourage autonomous attitudes. Cooperation means trying to work together, always with appreciation for each staff member's especial professional ability and talent. Cooperation means enhancement and enrichment of these abilities and talents as they are put into

play for the student's richer learning experience.

For many years the teaching attitude most practiced has been the maintenance of the autonomous classroom. Children have moved from room to room, too often sensing the aloofness, the detachment of individual staff members as well as the "boxing" of subject matter. This detachment does not contribute to educational excitement and enthusiasm. Some children survive but many others are discouraged and succumb to the sterility of a school life that is without apparent relationship to the whole life. True, schools have often included a consideration of family and community but rarely consideration of "realities" of life. Ideas and attitudes of the community, which may have more impact on the lives of the students, are generally ignored. The rarefied atmosphere of detachment is destructive to educational excitement. Teachers and students both need involvement in living context. Many psychologists viewing teen-age gyrations on the dance floor have noted the extreme aloneness these young people unconsciously portray. We recognize and are appalled by the "don't get involved" attitude in the adult world. The desperate attempt for involvement, for participation, has been apparent in our college protests, our Civil Rights efforts. The psychological and moral dismay arising out of the threats of the nuclear age should suggest to educators--school staffs--the need to close ranks, to provide a model of cooperative effort that encourages

young people to believe in the possibility of people working together to solve problems.

A cooperative project is not to be confused with a group project--in which one person does the work and all sign their names. Nor is it a committee--at which all talk but adjourn with a motion to shelve the matter. It is not a team project in the sense of team teaching, though such cooperative action is meaningful for team teaching. The most precise understanding of "team teaching" indicates a group of teachers with a master teacher or team leader. Cooperative teaching as a concept does not necessarily include a "leader." This is not to be construed as a criticism of team teaching which may very well prove a useful and economical design for developing teaching skill. However, the cooperative group can meet on a similar professional level. Such cooperative teaching opens "closed doors" and gives teachers an opportunity to live in the world of peers as well as children. It provides opportunities for professional growth. It encourages professional inquiry and empirical approaches. It heightens career rewards and increases the stature of the individual and the profession.

The purpose then is to provide some guide lines for teachers and school librarians to plan cooperatively for effective teaching and learning. It is not the province of this study to train the librarian in book selection, or in the knowledge of materials or technical processes; it

will not attempt to provide the teacher with subject matter knowledge, or broad concepts within subject matter, nor will it provide an analysis of children's learning needs. The assumption is made that these skills and abilities have been acquired within the scope of other learning and experience. Importantly, however, it is assumed that competence in these skills are brought to the planning problem.

Before considering the specifics of a variety of instructional materials for classroom teacher or their particular impact on the learning design, certain basic understandings must be included in the background of both the teacher and school librarian to make their planning more effective. Common understandings of general educational theories must be the foundation upon which worthwhile planning can start. Curriculum, learning, and child development theories must be explored. Familiarity with their implications is necessary to good planning and is the foundation upon which such planning must rest. Through a review of selected literature this section of the study will provide a synoptic background of current curriculum theory. The implications for the school library and its contributions to this educational concern will be apparent.

Curriculum Defined

What is curriculum? Webster's definition that curriculum itself may be a course of study, a whole body of

courses offered in either a department or institution is obviously much too narrow and elementary for the professional educator. The school staff that is content with such a definition will have difficulty when they enter upon planning sessions. On the other hand some professional definitions tend to be all encompassing and others too confining. Examples of the broad types of definitions are those suggested by Saylor and Alexander¹ "the total effort of the school to bring about desired outcomes in school and out-of school situations" or B. O. Smith, Stanley and Shores² "a sequence of potential experiences set up in school for the purpose of disciplining children and youth in group ways of thinking and acting." Such definitions tend to be so broad that they provide little functional value for the planning staff. The confining type of definition insists upon excluding from its statement anything that does not pertain to objectives and content outlines. In this type of definition any concern for learning and learning experience is eliminated from a description of curriculum. Somewhere between these two extremes may be found a workable, functioning approach to

¹J. G. Saylor and W. M. Alexander, Curriculum Planning for Better Teaching and Learning (New York: Rinehart, 1954), p. 3.

²B. O. Smith, W. O. Stanley and H. J. Shores, Fundamentals of Curriculum Development (New York: World Book, 1957), p. 3.

curriculum that enables a school staff to approach a professional level of planning.

The Development of Curriculum Theory

A look at the development of curriculum theory is worthwhile at this point. Curriculum patterns have tended to occur in cycles. These cycles have been the child-centered school, the subject-centered school, the individually-oriented school, and the group-oriented school. Notwithstanding the thoughtful work that went into most of these theories, it is generally agreed that in most instances these theories have existed only on paper while the pragmatic practice within the functioning school has been based on immediate decisions to meet immediate needs. This has been in some instances most unfortunate, certainly less than efficient or scientific. A number of conditions have contributed to this state--autonomous thinking has limited experimentation, unwieldy bureaucracy has made experimentation difficult--but frequently it would appear that in the stress to meet demands of too many children under trying physical conditions, it's a case of not being able to see the forest for the trees. However, a narrow concept of curriculum theory, one that is satisfied with the barest outline of objectives and content, will contribute to this density.

Patterns in curriculum theory (which is not to be

confused with curriculum practice) have tended to reoccur. When crisis in education arises there is a tendency to jump from one theory to another as one would jump from ice floe to ice floe. In the desire to regain solid ground a "new" theory beckons the anxious educator though the stance of certainty which seems to support the new theory may tend to over-simplify the school's problem. The layman may jump to accept the new theory and is usually satisfied that all is well again and thus, new names for old practices appear within the school program. This is not to say that much merit does not reside within the substance of a new theory but that education is more complex than most would want to admit and the school must face the complete problem. A country that sets its educational goal to include all its children faces a complex task. This task requires a complex approach for there is no simple recipe, no easy panacea. Its pursuit takes planning and resources together with continuous evaluation. This also takes TIME and a time study of both teacher and children's activities is long overdue. Is it not conceivable that we would find many activities from which teachers should be released to work on professional planning that would pay dividends in children's learning? The local school, the immediate administration and the individual teacher have too long "made do." To achieve our goal of education for every child that treats the individual as well as his place in society and culture

takes time, professional planning, resources, and evaluation. In the hard times atmosphere of "too little" and "too many," compromise has in general been the only alternative. Many of the best educational theories have truly gone untested. There has been no opportunity to discover their place in the total school situation. Untested they must remain until staffs have time and resources with which to act upon their challenges.

In this rapidly changing world, the era of EDUCATION seems to have arrived. The professional educator--the teacher and the school librarian--must make the most of it. To make the most of it demands that the individual members of the school be prepared to enter into planning sessions with professional knowledge that includes past theories, new theories, past practices, new practices to make decisions wisely regarding their own realm of practice. In accepting the responsibility for planning, the staff of the school must be prepared to understand education, to understand schools, to understand subject matter, to understand students, and to have clarified their own individual attitudes on these matters. They must have opinions based on professional background that can be supported by sound knowledge of the complete educational problem.

The Spiral Concept of Curriculum Theory

Curriculum theory is an important part of the needed

professional background. Alice Miel¹ has described developing curriculum theory as an upward and outward spiral. Three main threads entwine the spiral; (1) the separate or integrated way knowledge has been organized at various stages of curriculum development, (2) the swing of emphasis from individual to group teaching methodology, and (3) the emphasis between the concern for the individual and the concern for society. Awareness of these three strands of curriculum study permits a planning staff to focus study on elements which must be considered and permits the individual to determine his particular point of view. As described by Alice Miel, there would seem to be three attitudes the individual might adopt on these matters. One might decide to swing with the major currents of thought, one might adopt one side of the spiral to which to maintain general loyalty, or one might stay clear of commitment to either side but become immersed in the swirl of events and ideas and seek creative new patterning of thought that will transcend all former positions.

In planning, an attitude should be established which creates a focal point upon which evaluation may be based. The effective planner on a school staff, working individually

¹Alice Miel, "Reassessment of the Curriculum--Why?" A Reassessment of the Curriculum (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964), pp. 9-24.

or in a cooperative group effort, must come to grips with a point of view. This does not mean to say that all planning must stem only from an autonomous attitude. It does mean that school planning must incorporate all the objectives of the educational theories of curriculum, learning, and child development to meet a variety of needs. To be in command of a problem the planner must first have come to grips with certain curriculum positions and their method and approach. The planner must do this with sufficient depth and breadth of involvement to understand his own immediate goals and purposes. Too hasty decisions upon these concerns may lead to either-or thinking which tends to discard past practices forever or the kind of thinking which views all educational positions as a backward and forward movement in the same groove. If the planner accepts Alice Miel's view of the development of curriculum as an upward and outward spiral, it is possible to perceive concepts with greater clarity and to discover more precision in educational language.

Curriculum theorists then have concerned themselves with, (1) subject matter, separate or integrated, (2) methods designed for individuals or groups, and (3) the individual or the individual's place in society. A thoughtful consideration of these points places before the school staffs certain challenges. Both positions on each of the strands are a continuing part of classroom planning. Each position

has its place in a daily schedule though its inclusion is often subconscious.

Curriculum: Societal Level

While curriculum theory makes a full sweep in its concern, action based on such theory operates on three levels. Goodlad¹ describes these levels of curriculum study: the societal, the institutional, and the instructional. The societal level may be described as curriculum concerns studied on a national level. These are representative of the first strand of curriculum theory--subject matter and its structure. Currently all subject matter disciplines are undergoing intensive study. This in-depth study of subject matter falls into the "societal" level of curriculum because such study, approached on a national level, is on a plane remote from the individual school and student. This movement within separate disciplines to discover sharper understanding of particular subject matter has broad educational significance. As the intellectual implications of these separate disciplines become more clear, it will be possible to discover more precise systems of thought and new interrelationships. Finding the structural outlines of a subject will clarify the learning processes that must be

¹John Goodlad, "Knowledge, Pre-Collegiate Education and the Preparation of Teachers." The Nature of Knowledge: Its Implications for the Education of Teachers, Edward A. and Rosa Uhrig Memorial Lectures (Milwaukee: Edward A. Uhrig Foundation, 1961), pp. 84-93.

nourished and guided into awareness if individual discovery is to be encouraged. "Separate" subject matter then presents a system, or a structure, upon which content is molded. Study of disciplinary structure is commendable to the extent that it reveals the intellectual maneuvers that bring content into focus but consideration must also be given to the educational problems of "can" or "should." The values of "should" the student approach subject matter structure must be considered as well as "can" the student. Structural approaches in certain subject matter may be more feasible than in others. "Should" incorporates the best that is known about the individual student's needs; his motivation, his transfer of learning, and his retention.

A concern about this theoretical approach to subject matter, this study of structure within the separate disciplines, is that it tends to turn inward on subject matter. This concern with the structure of a subject, this intense analysis of the intellectual concepts inherent within a subject matter, as well as the intellectual processes they involve, currently appears to disregard the demands of interrelationships of discipline. In the long run, however, this intensive analysis should provide deeper understanding of these interrelationships. Historical evidence would suggest also that while the current concern for subject matter structure has tended to ignore the tentacles of interrelationships, this educational problem must come again to

the forefront and its complexity be given in-depth attention.

Integrated subject matter, that which cuts across subject boundaries, has in the past presented a most difficult teaching approach. It has challenged the ingenuity of the most creative teacher. The greatest barrier to its successful accomplishment has been the matter in which knowledge was organized. How to help students build order and system out of scattered knowledge appeared to many as insurmountable. Fortunately, teachers are currently able to expect an adequate school library to assist them in solving this problem. They should be able to expect a school library staff alert to both the teachers' and students' needs in this concern. As school libraries become the rule rather than the exception, teaching staffs will find professional help in solving this problem. To bring order out of widely scattered material is the special province of the school librarian. A library staff trained and alert to the curricular needs inherent in "integrated" subject matter and conscious of the demands of order must be relied upon to provide for the teachers' immediate needs. Teaching staffs must expect this kind of service from their school library; school librarians must be able to serve this need.

Curriculum: Institutional Level

What shall the school teach? This is a curriculum concern on the institutional level. Educators and laymen alike are divided today between the emphasis that should

be placed upon the demands of the technological society and those demands of human relations without which there might be no society. It seems that a middle ground can be achieved which will accommodate both demands.

Bypassing the second strand of curriculum theory for the moment, consideration will be given to the third strand, which draws upon the theme of the individual or the individual's place in society. Making this differentiation would seem to indicate that educators could somehow separate the individual from society. On closer examination this would appear to be a most difficult feat, indeed. Encouraging the individual's potential to enable him to grow most successfully also involves developing the individual's concept of society and his place within its structure. The aims of education¹ are reflected in the individual and the individual's place in society. An analysis of society suggests that the schools must develop:

. . . (1) an adequate orientation toward the whole society, (2) a mind that can cope with problems of living in a rapidly changing world, (3) an intellectual discipline adequate to grasping complex social phenomena, (4) new skills for collective thinking, and (5) a cosmopolitan sensitivity.

Along with these societal goals, the school owes a responsibility to the individual's fulfillment by developing; "(1)

¹Hilda Taba, Curriculum Development: Theory and Practice (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1962), pp. 194-210.

autonomy of thought, (2) appropriate ego-ideal, and (3) a healthy personality."

The responsibility of the school must extend beyond organized subject matter to serve these needs of society and culture. The school must deal with the problems of the complete instructional commitment. One solution to this curriculum challenge lies in moving away from the impossibility of adequately meeting needs through horizontal placement of blocks of content. It is necessary to identify generalizations, principles, and theories around which content is organized and to proceed vertically. When generalizations, principles, theories, and modes of inquiry are identified, the teacher has more freedom to select specific topics for study which meet the interest of the learner and the needs of the community.

Planning staffs must concern themselves with the complete instructional program that is directed to the individual as well as to society and culture. To that end a general approach outlined by Arno Bellack¹ may be considered. It incorporates the "long and honored tradition" which has grouped knowledge for pedagogical purposes in four major categories; the natural sciences, social sciences, mathematics, humanities. He suggests that since to serve the needs of society and culture the interrelationships of

¹Arno A. Bellack, op. cit., pp. 25-40.

individual subject matter must be taken into account, planning should proceed with emphasis on conceptual schemes and methods of inquiry associated with these broad fields of knowledge. Concurrent with this emphasis, and equally important in the planning scheme, he would include the proposal of Professor Peterson of Oxford University that introduces students to the "principal modes of intellectual activity"--the logical (or the analytic), the empirical, the moral, the aesthetic--and focuses students' attention on the modes of thought. It becomes apparent for the student that "truth for the scientist is not the same as truth for the poet or novelist." If "modes of thought" are explicitly presented to students their confusion resulting from intellectual demands of differing disciplines may be clarified.

To solve the broad social and cultural problems demands a solid understanding of the fields of knowledge wherein their solution may lie. Thus, this guide to curriculum provides for both types of learning activities: (1) the emphasis on conceptual schemes and methods of inquiry of broad fields of knowledge, and (2) introduction to principle modes of intellectual activity. To implement and promote this type of school program takes knowledgeable cooperative staff planning. If it is the desire of a school to richly fulfill its subject matter needs as well as its obligations to cultural and social needs, its staff must be willing and able to undertake planning that is meaningful. The staff

that turns its back on the challenge accepts less than professional stature. Any general schema adopted would naturally be tailored to local needs but would be directed toward the fulfillment of the obligation to the individual and to society and culture. Such planning involves collaborative effort of the complete staff on general schema for the school program and specific schema for individual disciplines. School staffs may desire to seek the services of specialists but the fact exists that the school which reaches for the best outcomes must work for its own best solutions.

The school is the staff; the staff is each member; and each staff member must participate in this professional effort by accepting responsibility and initiating action. The intellectually prepared staff member is capable of taking the broad view which encompasses the complete school program for the complete student. In this professional participation each staff member works to establish directions and objectives, decide upon methods to develop learning experience, and follow through with the evaluations upon which succeeding steps will be developed.

Following the societal and institutional levels is Goodlad's instructional level of curriculum. This area of curriculum includes subject matter competence and the operational behavior of teaching and represents the second strand of curriculum theory--learning methods.

The second strand of curriculum theory has concerned

itself with learning methods designed for individuals or groups. It seems superfluous today to debate group versus individual methods. There is proper place for both. Every classroom utilizes methods designed for both individual and group. It is doubtful that any classroom ever did not. Yet it is also true that since the day of the one room school serving the needs of a variety of ages or the advent of the blackboard, educators matured in their concepts of methods whereby they may reach individuals or groups. Taking into account individual differences, they design learning experiences that utilize various types of programmed instruction, individual research and discovery, and creative opportunities while at the same time they are able to present general concepts and introductions of subject matter to large and small groups through a variety of approaches that may include television, film, and overhead projection as well as the teacher. Skillful staff planning allows for individual and group needs as it adapts the method and medium to the desired outcomes.

Little of what has been taught in the past is useful today. Organizing subject matter for children today requires continuing in-service study and professional awareness. On this level understanding the nature of subject matter is one dimension of curriculum, understanding the problem of selecting from and organizing that subject matter for students is the other. If language is the transformation

of experience into concepts and if concepts are described "as hypothetical paths of action,"¹ it follows that the business of education is the process of acquiring concepts. Curriculum on the instructional level may be defined as a body of perceptual and organizing experiences with the objects and events that constitute the real world. These experiences are for the purpose of acquiring concepts by means of which we can cope with the real world in the search for satisfactions.

School staff concern lies in developing concepts for this experience and in providing a rich perceptual field for the student which includes not only conceptual knowledge but "knowledge of means of getting information and ways of synthesizing and relating bits of information to formulate answers to problems."² For optimal student growth, the dynamics of perception require extensive and available information on a far broader scope than schools have been accustomed to providing. The demands of perception include not only exposure to ideas but opportunities to explore them and to discover their personal meaning. The student must feel involved and be involved in what is going on in the

¹Aschel D. Woodruff, "The Use of Concepts in Teaching and Learning", Journal of Teacher Education, March, 1964, Vol. XV, No. 1., pp. 81-96.

²Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming: A New Focus for Education, Yearbook, 1962 (Washington: ASCD 1962), p. 184.

school. He must have an awareness of participating in his own destiny and in the destiny of others.

Four basic principles underly this perceptual approach to human behavior: (1) Behaving and learning are products of perceiving, (2) Behavior exists in and can, therefore, be dealt with in the present, (3) All people everywhere have a basic drive toward health and actualization, and (4) Much of a person's behavior is the result of his conception of himself.¹ This point of view seeks to understand the internal life of the student. For teaching this means that not only are the student's mental operations of concern but his wants, feelings, desires, attitudes, values and particular way of seeing and understanding must be considered. These personal dimensions determine the meanings he perceives and the behavior he employs. Thus, perceptions must become the center of teaching and learning and are vital in the curriculum if knowing is to be effective for the student. If meanings lie inside the individual, then teaching must help the student explore and discover the personal meaning of events. Teaching must help students become aware of, or sensitive to, the importance of meanings. It must help them learn how perceptions are built, or broadened, or changed.

Curriculum is less content centered and more meaning centered. At the same time teaching strives to help the

¹Ibid., p. 67.

student build processes of learning to learn. It promotes personal adequacy as well as content adequacy. Student growth emerges through expression and need gratification. Teaching then must be a matter of accepting the student's needs for health and actualization and working with, rather than against, these needs. It means helping, assisting, aiding and encouraging the student along a path of fulfillment. This requires a turn away from the objectivity of mass communication and an acceptance of a positive attitude of confidence in the student's ability to achieve successful personal growth. Successful personal growth is individual. It is not the statistical average. It is unique and experiences which contribute to this growth must be tailored to fit. Though there is a place for mass instruction, it cannot take the place of the individualization of instruction required for the provision of adequate experiences for every child. This means teaching approaches must be facilitating, flexible, selective and creative. Most importantly, teaching will illustrate that people, rather than things, are of the greatest value.

Staff Commitment to Curriculum
Theory Imperative

The school staff approaching cooperative planning will give consideration to the three levels of curriculum. There will, of course, be many points of debate. Through the years colleges have projected varying approaches to utilize

in teaching young people. However, the colleges have not maintained a unified and consistent stance towards the question of what should be taught in American schools. Much controversy has attended the question. Considering some of the opposing points of departure, Schaefer¹ notes that while Kilpatrick advocated the project method and the use of an organizing principle based on the internal needs of the learner rather than the external logic of academic subjects it was juxtaposed by Bagley's efforts for essentialism in education. It might even be noted that John Dewey balanced his appeals for the rejection of the formalism of subject-centered schools by pleas that education should not neglect the importance of organized intellectual discipline. And when Harold Rugg developed social studies textbooks designed to integrate social learnings, he was attacked by his own colleague, Henry Johnson, Professor of Teaching of History, for threatening subject matter form. If, as this review indicates, university people have not been able to reach agreement and develop unified approaches to learning, school planning staffs may very well hide behind the dodge, "How can we be expected to discover answers to these educational problems?" But is acceptance of one position in defiance of another necessary? Is there not actually place for

¹Robert J. Schaefer, "Teachers College and School Curriculum," A Reassessment of the Curriculum (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964), pp. 1-8.

both points of view? A rigid attitude should not prevent rich planning that accommodates aspects of both positions.

In the past certain blocks have contributed to teachers' apathy in curriculum experimentation. Problems of the depression era brought teacher colleges into the position where their quality was judged by how many teacher graduates were placed in school systems and in this competitive "box," training was often directed toward producing the graduate who could most easily fit into the "status quo" of the local school institution. School administrations were deep into problems of local matters and did not expect or encourage staff participation in planning. Experimentation was frowned upon and the individual teacher, or the school staff as a body, were most effective if they were able to follow instructions. World War II brought its own problems of too few teachers and too many children in less than adequate space. Schools were too occupied with the problems at hand to do more than manage to "maintain business as usual."

Teachers today are at a new plateau. The blocks set-up by the bureaucracy and the problems of the Thirties and Forties and into the post-war Fifties no longer exist. School staffs are being challenged to greater professional action and deeper individual commitment to the problems inherent in teaching. They are being challenged to attain goals of education which would attend to the needs of the individual

student as well as to his place in society and culture. Schaefer¹ points to Sloan Wayland's sociological analysis of the school system as a bureaucracy and the teacher as a functionary to note that this suggests that teacher involvement in curriculum development has been more a matter of ideology than reality. Yet it is no secret that when teachers are not involved in such planning there is little classroom testing of its validity. School staff involvement in curriculum development must not be an ideology; it must be a reality. Staff members must no longer contribute to the "closed-door" attitude but must participate in the curriculum planning that enriches their students' experience and deepens their own professional ability.

It has been noted that today's concern with structure has turned "inward" upon subject matter. The seat of this study resides in the national committees and councils whose members represent the academic disciplines. This deep analysis of subject matter should reveal new dimensions. Until recently these committees have been mostly concerned with the examination of areas of science and technology, but new encouragement for study of the humanities has developed through current plans. While this intensive study of individual disciplines can be expected to bring greater understanding of concepts and learning experience, it will

¹Ibid., p. 2.

not be complete until the knowledge gained from study of the parts is brought to bear upon the problem of relating subject matter to the whole, that is, relating the content understanding to its place in society and culture. To date many of the developers of new national courses of study seem to take the position that their job is to develop courses and instructional materials that will be "teacher-proof." Such attitudes deny the positive role of the teacher who must be concerned not only with "the structure of knowledge but also upon questions of how knowledge and intellectual values may be internalized."¹ This is the problem faced by the school staff. "The primary responsibility of education is developing understanding for our social life, and the cultivation of a desire to participate constructively in the solution of social problems."² To do this, to help the student find his place in society and culture, the school must relate subject matter parts to the whole in a meaningful way.

It is not enough for the staff member to be reasonably competent in subject matter. Teaching demands attitudes of continued inquiry along with in-depth understanding of a particular field that enables the teacher to help children develop key concepts and interrelationships. No teacher

¹Ibid., p. 7.

²Ibid., p. 5.

would be content to accept the classroom monitor role yet this is not an inconceivable future if too much reliance is placed on experts to design educational programs which can be directly relayed by electronic means to the student. The inevitable next step would be a system of national testing upon which estimates of individual preparedness for various undertakings would be based. The challenge is out and the professional school staff must accept it. There can be no default if professional status is to be maintained.

Educators must be concerned with the moral and political issues created by a nuclear age. The greatest effort should be directed toward finding a way to live with the knowledge of atomic and nuclear science. Education must be the mirror by which society is revealed. The schools must help children confront reality and know it. This is the age of "possibilism," an age characterized by so many possibilities never before conceived. . . ."for the first time in world history we have the resources, knowledge, and technology at our command to make poverty archaic . . . we can make racism and bigotry and ignorance archaic as well."¹ Educators must accept this spirit of possibilism. School staffs must provide the opportunities for students to search for as yet undisclosed principles in the concept of

¹Max Lerner, "Society and the Curriculum," A Reassessment of the Curriculum (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964), pp. 67-80.

"possibilism." Concept formation to meet the educational imperative can be met through the provision of a broad perceptual field. The school library is integral to this instructional goal. Through its collection and program of service, it can provide the extensive and available information in the broad scope that is deemed essential to the dynamics of perception. The school library becomes a learning laboratory where meaning centered study helps students confront reality and know it. Even the best classroom collection of materials inevitably falls short of the scope needed for providing this rich perceptual field. The collection of the centralized school library can, however, provide the materials for a meaning centered curriculum. The instructional objective of "learn to learn" is also supported by the guidance provided the individual by the library staff as he conducts information search. Because the age of "possibilism" is being timed by the clock of world "viability," a "sense of urgency"¹ attends the implementation of these curriculum goals.

Educational theory is drawn upon to promote understanding of what is being dealt with so that discovery can be made of how to encourage the processes which tend toward desired ends. Curriculum theory seeks to clarify educational purposes and thus becomes the first block of the theoretical foundation upon which school staff planning can be

¹Ibid., p. 80.

developed. Succeeding sections of this study will consider two other broad concerns of education--learning theory and child development theory--that must also go into the building of a foundation for cooperative staff planning.

Section 2.--Learning Theory to Suggest Educational Approaches

Curriculum theory, the first block of the educational foundation for cooperative staff planning, suggests the purposes of education. The second block in the foundation--learning theory--provides approaches that may be used to attain educational purposes.

What relationship does learning theory have for educational practice? What usefulness does it have for educators? Such questions appear deceptively obvious. To employ the much overworked analogy of education to medicine, if some recent findings are indicative, the relationship of understanding of the learning process to functional education may be equated at most with that of the understanding of physiology to medicine. Such a hierarchical position given to knowledge of the learning process seems to indicate that such knowledge has no prescriptive value in educational planning. To the question, "What is your understanding of the nature of the learning process; how, in your opinion,

do children learn?" Weber¹ reports the following sample of in-service teacher replies:

"Children learn by drumming facts into their heads."

"All they need is native intelligence and I can get them to learn."

"A child learns by repetition, drill, and exercise of what is good for him."

"Children learn primarily by imitating."

"Children learn by association, by drill, and through fear."

In the simpler days of an agrarian society, when American school children learned most of their lessons in the home or community, a school might get by on the 3 R's curriculum and on the formal discipline of drill. The complexities of preparing children to face a technological society cannot be approached from this position. An institution which accepts as its central purpose "the ability to think" can little defend and ill afford practices which do not promote their educational purposes. Instructional practices based on acceptance of long discarded learning beliefs do not enhance the possibility for obtaining stated objectives. Research has long since refuted the thinking upon which these practices were developed. While it is true that most teachers would indignantly deny any intellectual belief in these discarded "theories," many teaching practices still reflect these attitudes.

¹C. A. Weber, "Do Teachers Understand Learning Theory," Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. 46, May, 1965.

Historical Background of Learning Theory

The theories upon which modern teaching and learning practices are founded were historically oriented in philosophy and speculation. While many mysteries still wait upon solution, research and systematic study have been applied to these ancient problems and have contributed to the foundation for professional approaches today. Three main strands of thinking have contributed to this professional foundation. Each of these strands has a character of its own and has undergone many changes through the years. These studies will continue to develop yet they hold much of immediate value for us now. The three strands grew out of the learning conceptions we know as (1) mental discipline, (2) natural unfoldment, and (3) apperception.¹

Learning theory has always been linked to the basic conception of the nature of man; that is man, genetically speaking, is good or bad or neutral. The different assumptions were that man entered the world disposed to be good or evil or in a state of relativity to his experience. Thus, those who accepted man as naturally good believed that if he were uncorrupted he would unfold in a natural state of goodness, those who accepted man as naturally bad assumed that his evil nature would unfold if left alone and those

¹Morris L. Bigge, Learning Theories for Teachers (New York: Harper and Row, 1964), pp. 19-48.

who accepted man as neutral considered him neither good nor bad but endowed with potential. As these philosophical approaches were connected to psychological theories they included the concept of man's psychological disposition to his natural state. The disposition toward his natural state then could be basically active, basically reactive (passive) or basically interactive. Thus, man-active was inborn with his underlying psychological characteristics, man-reactive would have his psychological characteristics largely as a result of environment, and man-interactive was what the individual makes of what comes to him. It can be seen that a number of combinations then were available for study. Theory now could be based on man as good and active, reactive or interactive, man as bad and active, reactive or interactive or man as neutral and active, reactive, or interactive, and three strands of learning theory--mental discipline, natural unfoldment, and apperception--developed through these concepts of man and his psychological disposition.

From the position of viewing man as neutral-active, the mental discipline concept placed stress on the training of the faculties and cultivation of the intellectual power apart from any specific practical application of the learning. From the days of Plato and Aristotle the highest objective was to develop the reason, the characteristic which most distinctly separates man from the lower animals. Only the aristocracy was directly concerned with learning per se

and it was believed that training in mathematics and philosophy prepared the philosopher-king for his position in the state. Subject matter itself was of secondary importance; exercise of the faculties would produce the desired result. Having undergone a thorough study designed to exercise the mind, the student would be able to apply his intellectually developed capacities to matters of state. In one form or another this classic attitude persisted in educational thought through the nineteenth century. Man, bad-active, was to be controlled through a process of self-discipline. During the eighteenth century the doctrine of faculty psychology was introduced and, though classicism at first resisted the doctrine because it challenged the assumption that classical subject matter was necessary to the training of the faculties, it was soon to make a compromise with the doctrine. Faculty psychology also grew out of the bad-active principle and suggested that a strongly developed will was necessary to hold the reins on "natural" evil. Man then must make himself do that which he does not want to do. "Great truths" or "heritage of the past" or any other specific content is not important. The emphasis was on development of the will and the more distasteful the study, the stronger the character development. Hence, the idea developed that the more disagreeable schoolwork was, the more beneficial it was for the student. As classicism was threatened by faculty psychology, it joined with it to

promote the concept that the study of the classics would best exercise the faculties which must be developed. Thus, the classics became excellent tools for mind training and they incorporated the great truths of human experience. Our liberal arts tradition, by which the intellectually superior are trained, grows out of this historical past. Inherent in the idea is the consistent distinction between man and the world of nature.

Proponents of mental discipline have resisted the concept of scientific evaluation of what they claim is a philosophical position. The turn of the century, though, found scientifically oriented educators and psychologists promoting a change. Thorndike and others, from the neutral-passive position, conducted research that indicated that the amount of general improvement or mental discipline resulting from any subject is small. Such studies also showed that drill and training did not promote the transfer of learning. These findings challenge the position of the mental disciplinarians that study for the sake of study or the exercise of the mind to develop the knowing faculties will produce the "man-refined."

The second strand of learning theory, natural unfoldment, was developed through the good-active concept of man. The embodiment of this concept can be found in the beliefs of Rousseau, Pestalozzi, and Froebel. The natural man was good and, if uncorrupted, would develop his own natural

goodness. This implies the concept of self-determination, though corrupt environment may interfere with natural unfoldment. Learning now is a process of growth and natural development. It appears to minimize the necessity for a study of learning itself. Through a study of child growth one arrives at the concept of developing needs where instincts also play a prominent part. As shall be seen later, this approach to learning has through the years developed a continuing sophistication and though its prominence in educational concerns has, like the other theories, waxed and waned, its implications can never be completely ignored.

Apperception, the third strand of learning theory, begins with a neutral-passive position. The implications for apperception theory may be traced to John Locke's "tabula rasa" theory and through the psychological study of associationism. Apperception is idea centered and concerns itself with the process of associating new ideas with old. As in the "tabula rasa" approach, everything a person knows comes to him from without and habit formation has great prominence. Johann Friedrich Herbart brought the concept to a "mind-body" dualism. Minds were battlegrounds and storehouses of ideas and the ideas, not the persons, were dynamic. While Herbart thought of psychology as "mental chemistry," he believed observation and thought to be the proper study method of its concerns and did not consider experimentation necessary. Out of his concern for teaching

method, he developed five steps--preparation, presentation, comparison or abstraction, generalization, and application--as a pattern for teaching. His contributions did much to encourage and promote teacher training. In time Herbartian teaching practices fell under attack for they seemed to leave little room for reflection and creative thinking while they appeared to have a tendency in the direction of indoctrination. The psychological study of apperception created questions about consciousness that lead to the scientific experimental study of the movement called "structuralism." And though theoretical apperception preceded the psychological studies of behaviorism, reinforcement, and connectionism, deep within its concerns were the roots of Gestalt and cognitive field theories.

Review of Current Theories:
S-R Associationism

Current studies of learning theory which have dynamic impact on education center around these three historical strands. Two main bodies of theory which give direction and suggest structural solutions to the problems of learning are represented by the S-R associationists theory and the Gestalt-field theory which we shall review in this chapter. A consideration of the current status of the "natural unfoldment" strand, child growth and development, will be made in the succeeding section of the study. Skinner's "operant conditioning" approach is representative of the position of

modern S-R associationists, whose theories grew out of Thorndike's connectionism, while Kurt Lewin's studies in motivation, which provide the base for cognitive-field theories, may be traced to the strand of apperception.

Operant conditioning, which, according to Skinner, shapes behavior as the sculptor shapes a lump of clay, is the basis of the psychological theory of reinforcement and conditioning. Tracing its roots to the "mental discipline" strand, it assumes the neutral-passive position of man as an organism. Viewing man as a mechanism, this theory bases all its claims about learning on the observable and manipulatable behavior. In this process the behavior behaves . . . not the person or environment. While it recognizes that the internal state of the organ, man, is modified this is of a personal nature and cannot be analyzed. The position is based on statistical prediction and does not reflect individual behavior. Learning then is described as "a response or operant (activity). . .brought to be more probable or frequent through being reinforced by a change in an organism's environment after the operant or response occurs."¹ In school situations then the teacher may be considered the "reinforcer" as he rewards acceptable behavior with a smile or an "A." "Education is the establishing of behavior which will be of advantage to the individual and to others at some

¹Ibid., p. 265.

future time."¹ The teacher is an instrument by which consequences are administered through various schedules of reinforcements. While seeing teachers as the instrument of reinforcement, Skinner believes as reinforcers they operate on the reinforcement of going to school and getting a diploma rather than operating on the reinforcement of subject matter. To this end, the teaching machine, an operant conditioning device, then provides a reinforcer which operates on subject matter and also provides the approval traditionally awarded by the teacher for accomplishment. It must be realized that Skinner's position assumes "thought" as a behavior and thinking, then, is more productive when verbal responses lead to specific consequences and are reinforced because they do so. He believes that the key to effective teaching of thinking is immediate feedback and to this end educators should . . . "analyze the behavior called 'thinking' and produce it according to specifications. A program specifically concerned with such behavior could be composed of material already available in logic, mathematics, scientific method, and psychology."²

How then is the transfer of learning described by this mechanistic analysis? It is achieved through two processes: (1) Conditioned reinforcement, which is equated with the

¹Ibid., p. 271.

²Ibid., p. 142.

smile and an "A," and (2) Induction which is subdivided into two forms--(a) Stimulus induction, and (b) Response induction. Stimulus induction is the process by which stimulus acquires or loses capacity to elicit response. Response induction is the process through which a response changes its probability or rate because it shares properties with another response which has changed its probability or rate through reinforcement. Which then is more important . . . the stimulus or the response? W. C. Meierhenry,¹ whose attempt to synthesize the elements of operant conditioning and cognitive field theory will subsequently be considered, has noted that while there is some division between S-R theorists as to the relative significance of these two processes, stimulus or response, teachers should be concerned with the quality and pertinence of stimuli rather than the quantity and they should strive to elicit responses which best represent the objectives though they may not always be verbal. "As economically as possible in terms of learner time and financial outlay, stimuli must be selected or designed to contribute to the responses the learner must make."²

¹W. C. Meierhenry, "Implications of Learning Theory for Instructional Technology," Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. 46, May, 1965, pp. 435-437.

²Ibid., p. 436.

Review of Current Theories:
Gestalt-Field Theory

Kurt Lewin, the father of cognitive-field psychology, originally caught the attention of educators through his experiments in authoritarian, laissez faire, and democratic group dynamics. Gestalt-field psychology, cognitive-field psychology, or field theory is based on Kurt Lewin's belief that to be objective psychology must be subjective; that is, it must observe situations as the person being studied views them. Objectively, then, psychology must represent the field as it is experienced by an individual at a particular time. The psychological field is the life space which surrounds a given individual and includes the total pattern of factors or influences which affect behavior at a certain time. There is simultaneous mutual interaction (SMI) between the person and his environment and they are mutually interdependent. The basic formula employed by Lewin is $B = f(P, E)$ using B, behavior is the f, function of P, psychological person and E, psychological environment. With this subjective approach it is expected that one can anticipate what a given person will do in a specific situation in contrast to the statistical prediction projected by the S-R theorists. Five characteristics, which stem from the neutral-interactive position on a psychological base, of this approach stand out as distinctly different from S-R theories: (1) It is relativistic in attitude toward the

study of perception and reality; nothing can be perceived or experienced as an entity, only as it is related to other things. Reality is what an individual gains through his senses and his individual manner of interpretation. (2) It describes intelligent behavior as purposive and finds that intellectual processes are affected by the individual's goals. Thus, learning activity is goal directed. (3) In contrast to the physical aspects of an activity described by the S-R theory, it considers the effect of the psychological setting and attempts to describe the situation as it confronts an individual. (4) It always approaches the whole of the situation rather than isolated elements with the belief that everything to some degree and in some sense is dependent upon everything else. (5) It is concerned with contemporaneity which is defined to include everything psychological which is taking place in relation to a specific person at a given time and contains, as well as the environment of the present, the views of that individual about his future and his past.

With these differing characteristics in mind, a consideration of the contrasting definitions of learning and its transfer as described by the field theory is useful. Learning to the field psychologist is a change or reorganization of insight or cognitive structure. To occur, doing must be accompanied by a realization of consequences. It occurs through and as a result of experience and involves

the "catching" and generalizations of insights. This emphasis on internal change, as represented by "insight," is a most important dimension of learning in field psychology. While the S-R theory recognizes that the internal state of the organism is modified, it declines to include this dimension since its personal nature defies quantification. Accepting these generalizations, concepts, or insights as substance, field psychology describes the transfer of learning as a process of transposition. This term is employed to describe the process of generalizations, concepts, or insights which are developed in one learning situation being employed in another. This transfer of learning has been described as the ". . . intermediate flash of un verbalized awareness that actually counts for the transfer power . . ." ¹

To promote or encourage transposition the learner must (1) be aware of acquired meanings and abilities and (2) want to try to solve new problems in the light of the insights gained through previous experience. The learner must perceive common factors, must comprehend them as applicable, and appropriate, and must desire to benefit by their sensed commonality. Notable here is the emphasis on the individual's desire or motivation and field psychology relates the individual's level of achievement to his realistic level of

¹Gertrude Hendrix, "A New Clue to Transfer of Learning," Elementary School Journal, December, 1947, p. 200.

aspiration. Thus, in outline form, the most important learning theories currently under systematic study have been presented. Suggestion is made of Morris L. Bigge's particularly readable Learning Theories for Teachers for a most definitive study.¹

A Suggested Synthesis

As suggested earlier some educators may desire to accept a wider point of view than is offered by an "either-or" choice between the two most studied theories of learning. Meierhenry has described a synthesis between the two points of view which incorporates important concerns of both the S-R theory and the cognitive field theory. Noting that learning theory has much to say to classroom teachers which should be incorporated in teaching planning, he suggests that learning could be expedited if attention were given, in the development of instructional processes, to the points in learning theory upon which there is some general agreement. He finds that while approached differently by theorists there is agreement that (1) for learning to take place something happens to the learner, (2) that something occurs within the learner as a result, and (3) that either an overt or covert response is made by the learner and, therefore, he

¹Bigge, op. cit.

²Meierhenry, op. cit.

presents the model of STIMULUS-MEDIATING ACTIVITY-RESPONSE by which each dimension is recognized in planning instructional media. The three parts of the design would include, (1) Stimuli which should be developed out of the purposes and objectives to be achieved; that is, they should be chosen or developed to meet the nature of the objectives. The Mediating Activity, (2) should be characterized by the appropriate directions and suggestions put into relevant modes for transmissions which will expedite internalization of the Stimuli and Response, and (3) should reflect the learning objectives and be given in an appropriate form; that is, the response should be given in a mode that matches the type of performance required. To implement this model requires the ability of school staff members to prepare a large variety of learning resources in which stimuli is designed to change learner performance, strategies are suggested to internalize stimuli, and responses are designed to demonstrate success or failure of the instructional sequence. This approach to planning requires moving away from the predominantly verbal stimuli to the mediating activity and response that includes the thoughtful, appropriate use of materials or instructional technology.

"Working Principles" in Learning

Two important and contrasting learning theories--operant conditioning and cognitive field--are currently in the

building. Meierhenry has suggested a synthesis of the two. It should be noted that psychologists are working to systematize these theories into structures that are cohesive and internally consistent. While their work is incomplete, psychology does provide school staffs some accepted "working principles" which have already been developed through research and reputable conclusions. Regardless of a staff member's personal intellectual preference for one theory or another, it is not necessary to wait upon the completion of theoretical structure to incorporate accepted psychological principles of learning into daily practices. A review of a selected list of some of these established "working principles" follows.

MOTIVATION: Motivation may spring from a variety of needs ranging from physiological to psychological. For the learner it is a state of tension resulting from unsatisfied need. To reduce the tension the need must be wholly or partially satisfied. For the teacher the key word is "need." Finding the need which produces "tension" in Johnny accomplishes half the task. The greatest learning will occur if the learning task provides its own reward. While Johnny will learn to satisfy extrinsic demands, his learning will be much less effective and of shorter duration. From a practical classroom standpoint, it is usually true that both kinds of needs--the intrinsic and the extrinsic--will interact. However, psychologists caution that extrinsic motivation leads

to careless, inaccurate learning because the study does not serve any purpose for the learner.

PHYSICAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL CONDITION: Energetic motivation or sharp perception cannot be expected from the student who is suffering from a physical impairment of his senses. Schools have long recognized this principle and generally make sincere efforts to identify such health problems but equally important to the student's success is his psychological health. Achievement most certainly cannot go above the student's own concept of self. Staff members must remember the contribution they make to this concept of self. Acting as if a child were lazy and dull will cause the child to accept this portrayal of himself and place limitations upon his motivation and achievement. Many children come to the school from life situations which have already given the child a sense of little worthiness. As long as the student accepts this personal evaluation, he is tethered to hopelessness. Efforts to develop belief in self and confidence in his capacity to succeed are essential to schoolroom achievement. Oppressed by a sense of personal inadequacies, the student has little inclination to tackle new challenges.

PERSONAL INVOLVEMENT: The concept of personal involvement is intrinsic to the democratic way of life. Inherent in the acceptance of democratic tenets is the duty to participate. The psychological learning need to be personally involved can be met as the exercise of democratic

practice in classrooms is encouraged. Classrooms must reflect the belief of freedom with responsibility; they must encourage young people in participation by providing opportunities to experiment with personal involvement. Bigge¹ has described the best personal involvement as that which creates "perplexity just short of frustration." Pragmatically, school staffs must present group problems which challenge the learners but are within their capacity to resolve. The too simple problem will be dull, the too difficult, discouraging; but one that tests ingenuity and falls within the range of the skills and abilities of the group will promote satisfaction.

SUCCESS: Success is important to the development of a worthy concept of self. Success should come in fairly regular measure to encourage this sense of self dignity. An uninterrupted series of failures leads to frustration that blocks learning. However, this does not mean that students must never be allowed to make mistakes. Mistakes that lead to learning may be very profitable in the opportunity they provide to highlight learning needs. Strong motivation may be experienced in situations that are puzzling. If the mistake directs the search to new attempts which prove to contain better solutions learning has been encouraged. A problem solved is a tension released and no further interest is created. To maintain stimulation, unanswered questions still

¹Bigge, op. cit., p. 289.

to be solved should be carried forward.

GOALS: It is a well known psychological fact that when an individual develops goals of a personal nature they tend to be ambitious. (Teachers will recognize the tendency as one that also may be unrealistic for many students.) The teacher in general knows what the average student can and should be expected to attain. In order to bring the student into the goal setting and relate the goal in a personal context, it is wise for each staff member to discuss with his class the course objectives. In this approach learning is not merely a matter of chance; though it may be variable, it permits students to relate their goals or purposes to the course objectives.

PRACTICE: Some learning does require lengthy practice. Important to remember, though, is that mere repetition, or exercise, or drill is not necessarily conducive to learning. Practice, on the other hand, may refer to trials which have an experimental character. Practice design should not employ the repetition of identical elements but the gradual development of structural features by allowing the learner to progress to more advanced stages of performance. Research evidence seems to show also that spaced practice is more rewarding than massed practice.

RETENTION: The quality of retention is in proportion to the meaningfulness of the learning to the student. "Meaningfulness consists of relations between facts--generalizations,

rules, principles--for which students see some use."¹ Also McDonald² has said that the mere learning of any kind of organizing principle, in itself, contributes to retention of learned materials. And Stephens has concluded:

If the material is sufficiently meaningful, there may be no forgetting whatever. An important governing principle, like the idea of the conservation of energy, may so help us organize the rest of our ideas that it stays with us for life. Content that is not so brilliantly structured but which still has much meaning will be remembered in proportion to its meaning. Nonsense material is headed for extinction before the last syllable is uttered.³

Learning that can be developed on the level of generalized insight, then, may become a part of the individual.

LEARNING: A consideration of learning theory should also note "the role of progressive achievement of competence" as it contributes to behavior. White's⁴ studies indicate that the individual has a drive for competence well beyond the demands of his immediate needs. This is shown by what

¹Bigge, op. cit., p. 301.

²Frederick J. McDonald, Educational Psychology (Wadsworth) 1959, p. 192. quoted in Morris L. Bigge Learning Theories for Teachers (New York: Harper & Row, 1964), p. 301.

³John Mortimer Stephens, Educational Psychology (New York: Holt, Rinehart, Winston, 1956) quoted by Morris L. Bigge Learning Theories for Teachers (New York: Harper and Row, 1964), p. 301.

⁴R. W. White, "Competence and the Psychosexual Stages of Development," Nebraska Symposium, 1960, Edited by M. R. Jones (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1960), p. 103.

the individual wants to do with his spare time when he is not occupied with a specific "homeostatic" business. In this tendency toward competence, a difficult activity is enjoyed for its own sake, not as a means to an end. The task has an intrinsic reward because the effort expended develops from the natural movement to achieve adequacy. Thus, "work" becomes "play"--because the difficult activity is enjoyed for its own sake. This stage of learning seems to appear to the student when "order achieved among consequences overrides prior contextual orders"¹--that is, when personal meaning has developed to provide an organizing center.

For the student to achieve this learning condition, Bruner describes three steps necessary to full understanding:

First there is acquisition of new information--often information that runs counter to or is a replacement for what the person has previously known implicitly or explicitly. At the very least it is a refinement of previous knowledge. . . .

A second aspect of learning may be called transformation--the process of manipulating knowledge to make it fit new tasks. We learn to "unmask" or analyze information, to order it in a way that permits extrapolation or interpolation or conversion into another form. Transformation comprises the ways we deal with information in order to go beyond it.

A third aspect of learning is evaluation: checking whether the way we have manipulated information is adequate to the task.²

¹Karl H. Pribram, "Neurological Notes on the Art of Educating," Theories of Learning and Instruction, ed. Ernest R. Hilgard, Sixty-third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (Chicago: Chicago University Press, 1964), p. 100

²Bruner, op. cit., p. 48.

Through this process, the student makes a knowledgeable choice and develops powers to perceive and plan. Meanings of ideas are built and the ideas built liberate subsequent action and create more meanings and more perception.

Impact of Perception On Learning

An evaluative consideration of education indicates it has made progress in its objective of gathering and presenting facts. Its goal of changing student behavior, however, has not been entirely successful. This failure grows out of the inability to translate knowing into behaving. Proceeding on the assumption that behavior is a result of the forces exerted upon the individual has led teachers to approach learning problems through methods of telling, showing, rewarding, punishing, directing, guiding, making, arranging, manipulating, and occasionally forcing or coercing. Yet none of these methods has produced entirely satisfying results. Modern perceptual psychology suggests another way of viewing problems of learning. While it includes motivation, repetition, presentation, stimulation, and conditioning, it adds the important dimension of personal meaning, the inclusion of total personality in its response to learning. This phenomenological approach tells us that behavior is a function of personal meaning and that learning does not occur until some change takes place in the individual's personal and unique perceptual field. Something must happen to

the inner core that cannot be imposed from the outside. "Any piece of information will have its effect upon behavior in the degree to which an individual discovers its personal meaning."¹ Thus, the imperative for teaching is to aid, assist, and help students explore and discover personal meanings of events. To do this means providing activities which allow each student to bring facts and information to bear on his perceptual world. There must be an emphasis upon an accepting classroom atmosphere that permits the individual student to reveal his inner core in an open manner without fear of ridicule or attack. Fundamental to the needs of this learning are staff attitudes that promote activity learning, pacing of materials, group discussion, and problem solving methods. Since learning is so individual and personal, mass instruction and objective methods of dealing with students need reconsideration. Standardized class sizes and time schedules need review. Approaches to learning must be evaluated in terms of their sensitivity to children's feelings, attitudes, convictions, beliefs, doubts, fears, loves, hates, and values. It may then be possible for education to achieve its objective of promoting personal adequacy as well as content adequacy.

¹Arthur W. Combs, "Personality Theory and Its Implications for Curriculum," Learning More About Learning (Washington: Supervision and Association for Curriculum Development, 1959), p. 10.

Staff Commitment to
the Implications of
Learning Theory

Weber¹ has asked if perfunctory understandings of learning theory permit teachers to organize, administer and evaluate teaching-learning situations in a professional way. The fact that learning theories are incomplete is no defense for professional unawareness or non-practice. A theory is only a theory until practiced and that practice points the way to modification. Is it really possible for school staffs to determine where they want to go, to design an approach that will take them there, and to evaluate their accomplishment without a professional theory by which they can measure the extent of their progress? How is it possible, then, to determine the relative success or failure of the components of education--teaching and learning? Can the ability to memorize, to verbalize facts, be equated with the ability to think which implies the ability to reflect and criticize and propound? If the teaching objective is directed toward the "ability to think," the starting point must be an understanding of the best that is known about the theories surrounding thinking. What are the elements of thinking that must be brought into play before a high order of thinking can be encouraged? How does instruction move up the ladder of thought processes from the memory level to understanding and the

¹Weber, op. cit.

place where all teaching is directed toward producing reflective levels of thought--to the "ability to think?"

As part of the instructional system, the school library is ready to assist the learning needs described by theory. Staff planning for the mediating activity described by Meierhenry can be built around its resources for both discovery and production. The school library can fulfill the requirements described in the principles of learning through its provision for a variety of individual interests and a variety of modes of presentation to stimulate motivation. Its orderly arrangement of the sources of knowledge provides conditions which contribute to the individual's successful pursuit of learning goals. It offers continuing practice, without dull repetition, in information search as each new learning problem is tackled. The personal meaning by which perception is developed can be discovered through its activities of problem solving and group discussion. It provides the physical and psychological conditions which are necessary for "work" to become "play"--for learning to become its own reward.

Returning to the answers given by teachers to Weber's question, "How, in your opinion, do children learn?" it is doubtful whether the casual answers given are indicative of any teacher's deeper educational concern for his students. A case might be made, however, for the staff member's deeper personal involvement in total school planning and objectives.

For too long, school climate has discouraged a professional attitude on the part of the teacher and suggested that only the administrative echelon of education has any concern for the total planning. The staff member might look also to his own "self-image." Has professionalism on his part been so discouraged that he has developed a professional "embarrassment" that inhibits the display of professional attitudes? The school climate that does not include full staff participation, that promotes isolation of the individual, that frowns upon staff cooperation and discourages experimentation, frustrates individual professional growth and development. Participation on a meaningful level for the total staff will place a priority on professional attitudes--those attitudes which will discover relationships between educational generalizations, rules, and principles.

Parts or elements of learning theories have been reviewed here to provide a view of their complex whole and to provide the school librarian and teachers with a knowledge of what is involved in the complicated process of learning. This knowledge is a part of the educational base upon which cooperative planning may be built. It is the second block in the foundation. With purposes established by curriculum theory, with learning approaches suggested by learning theory, the third block in the foundation--child development theory--will be considered in the succeeding section.

Section 3.--Child Development Theory to
Emphasize the Development of
Intelligence

The foundation for cooperative planning between the library staff and the school staff rests on three theoretical concerns of education--curriculum theory to provide the direction of educational purpose, learning theory to guide education's most effective methodological approaches, and child development theory to outline the best findings regarding the needs of a developing intelligence.

Historical Review of the
Readiness Concept

Child development theory has grown from an historical concern for the learning process. The second strand of learning theory, natural unfoldment, as noted in the preceding section implies the concept of self-determination. The beliefs of Rousseau, Pestalozzi, and Froebel grew out of the concept of the good-active man whereby learning becomes a process of growth and development. A developing sophistication in studies of maturation led education to a considerable extent to equate findings in child development with a concept of readiness. Three major swings have characterized child development studies. The Thirties found interest centered on habit training and behavior inventories. This emphasis was followed by a general

consideration of the social and emotional aspects of development. Currently studies are being directed toward the understanding of the intellectual aspects of development.

No good purpose would be served at this time by a complete historical review of the studies of maturation. Summaries and evaluations of many of the studies have been produced by a number of writers.¹ However, mention should be made of the impact upon education of the Gesell studies of maturation that led to his formulation of the ideas of "developmental trends" which governed behavior and physical organization.² Ilg and Ames based their gradients for arithmetic, handwriting, and reading on the concept of maturation presented by Gesell.³ Tyler suggests that educators adopted the concepts of maturation and gradients without justification because the observational, naturalistic studies of the kind reported by Ilg and Ames tell "what is" without revealing "what might be."⁴ By accepting

¹W. Fowler, "Cognitive Learning in Infancy and Childhood," Psychological Bulletin LIX, 1962, p. 116-152.
 Florence L. Goodenough and Leona B. Tyler, Developmental Psychology (New York: Appleton-Century-Croft, 1959).
 Boyd R. McCandless, Children and Adolescents (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961).

²Arnold Gesell and Helen Thompson, Child Behavior and Development (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1943).

³Frances Ilg and Louise B. Ames, "Developmental Freuds in Arithmetic," Journal of Genetic Psychology, LXXIX, September, 1951.

⁴Fred T. Tyler, "Issues Related to Readiness to Learn," Theories of Learning and Instruction, ed. Ernest R. Hilgard. Sixty-third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (Chicago: Chicago University Press, 1964), p. 215-218.

such studies, educators adopted a doctrine of postponement, or a doctrine of critical or optimal period for learning.

While these studies were important to the field of growth and development and no doubt have their place in the annals of genetics, the acceptance of their findings posed many problems for educators about the optimal time and place for the introduction of specific learning and skills in the school curriculum. McCandless warns that evidence about the importance of timing is incomplete, and that practical decisions concerning it should be approached with caution.¹ "Readiness" ideas are being looked at critically today and in many instances are being drastically revised. Bruner's statement, seemingly made without reservation, to the effect that ". . . any subject can be taught effectively in some intellectually honest form to any child at any stage of development" has created a shock wave of revised consideration of the concept of readiness.² Conceivably, the statement itself, expressed as it is in such challenging form, was intended to produce shock-waves . . . for certainly Bruner appears to make use of many of the concepts promoted by Piaget and his colleagues³ which encompass the development of information processing from infancy through adolescence.

¹McCandless, op. cit., p. 121.

²Bruner, op. cit., p. 33.

³Ibid., p. 38.

His inclusion of the phrase "intellectually honest" provides him with strong defense, however.

Piaget's Qualitative Stages
of Intellectual Development

Piaget's theory has no concern for readiness per se but rather with cognition, or concept formation. Flavell¹ describes Piaget's scientific aims as his primary interest in the theoretical and experimental investigation of the qualitative development of intellectual structures. While he is interested in perception, moral attitudes, value systems and motivation, he shows a persistent and overriding interest in intelligence. Values and attitudes are seen as cognitive systems imbued in later stages of development with the same formal organization as the more unambiguously intellectual achievements. In one respect, Piaget might be called a developmental psychologist but development for him involves the careful description and theoretical analysis of successive ontogenetic states in a given culture. Adult behavior cannot be understood without a developmental perspective.

The structure of developing intelligence, as opposed to its function and content, is an important feature of Piaget's system. Structures are the organizational properties of intelligence, organizations created through

¹J. H. Flavell, The Developmental Psychology of Jean Piaget (New Jersey: D. Van Nostrand Co., Inc., 1963).

functioning and inferable from the behavioral contents whose nature they determine. Structures become the mediators interposed between the invariant functions on the one hand and the variegated behavioral contents on the other. Function then is concerned with the manner in which any organism makes cognitive progress; content refers to the external behavior which tells us that functioning has occurred; and structure refers to the inferred organizational properties which explain why this content rather than some other content has emerged.

Piaget's interest in the qualitative stages of development reveals a panorama of changing structures in the course of development. These are partitioned into stages whose qualitative similarities and differences serve as conceptual landmarks in trying to grasp the process. Although Piaget finds some discriminable differences between perceptual structures, he is not inclined to make a stage by stage analysis of perceptual development. Intellectual structure, on the other hand, suggests that such analysis is both justified and fruitful, that intellectual development does show sufficient qualitative heterogeneity.

Piaget does not consider the delineation of developmental stages to be an end in itself. Classification is a means to the end of understanding the development process in the same way that zoological and botanical classification is used. He takes for granted the fact that considerable

continuity lies behind or beneath the sequence of stages elaborated by the developmental theory. Also it is clear that a theory stressing qualitative changes in the development process--a theory built on stages and stage differences--will inevitably tend to understate across-stage similarities.

Piaget's Properties of Cognition

In the consideration of the basic properties of cognitive functioning, Piaget believes that intelligence can be meaningfully considered only as an extension of certain fundamental biological characteristics. Intelligence is first of all allied to biology in the sense that inherited biological structures condition what may be directly perceived. Thus, specific heredity is described as the neurological and sensory structures which constitute our species. Specific inheritance can be said to impede or to facilitate intellectual functioning but cannot account for such functioning. The individual comes to cognize wave lengths he never sees; he hypothesizes spatial dimensions he can never experience. General heredity is more subtle and elusive but the individual does inherit a positive constructive "something" which is a mode of intellectual functioning, a *modus operandi*. This set of functional characteristics generates cognitive structures and a mode of functioning which remains constant throughout life. In other words the

fundamental properties of intellectual functioning remain the same despite wide varieties of cognitive structures which the functioning creates. Because of the constancy of these fundamental properties, Piaget refers to them as functional invariants. As far as intelligence is concerned the important biological endowment is a set of functional characteristics. It should be noted that this is not a set of inborn structural limitations. Intellectual functioning is a specific extension of biological functioning at large.

Piaget's Development of Cognition

In analyzing the process of the development of cognition and thought, Piaget's studies pursued the development of intelligence as mental activity, not of intelligence as a hypothetical power. Taba¹ states that Piaget's work suggests certain evolutionary sequences from the first sensory-motor reactions to the formation of reflective thought. Objective thinking and a new mental organization becomes possible after language.

In infancy, the development of sensory-motor intelligence which involves the coordination of sense impressions and movements and is characterized by the child's egocentric universe is based on the sensible organization of the perceptual field. He assigns meaning to objects in terms of their response-defined uses prior to language. Habits,

¹Hilda Taba, op. cit., p. 107.

fixed ways of responding, the beginnings of problem-solving become apparent at this stage. At this stage, too, occurs a conceptualization of objects and Piaget's observation of infants suggests that thinking does not emerge suddenly at a particular point in ontogenesis but can be traced to the progressive impact of experience upon sensory-motor functioning. This view is in striking contrast to traditional separation found in developmental psychology textbooks between the consideration of sensory-motor skills and intellect.

These descriptions suggest that development results in increasing internalization of actions originally performed on objects in the world. Internalization at first constitutes a literal simulacrum--a covert copy of actions just performed. There are later gains in complexity since the covert simulacra can combine in ways not available in the original actions. This sensory-motor or preverbal intelligence, which is perfected after about two years, lies at the bottom of all thought and continues to affect thought through life.

The establishment of reflective grouping of objects, the stage of concrete operations, which includes the three year old to the eleven year old, brings with it the preconceptual symbolic thought, intuitive thinking, and concrete operations which lead to reversibility and objectivity. The cognitive achievements underlying the conservation of

amounts of matter seem to be, (1) an ability to take into account the joint effect of change in two perceived aspects of the material rather than being limited to considering one aspect at a time--thus, compensatory changes can be noted; (2) a development of an "atomic" theory of matter--a conception that matter consists of small particles that simply change their positions with respect to one another when shape transformations occur; and (3) an ability to hypothesize that a reverse change to the transformed shape back into the original could be performed.

Development of conceptual thought, or formal operations, is established between eleven years and adolescence. Reflective intelligence, formal thought, causal reasoning, objective causality, and a level of abstraction is attained.

Piaget does not deny the role of bodily needs and their derivatives but maintains that the fundamental motive governing intellectual endeavor, the really necessary and sufficient one, is of a different sort entirely. His position is simply that an intrinsic need exists for cognitive organs or structures, once generated by functioning, to perpetuate themselves by more functioning. Schemas are structures, and one of their important, built-in properties is that of repeated assimilation of anything assimilable in the environment. The very nature of assimilation is that it creates schemas which, once created, maintain themselves by assimilatory functioning.

Another fundamental characteristic of intelligence (and also perception) which Piaget has stressed indicates that cognition is at all levels a matter of real actions performed by the subject. Actions performed by the subject constitute the substance or raw material of all intellectual and perceptual adaptation. This concept of intelligence-as-action provides the connecting link or bridge between the successive developmental forms of intelligence. The importance of the action concept lies in his belief that the logical forms of thought constitute the end product of the internalization and coordination of cognitive actions. This coordination begins prior to language acquisition; one actually sees a kind of "logic-in-action" in sensory-motor behavior. Its ultimate form, however, is the lattice and group character of adult structures-in-equilibrium. The developmental information reviewed indicates that the human's basic cognitive categories for analyzing physical reality are a product of slow, laborious construction.

Implications of Piaget's Theory for Education

If the functioning intelligence is the product of both environmental stimulation and native potential, there is no doubt that providing systematic experience has an influence on the developing cognitive organization, and hence on the ability to see relationships, to reason, to solve problems, and to generalize. Piaget's argument for education is that

in trying to teach a child some general principle or rule, school staffs should, so far as is feasible, parallel the developmental process of internalization of actions. That is, the child should first work with the principle in the most concrete and action-oriented context possible; he should be allowed to manipulate objects himself and "see" the principle operate in his own actions. Then, it should become progressively more internalized and schematic by reducing perceptual and motor supports, for example, moving from objects to symbols of objects, from motor action to speech, etc. Piaget's theoretical emphasis on the action (and active) character of intelligence thus provides the rationale for certain specific recommendations about the teaching process.

Almy,¹ in a most lucid review of Piaget's studies, notes three important aspects of his theory:

1. It is more than a maturation theory. The increasing complexity and adaptability of the action patterns are dependent not only on growth but also on the child's opportunities to act on something.
2. What a child assimilates, what gets incorporated into the repertoire of action patterns in part depends on the patterns he already has available.

¹Millie Almy, "New Views on Intellectual Development in Early Childhood Education," Intellectual Development: Another Look. Papers from the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Research Institute, ed. by A. Harry Passow and Robert R. Leeper (Washington: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1964), p. 12-26.

3. New patterns do not emerge full-blown and perfect; they are spontaneously practiced.

In other words the infant does not maximize his intellectual power unless he is exposed to a wide variety of stimuli, unless the opportunities presented by these stimuli are relatively well-matched by the complexity of the action patterns the child has available, and unless these opportunities are followed by much time for spontaneous play.

From these important aspects of the Piaget theory, Almy draws the following principles:¹

1. More than maturation is involved. The increasing complexity and adaptability of the child's thought are contingent on his opportunities to think about something, to have appropriate new experiences.
2. What a child assimilates, what gets incorporated into his repertoire of thought processes, what challenges him to reorganize or reclassify information is in part dependent on the processes and the systems he already has available.
3. Abstract patterns of thinking, like concrete patterns, do not emerge full-blown but are rather the product of a series of encounters with ideas in which the child's thought has accommodated itself to new relationships, and the ability to comprehend these has been somewhat assimilated into the repertoire of thought processes so that they can be applied more and more widely.

In Piaget's theory, then, is a hierarchy that develops, (1) from the period when the sensorimotor schemata become integrated with the first words, (2) through the period of

¹ Ibid., p. 20-21.

early childhood when so much basic information is being stored and classified and when new possibilities for classification develop so rapidly, (3) into the period of middle and later childhood when concrete operational thinking facilitates a different grasp of reality, and (4) finally to the time when formal operational thinking opens up the realm of possibility and thinking can deal effectively with relationships among abstractions.¹

This view of intelligence seems to suggest a natural ordinal scale and a prediction of a child's intelligence would have to be based upon a knowledge of the experiences in store for him. The kind of perceptual and verbal experience the child has in his early formative years has a profound impact on his developing intellectual force. Hunt has suggested that, "It might be feasible to discover ways to govern encounters that children have with their environments, to achieve a substantially faster rate of intellectual development and a substantially higher intellectual capacity."²

Still, the logical thinking which grows out of Piaget's theory of the hierarchy of concept formation cannot be taken as the total picture of every child's intellectual development. One must note that Piaget's children were apparently

¹Ibid., p. 20.

²J. Hunt, Intelligence and Experience (New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1961), p. 363.

loved, nurtured and accepted in more or less optimal family situations which immediately suggests a sociological variable within the findings. Taba¹ points out one limitation in all his studies in the fact that the cognitive development of the children was examined under "naturalistic" conditions, which did not include training in thinking; or observing the strategies, sequences, or patterns of thinking under given conditions which permit the study of variations. Bruner² has noted that Piaget's theory will not be complete until it integrates the goals for which people strive, while Almy³ notes the apparent lack of allowance for imagination in the findings. Both personality variables and learning styles must have their place in the theory before it is complete and can be applied to Almy's description of the cognitive child.

He has his own ways of thinking, his own ways of viewing the world. Whether or not he changes these ways depends only in part on what or whom he encounters. Change is equally dependent on what he thinks or feels he has to gain personally from his encounters.⁴

¹Taba, op. cit., p. 111-112.

²Jerome S. Bruner, "The Viewpoint of a Psychologist," (A Review of B. Inhelder and J. Piaget's, The Growth of Logical Thinking), British Journal of Psychology, 50:1959, p. 363-370.

³Almy, op. cit., p. 24.

⁴Ibid., p. 25.

Arthur W. Combs¹ writes that behavior is the result of how things seem to the behaver. Thus, the ultimate control and direction of behavior lies within the personality of the behaver himself rather than in the external forces exerted upon him. Perception cannot be changed directly. It can only be facilitated, encouraged, and assisted. This knowledge places upon educators a demand for a method that emphasizes growth and development from within rather than force and coercion from without. Practices which encourage an accepting classroom atmosphere, activity learning, pacing of materials, group discussion methods, and problem-solving approaches, though they preceded the theory, are fundamental to its success. Behavior which leads to an adequate personality is the goal of education. Such an adequate personality is characterized by an essentially positive view of self. Adequate personalities are capable of accepting themselves and others while displaying a high degree of identification with other people.

Implications of the Inquiry
Process on Intellectual
Development

Realistic conceptualization is instrumental in developing the adequate personality. The extent to which man can control and understand his environment is in proportion to his ability to conceptualize realistically. Gathering data

¹Combs, op. cit., p. 5-20.

from the environment begins with infancy. It grows in complexity and sophistication through childhood, adolescence, and into adulthood. This act of gathering and processing becomes the activity of inquiry. Each of Piaget's steps of development--sensory-motor learning, pre-operational, operational thinking, formal logical operations--are evolving acts of inquiry. This fundamental form of learning is characterized by two basic processes: assimilation by which the child takes in and incorporates what he perceives in terms of what he knows and understands and accommodation where he reshapes and reorganizes conceptual structures until they fit and account for perceived events. This process of inquiry is autonomous and such learning becomes a part of the individual. Teaching, on the other hand, has sought to shape the concepts of the child by talking to him, showing him something or giving him something to read. By contrast, inquiry is a self-directed mode of learning and it provides a "special psychological significance for conceptual growth"¹ because it allows the learner to adapt the learning process to his immediate cognitive needs. Hunt² has suggested that there is "motivation inherent in

¹J. Richard Suchman, "The Child and the Inquiry Process," Intellectual Development: Another Look; Papers from the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Eighth Curriculum Research Institute, ed. A. Passow and Robert R. Leeper (Washington: ASCD, 1964), p. 59-77.

²J. Hunt, Piaget's Observations as a Source of Hypotheses Concerning Motivation, Paper read at the Annual Meeting, American Psychological Association, 1962.

information processing and acting" which leads to the point that inquiry of itself is satisfying and rewarding. Perhaps one reason children in school often appear poorly motivated is that school situations have not encouraged autonomous inquiry, but have instead encouraged conformity rather than discovery. To promote inquiry school staffs must provide situations and opportunities for the wide gathering of data. This means resources and space that allow the individual to work from where he is and to seek personal meaning in his learning. Such data gathering must be in the free atmosphere that permits the student to analyze and to experiment in terms of his cognitive needs. There is no one fixed method of inquiry. Suchman, who has experimented with training in strategies of inquiry, has said that the child "must be free to gather the data he needs to resolve his cognitive conflicts until he has evolved a conceptual system that lets him assimilate what he sees."¹ This emphasis on the autonomous learner, this freedom to operate according to personal needs, this demand for resources to be employed to clarify concepts places instructional demands upon the school library and its resources of books and materials. Imagination must be understood and encouraged. Consideration must be given to the environmental forces exerted upon the child and their effect upon the rate and level of

¹Suchman, "The Child and the Inquiry Process," op. cit., p. 68.

intellectual growth. Modification in methods and content of teaching must be made to encourage concept formation and to allow for individual differences. Teachers must in the preschool level help children to acquire verbal labels to accompany their perceptions and set them on the road to conceptualization.¹

Recognizing the hierarchy of experience needed for concept formation described in Piaget's theory, staff members should be less likely to assume a concept has been acquired simply because the child has been exposed to it. Rather they would provide opportunities for the child to demonstrate his understandings. This provision recalls Meierhenry's "mediating activity" model whereby the child may demonstrate his conception in the most appropriate way to clarify the concept. Johnson has described a concept as a "hypothetical construct, like intelligence that is intended to explain the observed facts."² The staff members who understand the process of concept formation will not tell the child his concept is right or is wrong but rather will provide opportunities and materials for him to promote his own discovery and to correct his own mistakes. To facilitate

¹Almy, op. cit., p. 21.

²Donald M. Johnson, "Cognitive Structures and Intellectual Processes," Intellectual Development: Another Look, Papers from the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Eighth Curriculum Research Institute, ed. A. Harry Passow and Ralph R. Leeper (Washington: ASCD, 1964), pp. 27-39.

concept formation the field of education has a vast need to study deeply what learnings are basic to understanding of particular curricular areas and of those which are general to other areas. It also needs a study of the cumulative progression of learning. Taba¹ says that this involves the planning of learning units in which one perception is designed to lift the level of the succeeding one, in which details are examined not for themselves but for their use in building a groundwork for a generalization or a perception of relationships, as, for example, examining the geographic conditions of one country in detail in order to understand the relationship between geographic conditions and resources of other countries. This type of development requires organizing a succession of questions and of learning activities to provide for movement of the cognitive and emotional reactions to higher levels, as well as for reinforcing and enlarging the concepts built in the previous activity.

In a review of the implications for curriculum inherent in the inquiry process, Suchman² reports that the autonomy of the learner has enormous importance for both motivation and conceptual growth. The learner is sensitive to his own needs and self-direction in learning; rather than being

¹Taba, op. cit., p. 297.

²Suchman, op. cit., p. 75.

a matter of the blind leading the blind, the learner has an opportunity to modify and direct his own data intake. In an inquiry centered curriculum, he suggests that children be placed into areas of study by first being confronted with concrete problem-focused episodes for which they would attempt to build explanatory models. Along the way inquiry skills must be built. While this is being done, room still exists for more teacher-directed means of helping the children enlarge their conceptual systems.

At times the teacher might work with groups in developing new conceptual models or in identifying variables that might be useful for analysis of the problem episode. Of course, the children would still be using the library and other materials, but always in relation to a particular problem of inquiry.¹

The most important contributions the inquiry process makes to the child's education lies in its by-products: the development and strengthening of the inquiry process itself, the self image that develops as a result of a greater autonomy in learning, and the development of a greater depth of understanding of principles and concepts within the disciplines of study relevant to the problems posed for inquiry. Inquiry departs from the finality of conclusions and permits open-ended learning.

¹Ibid., p. 75.

Staff Commitment to the
Implications of Child
Development Theory

In summary, some of the principles to be derived from the studies of the developing of intelligence that should be incorporated in educational practices are:

1. An intrinsic need exists for cognitive organs or structures, once generated by functioning, to perpetuate themselves by more functioning.
2. Cognition at all levels is a matter of real actions performed by the subject.
3. Systematic experience has an influence on the developing cognitive organization, and hence on the ability to see relationships, to reason, to solve problems, and to generalize.
4. The emphasis on action and the active-character of intelligence indicates its dependence on the individual's experiential opportunities.
5. Because the ultimate control and direction of behavior lies within the personality of the behavior, external forces cannot directly change perception. They only facilitate, encourage and assist.
6. Autonomy in learning permits the learner to adapt the learning process to his immediate cognitive needs and provides its own motivation.

Developing a school program that incorporates this knowledge of intelligence places demands on the total school staff and its planning. Needs emerge for desired concepts to be identified, for strategies to be developed, and for appropriate evaluative procedures to be designed. Yet the planning may be approached with a degree of optimism because this

description of intellectual development reveals that intellectual potential is open to some degree of modification and change. Education may be the creator of intelligence.

The school library can encourage and facilitate the student's intelligence development through environmental stimulation provided in its scope of materials. Through its resources, it can provide opportunities for learning movement to proceed from objects to symbols of objects. Through its facilities for production, it can provide opportunities for students to act on something as well as to act on new patterns. It can provide appropriate new experiences through a series of learning encounters with new ideas. Most importantly through these encounters, it provides for the student's own way of thinking and for his personal gain. In the student's inquiry process of gathering and processing data, it permits student autonomy and self-direction.

Though all the answers are not yet clear, certain principles have been established upon which educational planning for fostering intelligence may be built.¹

1. The truly adequate personality has an essentially positive view of self. The way an individual sees himself must be learned. This process points to the fact that the development of a positive view of self is open to teaching. This teaching must

¹Combs, "Personality Theory and Its Implications for Curriculum," op. cit., p. 15-20.

provide opportunities for success in dealing with problems. It means finding ways which are free of threat for challenging students until they have developed the necessary strength to cope with life.

2. Adequate personalities are capable of accepting themselves and others. Self acceptance and acceptance of others is also a learned condition. School staffs should teach for acceptance of self and the world in which the self exists, which means teaching for the ability to admit the evidence upon which adjustment, not resignation, should be made. This teaching for openness to data will lead to better answers to human problems.
3. Adequate personalities seem to be characterized by a high degree of identification with other people. Whether the child learns to identify himself with people or to separate himself from people depends upon his experiences while growing up. One learns what to expect from people during this period. One learns to be trusting, friendly and responsible by experience with people who are safe, helpful, trustworthy, responsible, and friendly.

These concepts of perceptual psychology suggest that education can contribute effective ways of encouraging individual potential and can anticipate more optimistic outcomes.

With curriculum theory, learning theory, and child

development theory, school staffs have the foundation upon which the first step of cooperative planning may be developed --the establishment of the educational position from which school practices may operate. To put such practices into effect requires the interaction of certain professional skills and instructional resources. Succeeding sections of the study will consider the importance of these elements for cooperative planning.

PART III

EDUCATIONAL COMPETENCIES AND MATERIALS
INTERACT IN COOPERATIVE STAFF PLANNING

Section 1.--Professional Competencies Required

Section 2.--Library Materials Required

Educational Competencies and Materials Interact in Cooperative Staff Planning

Section 1.--Professional Competencies Required

The school library, through its "selection policy" that seeks to serve the instructional system, provides the instructional resources to support educational goals delineated in the reviewed theories of curriculum, learning, and child development. To put these resources to their most effective use, cooperative staff planning can provide the learning design that brings the students and the materials together. This design begins with an educational position developed from a theoretical base drawn from complementary and interlocking theories of curriculum, learning, and child development. Educational practice and strategy should then reflect the established position. A consistency should be sought between the position, the strategies, and the evaluation of the learning program. The efforts of the total staff should be engaged through cooperative planning in the activity of promoting this consistency and assuring student's individual learning opportunities. To develop the instructional practice consistent with the educational position requires certain professional competencies and certain instructional resources. This section of the study considers some professional competencies of staff members necessary for effective planning and important in the process of bringing theory into practice.

Arno Bellack has said:

The mathematics teacher, the science teacher, the music teacher, and so on through the list of specialized functionaries in the school--each tends typically to interpret the entire program of the school through his own specialized field. This is probably inevitable, and it would not be undesirable except for one stubborn fact: each of the specialized aspects of the program deals with human beings, and since human beings are not infinitely plastic in adapting to particular situations, it follows that what goes on at one place in the system sets limiting conditions for the accomplishments of purposes elsewhere in the system. Hence the importance of giving attention not only to connections between ideas in an individual field, but also to relationship among the fields of knowledge included in the curriculum.¹

Florence Stratemeyer carries the idea further when she states, "Not only does the teacher need to see his work in relation to the total educational program, but he needs to be able to work with others in reaching curriculum decisions and to understand the rationale underlying various curriculum patterns."² If this statement is true of teachers, it is particularly true of teachers and librarians as they perform their cooperative function. It is incumbent upon both to understand the role and the objectives of the other. The

¹Bellack, op. cit., p. 28.

²Florence Stratemeyer, "Implications for Teacher Education," A Reassessment of the Curriculum, ed. Dwayne Huebner (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964), pp. 89-96.

Knapp study¹ of the college library reflects the effect the instructor's attitude toward the library has upon the students' use of the library. When he shows little or no expectation of the use of library facilities, the students will make little or no use of them. While the teacher can be assumed to be an expert in matters of instruction, the librarian should be cognizant of the teacher's efforts and desires. Conversely, the librarian can be assumed to be an expert in matters of search and study but the effectiveness of his skill upon students' learning programs will be diminished or increased in proportion to the classroom teacher's understanding of and reliance upon these research techniques.

At the outset it is important that the staff, including classroom teachers and librarians, understand the broad educational objectives of their local school. To clarify the total educational program requires an understanding of the total school objectives. Thus, a number of questions arise: What should be the goals of our society in this cataclysmic world? Given the essentials of the democratic, humanitarian position, should education take an active part in this or only stand by? Can you prepare children for change, for the future? Do we hang on to pragmatism or consider existentialism? What are the problems of language and

¹Patricia B. Knapp, College Teaching and the College Library (Chicago: American Library Association, 1959).

verbalism? What are the implications for teaching in the study of linguistics? Is the "scientific method" the only way to attack problems? What is the act of teaching? How can we educate our present children for a future world of multi-racial, cultural values? How do we educate for fast conceptual changes? How can we keep human dignity in a world of genetic revolution? How can we educate for faith and hope in the prospect of possible immediate nuclear destruction? How can we prepare for the pace at which the world is re-converting? How can we bring to children the awareness of man's noble but tragic role?

These are massive considerations which must be reviewed in establishing total school objectives. Achieving this understanding places a responsibility upon the administration to promote the study and review of total school objectives. When this has been accomplished the staff is in position to assume professional responsibility for making learning decisions within their special area that reflect these learning goals rather than placing their reliance upon the textbook or the course of study. Hutchins has written that a course of study "can never be more than a generalized approach; never a specific for a particular school or student."¹

¹R. M. Hutchins, Education for Freedom (Louisiana: Louisiana State University Press, 1943), p. 26.

Internal Consistency in Planning

Educators have long talked and written about objectives. A statement of objectives is an accepted beginning to any endeavor on both the broad school level and the more specific discipline level; yet educational objectives have tended to reflect "blurred" generalities that have little relationship to the means or strategies employed. It is very difficult to decide upon objectives that are clear-cut and specific. Time, thought, and effort must be employed. Selection becomes increasingly difficult with the rapid changes of the world for the grasping tentacles of emphases move in so many directions. The objectives have to be under constant scrutiny and should be flexible enough to adapt to this mobility. When time, thought, and effort have been applied to decisions regarding objectives, when school staffs are satisfied that they have truly stated an objective in succinct, realistic terms, they are ready to consider strategies. The methods they employ to achieve their objective and the means by which they evaluate their achievement should be related to the terms of the objective. An internal consistency can be developed which surrounds the objective, the strategy, and the evaluation.

Staff Member's Specializations Complement Each Other

Assuming that the total school objectives have been

clarified through total school planning, school staffs can look at some of the specifics involved in planning. The competencies of individual staff members can meet and complement each other to promote instructional programs. How is the effectiveness of the professional competency of the individual staff members aligned with the materials of learning and the library? What is expected of the classroom teacher and the school librarian?

The concern is not with a discussion of discipline content competency. The assumption is made that both the teacher and the librarian bring to the situation their own highly-developed skills of their respective professional choice. This attitude anticipates that each is a scholar in his field; that the classroom teacher is capable in a discipline content, that the librarian is knowledgeable in librarianship, and that each exhibits professional attributes toward his specialty that include acceptance of personal responsibility for continued professional growth through study, experimentation and evaluation. Combined with these skills, it is understood that each must have a broad knowledge and a continuing concern for the knowledge which is the foundation upon which educational programs must be established. A basic common educational theory should support their combined endeavors. This foundation includes familiarity with curriculum theory, with learning process, and with the broadening developmental studies which examine the

development of intelligence. With this common base as a foundation, classroom teachers and school librarians can proceed with their attack upon learning problems.

School librarians should be considered an integral part of the teaching staff that promotes instructional goals. In practice this consideration is not always the case. Though professional library schools assume that their school librarians are curriculum specialists¹ who enter the school situation trained to assist and to promote educational purpose, attitudes within the school often reflect a different view of the school librarian. Faculty members, because of their lack of experience with library procedures, are inclined to look upon the librarian as a "keeper of the books," a clerical person adept at inventories rather than as a supporting faculty member. If this attitude prevails, the educational demands made upon the librarian are inconsistent with the expectations inherent in the librarian's professional role. At the outset the librarian's knowledge of curriculum areas and resource material should be expected to play a key function in the faculty planning to promote educational goals. With this acceptance of the school librarian's role, an expectation exists that classroom teachers are knowledgeable about library and library skills. This

¹Anna M. Beachner, School Activities and the Library (Chicago: American Library Association, 1964).

expectation would include an acceptance of the value of library skills, an understanding of library skills, and a commitment to the use of many types of materials and a variety of methods.

Place of Logical Processes in Planning

A return to a consideration of the competencies required of the staff members requires a look at the educational objectives that have been stated in terms of developing "an ability to think," and "an ability to learn to learn." What do these objectives mean? Taba has said, "Disciplined thought is the function of a mental operation employed while learning, NOT the function of type of content."¹ What are the implications for instructional planning? The competencies involved may well be considered the prerogative of the classroom teacher. This situation is true to the extent that the principal responsibility for successful learning falls to the classroom teacher. Still, if the school librarian is to extend the teacher's purpose, he must also be aware of the purpose. To promote learning, attention must be given to:

- (1) Perception and concept formation
- (2) The development of mental process, logical processes, or the grammar of thinking
- (3) The clarification of subject structure
- (4) The recognition of interdisciplinary relationship

¹Taba, op. cit., p. 265.

- (5) The recognition of the autonomy of the individual learner, his modes or styles of learning
- (6) Creativity and imagination
- (7) Inquiry and discovery by providing opportunity to move from the concrete to the abstract through a hierarchy of experience.

Thus, the competent staff member moves beyond the confines of the subject matter or the textbook to judge learning in terms of learning experience. Competencies, therefore, include the knowledge and skill to provide for such specifics of learning. Competency goes beyond the acceptance of content and fact as valid educational objectives to the inclusion of the validity of the learning experience itself. Objectives, strategies, and evaluation are geared to the learning experience and its development in the educational span. Content is not ignored but its demands are more efficiently met when consideration is given to the mental operation. One looks always at content AND learning experience. Both must be significant and fruitful.

B. Othanel Smith has stated that instructional behavior itself should fall into three categories--observing, diagnosing, and acting. The influence of instruction is directed "to the development of the student's cognitive structures, operations, images, and so on." Instruction deals no less with subject matter than with students, however, and the

¹B. Othanel Smith, "A Conceptual Analysis of Instructional Behavior," Journal of Teacher Education, Vol. XIV, No. 3, September, 1963, pp. 294-298.

staff members' comprehension of the subject matter should lead to a logical presentation of the subject matter to assure the student's conceptualization. Thus, instructional strategies will first identify "units of verbal discourse" and then "classify these units into logical categories." The tactics employed to disclose these categories may either frame or free a student's learning. Further, Smith has noted that a concept of a concrete object may be approached by the recognition that a variety of objects belonging to the same class have common characteristics. But what of the abstract concept--imperialism, justification, goodwill, brotherhood? Here the performance of logical mental operations is crucial. He lists and describes the following mental operations:

Defining: to explore the meanings of words in terms of rules.

Classifying: to put entities into categories.

Conditional Inferring: to describe a set of conditions and to tell the results or effects or outcomes of the conditions.

Explaining: to account for an event or state of affairs.

Comparing and Contrasting: to compare two or more things (actions, factors, objects, processes); to show how something is like another object that is familiar.

Evaluating: to rate some object, expression, event, or action as to its worth, truth, etc.

Designating: to identify something by name, word, or a symbol.

Describing: to represent something by words or drawing; to tell about something.

Stating: to state issues, steps in proofs, rules, obligations, theorems, conclusions, etc.

Reporting: to report on what a book or document says; to give summaries or reviews.

Substituting: to perform a symbolic operation substituting one expression for another.

Opining: to give a conclusion concerning what is, was, will be, could be, or would have been the case when the conditions from which the conclusion is to be drawn are scanty.¹

If teachers--and their students--are not to fall into linguistic traps, clarity and rigor of thought and analysis should be on a plane above the casual or common sense level. To illustrate this, Smith describes a classroom incident as follows:

. . . the teacher asked the students to tell what was meant by the term imperialism. One student said that one nation's exercising influence over another is imperialism. If this is the meaning to be given to the term imperialism, all nations are imperialistic since it is safe to assume that every nation, no matter how insignificant, influences some other nation in some way. Yet this aspect of the meaning given to imperialism was not brought out. Rather, the student's suggestion was simply passed over, leaving him with the impression that his use of the word was as good as that of any other given in the class.

In order to define a term such as imperialism, it is necessary that there be a set of criteria to determine whether or not a

¹B. Othanel Smith, "The Need for Logic in Methods Courses," Theory Into Practice, Vol. III, No. 1 (Columbus: Bureau of Educational Research, February, 1964), pp. 5-8.

given action or set of actions of a nation are to be judged imperialistic. Furthermore, one must decide whether imperialism is to be used to refer primarily to national policies or to particular acts. Both of these matters were ignored in the discussion, and consequently the students learned little about the term beyond what they might have picked up by chance from the mass media.¹

In dealing with abstractions criteria should be defined and the limitations of the concept should be established. Undisciplined thinking and discussion will not clarify the abstraction. Effective ways of dealing with each of these logical operations within a given subject matter can be developed. Understanding the logic of instruction then takes its place beside understanding the subject matter and the student.

Content and Learning Experience Considered

No doubt conflict and struggle will occur between the relative importance of these two components--content and learning experience. Some writers even appear to suggest that methods of inquiry rather than content should be the chief focus of classroom planning for depth curriculum. Shoben² indicates that future needs of a changing world will be met by people "who have simply mastered in one degree or another the technique of disciplined thought" and, therefore,

¹Ibid., p. 7.

²Taba, op. cit., p. 277.

suggests, at least on the elementary level, that emphasis should be on "such matters as intelligent use of evidence, the process of inference, and the interrelationships between the fields of knowledge." His position is that basic intellectual skills can be acquired through any suitable content and that the growing command of sequential, orderly thought will gradually assume the form of a concentration on a particular content.

Whether one accepts this emphasis or not, one must conclude that to achieve goals of "learn to learn" or "the ability to think" the competent staff member proceeds from a premise that includes both content and learning experience. This process maintains in planning a sequential provision for mental operations which lead to disciplined thought. Thus, objectives are stated in terms of both content and experience in mental operation. Strategies developed will include means to achieve both and evaluations of achievement will be designed to test both content and mental operations. Too often educational planning has assumed that the acquisition of skills in mental operations is inherent in the content and thus evaluative design has concerned itself with the measurement of the acquisition of content or fact. Evaluation of actual mental operation is ignored; consequently, direct attack on problems of mental operations is neglected. The student is left with a fact but without a mental skill. Competency in education will demand a parallel

attack on both content and learning experience. It will require consistency between the objectives, the strategies, and the evaluation; that is, testing for content cannot be treated in the same manner as testing for mental operation. Testing for mental operation leads to the skills of diagnosis. Evaluation of the mental operation reveals what skill is lacking, what degree of skill facility has been achieved, and where new objectives need to be formulated for the individual or the group. Evaluation for this purpose provides more meaningful learning profiles to facilitate succeeding steps in instruction.

Evaluation of the Learning Experience

Nicholas Fattu has said, "A teacher is professional because she can solve problems concerned with instruction better than someone without special preparation."¹ School staffs help improve professional practice when they recognize a problem, carry out a study to solve a problem, and record the results. While engaged in this kind of action research, they gain new insight into techniques they can use and derive satisfaction from the knowledge that they are improving the effectiveness of their job. They are then in a position to judge the successful and unsuccessful aspects of

¹Nicholas A. Fattu, "Exploration of Interactions Among Instruction, Content, and Aptitude Variables," Journal of Teacher Education, Vol. XIV, No. 3, September, 1963, pp. 244-250.

a strategy and to make choices for change on a realistic basis. Bernard Z. Friedlander¹ has written:

It seems to me that classroom teachers, those who have the most direct contact with students at the level of thinking and learning, would make a grave mistake to leave it entirely to others within the scholastic community to determine what innovations should be accepted and what rejected--just as it would be a mistake to accept all or reject all. Only when they themselves participate in the examination of proposed innovations can teachers combine the truly advantageous new ideas with their prior standards of work and judgment, and arrive at a personal sense of satisfaction that the new ways are in fact an improvement. Conversely, only when teachers participate in the process of evaluation can they feel really secure about rejecting innovations that others, perhaps with less demanding standards, have embraced.

The professional competencies noted have been the ability to see individual subject matter in relation to the total school program, the ability to clarify objectives, the desirability of the systematic development of logical operations side by side with content, and the need for internal consistency in planning along with the application of action research principles. Do these competencies concern the school librarian? The answer is an emphatic yes. ANYTHING that concerns the educational establishment must be a concern of the school librarian. To implement the supportive function of the professional school librarian there should be understanding, awareness, and creativity which encourages

¹Bernard Z. Friedlander, "A Psychologist's Second Thoughts on Concepts, Curiosity, and Discovery in Teaching and Learning," Harvard Educational Review, Vol. 35, No. 1, 1965, pp. 18-38.

and stimulates the competencies of the total staff.

The Librarian's Impact on the
Development of Appropriate
Material

The particular competencies the librarian brings to the school lie in his ability to organize a library as a resource center of instructional materials for the entire educational program. This organizational ability is combined with a knowledge of the tools and aids for systematic search and study. It involves the ability to select resources that promote the learning purposes of the school and that reflect its established goals. Unless vital communication is established with the staff, which includes an understanding of its goals and strategies and familiarity with the basic instructional program, this selection will fall short of supporting the design. The organization of the materials can also implement the instructional goals. This implementation requires techniques of cataloging and filing that reflect the needs of the instructional strategies and that facilitate resource accessibility. Jerome Bruner points out there are three basic questions in social studies: What is human about human beings? How did they get that way? How can they be made more so?¹ Educators may expect a new pace-setting social studies curriculum to be built around these questions.

¹The Instructor, "Newsfront," Vol. LXXV, No. 3, November, 1965, p. 2.

It will touch a new area in social studies . . . language--its nature and its role as a humanizing force. How will the librarian approach cataloging and classifying of related material?

The ability to evaluate the library's collection, equipment, and physical facilities to serve the study needs of large groups, small groups, and individuals should be related to the demands of the instructional design. The librarian should be a resource person who engages in continuous updating in cooperation with the total staff. To this role he brings the ability to maintain resources of immediate need and to anticipate developing needs. He makes provision for the inclusion of established knowledge from the past; he will be familiar with established techniques--the investigative techniques of science, the evaluative techniques of literature and art, the historical method--along with the relationship of new techniques of creative inquiry.

Kenneth Taylor¹ has described three phases in the evolution of school librarianship: the earliest phase sees the librarian cast in the role of clerk; next came a move toward the view of a media specialist. Now the school librarian is viewed as the specialist in the utilization of resources. This role calls for an imaginative response from

¹Kenneth I. Taylor, "The World of Instructional Materials and You," Speech given Michigan Association of School Librarians, Oakland County Chapter, November 9, 1965.

the school librarians to learning needs. This response will encourage production by both teacher and student of appropriately demonstrative materials. In this process the "knower" moves into the activity of "knowing" to discover the "known." Appropriate material development provides the mediating activity that captures the "known." The importance of this process in connecting the "knower" with the "known" can not be minimized. The role of the school librarian in this activity requires imagination, leadership, and guidance. The total school staff, committed to the value and use of a variety of resources, will encourage this type of "knowing" response.

John Goodlad writes:

Good curriculum plans contain illustrative organizing centers at all levels and in all areas of instruction. The organizing center defines the substance of learning: the book, event, problem, epoch, experiment, or field trip selected to achieve one or more educational objectives with specific groups of learners. A basic criterion for selecting and arranging organizing centers is the organizing element that provides curricular continuity and sequence.

The organizing element is the thread running through a series of organizing centers, holding them together like beads on a string. The element can be a concept such as energy, selected from physics, developed through an organizing center on magnets in the primary years and an organizing center on the solar system at higher levels of schooling. It can be a generalization such as 'problems of human living are a product of where and when one lives.' Or the organizing element can be a mode of inquiry such as historical method.

The organizing element runs vertically through the curriculum, guiding the upward progression of students. Organizing centers are tied to organizing elements, specifying what is to be taught to whom, listing instructional materials, and even suggesting ways of proceeding.¹

Goodlad further notes that the current curriculum reform that stresses the separate-subject pattern of organization tends to push core and broad-fields patterns of organization into decline today. What is being replaced is not all bad, nor is the new all good. "As a consequence, the pendulum of change will soon swing back toward at least some features of core and broad-fields patterns of curriculum organization."²

Many efforts to establish core programs in the past have floundered because of inability to select significant problems, to plan with other teachers, to use problem-solving methods, and to secure adequate resources. Many of the difficulties inherent in core programs can be met through the cooperative planning of the school staff and the library. Ideas can be the focus or organizing center around which learning is planned and the librarian can promote organization and classification of pertinent material in a manner that can facilitate its accessibility. This gathering of

¹Goodlad, Planning and Organizing for Teaching, op. cit., pp. 42-43.

²Ibid., p. 43.

pertinent material will certainly involve the development of new resources especially designed to fit the needs of the learning focus. Likely this development will grow out of already available library resources but it will be characterized by its selection and use of only that which is most relevant to the learning problem. Such material will be organized for a sweeping view of the problem. It should be provocative and easily approached. It should be open-ended and should stimulate further questioning. It should incorporate past, present, and future, and should represent a variety of disciplines. It should indicate relationships to current problems and immediate usefulness. It should provide examples of procedural methods and include provision for the grammar of thinking. This activity is not the total responsibility of the librarian. The necessity for the cooperative selection and evaluation of learning material by the total staff should be emphasized. The librarian knows the relevant material, makes it available for the staff planning, and participates in its evaluation. Teachers, library aids, and technicians should act in the production of new material.

The Librarian as an Instructor

The school librarian is always an instructor--on a large group, small group, or independent student basis. A continuous program of instruction to promote library skills

is conducted by the librarian: use of the card catalog, the Dewey decimal system, bibliographic aids, reference books, charts, graphs, Readers' Guide, etc. J. Lloyd Trump¹ has said, "Librarians, like teachers, will teach those phases of courses where their interest and abilities particularly lie. For example, librarians will make presentations to large groups about the use of instructional materials." Generally speaking, the school librarian serves three instructional roles: assisting the individual student with resources, providing group conferences in matters of learning assignments which may include leading seminars in the significance and relationships of materials, and presenting information on the collection and its use to large groups. To meet these demands, an obvious need exists for teaching competency and all that it involves in terms of human behavior and learning.

There are problems inherent in this cooperative instructional approach which should be considered and solved. Within a given school situation, there are time schedule requirements for large groups, small groups, and independent

¹J. Lloyd Trump, "Changing Concepts of Instructions and the School Library as a Materials Center," The School Library as a Material Center, ed. by Mary Helen Mahar. Proceedings of a Conference under the Auspices of the U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare (Washington: U. S. Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare, 1963), pp. 1-7.

instruction. A report of an experimental project in teaching work-study skills and independent study conducted by Shaker Heights City School District,¹ while primarily concerned with the effect of large group library instruction upon fourth, fifth, and sixth graders also reveals the need for new attitudes toward classroom scheduling and planning time. A necessity arises for "unscheduling" time which affects both the students' time and the staff time.

"Right and Left Handed"
Learning Provided

The librarian has a responsibility to supply materials that promote both the "right-handed" and "left-handed" learning described by Bruner.² The "right-handed" learning as characterized in the discovery process seeks to develop an increase in intellectual potency; it embodies intrinsic and extrinsic motives while encouraging a desire for competence. Resources that support this kind of learning are more likely to be found in the range of the factual materials that can be exploited to build the scientific method and the move from learning to doing. Conversely, "left-handed" learning seeks to reveal the identity of the self. It tends to bring

¹Shaker Heights City School District, Third Year Report and Final Summary of an Experimental Program.

²Jerome S. Bruner, On Knowing (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1962).

the internal impulse of the individual into the open and it emphasizes the "face-like" character of experience. It is an externalization of the "vicissitudes of the personality." This kind of learning is most likely to be discovered through literature, biography, and fiction. These resources provide a "shock of recognition" experience whereby the exercises that illustrate the lessons of learning to live, learning to live with others, and learning to live with self may unveil the self-identity. The aspects of both kinds of learning are important to the complete intellectual growth of the student and the resources of learning material in a school library by design meet the demands of both kinds of learning.

The Integrity of the School Library Collection

Though the emphasis in this section has been upon these emerging aspects of school librarianship, an important traditional phase of library activity should not be neglected. First and always the school librarian is committed to the goal inherent in the craft itself--to pass along to others a measure of the joy of reading. The great things of life are captured in books and therein held to provide for all an acquaintance with humanity itself. Once acquired, the joy of reading will help and will strengthen the child and the man in his own battle. Emphasis in this study has been built around the disciplinary demands of education

itself. This knowledge is important to the school library's fundamental support of instructional purpose. The school library is a specialized library with a specialized purpose to serve in the educational sphere. This attitude is not meant to negate the traditional function of a school library to promote the great, the time honored, and the aesthetic. Here is no denial of this commitment. Here is always the over-riding imperative to make selection in terms of quality; distinction is made between the worthwhile and the mediocre, the beautiful and the sentimental, the sincere and the slick. There should be integrity in both writing and subject matter. The school library should have books that may be read "for our soul's sake or our spirit's sake" for "we are more than intellect, and more than sense, and the deepest-lying springs of life are touched by life alone."¹

Staff Commitment to the
Professional Exercise
of Planning

A summary of the professional competencies demanded in effective planning then starts with the broad educational base incorporated in theories of curriculum, learning and development. The professional competencies brought into action upon these theories that consider the necessity for

¹John Livingston Lowe, "On Reading," quoted by Frances Clark Sayers, Summoned by Books (New York: The Viking Press, 1965), p. 172.

internal consistency between objective, strategy, and evaluation, the necessity for parallel concern for content and learning experience, the satisfaction of the demands for "knowing" that exist between the "knower" and the "known" should be exercised. These professional competencies also include the selection, evaluation, and development of learning resources together with provision for "right and left-handed" learning.

All of these competencies are of a reciprocal nature. The total school staff is involved in their development and promotion with individual staff members--classroom teachers and librarians--contributing their particular skills. The classroom teacher faces the responsibility for maintaining up-to-date content, for providing learning experiences in a logical manner, for developing individual and group approaches consistent with students' needs and under optimum conditions for individual growth. The librarian faces the responsibility for knowledge of broad curriculum goals, for understanding of approaches to integration of materials, for providing order and organization specific to instructional goals, and for storage and retrieval of a variety of resource materials.

The professional classroom teacher should recognize the problems of his discipline, should state clearly the concepts to be developed, in order to recognize disciplinary interrelationships and the desirability of bringing them into

focus. The teacher should recognize the needs of the individual student and his requirements in the learning process. This recognition will be supported by the ability to make assignments that promote a learning purpose of discovery that will reveal subject structure and relationships, and that will not be dependent upon the "fact" answer. Such assignments will encourage processes of logical thinking and critical thinking together with an understanding of the modes of thinking. The teacher should encourage and promote appropriate evidence of student learning.

The librarian should understand the needs of disciplines and should promote subject matter interrelationships through integrated materials. The librarian should then select, evaluate, and supply a wide collection of resource material. The librarian should understand and meet the needs of individual students and have an understanding of the needs of the learning process. The librarian should have the ability to assist students to discover and develop appropriate evidence of their learning.

Both the classroom teacher and the librarian face the responsibility of approaching instructional goals with experimental attitudes that are analytical of outcomes and that promote continuing inquiry. A sensitivity to the demands of change and flexibility in approaches to learning goals is needed. The teacher can be freed from the textbook; the school librarian can make this freedom possible.

The teacher should understand the library and realize its potential in dealing with learning. The librarian should understand the teacher's endeavor and should be able to select and to organize the collection to meet this endeavor. Above all, they should depend upon each other in their planning. Such planning, such reciprocity in ability can develop cohesiveness within the school. It is well to remember that application of the same principles¹ that encourage students in their quest for learning will also facilitate staff efforts towards worthwhile planning. Threats to self should be minimal so that personal feelings, attitudes, ideas, doubts, and concerns may be openly brought out for examination. Each member should feel free to try his wings without fear of humiliation or embarrassment. Positive commitment and exploration can be encouraged. Through involvement, a sense of belonging in the effort can be promoted. Uniqueness, originality, breaking with tradition should be honored. While the evolving character of education can be emphasized, each participant should be encouraged to trust his own reactions. A generally optimistic approach to the problems of planning will provide an atmosphere conducive to their solution.

¹Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming: A New Focus for Education, Yearbook, 1962 (Washington: ASCD, 1962), pp. 125-126.

When the trivial is rejected and when plans that are centered in the real and vital are deeply probed, learning will be more individual and more meaningful. Each staff member will have employed his best skills to enrich the broad goals of the established educational position. The character of the position assumed in cooperative planning will suggest the vital interaction of these professional competencies with the materials of learning. The next section of the study will then be concerned with these materials.

Section 2.--Library Materials Required

An instrumentalism is needed for the free exercise of the professional competencies that provide for learning discovery, for disciplinary interrelationships, for subject matter structure, and for appropriate evidence of learning. This instrumentalism is found in the broad range of instructional materials available in the school library. To achieve the described learning objectives of the educational position, there must be an interaction between the professional competencies of the school staff and the instructional materials of the school.

Instructional Materials Defined

Some views of instructional materials are narrow in

scope centering around the technology of an electronic age. These views tend to assume a potential for learning inherent in the device itself; that is, the teaching machine, the filmstrip, the tape, the movie, or television by their nature provide a learning design. This study rejects such attitudes. Other views of instructional materials are so broad they choose to include in the definition any and all contributors to learning: the teacher, the community resource person, the school, in fact any instrument of life itself that has impact upon the dimension of learning. While no quarrel exists with this definition, it will not serve the purpose of defining supportive material for instructional purpose. The instructional purpose lies in the development of perception, in providing the student with a broad perceptual field, and material is defined as that variety of methods by which the "word," the symbols of life, are given order and organization in the developing of concepts. Therefore, material is any communicative device which promotes the "knower's" discovery and presentation in the "knowing" activity to reveal the "known."

Bruner reminds us that language is the ideal example of powerful technology. He also describes man's "evolutionary instrumentalism" as the evidence of the dependence of man's use of mind "upon his ability to develop and use 'tools' or 'instruments' or 'technologies' that make it

possible for him to express and amplify his powers."¹ Thus, there exists both "software" and "hardware." The "word," language, the "software," exists as the basic skill; material, the "hardware," exists as the medium which encourages perception or as the vehicle for understandings. These two elements, "software" and "hardware," combine to instruct, to transmit man's culture, to enrich the child. Together, they can make the school an open window through which he can view the world and its wonders. In combination, they provide phenomena for looking at, listening to, and experiencing.

Language development and concept formation are interdependent. For a concept to be communicable, it must be represented by a symbol that is understood by others. While symbols take many forms--sounds, actions, structures--their most common form is the word. Symbolization increases as language is acquired. As concept formation broadens, the young child can move from direct experience to vicarious experience. One purpose of instructional material is to provide this vicarious experience. Through these opportunities children are able to discover new concepts, redefine old concepts, and differentiate between concepts. Suchman²

¹Jerome S. Bruner, "Education as a Social Invention," Saturday Review, Vol. XLIX, No. 8, February 19, 1966, p. 70.

²J. Richard Suchman, "The Conditions for Inquiry," The Instructor, Vol. LXXV, No. 3, November, 1965, p. 30.

describes three conditions for inquiry--freedom, response, and focus. Materials contribute to these conditions for inquiry to the extent that they provide for autonomous choices, are responsive to learning needs, and indicate direction and focus. In the instructional design, materials are expected to convey order to knowledge, to establish sequence, and to clarify process. They are expected to convey aesthetic experience and invitations to creativity.

Communicative Implications of Instructional Materials

In short, materials are concerned with communication. Gerbner¹ defines communication as "social interaction performed through messages" and as basically a process which contributes to the humanizing of man. There is a need to inquire into the humanizing potential of communication. This inquiry means applying analysis and criticism in order to raise communication standards. Concern should be given to the nature and role of messages. The quality, the integrity, and the tactics employed in messages must be analyzed. Gerbner suggests a consideration of these questions: "What happens when we interact through messages? What should happen when we interact through messages? What are

¹George Gerbner, "A Theory of Communication and Its Implications for Teaching," The Nature of Teaching: Implications for the Education of Teachers, Edward A. and Rosa Uhrig Memorial Lectures (Milwaukee: The Edward A. Uhrig Foundation, 1962), pp. 33-47.

the desirable qualities of our operational elements and relationships in the light of our view of communication as a humanizing process? What communication and teaching functions serve these values?"¹ The industrial revolution has extended to include the mass production of messages and has created another dimension to be considered: man's relation to culture. Further, on the institutional level, we must ask: "What happens when industrial institutions mass-produce the message systems making up much of the popular culture in which all educational enterprises operate? What are some roles and responsibilities of formal education in the new cultural situation?"²

A consideration of Gerbner's model and theory of communication will quickly show that his theory is not mechanical or automatic but is dependent on the total cultural and personal experience. In his theory, communication can never be equated with a transmission system. Historically, he extracts three functions of communication. One function was to make work easier, life meaningful, and ways of looking at life and the world convincing to those born into the culture. This use is designated the "art function" and with this function man made the truths of the tribe--or of the culture--believable and compelling. Being reflective, man

¹Ibid., p. 34.

²Ibid.

learned not only the art of making truths believable, but the importance of making beliefs truer. This use is designated as the "science function" of communication and it undertakes to assist the validity of propositions. These historical designations to communication--the art function and the science function--are suggestive of Bruner's "left and right-handed" learning for identity and discovery. However, Gerbner continues, man includes a third social function in communication. Calling it the "organizing function," it is the function that distributes and utilizes power. In this function the humanizing role of the communicator "is to organize the energy and the power of message systems to promote liberating ends and to make knowledge freer."¹

To be interactive in communication, requires the ability to produce and perceive messages. This ability divides into three phases: availability, selection, and context. Events must be available to be perceived, and event must be selected for perception and the context is the method by which parts of a whole are woven together. The context of presentation and the context of interpretation affect the meaning attributed to perceptions. Thus, man perceives in terms of prior assumptions; he fits his perceptions into a context of his own; that is, he can only perceive (or conceive of) something from where he is--from a point of view

¹Ibid., p. 36.

When he moves outside the sphere of the familiar to something new or rare "the assumptions, contexts, and points of view which have formed the terms of . . . perceptions make it difficult to see some things as they 'really' are."¹ Every perception includes a judgment based on past experience and present expectation. Gerbner cautions that a failure to understand terms implicit in messages may produce confusion about what happens and why. Also, the context in which communication is presented may do more than intended or may even develop the opposite of the intent.

In teaching communication must be analyzed for unexamined assumptions implicitly reflected in messages which may negate the explicit lesson. The messages presented should be clear and believable. To insure these values, consideration should be given to three operational elements--selection, context, and availability. Selection should be as free as possible, context as representative as possible, and availability as equitable as possible. Thus, the criterion of value is "free selection in a representative context of pertinent evidence"² to make choices freer, beliefs truer, and truths believable. In mass-production the assumptions, contexts, and points of view which cultivate perceptions of what is real, what is important, and what is right roll off

¹Ibid., p. 38.

²Ibid., p. 44.

the assembly line. In education the school staff should be analytical of the messages they produce. When school staffs choose materials for the instructional purpose, they should, therefore, apply to their selection the analytical, critical judgment that examines the assumptions, contexts, and points of view communicated by the materials. They should ask what approaches are cultivated, what perspectives on man, life, and the world are presented.

Electronics publishing is rapidly increasing in the marketplace of the Sixties. In 1960 Bennett Cerf¹ predicted that some five or six great publishing companies would dominate the publishing scene, much the way that a handful of companies today dominate steel, automobiles, and other truly big industries. Currently many publishing houses are merging with the electronics firms such as Xerox, International Business Machines, General Electric, and others to meet the clamoring demand for educational materials occasioned by the U. S. Office of Education's support of school libraries. While Mr. Cerf's prediction has not been completely fulfilled, a definite trend can be observed. Combining the "software" and the "hardware," these mergers look to the goal of providing integrated capability of information sources, in their terminology, "a systems approach."

¹Bennett Cerf, "Looking to Electronics in the Publishing Field," The National Observer, February 21, 1966), p. 8.

The potential virtue of this coordination is great. Books and films and teaching machines and the rest could be related as never before and could provide for teachers a lift comparable to the introduction of free textbooks in the 1890's. The potential dangers are no less obvious. . . . We have better teaching machines than programs for them, better educational television equipment than ideas on how to use it. . . . We run the risk of having schools inundated with quantities of technically exciting but intellectually inadequate materials.¹

Notable in this trend is the emphasis on factual information. Such information alone can lead to the "boxing" or "fencing" of learning. It is doubtful that this imbalance will contribute to society's survival and progress. Materials which are needed are those which encourage and guide students to identify problems, ask questions, and seek information. Such optimal materials will stimulate discussion, questioning, and self-directed searching for information.

An educational imperative exists in the selection of resources which considers these learning needs. School staffs should ask not only is the conveyance, the "hardware," suitable for the learning purpose BUT also does the message "the software," it communicates reflect free choice of pertinent evidence in a representative context. They accept the fact that the electronic age has created useful tools to convey messages, they acknowledge their vital instrumentalism, but they judge the messages in terms of the instructional

¹Theodore R. Sizer, quoted in "Looking to Electronics in the Publishing Field," The National Observer, February 21, 1966, p. 8.

purpose. Will the messages promote undistorted perception? Will they provide order and organization to the developing concepts? Will they make truth believable, beliefs truer?

Materials to be Included in
A School Library

What are the materials school staffs will judge? The 1960 Standards for School Library Programs¹ lists the basic requirements of a school library. Placing heavy emphasis on the book collection, they include newspapers, magazines, pamphlets, films and filmstrips, tapes and records, pictures and slides, and realia. To promote the utilization of the collection, as well as the instructional purpose, Kenneth Taylor² outlines some of the required tools: phonograph, filmstrip and motion picture previewer, slide previewer, tape recorder, radio, camera, overhead projector, copying machine for transparencies, lettering equipment, cutting board, dry mount press, along with work tables, storage cabinets and supplies. Note that Taylor has gone beyond the tools required for utilization of the collection to include the tools that will promote the mediating activity of "knowing." The best evaluation of learning is not always verbal. A demonstration by appropriate means may serve both teaching and evaluation purposes more

¹American Association of School Libraries, op. cit.

²Taylor, "The World of Instructional Materials and You," op. cit.

precisely.

Staff Participation in the
Selection of School Library
Materials

The school librarian with other members of the school staff now has three dimensions of concern for instructional materials: selection, utilization, and production. No magic exists in the tool itself unless interest is in manipulation rather than education. Recognizing that it is not the tool that teaches, they accept the responsibility for the processes of selection, utilization, and production of instructional materials.

In selection the concern is for the integrity and the pertinence of the symbolization. The staff should not choose material that seeks for student response but rather they select material for the response it affords the student in meeting his needs of identity and discovery. To serve the art function, they select materials that express true and valid beliefs in clear and convincing forms. To serve the science function they assess the truth qualities of information and the validity of assumptions, contexts, and points of view implicit in statements. The school staff applies this analysis to all forms of the "word" whether they are recorded in books, films, or tapes. Certainly books are the nucleus of the library collection. Their particular ability to meet the individual on intimate

terms, as well as their vast collection of symbolization, is vital to the individual's learning needs and to learning itself. Established criteria exists for selection which includes artistry and accuracy. Just as evaluation is made of integrity in printed material, similar standards must be applied to the evaluation of other media. For example, the art of photographic production has reached great heights of skill. The camera can be an encyclopedic informer about the world which records vast expanses ranging from the sea floor to the rims of space. Like any other medium, however, photography may faithfully report or painfully distort. Selection of such media, whether it conveys explanation or documentation, should be approached by standards suitable to the learning purposes. Anyone viewing the deeply moving documentaries of Robert Flaherty--Nanook, Moana, Man of Aran, Louisiana Story--will understand the artistry and honesty that should be a part of a documentary production. Flaherty's desire to catch the essence of a people, his self-imposed rule to approach documentation with an attitude of non-preconception, resulted in documentaries of classic quality. Someone has called them, "Fraser's Golden Bough come to life." Flaherty did not step between his subject and the camera but allowed the camera to record the truth. This sets a high standard of excellence and is one which must be sought in all media evaluation.

In explanatory photography, the eye's limited range

of vision and its fixed angle of view have been extended.

Margaret Weiss writes:

Even familiar objects are revealed in a fresh framework of relationships and framed in relationship to their total environment; natural forms display their intrinsic organization and design. Through film image, the eye discovers the close graphic kinship between woodland forest and windowpane frost, swirls of water and movements of spiral nebulae, a molecule of protein and a marble-veined mountain. Examine a photo-micrograph of a speck of protein. Then compare it with aerial views of earth's topography or a submarine study of coral formation. All disclose contours, shapes, surfaces, and patterns of the same order--a fact not found in Euclid's seven volumes but in the special geometry of the viewfinder.¹

Certainly, the contribution the photographic dimension makes to knowledge cannot be denied; therefore, it is important to select those productions which live up to the media's highest promise.

Staff Utilization of School Library Materials

For utilization materials are sought that provide opportunities for inquiry, problem-solving, reasoning, and concept attainment. Such materials are used to present clear-cut examples of good thinking or to illustrate striking examples of poor thinking. They may be used to provide hints to solutions or to clarify confusion. They are always used, not as inflexible parts of a formal lesson, but

¹Margaret R. Weiss, "The Questing Camera," Saturday Review, Vol. XLVIII, No. 35, August 28, 1965, p. 33.

in relation to the objectives of the lesson. A striking example of this relationship might be found in the findings of recent study reports regarding programed instruction. In the introduction to an interim report, Schramm writes:

From these schools, and from most others who have reported their reactions to programs, comes the word that some students find programs 'boring.' Some students, some programs, some schools, of course, more than others. There are provocative pages on this point toward the end of the Thelen-Ginther paper. Two things especially impressed them about some student reactions, they said. One was the 'elaborate and ingenious ways of short-cutting the program'; another, 'the phenomenon of going through the program, apparently satisfactorily, and then being unable to pass tests or answer questions about what it is that one has been reading or answering.' These phenomena, and the reports of boredom, had better be taken seriously, they say--for 'the alleged reward from immediate feedback, telling the student that he has made the right response, is simply inadequate.'

Certainly a large number of social and interpersonal rewards which are taken for granted in classroom teaching, are almost wholly absent in individualized programed instruction. What rewards can be substituted? Although the teacher can do a great deal, Thelen and Ginther think the ultimate responsibility lies with programmers, and the ultimate solutions will be more rewarding, more challenging programs. Until programming principles are established to 'turn education into an experience of meaningful inquiry by the student,' they doubt that it can be truly individualized; it will depend on management and enrichment by the teacher, who will consequently tend to use programs chiefly as a new and efficient type of workbook to help 'teach the class.'¹

¹Wilbur Schramm, "Introduction: Interim Report," Fund for the Advancement of Education; Four Case Studies of Programed Instruction (New York: The Fund, 1964).

It should be clear that the utilization of the "hardware," the conveyance, is of necessity subordinate to the "software" it conveys. A particular media is used because it suits a selected learning objective, because it permits flexibility for large group, small group, or independent approaches, and because it represents explicit communication. The goal is to present undistorted perception. To do this, Bruner¹ writes, "You must get the perceptual field organized around your own person as center before you can impose other, less egocentric axes upon it." The maturing organism seems to require three systems of skills for a full expression of its capacities--tools for the hand, for the distance receptors, and for the process of reflection. The utilization value of the instructional materials will help meet these demands of the hand, the distance receptors, and the process of reflection.

In the process of inquiry, materials are used to promote the individual's autonomy and "freedom." To meet the demands of "responsiveness," the inquirer must have a rich supply of data available when he wants them. This supply is used "to enable him to interact, to gather information, and test ideas."² To provide "focus," materials are used to confront the child with a puzzling event which provides

¹Bruner, "Education in Social Invention," op. cit.

²Suchman, "Inquiry," op. cit.

not only motivation to inquire, but a focal point toward which the process of inquiry can be aimed. Materials are also used to raise new questions that challenge the child's theory.

An occasional tendency for school staffs to react to Suchman's inquiry process as if it applied only to the areas of science and mathematics can be observed. This tendency places limitations on the process not intended. The inquiry process proceeds in all learning areas and is adaptable, albeit with suitable materials, to all learning activity. Can it be denied that literary analysis or historical search is other than inquiry? To this point mention should be made of the pragmatic necessity of education to make realistic approaches to humanistic learning. Reuel Denney states, ". . . it is a discounting of our future to put so much emphasis on the technological and industrial."¹ He points to a variety of research that indicates that a near future will require citizens skilled in intercultural and artistic fields. Materials are employed in a process of inquiry in the whole educational spectrum.

¹Reuel Denney, "The Learner and His Audience," New Dimensions in Learning (Washington: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1962), pp. 24-34.

Staff Production of School
Library Materials

If the development of meaningful inquiry is the purpose of instruction, a meaningful relationship between the object of inquiry and the material of inquiry must follow. The instructional purpose leads in the choice of material and media. The concern for meaningful inquiry leads to the phase of production of materials. Classroom teachers and library staffs must also create their own good examples for particular concepts if they are to succeed in having materials designed to their individual instructional needs and for individual student's learning needs. Louis Rath describes this as an urgent task of teaching.

I think it is in the nature of teaching to improvise, to write, to make, to adapt, to borrow materials that are appropriate not only for the individual differences in the class, but also for the tremendous new knowledge which is developing. We are told that every eight years the amount of information in the world doubles. We have been told that ninety percent of all the scientists who ever lived are living today. Let us assume that those who are going to become contributors in the sciences and the arts, will increase in great numbers, and that they in turn will produce new knowledge, new data, and new information. How can this new knowledge be synthesized? How will the new material be put into mimeographed or dittoed form and be made available to students? Can we rely on textbooks that even now are five to twenty-five years behind? I say we are going to be able to do this only through a kind of curriculum-making activity on the part of the teachers; and I would suggest here, by analogy of medicine, that as we have blood banks and eye banks, we should begin the development of curriculum banks. Teachers who find certain curriculum materials very useful

for the clarification of values, or for the promoting of thinking, for example should contribute them to a curriculum bank. Those teachers who belong to the bank would get copies automatically, with the grade level and their relative effectiveness rated by those who have already used them.¹

Teachers and librarians should also provide for the student's participation in production as a part of the appropriate demonstration of the "known." Note Suchman's² admonishment that unless the student externalizes his thoughts by bringing them out into the open to be looked at, the teacher may never be able to respond adequately to the child. Understandings are often better revealed through appropriate demonstration than through verbal approaches. From another point of view, Luchins has written:

Finally, pupils can also participate in the development of audiovisual material. For example, they may be asked how they would change an illustration that was used or what other device they would suggest. This is a procedure that the writer has used in teaching elementary, secondary, and college courses. Students at times were told, 'Suppose you had to explain to someone (say, a child not in this class) what you have learned. What would you show him in order to help him to understand? For example, what picture, illustration, or story would you use?' Such procedures allow for self-involvement of the learner in altering or improvising audiovisual devices. Moreover, they give the pupil experience in communicating his ideas and in seeing differences between

¹Louis Rath, "The Nature of Teaching," The Nature of Teaching: Implications for the Education of Teachers; Edward A. and Rosa Uhrig Memorial Lectures (Milwaukee: The Edward A. Uhrig Foundation, 1962), pp. 8-18.

²Suchman, "Inquiry," op. cit.

learning and communication, as well as between impression and expression. In this way, too, audiovisual devices may become an integral part of the lesson.¹

In student production there are also opportunities for further development of the system of skills represented by the needs of the hand, the distance receptors, and the process of reflection. Above all, such activity provides opportunities for creating, for doing. As well as charts, graphs, and outlines as evidence of understandings, production will include opportunities for music, painting, drama, and dance. This participation opens many avenues to self-growth through opportunities to explore concepts, to manipulate or play with ideas, to enjoy and contemplate discovery. Such participation and inclusion in the meaningful study becomes not a classroom assignment but a way of life to which the complete child can give acceptance. It broadens perceptual fields through activities which involve the student not only in the objectivity of abstraction but also in the subjectivity of concrete experience. It invites creativity, esthetic awareness, and discovery of self.

¹Abraham S. Luchins, "Implications of Gestalt Psychology for A V Learning," Audio-Visual Communications Review, Supplement 4, September-October, 1961, pp. 7-33.

Librarian's Role in the
Development of the Library
Materials Collection

What is the role of the library staff in this commitment to the materials of instruction? Skills of library training should be brought to bear upon the continuous enlargement and enrichment of the school's collection. Alertness to the efficiencies of technology should be displayed. An understanding of the place of microfilms, video tapes and other storage forms available in an electronic age should exist. An awareness should exist of the special value of an introductory film to a literary classic that will entice a "non-reader" into its pleasures and awaken his undiscovered interest. An urgency must characterize the quest for recordings that introduce the student to first person experiences with the leaders in all fields. A program of service needs to be established that saves time and energy for both students and teachers. It should provide them with the information they need, of a quality they should have, in a variety of media. To approach this commitment to the integral place of instructional materials in the total learning program of the school requires a basic educational philosophy upon which to build. Leonard Freiser, describing Toronto's Education Centre Library, writes:

. . . Technology unsupported by a philosophy and a program degenerates into gimmicks; technology ignored by the professionals in the

direct line of its fire develops a new corps of professionals who can replace the old.¹

Staff Commitment to the
Instructional Values of
Library Materials

A library has been described that uses modern technology for all media to provide a nerve center of information alive to learning needs within the school and sensitive to developments beyond the school. This library intends to make accessible for students' needs a wide range of instructional material. It will include references by many authors that represent differing points of view. These will be chosen for accuracy and honesty, without censorship of information, to encourage questioning, criticism, and challenge. It will include books that disclose humanity, that contain the intuitive and poetic knowledge that feeds the need of the personal, emotional core. It will include books for a range of reading ability and for a breadth of individual interest. This broad collection of books will be selected because they challenge, teach, and delight; and because they are ready sources of information and new ideas. To provide for the needs unsatisfied by verbal abstraction, this library includes globes, maps, projections, films, models, and graphic representations. To encourage and stimulate creativity, it

¹Leonard Freiser, "Toronto's Education Centre Library," Saturday Review, Vol. XLVIII, No. 16, April 17, 1965, p. 79.

provides materials for doing, for experimenting, for involvement.

This library makes accessible to teachers the resources for dynamic pre-planning which permits the interaction of students and things and promotes unusual uses of teaching materials. Further, this library makes accessible to teachers the resources to meet the unexpected. No longer limited to the immediate classroom resources, the teacher is ready to respond to the "teachable" moment--the moment when interest and learning go in unexpected directions. This library allows the teacher to change directions, to modify plans, to make the most of the unforeseen, and to cope with the spontaneous.

The essential dynamic to make the school library a complete environment for learning resides in the operational aspects of selection, utilization, and production. With these operations movement is made into an educational era of the enlightened use and development of learning tools by which provision is made for a rich perceptual field that encourages development of the fully functioning person . . . student and staff member. There is no magic in the teaching device itself; it can be no better than what some person puts into it. For quality education, there is still no substitute for a human teacher with a sound understanding of student learning and development, with a command of the methods by which the full range of educational

objectives can be achieved, and with skill in using modern educational materials. This interaction of human ability and instructional material is the essence of cooperative planning.

The approaches of this study to develop the concept of the school library as part of the instructional system have been, (1) to develop an educational base upon which decisions affecting the choices of school library materials could be made, (2) to develop three blocks of foundational theory from which educational positions could be derived, and (3) to develop an awareness of the professional techniques and instructional resources necessary to bring theory into practice and to activate desirable school programs. The fourth, and final, step of the study is a consideration of some examples of cooperative staff planning and their especial implications for the instructional role of the school librarian.

PART IV

INSTRUCTIONAL PURPOSES ARE PROMOTED
THROUGH COOPERATIVE STAFF PLANNING

Section 1.--On the Elementary School Level

Section 2.--On the Junior High School Level

Section 3.--In the Value Dialogue

Section 4.--By a Climate of Consideration

Instructional Purposes are Promoted
Through Cooperative Staff Planning

Section 1.--On the Elementary
School Level

Cooperative staff planning to promote educational positions derived from the described theoretical bases of curriculum, learning, and child development will inevitably emphasize the school library as a laboratory for learning and its facilities and resources will be indispensable in fulfilling student's needs in the process of inquiry, in providing for individual autonomy, and in encouraging student's self-direction. The following sections of this study will present examples of practices that emphasize this use of the school library to promote instructional concerns on the elementary school level, on the junior high school level, in the value-oriented curriculum, and in the professional climate.

If the school library is part of the instructional system, the school librarian also is a part of the instructional staff. School librarians work directly with students in their learning. Expectations for their knowledge of instruction and their competency in the techniques of instruction cannot be of a lesser order than required for any other member of the instructional staff. The planning examples included in the succeeding sections of this study will illustrate the instructional role of the school librarian.

If school staffs accept the theoretical hypotheses

that intelligence can be created, that every human has a built-in need to endeavor, that he is seeking answers to his needs, that his need to discover can lead to success, then they can accept the possibility that they can discover and provide the experiences that will contribute to each student's success. Through professional competence and the use of instructional materials, they will seek ways to build bridges and lay out footpaths of discovery that take the student from where he is to where he would like to go.

Three elements are required in classroom planning--an understanding of the individual student's needs, a knowledge of the content of instruction, and the tools which are or can be available. Then planning can be approached on three levels--long range, short range, and opportunistic. To be accounted for in the long range planning are the broad curricular goals of concept formation with its attendant concerns for perception, of subject structure, of integrated subject matter, of logical mental operations, and provision for the individual's inquiry process. The long range planning is arrived at through the cooperative efforts of the school staff and the library. The availability of effective, related materials can then be assured. Such long range plans are flexible and provide the horizontal guidelines for the work of the school year and its vertical progression through the total school experience.

Outline of Subject
Matter Goals

Subject matter studies already completed or in progress can be useful guidelines for the local school in long range planning. The Franklin School Study Project¹ has delineated successive social studies concepts to be developed in the elementary school. These include the following:

Theme 1: The peoples of the world have many different ways of meeting man's basic needs.

Theme 2: Man's natural environment varies significantly in different geographic regions of our country and the world.

Theme 3: Man has found complex ways to improve his relationship to his natural environment.

Theme 4: The Industrial Revolution has widened the gap between advanced and underdeveloped areas, and has increased the interdependence of men.

Theme 5: Man's attempts to cope with his world have led to his ventures of the spirit.

Theme 6: Man has attempted through government to meet problems of regulating life in a community.

An important comment that accompanies these themes should be noted.

The curriculum cannot begin to "cover" everything which might lie within the scope of elementary school social studies. On the other hand, the materials selected must continually afford opportunities for comparison and contrast, and for generalization by the children themselves. Therefore, it will not be sufficient to provide

¹Joseph Grannis, "Working Paper on the Franklin School Social Studies Proposal" (Revised November 15, 1960). Mimeographed.

only one example or case in a given context; for example, more than one dam system (TVA, Aswan, etc.) must be included in the context centering on the uses and control of water, as well as material about the lives of men in areas where water control is inefficient or nonexistent.¹

Currently Jerome Bruner² is engaged in working on new curriculum materials which will be available from Educational Services Incorporated. These will include a rarely touched upon area in social studies: Language--its nature and its role as a humanizing force. Phrased in children's language, three questions will be studied in this curriculum: (1) What is human about human beings? (2) How did they get that way? (3) How can they be made more so?

Recently a team of scholars and educators at Syracuse University have identified thirty-four unifying concepts that students should come to understand explicitly as they progress through thirteen years of social studies. Some of these are:

The concept of power and its bases and uses in human affairs.

The concept of compromise as a means of resolving conflict.

The concept of scarcity as the root of economic and social problems.

The concept of conflict as an inescapable outcome of human growth and development--needing not to be avoided, minimized, or abhorred, but resolved by peaceable and legitimate means.

¹Ibid.

²The Instructor, "News Front," Vol. LXXV, No. 3, November, 1965, p. 2.

The concept of industrialization and urbanization
and what these trends meant to the past and imply
for the future.

The concept of savings and debt and their aggregate
effect on the economy.

The concept of culture as a society's way of life.

The concept of social control by law, custom, and
public values.

The concept of social change and its causes.

The concept of human dignity and the worth of individ-
uals.

The concept of loyalty to ideas, values, and instit-
utions.

The concept of government by consent of the governed.

The concept of freedom and equality before law.

The concept of causes and effects and their multi-
plicity.¹

A recent doctoral study² outlines six structures of literature to be considered in a school program. The suggestion is made that the first three be explored in levels approximating grade four through six, the succeeding three in grades seven through nine. The high school program would then enlarge and extend the study of the structures in its program. The six recurring relationships commonly found in literature which could be used in a sequence to provide unity in school study are described as: (1) Elements related through fantasy; (2) Elements related through temporal sequence and spatial congruence; (3) Elements related through relevance to a subject (essay or biography);

¹Social Studies Curriculum Center, "Major Concepts for the Social Studies" (Syracuse: Syracuse University, November, 1965).

²Jerry L. Walker, "An Investigation Into Individual Differences and the Structure of Literature and Suggested Guidelines for a Program to Teach the Structure of Literature to the Individual." (Unpublished Ed. Doctoral Dissertation, Wayne State University, 1964.)

(4) Elements related through chance or fate; (5) Elements related through comparison; and (6) Elements related through contrast. Students should be encouraged to establish all the relationships they can find and then to see if a recurring pattern emerges. Such investigation should lead students to criteria for evaluation of literature in terms of strengths or deficiencies within the structural pattern of a given work. Noting that teachers and students may discover other structural patterns, these six have been delineated in terms of the developmental patterns of students in their life-space. By focusing their attention on literary relationships which, at approximately the same time, are ordering their lives, students should be provided an opportunity for insight into both literature and their own lives.

The National Science Foundation has also implemented many studies for discovery in science. While most of them appear to include the experimental attitude, it is important to note that a variety of activities are needed to develop science concepts. "Experiments" in the elementary school, strictly speaking, may not fall into the precise criteria for experimentation which includes unknowns and controlled situations. In the classroom, results of an experience may be known but the experience is necessary for the clarification of concepts and principles. Concurrent with these experiences, students need to know that too much confidence cannot be placed in the results of classroom

experimentation. Literature search will naturally be a part of classroom approaches. The library can provide the resources or books on which hypotheses may be formed. Reading will raise additional questions and authoritative sources in science can serve to check outcomes of activities.

A number of studies have been conducted in the area of mathematics which lay the foundation for understanding and create the spirit of inquiry. Among some of the noteworthy are the School Mathematics Study Group, The Syracuse University "Madison Project," the University of Illinois Committee on School Mathematics, the University of Maryland Mathematics Project. The elements of these approaches to mathematics--precise use of language, discovering and using patterns, treating numbers as abstract entities--have philosophical relationship to the total school process of inquiry which should be reflected in the cooperative staff planning.

Studies thus described provide guidelines for local school long-range planning in concept development and subject-matter structure. All suggested structure outlines incorporate principles and demands for integrated learning. A cursory look at structural concepts reflects the inability of structure to divorce itself from interdisciplinary demands. Even so simple a concept as "The people of the world have many different ways of meeting man's basic needs"

immediately brings into focus the interests of science, literature, psychology, etc. Thus, materials selected and acquired should reflect all these interests. When they are not available for the desired grade level and do not meet the reading and learning level, they should be produced by the staff and the library.

Strategies of Inquiry

With outlines of subject matter goals delineated, the strategies of inquiry must be considered. To establish inquiry the school must provide an academic habitation that is "chuck full" of things students like to do. Inquiry is structured with materials that help a student ask. It allows them to play around with ideas and the teaching job is to assist students in their exploration of hypotheses. As the student progresses, the process may become either more structured or more unstructured. What is explored is of less immediate importance than the process of exploration itself. Three conditions must be provided for inquiry: a problem that is real and meaningful to the student, freedom to gather whatever data he wants in whatever sequence he desires, and a responsive environment.¹ Answers to the following questions will help the teacher determine the suitability of the individual student's inquiry

¹J. Richard Suchman, "The Conditions for Inquiry," op. cit., p. 30.

problem:

Is the child frightened by what he is asked to do?
 Does the child see any relevance between himself, his task, and the world?
 Is the task desirable to the child?
 Does he show increasing competence?
 Does he think school is a worthwhile place?¹

Where do the cooperating teacher and librarian fit into this picture? The teacher's intimate knowledge of the student should open avenues which allow for establishing the real and meaningful problem. The librarian's collection of resources provides the opportunities for the gathering of data in a manner that suits the individual. The librarian is also highly instrumental in building the responsive environment for a student's inquiry by the organization of materials in such a way that the inquiry process is not blocked by delay or frustration but implemented through the student's ability to acquire information promptly and accurately. For the librarian to succeed in meeting this aspect of a student's need, he must have previously considered the demands of the designated problem. Through prior establishment of the directions the inquiry may take, he will provide himself with bibliographic data that will facilitate easy access to the material.

Two considerations immediately present themselves in

¹Evans Clinchy, "Should We Bother Teaching Social Studies?" Speech, Cranbrook Curriculum Conference, Bloomfield Hills, Michigan, February 13, 1965.

this inquiry process approach: (1) the student-teacher planning, and (2) the arrangements for inquiry. The first is of especial concern to the teacher. When designing and establishing a real, meaningful problem for the individual student, the teacher should look for internal consistency in the student's designated objectives, his strategies, and his evaluative procedures. That is, the objectives of the immediate study--this may be considered the short range planning--should reflect the meaningful aspect to the student of the study. The strategies the student employs to unravel the problem should reflect the objectives and the method of his presentation of his understanding should provide the basis for his evaluation and diagnosis. Each step of the study--the objectives, the strategies, the evaluation--reflects the relationship between the student and his meaningful problem. They serve to provide him with insight into his own needs and future learning plans or directions. In structuring experiences, the teacher and librarian should keep in mind that what children are asked to do next is really a test of what went before. This test is a kind of built-in programmed instruction that will indicate whether the child has been previously successful. The teacher, for his part, should maintain a continuing log of the individual pupil's progress which will indicate his content progress, experience with and degree of mastery of particular mental operations, plus suggested next step operations.

The second important consideration of this approach to learning involves the arrangements for inquiry. These arrangements are of great concern to the librarian. After the student-teacher planning has established the meaningful problem, has considered the possibilities of attack on the problem, the student must be free to begin his inquiry. This means he is physically free to leave the classroom, to work alone or with a group, in a program that promotes his inquiry. The inquiry process can be utilized in all subject matter areas through the extensive use of library facilities to promote the demands of the "word" and use of laboratory facilities that promote the practices of experimentation. This freedom means he will be utilizing library or laboratory facilities for individual and group work and employing the resources made available to him in such a center. Obviously, to make his library inquiry productive, the librarian will have to be in a position to produce quickly the information needed. It should be kept in mind that discovery itself results from the use of materials to generate an idea and to exercise the brain to allow the student, with a minimum of assistance, to make his own discovery. The primary importance of material is indicated in this definition and points to the vital place of the librarian in the learning process. Parenthetically, it should be noted that the American Library Association's

quantitative standards¹ for supportive clerk and assistant help for librarians are rarely met in the school library. If students' needs are to be served adequately, the necessary library personnel should be included in the school plan.

As inquiry and learning process is in action, interest will frequently lead into the demand for opportunistic learning. Opportunistic planning is that planning which develops from spontaneous interest created by a related concern. It calls for flexibility and creative departures on the part of the teacher and librarian. The ability to deviate from the pre-planned schedule and to assist the student to follow a beckoning idea must be part of the equipment of the skillful teacher and librarian.

The recently opened Nova Elementary School in Fort Lauderdale, Florida, has been planned to permit students to meet some of these educational needs. This unique educational complex places children in "suites" for primary and intermediate studies. A suite includes six connected classrooms and students are free to go from classroom to classroom within the suite. Basic skills are taught in primary suites but of especial interest is the first unit of study for all elementary children. An orientation to the school, the first unit promotes the understanding of

¹Standards for School Library Programs, op. cit.

the school's philosophy of education and the methods of studying which places upon the student the responsibility to seek out information on his own. The school desires to meet the students' needs through individualized programs in all areas. Its materials collection is designed to stimulate and encourage creativity.

Library Concerns on the Primary Level

In considering the needs of elementary school children, it is often profitable to consider students in primary and intermediate grouping. The early learning stage--pre-school through approximately the third grade--indicates the importance to the young child for many and varied opportunities for concept formation and language experiences. This places demands upon the school librarian for extensive introduction to children to the library collection of books of both fact and fiction. To meet the learning demands of the "word" means providing many story hour and group activity opportunities. Through the addition of the use of recordings and tapes children may have the needed opportunities to hear and hear again their favorite stories. The use of cartridge type tape recorders with from one to six sets of earphones are relatively easy for young children to master. Tapes of pertinent stories can be prepared by both the teachers involved and the librarians. A particular advantage of tapes is the freedom they provide for the

teachers to structure the story and to include questions for the student's response. A study¹ in the first grade of the use of recorded stories accompanied by their trade book counterparts has indicated children's heightened interest and reading abilities.

While development of listening skill is important, equally vital is the opportunity for children to participate in oral language experience. Nova Elementary School has also included tape recorders for student use in the belief that they provide an immediate outlet for children's language creativity. Such creativity may well be stifled before the mastery of the mechanics of reading and writing allows a record of their thoughts.

In storytelling discussions the librarian can encourage oral responses that help the child learn the words that will allow him to distinguish one thing from another and to express ideas. From the beginning of such learning, a dictionary is basic. It "is a stock certificate in the gigantic enterprise of human communication."² The instructional concern is to develop the relations of words to things. There is a continuing need to have the symbols make the desired

¹Wilma Jean Pyle, "An Explanatory Study in Reading on the First Grade Level Using a Combination of Trade Books and Their Corresponding Phonograph Recordings" (Unpublished Ed. Doctoral Dissertation, Wayne State University, 1963).

²Albert Upton, Design for Thinking (Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1961), p. 139.

contact with the relevant world of non-verbal experience. A familiar example¹ of the type of confusion that may be developed in a listener's mind is evident in the variety of concepts students may have in hearing a story of a Great Dane. As a response to the sentence, "The dog put his front paws on the man's chest," one student visualizes a small dog with his paws on the chest of a seated man, one sees a large Dalmatian with his paws on the chest of a prone man, and one sees a poodle with his paws on a pirate's chest. One confusion compounds another for the student unless careful attention is given to the definition of symbols.

It must be kept in mind that appropriate definitions relate both to the communication and problem-solving functions of language. Though there are inadequacies and limitations in the best English language dictionaries, their habitual use increases the scope of intelligence and promotes communication. The problems of ambiguity in both words and things must be tackled through the appropriate use of definition by synonym, antonym, identification or exemplification, comparison, classification, structural analysis, and operational analysis.

Students should also be encouraged to examine the future, to reexamine the past and to develop the habit of

¹R. M. Thomas and S. G. Swartout, Integrated Teaching Materials (New York: David McKay Co., 1963).

expressing subjective emotions and feelings. Many students come to school from homes where these language patterns for verbal examination are established; others must be stimulated in such pattern development by the school. Through imitation, playing out short skits, puppetry, and creative dramatics, all children have language opportunities that promote thinking and imagining. All children need these opportunities but they must be especially intensive in schools containing a predominance of children who are socially disadvantaged. To some extent, such social disadvantage may be equated with language deprivation.

The recent comprehensive study of the National Council of Teachers of English¹ recommends that the development of skill in language and concept formation be the over-riding concern of preschools for disadvantaged children and that emphasis on all other objectives be reduced accordingly. Storytelling in the library and its associated activities provide children with experience in expressing skills. To implement the goals of language and concept formation, they also recommend that disadvantaged children have access to a library that contains a wide selection of children's books both factual and imaginative. Factual books on the lower ranges, they point out, are essentially repetitions of experiences such as the zoo or the farm and involve the same

¹Task Force on Teaching English to the Disadvantaged, Language Programs for the Disadvantaged (Champaign: National Council of Teachers of English, 1965), p. 65.

vocabulary and concepts as field trips would develop. The child must have an opportunity to extend his experience beyond daily life, to develop his imagination. This development is best supplied through good literature.

The following examples of library approaches and experiences suggest instructional ways librarians can cooperate with the primary classroom teacher in promoting language activities through good literature. These library plans can be adapted to class or small group situations. Their optimal effectiveness will lie in the opportunities provided through cooperative planning for extension in continuing activities of the interests they develop. While such literature experience has intrinsic value, the experience can be used to exploit the continuing needs of reading and individual creativity. The library plans may be used either to introduce or to develop classroom interests depending upon the emphasis incorporated in staff planning.

THE BOJABI TREE:

King Leo told each of the hungry animals in turn the name of the tree which bore the fruit that looked like an APPLEORANGEPEARPLUMBANANA and smelled like a BANANAPLUMPEARORANGEAPPLE but no one could remember until Tommy Tortoise used the memory method his mother taught him.

Define with children "the memory method." Through discussion and the use of the dictionary develop the definition.

Present the story showing the illustrations in the book.

This African folk tale has delightful repetition that can be used for group activity. The librarian may employ cut-outs of the animal characters to retell the story while the group joins in on the refrains. This activity may be extended to permit individual students to retell the story for other students with the cut-out animals.

Discuss with the students why Tommy Tortoise was successful where the other animals failed. Discuss their "memory methods."

STONE SOUP, AN OLD TALE:

This story has been told in many ways in many lands. Sometimes it is a stone, sometimes a nail, or even a broom handle. Sometimes it is soup, sometimes it is stew . . . but always the stingy ones learn that many things may go into a pot.

Through discussion and the dictionary (and a cookbook), define the terms "soup," "stew," and "stingy."

To develop the idea that similar stories occur in different ways, introduce the book by first playing the Danny Kaye recording of "Nail Broth." Show the illustrations in the "Stone Soup" book and allow children to read it themselves.

This tale provides the tonic and relaxing qualities of humor while examining the facts of life in proportion. It is a useful extension for classroom geographic concepts when the several similar folk tales are related to their geographic origins.

WANDA GAG'S STORY BOOK:

This book contains three stories, "Millions of Cats," "The Funny Thing," and "Snippy and Snappy." This plan is concerned with "Millions of Cats."

Introduce the story by playing a recording of Bizet's "Little Husband and Little Wife." Explain how Bizet had a picture of a little husband and wife having a quiet conversation that he found so delightful he just had to put it to music.

Discuss and define the term "conversation."

The characters in the story remind one of Bizet's little husband and little wife. Read the story and encourage the children to join in the refrain.

Suggest a mural. While one group of children make a background, the others may make assorted cats to be included in the mural.

Using the mural as a device, have students tell the story to others.

This plan is a useful approach to illustrate creative ideas in a variety of forms: music, story, picture. It also suggests that beauty may be found in simple, familiar people and situations.

ANDY AND THE LION:

James Daugherty's version is an excitingly illustrated, re-telling of the old tale which has special appeal for young listeners through the familiar experience of Andy's discovery of a book at the library.

Introduce the story with the film "Andy and the Lion." Present the book. Discuss the surprises that can be found in books. Let children tell their imaginative experiences based on "When I Went To the Library . . ."

Follow up with "Androcles and the Lion." Is there anything familiar about this story? Why do you suppose James Daugherty re-told the story the way he did? Is it just as exciting?

Use Elizabeth Rider Montgomery's "The Book That Wasn't Written" to describe how Daugherty executed his book.

This approach lays a foundation for the first element of literary structure as described by Walker, "the elements related by structure."

These examples of suggested library plans for the primary grades all have points of interest that entwine with

classroom departures. Some of the activities themselves may be carried on either in the library or in the classroom. Their presentation should grow out of the cooperative planning of the staff members concerned. Accompanying this library planning through all the early years of library experience, whether it be in large group, small group, or individual activity, the ground work for library skills can be laid. Children can begin to locate and differentiate between books of fiction and non-fiction. They can begin to locate simple title and author information in the card catalog. They can learn to inspect a table of contents and subject division of books. They can learn to make suitable choices for their own interest. They can learn that resources are available in different subject matters. They will learn that the library has books with pictures, information, and fancy. They will learn that there are records, tapes, and movies available that relate to books and interests. Working to develop these categories, the librarian provides many opportunities for students to exercise the mental operations of contrast and classification. The basis for intensive and extensive dictionary use will promote clarification and refinement for concept attainment. Perceptual discrimination is also served through such library resources. Sights and sounds, as included in books and pictures, records and tapes, help develop discriminatory skills. The librarian should be conscious of the ability

of resources to serve this need and capitalize on their ability to promote skill development in perception. Through providing opportunities for children's creativity, the librarian also contributes to the students' needs for inquiry and discovery.

Library Concerns on the Intermediate Level

Though students' learning needs, as served by the library or the laboratory, can never be completely separated--nor would it be desirable--the library emphasizes the concerns of the "word," language. The nature of subject matter inevitably suggests that, though there will be concern for the interest of science and mathematics, the instructional role of the librarian will be proportionately greater in the areas of literature and social studies. Moving into the concerns of the intermediate grades, this emphasis becomes more apparent.

To promote the concerns of structure in literature, the following plans suggest useful library approaches. They illustrate the librarian's instructional role and are an outgrowth of staff planning which utilizes the service and resources of the school library. They are specifically designed to support the classroom teacher's planning for structure and to introduce students to examples of literary forms. The dove-tailing of classroom and library plans provides instructional cohesiveness and heightens meaningful

relationships. The three structures of literature¹ recommended for the intermediate grades are, (1) elements related through fantasy, (2) elements related through temporal sequence and spatial congruence, and (3) elements related through relevance to a subject. The examples include a typical library plan for each structure. Beyond this point to assist the classroom teacher further, the library is also concerned with providing for the reading needs of each individual for particular structural elements within the range of his interest and ability.

Element Related to Fantasy

CHARLOTTE'S WEB:

The story of a little girl named Fern who loved a little pig named Wilbur--and of Wilbur's dear friend, Charlotte, a beautiful grey spider who lived with Wilbur in the barn. With the help of Templeton, the rat who never did anything for anybody unless there was something in it for him, and by a wonderfully clever plan of her own, Charlotte saved the life of Wilbur, who by this time had grown up to be quite a pig.

From ancient times to the present, spiders have been featured in many a story, many a fable. There is a Greek legend connected with their scientific name. American Indians built countless tales around them, and some tribes regard them and their spinning as symbols.

In more recent times we find the legend of Robert Bruce, discouraged in his efforts to win independence for his native land, watching the untiring efforts of a spider to reach its home. From the little creature's patience he gained new determination to carry on his own fight. E. B. White has

¹Jerry L. Walker, op. cit., pp. 111-112.

written a fantasy of modern time to tell of the heroic efforts of a common barn spider to save a friend.

Review and re-define term "fantasy."

Read the account on pages 66-67 and 75-76 of Charlotte's pledge to Wilbur to devise a helpful plan.

While the student will discover the parts and relationships that contribute to fantasy largely through his classroom experience, his individual reading can be promoted through the library and his understanding reinforced. Questions from the librarian can help to focus his understanding. "What do you remember about the characters in the story?" "Do any of the animal characters remind you of people in other stories or life?" "How did the story make you feel?" "Could this story really happen?"

Stories such as those by Dr. Seuss, Peter Pan, Alice in Wonderland, and Pinocchio, provide examples of ranges of fantasy that the librarian will provide.

Element Related to Temporal Sequence and Spatial Congruence

CALL IT COURAGE:

Polynesians worshipped courage and scorned the boy called Stout Heart, son of their chief, who was afraid of the sea. Mafatu decides that he must conquer his fear and sets out in a canoe to prove to himself and the people of his tribe that he is worthy to be the son of the chief. His canoe is wrecked on an island that appears to be deserted. Mafatu, however, finds signs that the island is used by cannibals for their sacrifices.

To introduce this story, show the film, "Stories of the Sea." Present the book and read the incident of Mafatu sailing off alone and the rise of the storm.

Suggest other sea stories such as Cold Hazard, Famous Voyages in Small Boats, and Kon-Tiki.

Suggest the readers present a panel to other class members that considers the following questions: Why is it important to face up to problems? How can fears be overcome? What are some common fears?

Most adventure stories are structured around the chain of events based on cause-and-effect. The plausibility of the language, the characters, and events is determined by the time and place in which they are placed. Students will evaluate the writing in terms of its appropriateness.

Element Related Through
Relevance to a Subject

THE STORY OF ALBERT EINSTEIN:

A simply told, yet moving biography of the subject. The charm of the book lies in the author's ability to describe the scientist in simple terms but without condescension.

Young Albert encountered many difficulties in school. Teachers often misunderstood him and sometimes caused him pain.

To introduce the book, read pages 3-4. This is a schoolroom scene in which the youth is being humiliated but refuses to answer hastily.

Though this book may be primarily used to illustrate the literary structure of elements related through relevance to a subject, the example is given to point to the library's ability to also relate to the interests of science.

Books especially associated with this structure of literature fall into the categories of the essay and biography. They reflect expository writing in which parts of the composition supplement or complement each other to the extent that they are relevant to the subject of the piece.

As in literature, the library's resources are invaluable to the social studies program of the school. Through staff planning sessions structural themes for study are

developed, resource requirements are delineated, and library activities to extend and heighten interest are incorporated. Depending upon the structural themes chosen for study, the librarian will then develop collections that provide for the subject matter needs and for a range of abilities. As well as providing this collection that serves to integrate the interests of social studies, the librarian should also introduce the children to accompanying literary works that represent the human dimensions of the areas of study. The following three plans are examples of library approaches that may be employed to enrich selected social studies concerns.

Pioneer Life

THE COURAGE OF SARAH NOBLE:

To establish the setting, present the True Book of Pioneers. Display the pages and discuss the wilderness--no pathways, no houses, no stores, the problems that faced pioneers. What was there to greet them in the great unknown forests? Animals, Indians, loneliness.

The history of the little town of New Milford, Connecticut, tells of a brave father and his charming daughter, only eight, who were the first settlers. The author tells us that while she had to imagine many details, this is a true story. Sarah Noble was a real little girl who came, in 1707, to cook for her father while he built the first house in New Milford. This story happened in Connecticut but it might have happened in many other places in America.

Discuss and define with the dictionary the term "courage."

Read pages 1-2. Stop on mother's last words to Sarah before she left home. "Keep up your courage, Sarah Noble!" Discuss feelings of courage. What does it mean, "keep up?" How do you stand when your courage is "up?"

Read the first night in the forest. Role play the scene. Choose Father and Sarah. Have boys in class be forest animals; the girls be the voice of Sarah's mother.

Boys: Wooo--oh!

Sarah: Father?

Father: An owl, Sarah. He is telling you good-night.

Boys: (Yelp of fox)

Sarah: Father?

Father: A fox, Sarah. He is no bigger than a dog. He is calling to his mate.

Boys: (Howl of wolf)

Sarah: FATHER!

Father: Yes, Sarah, it is a wolf. But I have my musket, and I am awake.

Girls: "Keep up your courage. Keep up your courage, Sarah Noble!"

Read of the night at the settlement. What do you think of Mistress Robinson? How was she different from Sarah's mother? What was it Sarah's mother had told her to do?

Read of the night in the cave. Role play the scene.

Boys: (Sound of branch snapping softly)

Sarah: Father?

Father: Yes, Sarah?

Sarah: Do not be afraid, Father, I think an owl . . . fell off a branch!

Boys: (Sound of small footsteps)

Sarah: Father?

Father: Yes, Sarah?

Sarah: That is perhaps a woodchuck. It cannot be Indians. . . .

Father: No, of course not.

Sarah: Father?

Sarah: It is a SKUNK!

Father: Indeed it is. And a good thing I have you here, Sarah, to keep me from being afraid of all these strange visitors.

Girls: Keep up your courage. Keep up your courage, Sarah Noble!

Finish the story. Would you like to have been Sarah? How are you like Sarah? What do you remember about the people in the story? Would you like to live in Sarah's family?

Because this story is so rich in its portrayal of the emotional strength one receives from the love extended to members of a family, for "frosting on the cake," it is pleasant to top off this story with Anglund's Love Is a Special Way of Feeling.

This story falls into the category of elements related through time and space. With good cooperative planning, it can be used to enrich both social studies concepts and literature structure.

FOLK TALES:

Legends, yarns, and folk tales are as much a part of the real history of a country as proclamations, provisos, and constitutional amendments. Such tales reveal the roots of a people--what they admire, what they want, and what sort of people they are. Folk tales were created by adults and were originally told or sung to grown-up audiences. However, wherever, and whenever, stories were told,

it is probable that children gathered on the fringes of the group, and even in earlier times parents probably told folk tales to their children much as parents still do.

For the librarian, the reading of any one of the fine tales from any one of the excellent collections available is always a pleasant experience. Children never tire of them. Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia presents excellent basic bibliographies of these collected works in its sections on American Folklore and Folk Tales Around the World.

New dimensions can be added to social studies concepts through the study of these tales for their similarities and contrasts. Folk tales are also illustrative of the literary structural element of fantasy.

WAR - THE HOUSE OF SIXTY
FATHERS:

Tien Pao, a boy in China during the Japanese occupation, is separated from his family. How he searches for them over miles of rugged mountain paths, burned out towns, and through enemy occupied territory with his little pet pig under his arm is a tense and exciting story of a child in war.

To introduce the story and to provide a contrast between peace and war, recall and show the early elementary story of Ping by Marjorie Flack. Show the pictures and discuss the bright sunshine of the illustrations. What a pleasant, happy place it seems to be! Introduce The House of Sixty Fathers.

Read pages 1-7. Discuss the contrasts. Pass drawing paper and crayons. Re-read. Have children illustrate what Tien Pao saw on the night of the attack.

Read pages 72-78. This is the scene where Tien Pao and his airman meet. Let the children pantomime their conversations as they were conducted in sign language.

Read story on page 128 where Tien Pao is adopted by the American soldiers. Conduct role playing at this point.

"If you were Tien Pao, what would you do now?"

Choose five "Tien Pao's." Each one chooses his own finish to the story and selects classmates to help him enact his imaginary conclusion.

Descriptive of war-time conditions, geographic, and social problems, this story enriches social studies and illustrates the literary structural element of time and space.

It should be noted that while the foregoing examples of plans revolve around a single book, the librarian uses the book as an organizing center linked to classroom concerns and never in isolation. Along with the language experience that centers around the particular story or book, the librarian is also introducing related material for information search from the encyclopedia and trade books for particular concerns. Using the last example, The House of Sixty Fathers, as an illustration, these things might be expected to happen. Occasions will arise to examine encyclopedia sections devoted to China. Trade books might be explored for information on China or the United States Air Force. Topical magazine articles may come into focus. Certainly, an atlas will be consulted to clarify geographic particulars. Bibliographic data will be developed that reflects the total subject interest.

Three Dimensions of Library Instructional Concerns

The elementary school librarian has three definite

instructional concerns--a literary concern, a study skill concern, and a library skill concern. These become most apparent when working with the intermediate level, grades four through six. To work with students in a meaningful way, library instruction must be directly related to the total school program. It must be integral to all study and cooperative staff planning must make provision for each of the librarian's instructional concerns.

The literary concern is shown in the instructional efforts the librarian makes while introducing children to literary forms--folktales, mythology, fiction, biography, essay, poetry, and drama. While these introductions through cooperative planning are related to the interests of particular subject matter, instructional demands are placed upon the elementary librarian to present the forms in a professionally knowledgeable manner. The importance of the total school objective to build bridges between subject matter and within subject matter must be kept in mind.

The study skill objective is reflected in the librarian's instructional efforts to assist students with note-taking, with outlining, with discovery of theme, and with information search. While many of the instructional concerns can be met in small group or large group situations, this concern is, by and large, served in a one to one relationship. This ratio is particularly time-consuming because it is centered around the individual's needs.

Cooperative planning must first establish clear-cut goals so that the librarian can be most efficiently helpful to the student. The librarian must understand classroom assignments and be prepared to assist students in the direction desired by the classroom teacher.

The third objective, the library skill concern, is most obvious. While the primary interest of the first two instructional concerns may lie with the classroom teacher, the librarian supports their purposes. By the same token, the classroom teacher can be expected to be knowledgeable in library skills and should support the librarian's instructional concern. At this intermediate level of the elementary school child, the library seeks to reinforce the skills noted for the primary level and to develop broader skills. Most important during this period is the introduction to the encyclopedia with its subject division, its reference outlines, its charts, and its bibliographies. It is expected that for skills to be meaningful, their practice is related to classroom objectives determined through cooperative planning. Along with the continuing developmental use of the dictionary and the introduction of the encyclopedia, the use of other reference books--atlas, almanac, bibliographies--related trade books, plus newspapers and magazines should be encouraged through this cooperative planning. This is the time also for the beginning of training for simplified bibliographic skills.

In all three library instructional concerns, the librarian will want to employ techniques that reflect school objectives for inquiry, for logical mental operations, and evaluation. Some useful discussion approaches are suggested by the following questions:

What do the rest of you think of that?
 Would anyone else like to comment on the point?
 This is an interesting thought--does anyone
 (agree, disagree) with it?

It is useful to keep in mind the type of questions that encourage specific mental operations. For example:

Comparison or contrast: What is the difference between weather and climate?

Decision For or Against: Do you think it is correct to call Columbus the discoverer of America?

Application in New Situation: Can you suggest ways of having people work together?

Classification: List all the ways you could use to express an idea.

Relationships Including Cause and Effect: What is the relationship between reading and talking?

Example of Illustration: Describe a case that you have actually witnessed where "brotherhood" was exercised.

Statement of Aim: Why is the author interested in the geography of the country?

Criticism: What are your main sources of error?

Inference: From the data presented, what do you think will happen to Niagara Falls in the next five hundred years?

Summary: What were the big ideas in Chapter 4?

Recall: (Simple, selective and evaluative)
 What do you consider the three most important inventions of the 19th century, from the standpoint of the expansion and growth of transportation?

Observation: Examine the potato. Where are the buds located?

Formulation of New Questions: What questions occurred to you while you were watching the film?

Before the completion of any working session with children, it is useful to help the children think about what they have been doing, to relate their experience to their learning, and to see its implications. The following questions are helpful for this evaluative focus:

What did we do?
 Did you enjoy it?
 What did you learn?
 How might we have done it better?

The School Library Commitment On the Elementary School Level

The importance of the quality of library experience for elementary school children cannot be over-emphasized. As in any long-range venture, the foundation must be secure and solid if long-range objectives are to be attained. Providing a broad range of concepts, promoting their attainment, and establishing the operations of inquiry within the framework of the individual student's awakening intelligence is the foundation the elementary school library must strive to provide if the child's total educational objectives are to be attained.

The school library staff plans with the classroom staff to insure student learning experience that permits a broad range of concept formation that will be developed through the use of books, films, records, dramatics, art, and music. A special emphasis is given to developing skills of definition through dictionary use. The librarian's three instructional concerns--literary, study skill, library skill--are designed to extend the instructional purpose of the classroom.

Section 2.--On the Junior High School Level

The school library, as part of the instructional system, moves into an even wider sphere of influence on the junior high school level. The developing maturity of the students on this level calls for more independent student action. To serve this developing maturity, the junior high school library provides the freedom and autonomy for individual learning needs. Instructional guidance from the school library staff is necessary to the students' success in this learning freedom.

One description of the junior high school has called it "A bridge between childhood and that attenuated near-adult stage we call adolescence."¹ A junior high school seeks to provide an environment in which wide exploration

¹Mauritz Johnson, Jr., "School in the Middle-Junior High: Education's Problem Child," Saturday Review, Vol. XLV, No. 21, July 21, 1962, pp. 40-43.

and wise guidance assists the student through pubescence and into adolescence. It is a transition school and as such it must provide a bridge not only from the early childhood stage of elementary school but also to the later adolescent stage of senior high school. Thus, it is concerned not only with the developing social and emotional needs of pubescence but also with the developing intellectual needs as well. In this transitional school, staffs need to be conscious of the relative immaturity of their students as well as the wide diversity of their social, emotional, physical, and intellectual growth.

In the endeavor to meet these needs, two important concerns stand out: instructional attitudes and curriculum approaches. Staff members in junior high school should be aware of both extremities of the transitional continuum. While providing guidance for social and emotional concerns is important, the transitional needs of intellectual development must be equally stressed. The school staff should recognize that the junior high student is NOT already completely equipped with the ability to study effectively and independently. This process should continue to be encouraged through the instructional program of the junior high school. The objective of the instructional program is to provide continuing opportunities for the "learn to learn" ability to develop.

Learning to learn is a far more basic type of learning than coaching the child on school learning. It includes motivating the child to find pleasure in learning. It involves developing the child's ability to attend to others and to engage in purposive action. It includes training the child to delay the gratification of his desires and wishes and to work for rewards and goals which are more distant. It includes developing the child's view of adults as sources of information and ideas, and also as sources of approval and reward. Through such development the child changes his self-expectations and his expectations of others.¹

School staffs should be willing and able to assist children to become students. The school should be geared to equip young people with the tools and procedures for a lifetime of study.

Curriculum on this level should place emphasis on the significant ideas of the culture. It should strive for continuity of intellectual development. It should provide real flexibility in subject matter areas to meet the wide diversity of student interest and growth. It should focus on independence in study and thinking. Providing a curriculum which will engross junior high pupils may well distract them from their physical, social, and emotional problems. While some schools still require all seventh, eighth, and ninth graders to take some nine or ten subjects for the same length of time, despite differences in abilities, interests, and accomplishments, others have adopted more flexible

¹Benjamin S. Bloom, Allison Davis, Robert Hess, Compensatory Education for Cultural Deprivation (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1965), p. 15.

curriculum approaches through programs of "Unified Studies," "General Education," "English-Social Studies," or "Core." These programs, regardless of their name, are characterized by certain elements. Classes in these programs consist of a longer block of time than the typical fifty-minute class period; usually the block of time is two, sometimes three, class periods. A child-centered, as opposed to the subject-centered, approach is more prevalent. Problem-solving techniques are employed with teacher-pupil planning techniques and the emphasis is on democratic classroom action. Through content based on the needs and interests of the student, under teacher guidance, the learning experience is directed toward the acquisition of skills and meaningful knowledge. The stress is on general education, as opposed to specialized or vocational training, and emphasis is placed on guidance of the students by the teacher.

School librarians and teachers working in these programs need a deep faith in, and a functional knowledge of, the basic principles of democracy. A broad background of general education should be coupled with the ability to coordinate knowledge from many fields of learning to help the student solve his problems. The ability to understand the current social scene is essential in helping the student recognize and define his problems in terms of himself and his culture. Along with the working knowledge of group techniques and procedures, the school staff needs to know

how to develop, acquire, and use a variety of instructional materials. The student should be helped to acquire, to develop, and to improve basic skills through the provision of ample opportunities to practice these skills in real situations. Together with the guidance incorporated into the instructional program should be the ability to encourage, to interpret, and to use the results of a wide variety of evaluative instruments appropriate to the learning objectives.

Cooperative Planning in a Curriculum Sketch

Teacher-pupil planning, the principles of democratic action, and the problem-solving approach incorporated in a unit method of work provide for individual differences and pupil growth. The teacher as a resource person always works toward independent action on the part of the students and evaluation is a continuous process carried on by students and the teacher. To promote this curriculum approach also requires a continuous process of planning and evaluation on the part of the teacher and the school librarian. The following curriculum sketch is an example of a unit of planning that suggests how their cooperative efforts may proceed. The teacher-librarian planning includes the language arts teacher, the social studies teacher, and the librarians. The planning divides into two areas:

1. The actual classroom planning for which are considered (a) the educational position, (b) the exploration of the theme, (c) the strategies to be employed, and (d) the individual student's evaluation.
2. The staff evaluation of the planning which makes provision for (a) a quick answer pre-test, and (b) a structured post-test based on comparison between a classroom developed outline and a movie.

PREJUDICE: ITS DESTRUCTIVE
IMPACT ON DEMOCRACY

I. The Educational Position

One task of education is to provide value-orientation. Such education needs material and learning experiences which influence students' character, touch the core of their personality, structure, and arouse their deepest feelings.¹ Bruner² states that a curriculum ought to be built around the great issues, principles, and values that a society deems worthy of the continual concern of its members. Milton Mayer³ asks, 'What if the human crisis is first and last and always a moral crisis?'

There are rules of morality and prudence. These rules make up the most basic elements of human culture. They have to do with such virtues as sincerity, honesty, justice, charity, fairness, and brotherhood. The curriculum must be designed

¹Taba, op. cit., p. 43.

²Bruner, The Process of Education, op. cit., p. 52.

³Milton Mayer, "To Know and To Do," Saturday Review, Vol. XLVII, No. 7, February 15, 1964, p. 62.

to teach the student not only to conform to such moral rules but to be aware of the rules themselves. The student must be taught the facts, the value definitions, and the principles on which right and wise decisions are formed. In a society torn with controversy, teaching of such value principles must be conceptualized for the student. More than behavior patterns must be established. The student must be able to confront such principles on the verbal or abstract level.

Allport¹ believes inquiry into the real issues may be experienced through the lessons illustrated in fiction, films, and other vicarious sources. For these lessons to meet the verbal level, students must have an opportunity to try out their symbols in a variety of expressions--talking, writing, dramatization. Basic to this learning then are a variety of experiences through materials and a variety of activities for expression of symbols.

II. The Exploration of the Theme

- A. The principles of democracy and brotherhood are comparable.
- B. Prejudice has a destructive effect on brotherhood.
- C. Prejudice has a destructive effect on democracy.
- D. Loss of freedom and equality will alter our democratic institutions.

Conceptualization must be built in three steps that begin with the particular, move to theory in the widest sense, and conclude in a heightened sense of the particular. Certain specific understandings will, therefore, be sought to achieve conceptualization.

A. Particular

- 1. Prejudice is injury or damage caused to a person by judgment or action in which his rights are disregarded.
- 2. Attitudes are habitual modes of regarding anything.

¹Gordon W. Allport, The Nature of Prejudice (New York: Doubleday and Co., Inc., 1954), p. 510.

3. To intensify means to strengthen, heighten.
4. To weaken means to lessen or reduce.

B. Theory--The obvious discrepancies between the ideals and practices of brotherhood and democracy may be influenced by individual attitudes.

C. Heightened Particular

1. Groups develop attitudes that are accepted by the new generation.
2. Attitudes may be altered through understanding and experience.

Specific learning skills should also be developed which can be transferred to other situations.

- A. Develop acute listening attitude and questioning attitudes.
- B. Consult a wide range of materials and experiences for verification of attitudes.
- C. Organize ideas and form generalizations.
- D. Develop habit of distinguishing between the person and his argument.
- E. Develop the habit of looking for the cause or root of an attitude.
- F. Develop the habit of questioning own attitudes.
- G. Consider what to be for rather than what to be against.

III. Strategies To Be Employed

This program will be based on an individualized approach to reading and experience as well as larger group activity. The foundations are a wide range of learning materials especially chosen to represent the background of civil rights in America, to examine their current position and to consider their future projection. The librarian must provide materials on a variety of levels as well as interests to give the students the backward look as well as the forward view. Resources will include factual materials, biography, fiction, films, tapes, recordings. Especial attention must be given to current happenings as recorded in magazines, newspapers, and through the medium of television and movies. Much of the success of the program will be determined by how effectually materials can be kept in the hands of the students as questions arise.

While it will be relatively easy to find evidence of prejudiced activity, a real challenge exists to keep in the forefront the activities of people who dedicate their lives to the promotion of good will. Examples may be found in the lives of Albert Schweitzer, Tom Dooley, in the activities of Project Hope, the Peace Corp, and the Freedom School workers. Factual materials will want to cover the Bill of Rights, the struggles of individual Negroes, and of other minority groups to overcome the handicaps of inequality. They will want to cover the facts of attitudes displayed in the law, in economics, in social life and in education.

To implement the following design requires the close cooperation of the social studies, the language arts department, and the school library. While there is room for flexibility in the program, it is generally expected that the school librarian will be responsible for (1) providing the books, movies, other materials, (2) developing the outline on Brotherhood, (3) assisting individual students, and (4) conducting small group discussions. While the social studies teacher will be primarily concerned with promoting the factual material, the language arts teacher will develop the core book, The Wound of Peter Wayne, and its associated activities. Both the social studies and language arts teachers will be concerned with individual teacher-pupil planning and the fundamental skills related to their subjects.

- A. Prepare a bulletin board of news items and pictures. Include sit-ins, demonstrations, assassination, Ralph McGill columns, photos from The Family of Man, volunteer tutors, etc.

Discuss the board in terms of two kinds of attitudes displayed. Could it be said that "Certain attitudes intensify prejudice; certain attitudes weaken prejudice?"

Consult the dictionary for definitions of prejudice, attitude, weaken, intensify.

Record definitions in notebook.

- B. Develop with the students an outline based on a comparison of democracy and brotherhood which incorporates the following points:

1. Justice: what is good for me is good for you.
2. Equality: same rights for all.
3. Respect: regardless of personal difference.
4. Importance of brotherhood in nuclear age.
5. Pragmatic value of brotherhood.

Have students keep the outline in their notebooks for future use.

- C. Have a large sign prepared with the following:

The Beatles have shaggy hair.
 The Beatles are kooky singers.
 Therefore, all kooky singers have shaggy hair.

Discuss prejudiced statements in terms of above. "Make up some of your own which have a similar reasoning." Try to identify prejudiced statements heard around school, in the community. Begin a record in your notebook of all prejudiced statements heard or read. Keep an account of all statements heard or read that seem to break down prejudice.

- D. Introduce the story The Wound of Peter Wayne. (This is an account of the changes in attitudes of a disallusioned Confederate soldier.) Especially cover the incidents where Peter states his hatred of Lincoln and his encounter with the Yankee soldier.

- E. At this point students have been confronted with a particular and a theoretical situation and they are ready to develop and heighten the facets of the particular aspects of prejudice. Assignments in reading may begin now. Before the project is complete, each student should be encouraged to have discovered evidence of attitudes that either strengthen or weaken prejudice in each of the following sources:

1. Primary source as suggested by the encyclopedia or reference book.
2. Secondary source such as a specialized book on a subject.
3. Fiction, poetry, or biography.
4. Movies, television, or drama.

The discovery of problems in different mediums is vital for students' verification of ideas. The reading program must be carefully, thoughtfully, and personally guided for the student through the efforts of all the teachers involved. Through this dimension of the program there should also be opportunities to view films, and use records or tapes as required by individuals or groups.

- F. While the students proceed with individual reading and group discussions of reading and notebook findings on specific items with the librarian, a parallel activity for the whole group will be the presentations in the language arts room from the core book previously mentioned which highlight the attitudinal changes of the character, Peter Wayne.

IV. The Individual Student's Evaluations

- A. Written activities of the following type will be encouraged:
1. Keep a diary of Peter's trip West.
 2. Assume the identity of a character in one of the books; write letters to a friend expressing your reactions to a prejudiced experience.
 3. Pretend you are one of the people in a picture in a news item; write to a close friend and express how you felt when the picture was taken, etc.
- B. Role-play the scenes where Peter had to stand up for his new convictions with Red Tolliver; dramatize the scene where Red Tolliver terrorized the students at the school.
- C. After planning with small groups for the presentation and criteria for acceptable proof for points to be made about the statement "Certain attitudes intensify prejudice; certain attitudes weaken prejudice," tape record their discussions. Review statements made by the group. Have other groups evaluate the tapes.
- D. Evaluate a current news item on the basis of the outline on Democracy and Brotherhood developed earlier.

E. Discuss the following poem:

He drew a circle that shut me out
 Heretic, rebel, a thing to flaunt;
 But love and I had the wit to win,
 We drew a circle that took him in
 Edwin Markham

In any planning scheme provision is made for evaluation of student growth. The activities described above provide for this individual evaluation. It is also important for the staff members involved in the planning to evaluate the success of that planning. Therefore, the following pre-test and post-test are suggested:

I. Pre-Test

Because much of the program is concerned with attitudes, it is necessary to develop a method to test for attitude. Writings on attitudes suggest two points: (1) In determining attitudes, it is the impressionistic answer that is desired rather than the reasoned answer, and (2) An opinion expresses an attitude and opinions can be used to measure attitude.

Using this criteria for the pre-test, these procedures will be followed:

- A. Show the filmstrip, "Community Helpers," which deals with an integrated group of children, young people, and adults.
- B. While the filmstrip is shown have children answer quickly a series of questions.

1. Part I

- a. Do you think this is a good picture of our schools?
- b. Would you like your little brother or sister to be a member of this classroom?
- c. Would your brother or sister like to be a member?

- d. Would your parents like him or her to be a part of this group?
- e. Would your teacher enjoy working with this group?

2. Part II

- a. Would you like to be a part of this group?
- b. Would your best friend like to be a part of this group?
- c. Would your parents like to participate in this group?
- d. Would your teacher like to work with this group?
- e. Does this picture present a picture of the activities in your community?

3. Part III

- a. Would you like to participate in these activities when you are older?
- b. Would your friends like to do these things when they are older?
- c. Would your parents like to participate in these activities?
- d. Would your teachers like to participate in these activities?
- e. Do you think that these are important services?

II. Post-Test

The use of the above pre-test will provide the staff members with a broad view of the attitudes held by the students at the outset of the study. Recognizing that even though there is considerable in-depth probing of prejudice in this program, staff members could not expect to make significant long-range change in attitudes through one experience; therefore, the suggested post-test is an essay test based on a comparison of the film, "What About Prejudice?" and the original outline developed.

- A. "What About Prejudice?" is the story of Bruce Jones, a member of an unidentified minority group. Because only Bruce's trouser legs and feet are shown in the film, reactions to the incidents portrayed are not

related to any specific group. While watching the film keep in mind your outline on brotherhood and democracy.

- B. Write an essay and compare the film and the outline.

The Practice of Information Search

An important library phase of this planning approach lies in the assignment of primary and secondary sources, a phase of inquiry process. The library practice should be developed in as many planning approaches as possible. It is particularly valuable to the English and Social Studies departments. While a true definition of primary source suggests the use of legal documents and public records as more deserving of the designation "primary," such materials may be out of the reach of students on this level or too difficult in nature. For information search on the junior high school level, reliable encyclopedias and reference books, though not exact enough for truly scholarly research, because of their bibliographic data and sweep of subject matter might be considered primary source material. Certainly, the student should understand the substitution, recognize the distinction, and whenever possible utilize true primary sources. The important instructional objective is that junior high school students recognize the hierarchy of source material.

In implementing this instructional objective, the

librarian will reinforce students' past library experiences and introduce newspapers and magazines through The Reader's Guide. Also out of this instructional goal will come introductions to specialized encyclopedias, dictionaries, and bibliographies. All staff members should recognize the importance of this variety of sources, guide students to their use, and encourage bibliographic skills. These activities also highlight interrelationships between subject matter areas. This instructional approach starts students on the path that separates the empathetic from the exact. A continuing practice of inquiry assignments on the junior high school level developed through the use of primary and secondary sources, plus the individual's conclusions and opinions, will encourage discrimination and selectivity in information search. In the foregoing plan, preparation for the taped group discussions emphasizes this practice and provides the librarian with opportunities to work directly with individuals and small groups.

Noted earlier in this study was evidence that curriculum approaches that seek to integrate materials have often been difficult to implement. The school librarian with adequate resources and by participation in the planning can smooth out these difficulties. When available resources do not provide precise information, it will be necessary to produce resource material that meets the desired objective. This demand is particularly true in the social studies area.

Suitable junior high material may not, in some instances, be available for the problems under investigation. Staff members may then find it feasible to adapt more adult material to meet their purposes. Material thus produced and maintained in the school library resources becomes available for students' immediate and future needs. These materials may include charts, transparencies, excerpts and reviews.

Support for the Concerns of Literary Structure

Within this integrated approach to subject matter, consideration should also be given to the interests of subject matter structure. In the section of the study on elementary planning, suggested approaches for library support of the literature teacher's objectives were indicated. Consistent with the school library's objective to promote symbolization, language, the "word," a continuation of this concern is, of course, extended into the junior high level. However, on this level, library support for these interests is more likely to be on a one-to-one basis with the student than on the large group approach. The three structures for literature recommended for the upper elementary grades--elements related through fantasy, elements related through temporal sequence and spatial congruence, elements related through relevance to a subject--are expanded in the junior high school. To these are added elements related through chance or fate, elements related through comparison, and

elements related through contrast. The following examples suggest books that might be introduced to support these literature structures in the junior high school. Books of literature for junior high readers are often classified in terms of their suitability for a boy or a girl which is sometimes reflected in the examples given.

ELEMENT RELATED TO FANTASY

Science fiction may be classified as fantasy; yet, for students who have grown up in the accelerated age of atomic energy, rocket ships, the invention of the laser, and the discovery of DNA, it is fantasy that may introduce the excitement of science, the challenge of science, and even the beauty of science. Good science fiction enhances the study of science, introduces the problems of social science, and represents a literary form in itself.

The Green Hills of Earth. Robert Heinlein

These tales of tomorrow's pioneers on Space Station #1, Moon Base, Venusberg, and Marsport blend provocative scientific thinking with strong human responses. Though the projected age described by the author is accompanied by philosophical, moral, and cultural change, each story accentuates an essentially human challenge and its impact on the individual. While the arching sky has called Spacemen to their trade, the words of Rhysling, the blind-ed vagabond, describe their hidden yearning:

We pray for one last landing
On the globe that gave us birth;
Let us rest our eyes on fleecy skies
And the cool, green hills of Earth.

Use to develop interdisciplinary relations, career interest, and to indicate the impact of technology on society.

ELEMENT RELATED TO TEMPORAL
SEQUENCE AND SPATIAL CONGRUENCE

The following two books--one for a boy, one for a girl--reflect the historical background of the Great Lakes area. Each is well-authenticated for their particular period. In each book the leading character is faced with self-appraisal and tests of responsibility and perseverance and each is successful in developing self-control and self-confidence.

Introduce the books with the showing of the film "Quetico." This approach may be especially useful to a large group involved in study of the Great Lakes. If the approach is directed toward individuals, students may employ this introduction by using the film pre-view equipment.

For the boy: The Young Voyageur. Dirk Gringhuis

Fort Detroit seemed much too quiet for Danny O'Hara on the farm where he lived with his parents. He yearned to join his friend Jacques LeBlanc, black-bearded voyageur, on the trek north to the land of the Great Turtle. After staining his skin and darkening his hair he made the trip and found himself captured in the massacre of Fort Michlimackinac by Chief Pontiac's warriors.

Introduce the story by reading pages 93-96 which is an account of the massacre.

For the girl: Song of the Voyageur. Beverly Butler

The loss of her grandfather obliged Diane Aubert to change the comfort and security of her Massachusetts home for a one-room log cabin in the wilderness of Wisconsin. The accidental arrival of Nathan, a young Philadelphian, opened to her the possibility of returning to the East. The discovery that she might be in love with Jean Cormier, the near-death of Emile, who was mauled by a bear, the restoration of a lost inheritance, all complicated Diane's decision, but her own integrity helped her to make the right choice.

Introduce the story by reading pages 152-154, the incident of Emile's struggle with the bear.

Because it is always a school library concern to provide books for varying reading abilities or for increasing interest accompanied by increasing ability, the following series of stories, representing the structure related to temporal sequence and spatial congruence, suggests these concerns.

The following books cluster around a theme of post-war adjustment. Out of disaster, terror, and despair the great values of life may develop. These stories, representing a graduated scale of reading difficulty and broader interests, tell of people who, through no fault of their own, faced great sorrow, bewildering changes, and fear, but made courageous adjustments and found satisfying pathways.

1. Toto's Triumph. Claire Huchet Bishop

A real home--one with a roof and real walls--instead of a tent. That is the dream of Nicholas and his family in stricken post-war France. It seemed it had been found when another unfortunate happenstance appears to thwart the hope. Nicholas decides to help and makes a daring sacrifice to aid his family.

2. The Ark. Margot Benary-Isbert

After months of moving from refugee camp to refugee camp in devastated post-war Germany, the Lochow's--Mathias, 16, Margaret, 14, Andrea, 10, Joey, 6, and Mother--are assigned to two rooms of their own. Even though the attic rooms are cheerless and the widow unfriendly, they have hopes for the future. Margaret and Mathias obtain employment on Rowan Farm and with it lodging in an old railroad car which they christen "Noah's Ark." Eventually the entire family move to the Ark and a happy ending is provided this realistic picture of post-war life when the father returns from a Russian prisoner-of-war camp.

3. My Father's House. Meyer Levin

David, who had walked the many roads of Europe, sleeping in the fields, hiding out from soldiers, was at last in the land of Israel where he was certain he would find his father's house. Had his father not told him the family would meet in Israel after the war? The young boy's heart could not let him forsake his plan of finding his father, family, and warm home. This story of a small boy's search is told through the personalities of the young adults who are building a new land and their various personal reactions to the tragedy of pogrom and concentration camp. David is not the only one who learns to accept reality and make a new life.

4. Dangerline. Morris T. Longstreth

Lew Falcon, a graduating senior, finds himself in West Berlin searching for his friend, Josef Kiep, an exchange student from Germany. There is no lack of excitement in the events that unfold as Lew takes dangerous trips into the Soviet sector, puts faith in untrustworthy informants, or poses as a German officer to rescue Josef from a prison camp.

5. That Girl of Pierre's. Robert Davis

Danielle, her old grandmother, and young brother return with only a handcart to their village, three years after enemy invasion. Expecting a warm welcome in a town where their family had been respected, they were disappointed and bewildered when they found wary neighbors and an unfriendly storekeeper. How Danielle rises first to deserve the honored reference, "that girl of Pierre's" to her own self-identification makes an absorbing story.

ELEMENT RELATED THROUGH
RELEVANCE TO A SUBJECT

For the boy: Edge of Tomorrow. Thomas A. Dooley, M.D.

Make up bulletin board of newspaper accounts of Tom Dooley's death. Also accounts of how his work is being continued. Introduce the book.

This is a vigorous, readable, true story of six young Americans led by Dr. Tom Dooley who formed a fellowship with the people of Laos through their first aid and medical care. Breaking through a wall of superstition and custom, this medical team brought help and basic hygiene to a remote area.

For the girl: The Diary of a Young Girl. Anne Frank

Provide a bulletin board using the Life material from August 18, 1958. Introduce the book.

The simple diary of the maturing Anne Frank, started when she was thirteen and abruptly ended at fifteen. It is a story of human relationships and though the background is the dreadful violence of Hitler's annihilation of millions of Jews, the tale is without violence. It recounts the daily pressures of a cramped existence; the hushed silences when strangers were in the building; the hope for an early invasion; the dread of capture.

ELEMENTS RELATED THROUGH CHANCE OR FATE

This structural element is characterized by an acceptance of coincidence or intervention that is believable in terms of time or place or circumstance.

The Lady or the Tiger? Frank R. Stockton

Love or vanity--which rules the heart, which dictates the actions of the barbaric princess? This long-remembered, provocative tale is an ordeal of choice. Only quick insight and a deep understanding of human nature can assist the youth who must make the fateful decision.

ELEMENT RELATED THROUGH COMPARISON

The Dog Who Wouldn't Be. Farley Mowat

The characteristics of this structural element are found through likeness, implied or stated. They will involve repetition, proximity, or exaggeration. The adventures of Mutt, a

"Prince Albert Retriever," an independent dog who learned to walk a fence to outwit the cats, climb ladders, and retrieve every duck in the pond, dead or alive, provide many chuckles. Mutt had an incredible array of hidden talents and if he was a little unorthodox, he was undoubtedly brilliant. These antics take place in the dust ridden plains of Saskatoon, Saskatuwan, and make a humorous tale of guns, ducks, and a dog.

ELEMENT RELATED THROUGH
CONTRAST

Though the examples given have been complete books, it should be noted that these structural elements of literature are encompassed by all literary forms: novels, drama, poetry, essay, and biography. The structural element of contrast is evident in the following poem. The contrast is evident between the quiet, snow-covered scene that encourages the onlooker to tarry while the psychological need to move on exists.

"Stopping By Woods On A Snowy Evening." Robert Frost

Whose woods these are I think I know.
His house is in the village though;
He will not see me stopping here
To watch his woods fill up with snow.

My little horse must think it queer
To stop without a farmhouse near
Between the woods and frozen lake
The darkest evening of the year.

He gives his harness bells a shake
To ask if there is some mistake.
The only other sound's the sweep
Of easy wind and downy flake.

The woods are lovely, dark and deep,
But I have promises to keep,
And miles to go before I sleep,
And miles to go before I sleep.

Three Dimensions of Library
Instructional Concerns

The specific instructional concerns of the junior high

school librarian, while they assume a different emphasis, also fall into three areas--a literary concern, a study skill concern, and a library skill concern. The concern for literary skill--though instructional practice is proportionately more on a one to one basis--is developed through the school librarian's continued concern for symbolization, for language, the "word." This is evident in the librarian's activities of introducing literature that supports curriculum purposes and encourages symbolization. It is also apparent that this library instructional activity should reflect the common goals determined by cooperative planning if it is to be supportive, if it is to reinforce classroom activities.

The study skill concern assumes great importance on the junior high school level.

Maturing students must face the fact that teachers will not always be there to make them study, tell them where to find the answers, explain every minute detail, and finally tell them whether or not they have learned something. Certainly fundamental characteristics of an educated person are the capacities to solve problems, continue to learn, and evaluate results on his own. Consequently, students will do more independent work in libraries, resource centers, workshops, and laboratories.¹

It becomes an important instructional concern then of the junior high school librarian to assist students to understand processes of objectivity, discrimination, and selectivity.

¹J. Lloyd Trump quoted in Jesse Shera, Student Use of Libraries (Chicago: American Library Association, 1964). p. 122.

These challenges are met through the instructional plans of the librarian that provide students with guides to authenticity and evaluation. Encouraging students to be aware of the background of sources through a developing knowledge of the publishers of materials and through a consideration of the biases of authors, students' judgmental attitudes may be developed.

This study skill concern is also reflected in the librarians's activities that center around group discussions designed to develop a learning objective or to provide evidence of a learning experience. All the instructional competencies involved in students' inquiry and in the building of their logical mental operations must come into play.

Another important phase of this instructional concern for study skill lies in the assistance the librarian gives the student in the production of appropriate evidence of his own particular learning. This aid becomes a matter of encouraging and assisting students to employ the production facilities of the library in developing charts, transparencies, and in the activities of drama, music, and dance by which their symbolization and conceptualization is crystallized.

The third concern--library skill concern--is closely related to the study skill but emphasizes the skills of bibliographic development. Bibliographic development for both the student and the librarian is built through knowledge of

a wide range of materials and through the production of materials to fulfill a specific need. An example of the development of such skills in process might be found in the activities that surround the writing of a newspaper for May 9, 1915--the date of the sinking of the Lusitania. Such an activity requires considerable bibliographic search as well as the production of a resource that meets a junior high learning need.

The School Library Commitment
On the Junior High School Level

In summary, the junior high school library promotes a continuing program of listening, speaking, writing, and reading. The overriding objective of the junior high school library is to develop increasingly refined conceptualization through widening literary experience, study skills, and information search. This objective is accomplished through wide experience with material and through individual freedom of choice. The maturity of the junior high student must be promoted through opportunities for problem-solving, through learn-to-learn experiences, and through widening evaluative opportunities. Thus, the bridge is built to the senior high school and its requirements for independent study.

Cooperative staff planning on the junior high school level seeks to include practice related to theory by following planning steps that establish educational position, determine themes, develop strategies, and include relevant

evaluations. The instructional role of the school librarian supports the junior high school learning imperatives for experience with significant cultural ideas, with relationships of past and present events, and with the development of autonomous learning skills.

Section 3.--In the Value Dialogue

A value-oriented curriculum has become a pragmatic necessity. In providing the elements for a value-oriented curriculum, the school library is not just a part of the instructional system, but a vital nerve center. The wide range of learning experiences necessary for this type of curriculum can only be available through the facilities and resources of a rich central collection and the instructional role of the librarian is broadened through the activities of students' study and discussion in the value-dialogue.

To promote democracy, to develop citizenship, and to prepare young people for life have always been the highly idealistic objectives of the public schools. Such objectives are carefully written into every plan. Timidity, however, in the face of special interest groups, has often relegated the active teaching of social values to a chance that they will be absorbed via the subject matter route. The ideals of brotherhood, the rights of the minorities, and freedom of speech have been assumed to be left safely to the lessons inherent in subject matter. Earthquakes, assassination, and

racial demonstrations, however, remind us we are not preparing children for the significance of such events. When decisions affecting poverty and plenty, pain and pleasure, death and life are to be made, very little of ethical substance can be drawn from subject matter or the mass media. Common, usable meanings of accepted truths, of democratic tenets, enriched by depth of understanding, should be made available through the offices of teaching and education. As an "instrument of the total culture," it is high time the school considers its rich objectives as an action program and gives more than lip service to its high ideals.

Special interest groups conduct "action programs" constantly. For the child whose "direct" experience in today's culture is generally limited to the television program or the radio with its many "opinion" calls, this cacophony must be very confusing. He finds himself counseled on all sides as to the best routes to happiness and satisfaction in life. To be a highly acceptable member of society, one must only follow the advice of a multitude of commercials. The family dinner hour, now spread out to serve the various members as their schedule demands, provides little security in the midst of this emotional exhortation. Within the family, time for value criteria is often bypassed in the race to promote a child's excellence in scholastic achievement and his social graces. Even if time and schedule did permit, it is doubtful if the family group, in many instances, could provide depth

of understanding in social values. The family itself today finds the rate of change so stunning that it is not inconceivable that the young may be called upon to help the older understand their own environment and problems.

What do we want to make of our American society? Liberty and justice may be our birthrights but they are not guaranteed securities. Each generation must build anew. What social values, then, should be integral to a child's education? What are the goals of our society in this cataclysmic world? Under a democratic government, essentially humanitarian in its action, the school as an instrument of the total culture must provide citizens who can function successfully in a multiracial, multicultural world. This successful functioning requires more than the ability to handle the technical, practical end of a job. To be successful, this future citizen must have attitudes and values that enable him to interact without limitation with all his fellow citizens of the world. Supreme Court Justice William O. Douglas¹ has said that if pragmatic is what schools want to be, they must teach convictions. This is the primary pragmatic necessity in this confused world. Schools must teach what to be for, not what to be against.

¹Justice William O. Douglas, "Equality Before the Law," A Leo M. Franklin Memorial Lecture, Wayne State University, April 6, 1964.

Education's Responsibility for
Value Consideration

R. Linton, in The Science of Man in the World Crisis,¹ notes that periods of stress are no new experience in human history. "The only unique thing about the present period is the large number of people who believe that such periods are not inevitable and that they can be avoided by intelligent planning for the future. This attitude seems to be something new in human history." In such planning the goals and perceptions of what is of value must be developed. Americans must know what they stand for, must know how to uphold their beliefs. The citizen must be able to make choices and decisions on the strength of democratic value judgments--not on the half-truths, the perverted reasoning, the biased attitudes of the Wallaces and the property-righters. If we cannot do this, our democratic society will be endangered on two fronts--individual autonomy and the democratic way of life. Education--schools and teachers--should confront the realities of the times, bring out the best in our heritage, and take full advantage of our future prospects. Cottrell² points to the fact that the profession of education senses its need and opportunities in contributing to the

¹Ralph Linton, "Present World Conditions in Cultural Perspective," The Science of Man in the World Crisis, ed. R. Linton (New York: Columbia University Press, 1945), p. 201.

²Donald P. Cottrell, Teacher Education for a Free People (New York: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1956), p. 384.

realization of the aims and goals of democratic life. Such contributions involve active training in the democratic ideals incorporated in our political history. They demand a curriculum designed to insure their place in the learning scheme.

Today's highly-specialized and interdependent culture has taken thought processes from the perceptual to conceptual basis. In the face-to-face relationships of a local and self-dependent culture, the content of critical thinking could be highly perceptual. It could be based on the immediacy of the senses of sight, sound, touch, taste, and smell. Critical thinking, however, in the mass associations and organizations of an urban-machine culture, tends to be conceptual, based on the manipulation of verbal symbols. These verbal symbols are often abstract and loaded with emotional charges of considerable potency. I. James Quillen¹ states that this verbal symbol conceptualization cannot be safely left to the exigencies of direct experience. It becomes not only necessary but also vital that the school, as an instrument of the total culture, consider "a priori" business the task of developing common meanings for the essential social concepts. They must encourage inquiry, investigation, and development of common social attitudes and values.

¹I. James Quillen, "What are the Basic Concepts to be Developed in Childhood?" Childhood Education, XXIII, 1947, pp. 405-409.

Curriculum Planning for Values

While these basic value concepts are a continuing concern throughout life and should, of course, be met again in classes past the elementary level, the direct approach to their understanding--structured in terms of young people's development--should begin on the elementary level. To meet the needs of a value-oriented curriculum for the elementary school, Quillen has developed six basic value concepts which demand intensive, depth probing. These were chosen because of their continuing significance and persistency in our American tradition: (1) Man's common humanity, (2) The nature of culture, (3) Cultural change, (4) Specialization and interdependence, (5) The nature of democracy, and (6) The concept of progress.¹ These foundations of education will help the student have a richer, more effective life and will develop the broad background of understanding which gives perspective. The fundamental problems and situations inherent in value concepts occur over and over in life, but with a progression of educational structures designed especially to meet the requirements of successive stages of development, new aspects and implications will unfold for the student.

How can schools expedite a curriculum so oriented? Most of the necessary ingredients are already available.

¹Ibid.

Specialization in the subject matter fields of language arts, social studies, science, music, and art are important. However, if emphasis is placed on the social concept rather than the subject matter, a humanities program scaled to the understanding of the young may be developed. Included in such a program will be the pertinent social studies and language arts, enriched as well by music, art, and dramatization. Science, too, has a special place in this plan. When the late President Kennedy said that "science has no conscience of its own," Milton Mayer¹ writes that he was saying that education is of conditional service to man and of no service at all if the condition is not met. Justice Douglas² has said that science and technology are twin gods in America. He criticizes their misuse by many who "fail to realize that they make no value judgments on ends or goals, but merely propose ways." In this curriculum program, science must appraise itself in these lights. Thus, rather than fragmented, unrelated studies, subject matter can be taught through the exploration of the value concept.

To provide the depth to meet the demands of value concepts, as well as the breadth to meet the individual need of the students, requires a wide range of instructional materials. Well-chosen books, films, filmstrips, tapes, and

¹Mayer, op. cit., p. 62.

²Douglas, op. cit.

records must be the foundation of the plan. The school librarian is vital to the success of such a curriculum. He should come to the program with a broad education which permits a working knowledge of various subjects. His thorough training in librarianship, as well as in multimedia fields, allows his service to be the backbone of the program. To give a wide range of up-to-the-minute service, the librarian must have clerical assistance. Such a person can also be useful to the staff of teachers and to the students in developing visuals for overhead projectors, operating a dry mount press, and in other ways expanding the collection of instructional materials.

Planning Suggestions for Values

The cumulative progression of learning involves planning of learning units in which one perception is designed to lift the level of the succeeding one, in which details are examined not for themselves but for their use in building a groundwork for a generalization of a perception of relationships.¹ The planning in a value-oriented curriculum has special implications for the staff involved. Truly integrated teamwork is imperative. Dedicated to the objectives and ideals of the value concepts, the staff should not concern itself with the trivial. Rather, they should choose

¹Taba, op. cit., p. 297.

to help the students delve deeply into the ramifications of the vital, real issues incorporated in the value concepts. Activities whereby the students participate and discover for themselves proof of the concepts must be encouraged. Role-playing, dramatization, and other interpretative means should be incorporated into this action program.

In planning for the value-oriented curriculum, rigid class scheduling of the typical school day will need adjustment and flexibility. Teachers should work as teams to promote the objectives. They should plan, present, and evaluate together continuously. The learning design should provide for the flexible grouping of pupils. Each child should receive expert instruction by subject specialists who can use adequate equipment and learning aids which are readily available. Planning should provide for experimentation with all learning aids, for common learnings and for specialized learnings through de-compartmentalization of knowledge and through an integrated curriculum of subject matter. It should provide new concepts of learning for space age communication, science, industry, and the social realm of life. The staff involved in this plan should work together to develop their themes and promote their objectives. Their meetings together should encourage the special abilities and qualities of each if they are to be productive. If there seems to be resistance to change, they must not be dismayed. They must learn, as someone has said, "tolerance toward

turbulence." Quiet waters are usually muddy; they reflect no shining promises.

Through the conscious and healthy conflict created, the school may play its part in making of the child something better than his parent. Inquiry into the real issues will inevitably lead to an awareness of discrimination and prejudice. The school, says Gordon W. Allport, can set before the child a higher code than is learned at home. To do this he outlines the following content to be offered year after year in "graded lessons": (1) Meaning of race; (2) Customs and their significance in various ethnic groups; (3) Nature of group differences; (4) Nature of tabloid thinking or too simple categories; (5) The scapegoating mechanism; (6) Traits sometimes resulting from victimization; (7) Facts concerning discrimination and prejudice; and (8) Possibilities of multiple loyalties. Many of these lessons, he contends, may be experienced through fiction, films, etc. From this point of departure, the student may be led to a discussion of hypothetical cases.¹

Reporting in Saturday Review, Val Clear,² Chairman of the Department of Sociology and Social Work, Anderson College, Indiana, wrote that after fifteen years of teaching social problems he had come to the conclusion that the only

¹Allport, op. cit., p. 510.

²Val Clear, "Paperback Pedagogy," Saturday Review, Vol. XLVII, No. 7, February 15, 1964, p. 73.

permanent value of a course in social problems was in the attitude the student carried away with him. Using relevant fiction and biography as a basis for discussing social problems, his objective was to affect attitudes rather than to reproduce stereotyped academic knowledge. Comparisons of attitude tests given to these students taught with fiction and biography and others taught with standard texts were significant and he concluded that we could teach about social problems through such books and develop full emotional involvement rather than academic abstraction.

Reading can provide practice in recognizing bias, distortion, and various propaganda techniques. A study¹ reported in the Journal of Educational Research, indicates that sixth grade children can be taught to detect some propaganda used in materials they read. This does not mean they can become immune but that they can detect certain propaganda devices after periods of instruction aimed at helping them identify these techniques.

The Educational Policies Commission of the National Educational Association has stated, "The central purpose of American education . . . is the development of the ability to think."² The problem is "how?" An answer can be found

¹Robert R. Nardelli, "Some Aspects of Creative Reading," Journal of Educational Research, Vol. L, 1957, p. 14.

²Educational Policies Commission, The Central Purpose of American Education (Washington: National Education Association, 1961, p. 12.

through the wider use of the school library as a teaching center and through the concept approach to subject matter areas. David Russell advises that one good way to get at the problem of "how" is to tackle one way of thinking at a time. Therefore, Allport's contention that children can be helped to acquire critical thinking through the vicarious experience provided in fiction, films, etc. is useful.

Critical thinking, according to Russell, is

the process of examining both concrete and verbal materials in the light of related objective evidence, comparing the object or statement with some norm or standard and concluding or acting upon the judgment then made.¹

The Secondary School Seminar at Columbia University a short time ago reported:

We are in a period of ferment and change. . . . The world has become a whispering gallery. . . . In such a setting of doubt and confusion the likelihood of securing sound appraisal by responsible leadership is somewhat discouraging.²

They continue to state that schools should see that the amount of knowledge acquired during the formal training period is sufficient in breadth and depth to continue to build upon, after leaving formal school, in the continuing informal school situation that industry and business and

¹David H. Russell, "Reading and the Healthy Personality," Elementary English, Vol. XXIX, April, 1952, pp. 195-200.

²Secondary School Seminar, Problems Involved in the Development of the Secondary School Curriculum for Today's Schools (Columbia University, 1961).

government provide. The optimist says that children can be taught to think. The pessimist says that they cannot. However, few doubt the validity or the urgency of the proposition as it was put by the Educational Policies Committee: "Because the principal goal of American society is freedom, and because the requirements for freedom are a free mind and because the ability to think (which is basic to a free mind) will not be generally attained unless the school focuses on it--the ability to think must be the central purpose of education."¹

Librarian's Instructional Role in Value Dialogue

Promoting this focus through a curriculum of values requires opportunities for meaningful dialogue. Students should engage in discussion and debate about meaningful concepts. Libraries have acquired a traditional task to encourage and to support seminars in the reading and discussion of literature. Psychologists recognize that books or their related materials are one of the best ways of getting at personal responses. Discussions centered around materials provide opportunities for openness and outlets for value expressions, attitudes, feelings, loves, and hates. As traditional values break down under the stress of social change, the school library can support new educational programs formulated to promote democratic and unprejudiced attitudes.

¹Educational Policies Commission, op. cit., p. 12.

The school librarian's activities in working with study groups have already been noted. One important extension of this work lies in the school librarian's provision for student dialogues on value issues in meaningful dimensions. Such dialogues should seek to clarify positions, to allow for the justification of a personal position, and to gain understanding of positions and justifications in variance to one's own.

. . . The ideal citizen is one who, in the manner of an intelligent journalist, engages in dialogue with others to reach positions on controversial issues. . . . To operate successfully in the dialogue, the citizen must use various forms of inquiry; various analytical and argumentative skills; he must have a fund of information to support claims and definitions; and he must use a repertoire of analogies to support or refute general value judgments.¹

The instructional role of the school librarian should provide students with an opportunity to proceed from examination of factual background of a problem, to the identification of the sources of conflict, to the justifications and consequences of alternative solutions. Then through intensive discussion and debate, the student may formulate his position and defend his view.

Through this process change can become understandable because the relationships in occurrence will become apparent.

¹Fred M. Newmann, "Adolescents' Acceptance of Authority: A Methodological Study," Harvard Educational Review, Vol. XXXV, No. 3, Summer, 1965, p. 305.

Through the dynamics, the impact, the implications of these relationships, students should be able to find the relationship between school and life. The anticipation that today's culture, though tugged by the past, can be pulled into the future will replace the frustration, the sense of being unfulfilled that accompanies the lesser school experience. Through the meeting of all culture--music, art, literature, history, politics, science--in ideas, school experiences can meet reality. When young people understand what they are learning, they can learn deeply and usefully.

A Value Program Described

To meet this demand for completeness in learning approaches, planning must first isolate the idea and then synthesize the relationships so that students can experience a reason for Being as they accept man's struggle for Becoming. How can school staffs isolate, how can they synthesize this experience? What can cooperative planning do with this problem?

A program¹ conducted for sixth through eighth grade students found the following procedures useful and rewarding. The curriculum sketch outlined in the previous chapter was a part of the program. It is pertinent at this point to

¹For other aspects of the program see Margaret Williams Harris, "Moral Values as Seen Through Current Affairs and Books of the Intermediate Grades with Special Emphasis on the Civil War Period" (An unpublished Master's Essay, Wayne State University, 1963).

consider the over-all method employed. To isolate the concerns, the issues to be explored, four statements were developed through cooperative staff planning:

1. War does not solve problems.
2. People are interdependent.
3. People are good or evil according to their nature and environment rather than color.
4. Certain attitudes intensify prejudice; certain attitudes weaken prejudice.

In drawing up the statements, the intent was to isolate contemporary problems whose continuity with the past engages the present. The knowledge of the past and its heritage would be of value and significance as a synthesis was built. Thus, an organizing center--The Civil War--was selected as a point of departure for study but the study itself would move into either past or future directions as drawn by the statements. The methods employed for the study are found in the following steps:

1. Large, clearly printed copies of the statements were kept in view in the classrooms and library through the entire study period of one semester. This visual aid became an important device for keeping interest alive and for continual examination of point of view. It helped the students understand the what of the study and allowed them to learn more deeply and fully. Student evaluations

at the end of the study credited this device with helping them to concentrate, with providing a focus for reading, viewing, and listening, and for self-examination.

2. Each student selected one or more statements of particular interest to himself. Living with the statement became a living context for study as he sought a decision for agreement or disagreement through his contemporaneous experience in study or in life.
3. The students maintained notebook logs of all encounters with the statements. These encounters included themes of stories and of movies, factual accounts from newspapers and magazines, music, drama, together with school and neighborhood examples. All entries included bibliographic data to be used as references for student culmination activities.
4. The social studies departments concentrated on the factual historical background of the study through textbooks and library assignments.
5. The language arts departments concentrated on the study of fiction, biography, and short stories that reflected their interests. The writing activities were developed in this area.

6. The library assumed the instructional responsibility for guiding the students through the examination of the factual background of the statements, to the identification of the sources of conflict, to the study of justifications and the consequences of alternative solutions. This instruction was accomplished through discussion, role-playing, experiences with movies, music, and art. Working with small groups concerned with a particular statement, the librarian developed the discussions for taping. Before taping, points were outlined and supported by bibliographic data from the notebook logs.

Theoretical Bases for Program Procedures

Studies¹ indicate that questions given prior to reading are the most effective use of the question method. The techniques of keeping the four concepts or statements continually before the students gave a focus to all of the study and especially implemented the critical reading attitudes of the students. The critical attitude became an intrinsic feature of the over-all program. Students' final evaluations indicated that the methods were especially successful in creating a climate of thinking for the student,

¹J. N. Washburne, "The Use of Questions in Social Science Material," Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol. XX, 1929, pp. 321-359.

in having him see causes and effects, in helping him reach logical conclusions, in helping him develop an awareness of life around him today, and in understanding how it has been affected by our past. The enthusiastic comments about the method of reading,¹ the expressions by the students of their satisfaction in the reading itself and the evidence of the acquisition of many new reading skills was gratifying for the teachers involved in the project. Students found excitement in discovering facts and actually enjoyed their search for information. Their pleasure in this area was heightened by the frequent group and committee work conducted in the library while organizing and discussing their material.

Will study of this kind show transfer into life situations? Albert Rapp,² in his documented history of the theories and research in the area of transfer of learning, has concluded that conscious generalization can tend to insure such transfer. It, therefore, becomes imperative that the generalization involved in the value concept be kept constantly before the student. At the beginning of the study, he should know exactly what is important. Bruner³ tells us that the act of learning has three phases:

¹See Appendix.

²Albert Rapp, "Experimental Background of the Problems of Learning," Classical Journal, Vol. XXXX, 1945, pp. 467-480.

³Bruner, The Process of Learning, op. cit., p. 48.

acquisition, transformation, and evaluation. Thus, the presentation of the value concept must be directed first to the child's understanding of the meaning of the generalization. This understanding may be reached through a use of a wide range of instructional materials. Second, there should be activity for the student whereby the opportunity is provided for a transformation of his understanding into a specific for him, and third, a chance must be provided for him to consider and evaluate the basic idea, how it was transformed into his experience through learning experience, and how it may be significant for him in the future.

The School Library Commitment
To the Value-Oriented Curriculum

The school librarian has a challenging instructional role in a value-oriented curriculum. It cannot be successfully assumed unless the school provides adequate library staff for its implementation. However, the library's concern for students' bibliographic skill development and for his study skill growth, together with the resources of the library, points to the school librarian as an important instructional person in this curriculum approach. The school library is the working laboratory where this kind of study is pursued; it, therefore, follows that the school librarian should participate in guiding the process and should assume responsibility with the rest of the school staff for its development. Within the responsibility lies the opportunity

for helping students understand the modes of intellectual activity--the logical, the empirical, the moral, the aesthetic--for developing a dialogue between science and humanity and for critical, evaluative thinking. The school library provides the opportunities for flexible grouping, for experimentation with ideas, for the integration of curriculum sought by staff planning in the value-oriented curriculum. Any curriculum program based on social concepts addresses itself to attitudes of critical consideration on the part of the student and out of the program of discovery the seed of conviction can be sown. Rather than citizens who know what they are against, schools develop citizens who know what they are for.

Section 4.--By A Climate of Consideration

Through the cooperative staff planning approaches described for the elementary school, the junior high school, and the value-dialogue, the school library has an integral role in the school instructional system and the school librarian is a vital member of the instructional staff. Neither the school library or its staff are isolated in the instructional system but become focal elements around which learning experiences can be developed. To implement both the instructional capabilities of the school library and the instructional role of the school librarian, school staffs should plan cooperatively. Certain considerations

need to be given to the conditions surrounding their effective planning.

Essential to the fully-functioning self is a community of people who can be viewed as facilitating. If this need is vital to the growth of the students, it is not without implications for the staff members. Certainly, if the school staff subscribes to classroom objectives which provide opportunities for real growth toward the fully-functioning student--development of positive self, acceptance of human dignity, respect for individual difference, climate for choice, creative expression--it is to be expected that staff growth will flourish under similar conditions. To be most productive, each staff member must live and work in an atmosphere of cooperation that encourages and stimulates personal involvement. No real cooperation can result without a sense of respect and confidence. When these attitudes are prevalent in the school community, the enhanced relationships they produce lead to creative experiences. These relationships lead individual staff members, as well as students, into being a process, a fluidity, an evolving growing person. To proceed in the cooperative approach to planning requires discarding attitudes of rigidity, authoritarianism, regimentation, mistrust and replacing them with attitudes of adaptability, flexibility, discovery, openness. Cooperation can never

. . . mean blind obedience or conformity, but

rather an active, responsible type of behavior in which there is little fear of saying no, being different or making mistakes. There is a difference between being cooperative and being obedient; between being responsible and following directions; and between being trustworthy and being neat, nice and courteous. The essential difference lies in the distinction between ACTIVE behavior and PASSIVE behavior.¹

This behavior distinction is not meant to suggest that cooperative planning is without obligation and responsibility. Involvement automatically includes personal obligation because it includes participation in what is going on in the shaping of a future for self and others. It does not mean that cooperative planning is without frustration and problems. Though failure to solve a problem completely may result, school staffs learn more by an acceptance of the challenge than by evasion. Acceptance of challenge has rewards in the unity or oneness that develops with working together, in the feeling of sharing a common experience, in the striving for a common goal that attends their exploring and discovering together the personal meaning of events. This experience is not "togetherness" in the home magazine sense. Rather it is the opportunity to explore freely individual perceptions without fear of ridicule or attack. Each staff member will be able to feel he has made a contribution and has had an opportunity to develop new meanings as a result of the experience.

¹Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming, op. cit., p. 168.

Implications for Administrators

School staff planning on a cooperative basis cannot proceed without acceptance, encouragement, and provision of opportunity by school administration. It requires leadership on the part of the administration which strives for appropriate involvement of all staff members. An effective use of this cooperative approach to leadership requires that the administrator accept responsibility for encouraging initiative and for helping staff members interact constructively. It requires encouragement of individual competence and leadership within the group. It requires recognition of each staff member's need to feel respected regardless of his position or relative ability. It requires creation of an atmosphere where each may function and grow professionally.

Like other styles of leadership, the cooperative approach reflects the attitudes and skills of the person who exercises it. The principal who uses this style of leadership effectively is likely to be a secure person who does not feel threatened by evidence of leadership skills and competencies within his staff. He sees value in the diverse abilities and skills of staff members, and sincerely wants to use these abilities and skills for the benefit of the total school program as well as for the satisfaction of the individuals themselves. He believes that most teachers function effectively and with a maximum of satisfaction when they are an informed and participating part of the total school operation.¹

¹National Education Association, Elementary School Organization (Washington: The Association, 1961), p. 42.

Impact on In-Service Program

"Over the last few years there has been a tremendous amount of excellent research performed in the field of education. But the basic problem remains--how to put this new knowledge to use where it is needed in our education system. This is the real challenge today."¹ An increasing amount of research data supports the validity of the perceptual approach to teaching and learning. Administrators are in a strategic position to bring these perceptual research findings into real meaning in the school world. Cooperative staff planning for the instructional goals of perception, concept formation, the inquiry process, and other imperatives of education can implement curriculum innovation. A suggested school planning program would begin with the total staff--administrators, librarians, and classroom teachers--determining local school objectives on a vertical program. Theories, generalities, and principles can be examined for their pertinence and direction for the school goals. In this planning, the library staff can determine the general materials required for the broad school program, can suggest pertinent materials, and can make plans for the acquisition and production of needed additions to the library collection. Through suggestions and examples of library materials in a

¹Richard L. Bright quoted in Educational Researcher, Official Newsletter of the American Educational Research Association, February, 1966, p. 1.

variety of media, the library staff can facilitate and encourage planning. The transaction between the materials and the school staff creates a stimulus for planning. This long-range planning establishes for the total staff an overview--a scope--of the progressions of students' learning experience. It may also be the activity that promotes interdisciplinary relationships. It certainly helps the staff make specific plans that are interwoven with the broad objectives.

When long-range plans are established and local school objectives delineated, planning of a short-range nature takes place as smaller groups of teachers work with the library staff to develop the specifics of learning objectives. This planning is designed for a specific goal, for a specific class, and for specific individuals. This short-range plan should be developed cooperatively by the teachers involved and with the library staff. Working from the educational position assumed in the long-range plan, internal consistency in the planning should be achieved. The objectives should be stated operationally, the strategies should be designed to match the objectives, and the evaluation of the outcome should be in an appropriate form to test the learning. Because the nature of inquiry demands a wide variety of materials for student data gathering, the librarian recommends, collects, and organizes the pertinent library materials to serve teachers and students. Staff planning must incorporate

strategies for inquiry by engaging students in an active search or investigation. The strategies should reflect staff purposes of teaching children how to formulate questions into a useful order, how to search for answers in a variety of places and a variety of ways, and how to organize ideas into principles and concepts. This purpose does not indicate that facts or data gathering are obsolete but that the method the student uses to acquire knowledge and the use to which he puts it are of prime importance.

In consideration of the instructional program of the library, staff planning provides classroom cooperation by incorporating into the program's objectives and strategies the learning goals that depend on library search. At this planning time, decisions can also be reached as to which activities will be conducted by the classroom teacher and which by the librarian. Physical facilities or group size often are the determining factors in such decisions. Decisions made should contribute to the smoothness with which the strategies of instruction move along and are adapted to immediate learning needs. When classroom teachers and library staff understand each other's purposes and have planned instructional strategies together, they can provide more efficient learning situations for their students. Duplication and gaps can be avoided and consistent, concerted attack on learning problems can be developed.

By facilitating planning that strives to delineate

objectives, strategies, and evaluation, by promoting action research, and by expressing confidence in staff capabilities, administrators can provide effective ways of helping others modify and improve their perceptions. In this environmental climate, school staffs can have the opportunity to explore the meanings that education, with all its ramifications, has for them. In this atmosphere each member is able to examine his philosophy, his techniques, his strength, and weaknesses, to make a realistic appraisal of himself as a teacher. In this atmosphere each is free to accept what he finds and to search for ways to improve himself as a teacher and as a person.¹ Here is a real in-service program which provides an atmosphere that encourages continued evaluation, diagnosis, and educational alternatives.

Though involvement has not yet been studied on the public school level, the Bank Street College of Education² has conducted a five year cooperative in-service program in which college staff members worked with a school staff to promote change. The purpose of the program was to work with the school toward a common goal of maximizing learning potential through collaboration with classroom teachers on

¹Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming, op. cit., p. 138.

²Charlotte B. Winsor, "Educational Change Process in a Field Project," Strength Through Reappraisal, Sixteenth Yearbook, 1963, Annual Meeting (Washington: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1963), pp. 199-205.

problems of mutual interest and concern. The methods of work were based on two principles: (1) For basic change in perception, attitude, or motivation to take place teachers need to experience for themselves a new level of psychodynamic involvement, and (2) For changes to be carried into practice, teachers need to be guided in translating their new insights into concrete school practices. A friendly working relationship was established between the participants from the college and the school staff by developing the feeling that through mutual exploration, understanding and insight could be heightened. After discussion meetings between the college staff and school staff designed to encourage free expression and interaction, teachers were described by the experimentalists as teaching the skill subjects competently, as setting tasks that were primarily teacher-structured, and as considering the development of good work habits in the early years a preparation for later grades and later life. By the middle of the year, the college team noted the following trends toward change: (1) Teachers comments about children becoming more questioning and probing and indicating a more differentiated perception of children, (2) A somewhat greater tolerance of non-conforming behavior, (3) A wider acceptance of children's contributions, and (4) Attempts to stimulate children's thinking rather than trying to elicit predetermined answers.

The program moved from interest in learning to an

inquiry about children's thinking and concrete material on the progressive changes that take place in thinking processes as children mature. At the end of the first full school year, a cue system analysis was made of four major areas: (1) Orientation to children, (2) Teaching function and methods, (3) Authority role, and (4) Professional orientation. The group evaluation indicated more change in perception of and relation to children than any other factor, though strides had been made in curriculum enrichment, new techniques in creative writing, and less anxiety about control.

In any interpretation of change process it will be necessary to give due weight to what was significantly new to those involved. The teachers, apart from the newness of certain perceptions, concepts, and techniques, were adapting to a generally new experience: how to relate to and learn from people who could offer but not enforce; who could listen and see, without rendering judgment.¹

Certain formulations emerged at this point of study to indicate the impact of involvement upon change in the school staff: (1) The opportunity for staff members to communicate with each other professionally generated changes; interchange of ideas progressed to an exchange of materials and techniques, (2) Communication was characterized by a consideration of differing points of view and less rancorous dealing with disagreement, (3) There was growth in viewing the dynamics of the teaching-learning process.

¹Ibid.

Reports on two other college programs--though designed for pre-service teacher education--indicate the productive aspects of professional group involvement. A program conducted by the University of Texas¹ was aimed at the regular, current program of teacher education. It involved as many of the faculty as possible and dealt with students in teacher education programs at random. This study strategy was chosen rather than a small and well-controlled experimental program in the hope that it would have more impact on teacher education in general and upon local policy and practice. Some facts of the study program were directed toward helping students become more aware of themselves as total personalities through supervisory strategies to fit the developmental needs of the students. All phases of the program implemented faculty team relationships which encouraged a spirit of experimentation, an increased acceptance of critical evaluation of current practices, and increased collaboration between professors of different backgrounds and orientations in the designing of new and revised curricula and of pre-professional experiences. Though difficult to assess definitely, a considerable amount of experimentation and research appeared directly or indirectly as a consequence of the study program.

¹Oliver Brown, "The Impact of the Mental Health in Teacher Education Project at the University of Texas," Strength Through Reappraisal, Sixteenth Yearbook, 1963 Annual Meeting (Washington: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1963), pp. 183-189.

Faculty members experienced difficulty living in an atmosphere where new approaches were being exercised without being infected by the challenge. The conclusions of the study were that teacher educators can change and that changes in teacher education initiated by a special project can become operating parts and forces for further change of regular teacher education programs.

The second pre-service teacher education program conducted at San Francisco State College¹ emphasizes student change rather than faculty change. Though faculty teams were involved, the study was most concerned with the impact of the program upon student groups. The data collected was of a personal nature and branched out infinitely so that synoptic summaries are difficult; however, the conclusion without question was that any

. . . system in which there is high personal freedom and responsibility, coupled with a great range of exploratory experiences, with flexibility for the individual, in a warm, intimate setting that facilitates free and open personal interchange--professional education becomes a deeply moving thing for many students and stimulates personal growth.²

As these college studies suggest, truly integrated, cooperative staff planning on the public school level may be

¹Fred T. Wilhelms, "Professional Education Period as a Time of Self Discovery and Personal Development," Strength Through Reappraisal, Sixteenth Yearbook, 1963 Annual Meeting (Washington: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1963), pp. 190-199.

²Ibid., p. 197.

involvement that can conceivably go on indefinitely. Such an in-service activity has a built-in acceptance of change as an integral part of its fluid, ever-developing base. The involvement, however, must be real. If administrators allow staff members to plan only things which do not matter to them--hall duty, door duty, lunch duty--the in-service training benefits are negated. Cooperative planning sessions must be involved with the real matters of curriculum and the problems of student learning. Staff involvement in planning, freedom to plan and make professional choices, even though such choices may not be administrative choices, must be granted. By such continued planning of objectives, strategies, and evaluation, the school staff has an evolving, fluid, in-service program prepared to meet educational challenges.

Systematic application of research to classroom practice can be postponed; it cannot be avoided. Because the price of postponement will be high, organizational arrangements for research and theory to become operational should be created. Social realities of today's life point to the inevitability that education--like other phases of social life--must adopt a position of planned change on a continuous, institutionalized basis. Resistance to change arises among some educators. Fears of centralization, depersonalization, and conformity are expressed. Still, a related question may be raised:

Is the classroom, after all, as private as teachers sometimes demand that it should be? Is the classroom wholly and completely a teacher's private den, or is the classroom also a public concern? The community needs to ensure that whatever takes place in the nation's classrooms is the very best. These public-private components of classroom instruction need to be discussed, defined and delineated so that one is not sacrificed for the other. The creativity of social systems must be ensured as the creativity of individuals is guaranteed.

Another objection generally raised against planned change is that it would establish an aristocracy of educational innovators, and educational elite, that would tell all teachers what to teach and how to teach it. This should offer no problems as long as teachers in a school or school system have the power to make collective decisions in selecting from available innovations and institutional systems. Freedom not to consume an innovation can be guaranteed where a teacher does not want to accept an innovation. On the other hand, I don't believe the teacher as a teacher (as distinct from the teacher as a private individual) has the "right to ignorance." Democracy thrives on formed and informed opinions and on confidence in human intelligence, not on bias and sentiment.¹

The problem of educational change deserves sophisticated approaches. A new democratic theory takes into account the facts of modern society--mass communication, a shrinking globe, large communities, and the mobility of millions. Educational organization must extend, adapt, and enrich the field in which democracy's always unfinished business may

¹Harbans Singh Bhola, "Implications of New Democratic Theory for Planned Educational Change," Strategies for Educational Change, Newsletter, Vol. I, No. 3 (Columbus: Ohio State University, November, 1965).

operate. Educational change must be revolutionary enough to destroy traditional procedures and forceful enough to create new patterns. Though guidelines for change may be developed through a centralized agency, the decisions as to where to disseminate, how to use, and when to apply such innovation can be made by the local school through staff involvement in planning problems.

The approach to the in-service program developed in this study can be adapted to the needs of local school staffs. It provides a manual for in-service study. Methods used to develop the theoretical base will vary. They might include group discussions based on reading of pertinent theoretical studies, they might include committee reports to total staff groups, or they might be approached through panel discussions of staff members. The development of the theoretical base by the staff groups permits revolving leadership responsibilities among the total group as individual staff member's interests are allowed to operate. One aspect for continuing study of theory might be indicated: all staff groups should receive, review, and evaluate research studies in a regular program. Hypotheses, techniques, and conclusions of research should be under constant examination by the members of school staffs for the implications offered to their educational program. This activity does not suggest that every new research will hold an immediate pragmatic imperative for their local program but the

approaches utilized may be suggestive of new practices or may stimulate school programs for study.

School staffs should explore the points of planning competency together. Consideration of how to develop internal consistency, how to plan for content and learning experience, how to evaluate strategies, how to provide for "right-handed" and "left-handed" learning should be probed in detail in a manner satisfactory to the group--by demonstration, discussion, or development. Opportunities and responsibilities inherent in the library materials should be brought into focus by the staff as they consider planning techniques. The basic ingredients of a program to develop the concept of a school library as part of the instructional system are presented in this study but the implementation of the approach may be best designed by the local school staff to fit their individual situation.

Impact on School Organization and Scheduling

This cooperative approach requires new adjustments in school organization and scheduling. A modification of the school day or week must look to providing blocks of time for the staff to work together for the objectives, strategies, and evaluative criteria to meet students' individual needs. This vital ingredient to good teaching has been consistently ignored in school time scheduling.

To some degree, the traditional patterns of organizing schools and classrooms have effectively blocked the development both of the teacher as educational diagnostician and of tools readily adaptable to teacher's diagnostic needs. At the elementary school level, the problem arises out of the teacher-per-class-per-grade concept and the egg-crate school; at the secondary school level, out of the march of class after class before the teacher. In neither instance is the teacher able to stand back, so to speak, in order to get an adequate perspective of the educational drama as it unfolds in the classroom and the unique place of each student in this drama.¹

It is not enough to hold regular after school or lunchtime meetings of teachers and expect in-depth planning to flourish. Nor will occasional workshops or annual institutes serve the needs of the growth potential of immediate students. Provision for this cooperative staff planning must be scheduled as regularly, consistently, and precisely as any other educational essential. It must take place where the pertinent materials and tools are available. One school system² meets this challenge by sending students home one afternoon a week. Its enviable record of student achievement attests to the benefits accrued by this professional action in these rewards of student growth.

One claim made for the advantage of television teaching is that it allows the TV teacher sufficient time to plan

¹Goodlad, Planning and Organizing for Teaching, op. cit., p. 112.

²Newton Public Schools, Newton, Massachusetts.

comprehensive presentations. If planning time is important for the television teacher who has concern only for subject matter presentation, how much more vital it must be for the classroom teacher who has concern not only for the subject matter but also for the individual needs of many students. The school staff is committed to a custom tailored plan for each student. This tailored-to-fit planning enhances individual intellectual growth in a mathematical progression that cannot be expected from the randomness of the mass approach of television teaching.

Impact on Physical Facilities and Resources

Scheduled time for planning is one step toward promoting a perceptual view of learning and growth. When this exploratory planning has been established, it will inevitably lead to changes in teaching time schedules, teacher assignments, class size, and teaching tools. It will indicate requirements for new and unique physical facilities in the library and the classroom.

Establishing, enlarging, staffing, and including the multiple forms of storage in school libraries must become an obsession with the professional staff, boards of education, and the public at large in this country. To provide in our school libraries all the major means of information storage and retrieval would be a movement comparable to the establishment of the free public Carnegie libraries of fifty years ago. To feel that we cannot act in this connection, or that other things are of greater importance, is to misjudge the urgency of this matter, the ability

of our students, the needs of our teachers, and the support that can be obtained from the public under imaginative leadership.¹

This imperative to establish far-reaching educational resources is in sharp contrast to 1962 findings of the National Educational Association Project on Instruction that report that elementary and secondary principals ranked the textbook as the most useful educational resource. The administrator who supports the tenets of perception must also support its demands for broad, rich educational resource to meet learning needs.²

Along with the resources called for is a need for flexible, movable, adjustable walls to add different dimensions to new ways of organizing learning settings. Such physical accommodations will facilitate all types of group work and yet provide quiet spots for the "alone" work. This organization recognizes that creative experience is a primary focus of education, not a peripheral activity.

The provision for flexible physical accommodation permits the flexible time scheduling that allows the school to become a living laboratory. This flexible time scheduling should be employed to eliminate the human relations problems between student and teacher now created by vertical school

¹Donald G. Emery, "'Good' Libraries Are Not Enough," Saturday Review, Vol. XLVIII, No. 16, April 17, 1965.

²William M. Alexander, "Assessing Curriculum Proposals," Curriculum Crossroads, ed. A. Harry Passow (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1962), pp. 11-20.

organization. By its nature, the vertical organizational structure establishes subordinate relationships. Verticality indicates differences, differences determine status and teachers and students are both victims of its implications of superior or inferior human beings. This progression is damaging to the school's objective of creating active, responsible behavior. Since it is desirable for the school to encourage such behavior, a horizontal organizational structure seems more likely to create the "atmosphere of freedom without license--in which people are free to be themselves and in which they have a feeling of identification with others who are free to be their unique selves."¹

The administrator then has a responsibility to create a facilitating climate, a responsive physical entity, and a flexible organization. To a significant degree, the success of the school planning will be determined by the quality of his cooperative leadership.

Implications for Staff Members

While administrative leadership is an important ingredient to cooperative planning, equally vital are the attitudes and actions of staff members. They have a professional responsibility to maintain open, inquiring attitudes. These attitudes must be evidenced in their relationships with

¹Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming, op. cit., p. 176.

colleagues and their relationships with students. The individual who retreats into privatism diminishes himself and his profession. The individual who continues to grow benefits himself and the professional community. Because the teacher's behavior results from his perception of the purpose of the school, of the role he should play, and of the values he holds, it is important that he continue his own pursuit of self-discovery, his recognition of self-concept, his understanding of self. To be open to new experience, to be secure in a dynamic, changing society, the staff member should be able to accept and trust himself, as well as his students.

Along with continued growth in self-discovery and in academic skills, the staff member must have sincere, abiding respect for new information, he must think critically and evaluate data, and he must back up his opinions and judgment with research. His attitudes must emphasize solutions to "why" rather than "how."

If the staff member values democratic attitudes, he should evaluate his classroom behavior in terms of democratic criteria. Does his classroom reflect competitive challenges or personal goals? Is there trust or no trust in the personal relationships? Does he remain aloof in human relationships or can he accept students' personal beliefs, convictions, and values? Is the atmosphere threatening or encouraging? Does discipline grow out of self or is it through obedience to authority? Is discipline, motivation, and evaluation

based on a standard marking system or is it an extension of the growth potential? Does the classroom atmosphere emphasize and demonstrate cooperative approaches by students and teachers? Does learning include student involvement in planning and evaluation? Do student evaluations suggest the continuing nature of learning or imply a conclusion? Do students have full knowledge about themselves through access to cumulative records and test data so they can develop awareness of being in process, of "where I was" and "where I am"? Do students have an opportunity to experience a continuum of work and play or is work conceived as drudgery? Does the classroom atmosphere value change and growth or does it value the "right" way? Is a rich perceptual field of experience provided for students? Is there value placed on the built-in success experience? Is there a wide choice of books, materials, and opportunities to meet the needs of individual students? Is information accurate, realistic, and dependable data? Is value placed on the open-mind?

In short, is democracy a way of life in the school?

We need courageous teachers willing to blaze a trail based on their convictions concerning trust and faith in human beings, freedom, acceptance, cooperation and creativity; willing to learn how to create a classroom atmosphere in which there is order and work by involving students in planning and evaluation and by being firm with their own behavior rather than being firm with students' behavior through imposition

of authority, force, coercion, punishment, and rewards. As Combs has suggested, 'Teaching is a relationship, but there can be no relationship with a nonentity.'¹

Implications for the Community

Finally, forces operating in the community have their impact upon the climate in the school. These forces may either support or negate the influence of the school atmosphere. Community attitudes are expressed in the buildings, in the equipment, and the salary schedules provided. When schools are forced to be apologetic about their image, repercussions will be felt in the school climate. The community that doesn't value schools and teachers, a non-supportive attitude, will find teachers less able to value themselves which will be reflected in teaching behavior. To create a climate in which students' dignity and integrity are encouraged, teachers should also experience self-worth. They should work in an atmosphere that supports objectivity, innovation, and experimentation. The community that supports these opportunities provides the sort of security within which individuals can afford to take creative risks for ventures with positive goals. The community that recognizes the necessity of education should also recognize that to have it done well requires able teachers who stand for something and have the courage to stand for their convictions.

¹Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming, op. cit., p. 212.

It will give teachers the freedom to be themselves. It will protect them from vested interests and support them when they come under attack.

Treating teachers as people of dignity, integrity, and responsibility, the community will use teachers in decision making at all levels of school operation. Teachers will be consulted in community planning conferences and be made members of planning and advisory boards. Such a community will accept and welcome diversity and permit freedom to respond without fear. The community that is willing to allow freedom of response must be a community that is willing to change. In its willingness to change, it will support growth through experimentation. In respecting the right to this creativity, it will also support the right to err which accompanies any risk taking. Society has a responsibility to teachers to provide the support that permits them to function fully. Their status in the community must reflect this support.

Cooperative planning is an objective on all educational levels--for students, for school staffs, for the community. It is active participation in the future. It is a shaping of destiny.

It is vital for us to recognize that the traditional methods no longer work. Even though we are still in a period of transition from autocratic to democratic relationships, there is no turning back. For any one person there is no gradual transition from the old to

the new. The break has to be clean. Pessimistic views concerning the nature of man and methods of discouragement have to be discarded. One has to enter wholeheartedly into a cooperative adventure with those involved.¹

The knowledge being gained about the development of intelligence, the process characteristics of growth, the potential for greater self-actualization is essentially optimistic in its prognosis for creating intelligence. The resources and staff of the school library, as an integral part of the instructional system, can, through cooperative staff planning, contribute to the development of intelligence, the process of growth, and the potential self-actualization needed in this viable world. Education must urgently exploit this age of possibilism.

¹Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming, *op. cit.*, p. 177.

CHAPTER III

RECAPITULATION

Recent federal assistance has given impetus to the creation of school libraries. Because of this development, the need exists for a direct way to assist local school staffs make this valuable educational resource productively operative. The nature of the school library itself represents curriculum change and educational innovation. Through the fact of its collection of materials, it suggests a move away from the prescription and limitation of the textbook. However, its implications for curriculum change will remain dormant if it is allowed to become less than a fully functioning part of the instructional system. A review of related literature has suggested that to activate the dynamics of these curriculum implications calls for the utilization of the library's resources by the total school staff. The assumption has been made in this study that the implementation of the school library's promise for educational innovation could be achieved through cooperative staff planning.

To develop the concept of the school library as part

of the instructional system and to implement school staff planning, the purpose of this study sought to provide an approach to an in-service program. To attain the objectives, that approach to the in-service program sought: (1) to specify the theoretical educational base of the school library and its "selection policy" for school library materials, (2) to indicate an educational theoretical base for cooperative staff planning, (3) to review professional competencies involved in planning and their interaction with materials, and (4) to consider some pragmatic applications of planning that would support the educational positions delineated. Through this approach the school staff, by cooperative planning, would be able to incorporate the school library into the instructional system and to implement curriculum change.

A Selection Policy for School Library Materials

The study has formulated the school library's "selection policy" on a theoretical educational base. The base was developed from the writings of Langer, Cassirer, Bruner, and Frank which emphasize the needs of symbolization and conceptualization. Therefore, the "selection policy" seeks to provide school library materials that promote students' conceptualizations through the "word," language. Through such materials a transaction develops between the student and the materials. Each works on the other to

contribute to students' learning. The selection of school library materials seeks to provide experiences with the "word" through all storage forms of symbolization. Choices made from the policy encourage personal dialogue to stimulate conception. This selection takes into account the instructional needs of concept formation, "whole versus fragmented learning," processes of inquiry, interrelationships of disciplines, the structure of subject matter, and logical mental operations.

Foundations of Educational Theory for Cooperative Staff Planning

To plan effectively, the study assumed that the school staff--classroom teachers and librarians--needed basic educational awareness. Each staff member should understand long-range curriculum goals, should appreciate the complexities of the learning process, and should be conscious of the individual student's needs for the development of intelligence. This understanding of long-range curriculum emphasis was provided through the focus of Miel's spiral concept of curriculum. This concept describes curriculum theory as an upward and outward spiral with three strands of emphasis that entwine--the separate or integrated way knowledge has been organized at various stages of curriculum development, the swing of emphasis from individual to group teaching methodology, and the emphasis between the concern for the individual and the concern for society. To further

clarify long-range curriculum concerns, the study included Goodlad's descriptions of the levels of curriculum--the societal, the institutional, and the instructional. On the societal level, national study groups are investigating the intricacies of knowledge to establish structure and to attempt to discover the form and intellectual processes in subject matter. On the institutional level, curriculum must account for the demands of the technological society and for the social demands of human relations. To find an appropriate emphasis, curriculum study should identify generalizations, principles, and theories around which content can be vertically organized. Curriculum focus on the instructional level is on subject matter competence and the operational behavior of teaching. On this curriculum level, professional competency and appropriate teaching behavior combine to provide the perceptions and organizing experiences by which students develop the ability to cope with the events and objects of the world. While this level is concerned with helping students build processes of learning to learn, it is also concerned with developing personal adequacy as well as with content adequacy. From these writings, the study indicated that the school library, as a laboratory for learning, assists the concerns of this curriculum level by encouraging inquiry and by providing the perceptions and organizing experiences necessary for the achievement of the instructional goals.

The study provided an appreciation of the complexities of the learning process through a review of the historical roots of learning theory. The writings of Bigge described three strands of thinking which have contributed to the modern theoretical foundations of learning theory--mental discipline, natural unfoldment, and apperception. The current conflicting theories of S-R and Gestalt have their roots in these beliefs. Skinner's "operant conditioning" is representative of the modern S-R associationists. Viewing man as a mechanism, this theory bases its claims about learning on the observable and manipulatable behavior. The theory is based on statistical prediction and does not necessarily reflect individual behavior. On the other side, Gestalt-field psychology, cognitive-field psychology, or field theory grew out of the apperception strand of thinking and is based on Kurt Lewin's belief that to be objective psychology must be subjective. To do this, psychology must observe situations as the person being studied views them. Psychology must represent the field as it is experienced by an individual at a particular time. This psychological field is the life space which surrounds a given individual and which includes the total pattern of factors or influences which affect behavior at a given time.

Learning to the field-psychologist is a change or re-organization of insight or cognitive structure. It occurs through and as a result of experience and involves the

"catching" and generalizations of insights. This emphasis on internal change, as represented by "insight", is an important dimension of learning in field psychology. The S-R theory recognizes that the internal state of the organism is modified but this theory declines to include this dimension since its personal nature defies quantification.

The study has provided a synthesis of these conflicting learning theories from the writings of Meierhenry who suggests that there is agreement among learning theorists that, (1) for learning to take place something happens to the learner, (2) that something occurs within the learner as a result, and (3) that either an overt or covert response is made by the learner. He, therefore, presents the model of STIMULUS-MEDIATING ACTIVITY-RESPONSE. Each dimension of the model should be planned for in instruction. Stimuli should be developed out of the purposes and objectives to be achieved, the mediating activity should be characterized by appropriate directions and suggestions in relevant modes for transmission which will expedite internalization of the stimuli, and the response should reflect the learning objective and be given in an appropriate form or mode that matches the type of performance required.

From this position, the study delineated the possibilities inherent in the school library facilities and resources to serve learning needs. These needs served include the developing of the desire to learn through provision of

learning experiences that include personal meaning, the provision of physical and psychological conditions that develop belief in self and confidence in capacity, the provision for successful accomplishment at least the larger part of the time, the provision of opportunities to establish goals, the provision for the gradual development of the structural features of learning that allow the student to progress to more advanced stages of performance, and the provision for opportunities whereby relationships between facts--generalizations, rules, principles--are developed.

The third strand of thinking--natural unfoldment--is reflected in modern theory in the concerns for child development. Though educators for some time associated the concept of readiness which grew out of early maturation studies with this concern, school staffs of the Sixties find that this area of theory now clusters around the needs of developing intelligence. The significant new departures suggest that, rather than waiting for readiness in learning, readiness may be developed.

The study has reviewed the Piaget theory as described by Flavell and others to describe the development of intelligence. Piaget's extensive studies have not been concerned with readiness per se but with cognition, or concept formation. His primary interest has been in the theoretical and experimental investigation of the qualitative development of intellectual structures. He views intelligence not as a

hypothetical power but as a development--a development through mental activity of intelligence. As a means of understanding the development of intellectual activity, he classifies a sequence of stages--the sensory-motor stage, the concrete operation stage, and the formal operations stage. This classification of stages is not an end in itself; considerable continuity lies behind or beneath the sequence of stages elaborated by the theory.

The development and functioning of intelligence are the product of both environmental stimulation and native potential. Therefore, systematic experience has an influence on the developing cognitive organization and on the ability to see relationships, to reason, to solve problems, and to generalize. Piaget's suggestion for education is that in trying to teach a child a general principle or rule, the child should first work with the principle in the most concrete and action-oriented context as possible; he should be allowed to manipulate objects himself and "see" the principle operate, and then the principle should become progressively more internalized by reducing perceptual and motor supports--by moving from action to verbalization.

Piaget's view of intelligence suggests a natural ordinal scale; thus, a prediction of a child's intelligence would have to be based upon a knowledge of the experiences in store for him. Realistic conceptualization is instrumental in development. Gathering and processing data becomes an

act of inquiry. Each of Piaget's stages are evolving acts of inquiry. This fundamental form of learning is characterized by the two processes of assimilation and accommodation. During assimilation the child takes in and incorporates what he perceives in terms of what he knows and understands. In accommodation he reshapes and reorganizes conceptual structures until they fit and account for perceived events. Through the autonomous character of inquiry, learning becomes a part of the individual. To promote inquiry, situations and opportunities must be provided for the wide gathering of data.

With this review, the study has indicated that the instrumentalism of the school library is vital to the development of intelligence. The school library provides opportunities for the assimilation and accommodation of the learning process. It provides a stimulating environment for inquiry and problem solving. It provides the resources and space that allow the individual to work from where he is and to seek personal meaning in his learning. It fulfills the learning need for data gathering in a free atmosphere that permits the student to analyze and to experiment in terms of his cognitive needs.

Educational Competencies and Materials Interact in Cooperative Staff Planning

The professional competence of each staff member in his individual specialization was assumed but there was

delineated a further requirement for professional competency. It was noted that each member of the school staff--classroom teacher and librarian--needed to see his work in relation to the total education program. Each member of the staff needed to be able to work with others in reaching curriculum decisions and in understanding the rationale underlying various curriculum patterns. This working together is the essence of cooperative planning. It was determined that if this planning represented the relationships of educational concerns, curriculum decisions, and the rationale of curriculum patterns, its objectives would be achieved through the professional competence that provides for internal consistency in planning. The educational positions assumed, the strategies employed, and the evaluations pursued in planning would be an interlocking scheme. This planning would incorporate the educational principles supported by the school library and its collection. With this inclusion in planning, the study has indicated that the school library should become a vital part of the instructional system.

Based on the writings of Smith, Fattu, Goodlad, and Bruner, the study has indicated that each staff member is concerned with perception and concept formation. Each must recognize the need for symbolization and the essential part the "word," language, plays in fulfilling this need. Each must seek to develop students' grammar of thinking--their

logical mental operations. Each must work to clarify students' understanding of the structure of subject matter. Each must endeavor to promote interdisciplinary relationships. Each must recognize and provide for students' autonomous learning activity. Each must accept and consider the individual's mode or style of learning. Each must encourage the individual student's inquiry and discovery by hierarchical experiences that move from the concrete to the abstract. Each must encourage student's creativity and imagination through activities of production. Each must promote the student's "right-handed" and "left-handed" learning--his development of intellectual potency and his recognition of self-identity. The study has indicated that there is a reciprocity in the professional competencies of the classroom teacher and the school librarian, that must touch the student's learning experiences. When this reciprocity is exercised through cooperative staff planning, optimal conditions for student's learning are created.

The study has indicated that an instrumentalism for the fulfillment of these professional goals rests in the resources of the school library and its collection. The two elements of instructional material--the "software" and the "hardware" combine to instruct, to transmit man's culture, and to enrich the student's learning experience. They provide phenomena for looking at, listening to, and experiencing. Certain aspects of these qualities of communication inherent in instructional materials, however,

must come up for consideration. Gerbner's definition of communication--"social interaction performed through messages"--indicates the necessity for evaluative criteria to be applied to messages. From his analysis, it was determined that the quality, integrity, and tactics employed in messages within materials must be examined for their impact on the student's learning experience. While the school librarian offers leadership for this task of selecting school library materials, all staff members must participate in the process. By participation in the selection process, the school staff insures the acquisition of library materials that serve their instructional demands. Selection of materials is a continuing process that is always seeking material characterized by integrity, by pertinence of symbolization, and by ability to respond a student's learning needs.

From the writings of Taylor, the study has indicated that following the process of selection, the continuing operations of utilization and production must occur. It has been determined that through the utilization of library materials, the school staff can provide students with opportunities for inquiry, problem-solving, reasoning, and concept attainment. In the utilization process, the "hardware" is always subordinate to the "software." By staff encouragement of student utilization of library materials, they promote the student's individual autonomy and "freedom"

for learning. The rich collection of data available in the school library provides a situation of "responsiveness" that allows the student to interact, to gather information, and to test ideas.

Meaningful inquiry through the utilization process inevitably leads to the operation of production. The study, therefore, has indicated that the tools of production are a natural library acquisition and must be included in the library "selection policy." It is through the production of materials that the staff and students create good examples of particular concepts and develop appropriate presentation of learning. Through production of material the student has an opportunity to externalize his thoughts and to bring them into the open for scrutiny. Student's needs of the hand, his distance receptors, and his process of reflection may be exercised in the production process. Production is not necessarily the creation of a physical demonstration such as a chart or graph but encompasses the creative and imaginative scope of drama, music, and art. Through production activities students are involved not only in the objectivity of abstraction but also in the subjectivity of concrete experience.

Instructional Purposes are Promoted Through Cooperative Staff Planning

With this general educational background of theory and with an understanding of the interaction of professional

competencies and school library materials, the study has indicated that the school staff is prepared to tackle the planning designs that incorporate the school library as part of the instructional system. A review of national studies has suggested subject matter outlines that would be useful in long-range planning. In developing these suggestions through the process of student inquiry, two considerations are paramount--the classroom teacher's concern for the individual student's learning plan and the school librarian's concern for the arrangements for inquiry. Each consideration must be accounted for in planning. As well as the librarian's concern for the arrangements of inquiry, the study has delineated the librarian's instructional role in the support given to the instructional objectives of the classroom teacher. On the primary level of the elementary school, the demands of concept formation have been emphasized. This, emphasis places on the librarian an instructional responsibility for the development of students' skills of definition. On the intermediate level, the librarian implements the study of literary structure and interdisciplinary relationships. Through the span of the elementary library program, the librarian emphasizes three instructional concerns--a literary concern, a study skill concern, and a library skill concern. These library instructional concerns are extended through the program of the junior high school. Each of the instructional concerns, however, grew out of the demands

of classroom planning. The operation of each concern is a natural outgrowth of the educational objectives of classroom planning. The study further indicates that, because the library instructional program takes its direction from the demands of classroom planning, it is incumbent upon classroom planning to incorporate the development of library skills as an integral part of its program.

As the total school program seeks to promote meaningful learning that helps the student relate knowledge to life, the study also has indicated that the school librarian has a responsibility to participate in and to encourage this instructional goal. Opportunities for the librarian's direct participation in this objective arise in the dialogues and discussions with student groups while developing the learning techniques that proceed from examination of the factual background of a problem, to the identification of the sources of conflict, and to the justifications and consequences of alternative solutions.

Cooperative planning on any level requires a climate that promotes freedom, encourages growth, and seeks experimentation. From reviews by Winsor, Brown, and Wilhelms of three experimental programs, the study suggests contributions that staff involvement can make to educational change. The writings of Combs and Kelley provided clues for developing a climate of possibilism in which cooperative staff planning could flourish.

The selected studies and writings incorporated in the study were chosen for the contribution they could make to the development of the concept of the school library as part of the instructional system, responding to student and teacher needs, and even creating needs. Other choices of authority might have been made; undoubtedly some important ones were not included. It is hoped, however, that the study has in some measure contributed an approach to an in-service program that will encourage the active operation of school library materials in the total school program.

Outlook on the Immediate Future

The evolving character of education becomes more immediately apparent in this age of rapid change. It is in society's best interest that the drag of educational lag be released. Cooperative staff planning itself is an example of a proven democratic ideal. Through cooperative staff planning that grows out of enlightened educational awareness and is encouraged by a climate of possibilism, fresh educational insights can be propelled into the present. Curriculum change to promote meaningful learning can be implemented. Matching the new dimensions offered by library materials to professional competencies will enrich the total school program. Staff involvement in objectives based on educational positions, in specific strategies employed for their specific goals, and in precise evaluation of these specifics has potential for in-service growth and development.

The conditions created promote educational experimentation and innovation. The necessity exists to bring educational theory together with educational practice. Implementing this necessity has been difficult. Through provision for carefully developed staff planning, the opportunity is created for testing theory in pragmatic application. The provision for staff planning, however, must be as specific as it would be for any other educational necessity. It must be an integral part of the school scheduling.

It is apparent, too, that as well as the evaluation of the school library collection, evaluation of the school library program is essential. The educational implications of its program require as much instructional competency on the part of the school librarian as would be expected of the classroom teacher. The school librarian must also provide leadership in the knowledge of curriculum, in the integrated use of varieties of materials, and in the skills of information search.

Teachers and librarians must work as a team. Pre-service education of each should recognize this reality and should make provision in their training programs for cooperative planning based on educational positions, for the educational imperatives for materials in the inquiry process, and for the selection, utilization, and production of school library materials. This provision should be made in courses of general education and in areas of academic specialization.

School administration, too, owes a responsibility to educational leadership. Relevant material about the school library services, its resources, and facilities should be incorporated in courses in school administration, supervision, curriculum, instructional methods, guidance, and other areas. Administration should be expected to implement the facilities, the time, and the climate for the operations of a library-centered school.

This is an age of possibilism--it is also a time of urgency. Cooperative school staff planning encircling the resources of school library materials is a possibility--it is also an urgency.

A P P E N D I X

Student Evaluation of Program
Bibliography of Student Books

APPENDIX

At the conclusion of the curriculum program conducted for sixth through eighth graders, students were requested to evaluate their experiences. The following thirty excerpts of their evaluations were chosen at random from approximately one hundred and twenty received by the instructors.

I think I've learned how to read better this year. Looking for information for the panel did help me. This year I think I got a lot more out of school. Before when I looked for my information or tried to read, I had a hard time. Every little noise would take me off the track. When someone in the other group in reading was talking, I would have to close my ears because I could not get my mind on my work. When I started to get my information for the panel, my reading was important then . . . when I used the concepts as the base of my reading it was simple.

Rose N.

I think I've learned quite a lot during the last semester. I read a lot in school and very much at home. I have read very many books with very many concepts. I think reading books and relating them to concepts have helped us very much.

Linda J.

Our aid to reading helped us because we got to pick our own subject and books as long as they related to our own group concept. And since we got to pick our own subject that way, we are more interested in what we do. It would also help you with group discussion, reports, and with our notes.

David B.

Yes, you helped me read and think about the concepts because when you know what the concept means from a good definition then you can look for the concepts and evaluate. I prepared my self by first looking up what prejudice means and then comparing prejudice to my subject.

Joy A.

I learned how to think critically. The idea of reading for ideas and concepts is a new way of reading. I think its very successful because it makes one really think. In preparing for my panel discussion I read many books and newspapers. I thought very carefully about the concepts, which you have to do. In a book, when you are reading for concepts, the book doesn't come right out and say "People are good or evil according to their nature rather than their race or color." You have to think. The concept our group was working on was "Certain attitudes weaken or strengthen prejudice." I think it was hard work finding facts to prove that prejudices are weakened or strengthened. But I enjoyed it.

Debbie C.

I think the movies and especially the panel discussions helped me most this year. I think the program was extremely well laid out as I know I learned a lot about the concepts. A movie, in particular, I remember is "Project Hope" as it showed how one ship could do so much helping.

Gary M.

I think this semester's work was very successful. I find myself giving up my favorite programs to watch the news. And reading the paper thoroughly every night for hours on end instead of the headlines and the comics. I feel I have learned to get my material from sources rather than the encyclopedia and the textbook. . . . I learned a word I had never heard before. This word is prejudice. I now feel that this prejudiced feeling many people accumulate plays a very important role in our lives. With this hatred people can never bounce forward, only backward, because there are many people of different nationalities, creeds and races whom everyone has to meet one of someday.

Kathy M.

The purpose has helped me to think about critical ideas of thinking. I will start reading a book and try to relate a paragraph or sentence to concepts and find out how this concept came about . . . who played a part to help or hinder this concept. . . I would say that it was very successful. It helped me with my reading habits. I learned to evaluate certain concepts and study their ways of forming attitudes. I would look for certain ideas about my reading which might form one of our concepts which made me think a bit. On our panel discussions . . . I thought that was very successful

to find out other people's attitudes towards different opinions. This made you think--are you right or is he right. It made it very difficult to give a definite answer. I learned that certain attitudes led to fights and agreements.

Darnell K.

I found that I have been doing much critical thinking about not only concepts but other statements, too. Now I feel that if I make a statement, I must have another statement to back it up. In the panel, I think everyone did a pretty good job of this.

Jane R.

I think that in this unit I have done some critical thinking. While reading books such as Harriet Tubman, Clara Barton, and Anne Frank, I have read in such a way so as to constantly be on the alert for instances that relate to our concepts. By putting these instances into talks (for our panel discussion), I have done still more critical thinking . . . I think that every point of the program was both effective and essential, but I enjoyed the panel discussions best of all since it gave every one a chance to express his opinion. . . . I could suggest no "improvements," but one "addition"--use a tape recorder for the panel discussions. In this way every one will voice an opinion in order to get their voice on the tape.

Karen O.

I think this year I did some critical thinking about our concepts We had to dig up and look up information. Our group had "People are interdependent." I think we had the hardest concept. In most books they don't stress the great need of interdependence in the world today. Our group split up in three groups--one on historical, another on present day, and another on the Civil War . . . I think this program was effective because it weakened some of my strongest points of prejudice. But still I have some. Also it showed me the great need of interdependence upon our fellow man for his goods and vice versa. It showed me that all Negroes aren't bad and some Negro people are very fine citizens.

Donald D.

The critical thinking about the books I read was pretty deep. I thought about each one of the concepts alone. As I read the concepts became clearer to me . . . I got a good idea in general about the program you were trying to stress and get across to us. I thought that you worked very hard to get so good of a program.

Janet S.

As I have read this semester, I have found many evidences that prove and disprove our concepts. The main concept for disproof was "War does not solve problems." In the memories of Winston Churchill, he distinctly states that if Briton and the other allied powers had not gone to war against Germany, the menace of Corporal Hitler would have conquered the world and destroyed democracy politically, economically, and militarily. . . . The other concept that could be disproved was the concept of "People are good or evil according to their nature not by their color, race, or creed." When a person takes time to think on this area, he asks, "Why, why do these race problems happen?" Then he perhaps thinks "When did this all begin?" "When did man begin hating his black counterpart and visa versa?" I believe that an instinct is born in people that makes them feel that way. . . We may talk about equal rights but deep in our hearts, we know how we feel and will not let equal rights effectively come about . . . I think we were too radical in our thinking.

Bernard R.

Yes, I think I achieved the special purpose of reading critically. I had never done this sort of reading before. At the end, I had learned to relate what I had read to the concepts.

Kenneth P.

I learned how to find facts while I was reading. I also learned how to read the fact given and study it. I've learned how to relate the concepts to my reading . . . and prove my statements. I've learned how to work with others and share my ideas . . . I think it has been fun and interesting this semester. We have accomplished a lot. We have learned how to work with others and we have learned how to study when there is noise in the room.

Valory W.

It helped me to gather up all the facts and to arrive at a conclusion and that is not easy.

Dave H.

I thought this was a very good idea. This panel taught me more than I would have learned at anything else.

Marilyn P.

I thought the program was successful in this way-- we all read more and found a lot more facts about important things. Classes were more interesting and the notebooks were very useful because we could have forgotten about the movies we saw and other important things. I don't think it was bad at all.

John N.

I tried to do some critical thinking about my concept. Our concept was "People are interdependent." I couldn't think of anything about the Civil War and how they were interdependent but then I did some reading in some books. There I found plenty of information about it and when my panel discussion came up I had plenty of evidence of my reading.

Larry B.

I did learn to do more critical thinking as I read. I've looked for prejudiced statements and people as I read and as I watched programs on television and talking to people. I have done this by concentrating more as I read.

Debbie F.

I think that I was successful in reading because I got a lot of information toward the concepts which was very useful. From reading I learned how to evaluate when I read. (Questions) such as what concept does this represent? Is this very important? Should I use this to present my concept?

Catherine A.

I believe this program made me do some critical thinking about my books . . . now, after the unit's over, I find myself doing quite a bit of real, hard thinking about every day situations. By doing a lot of thinking about a book you're reading, you just don't read it, you really understand it and get much more out of it . . . I liked the part about

giving our information to the class in the form of a panel discussion All in all, I enjoyed it and learned to think about what I am doing.

David R.

I think that this studying has taught me self-discipline. . . . Besides self-discipline, I have learned to express myself and say what I mean. I didn't know that just one subject could be so broad. To learn so much in the short time we had seems impossible. I have learned to think.

Margaret W.

I think it helped me learn by myself, to think for myself, and improve my reading skills, to express myself, and to work by myself. It helped to prove myself by reading. I think the panel discussions were excellent.

Mike M.

I believe I have learned to be critical when I read since I often stop to think if such a thing is possible, unlikely, or exaggerated. I have found that often an author leaves an incident to the imagination I think this plan was very good and successful. It made a great change in my ideas about different races and colors.

Jo-Ann E.

I think we went way over in thinking about our concepts. We obviously did a very fine job I think the purpose of reading was very good We dug deep for our information. We had ideas and ideals in our reports.

Janet S.

I think I achieved the purpose in reading by having the concepts up on the board the whole time we were studying the topics. I had time to study these concepts so when I was reading my books I had a much better idea of the book concepts and what I was looking for The talks that we had helped me to understand the concepts better.

Rodney Y.

My reading became more critical in this way--when I was reading and I came across something that related to a concept, particularly my group concept, my thoughts would suddenly turn to evaluating the part of the story and the concepts. This thinking

process, I believe, has become a permanent part of my reading. It aids one in recalling incidents and feelings and makes my reading more enjoyable besides getting a lot more out of it . . . I think our studies have gone a long way in helping us breakdown prejudices Next year this unit could be improved by having each person write down all their prejudices and why they hold them, how they got them, and how they can get rid of them . . . altogether, it was an extremely successful unit because it achieved its purposes and gave something to each of us.

Marjorie B.

We had to do critical thinking when we were putting together our reports, when we were finding information on our topic, and when trying to find a rebuttal on the questions asked.

Bob H.

I think I achieved critical thinking in reading by having the concepts where I could relate to them. They helped me to understand better what I was reading . . . I thought that the panels were a help . . . I think we could have started a little earlier so we could have discussed differences of opinion for a longer time.

Rick C.

BIBLIOGRAPHY OF STUDENT BOOKS

- Benary-Isbert, Margot. The Ark. New York: Harcourt, 1953.
- Bishop, Claire Huchet. Toto's Triumph. New York: Viking Press, 1957.
- Brown, Marcia. Stone Soup, An Old Tale. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1947.
- Butler, Beverly. Song of the Voyager. New York: Dodd, Mead & Company, 1960.
- Dagliesh, Alice. The Courage of Sarah Noble. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1954.
- Daugherty, James. Andy and the Lion. Ill. by the author. Eau Claire: E. M. Hale Co., 1938.
- Davis, Robert. That Girl of Pierre's. Ill. by Lloyd L. Goff. New York: Holiday House, 1948.
- DeJong, Meindert. The House of Sixty Fathers. Ill. by Maurice Sendak. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1936.
- Dooley, Thomas A., M.D. Edge of Tomorrow. Ill. With photographs. New York: Farrar, Straus and Cudahy, 1958.
- Frank, Anne. The Diary of a Young Girl. Translated from the Dutch by B. M. Mooyart. New York: Pocket Books, Inc., 1952.
- Freeman, Mae Blacker. The Story of Albert Einstein. New York: Random House, 1958.
- Frost, Robert. The Complete Poems of Robert Frost. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964.
- Gag, Wanda. Wanda Gag's Story Book. Ill. by the author. New York: Coward, McCann, 1929.
- Gringhuis, Dirk. The Young Voyager. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1955.

- Heinlein, Robert. The Green Hills of Earth. New York: Signet Books, 1951.
- Levin, Meyer. My Father's House. New York: Viking, 1947.
- Longstreth, Morris T. Dangerline. New York: Macmillan Co., 1955.
- Mowat, Farley. The Dog Who Wouldn't Be. Ill. by Paul Galdone. New York: Little, Brown & Co., 1957.
- Rickert, Edith. The Bojabi Tree. Adapted from an Old African Folk Tale. Ill. by Anne Braune. New York: Doubleday and Company, Inc., 1958.
- Sperry, Armstrong. Call It Courage. Ill. by the author. New York: MacMillan, 1947.
- Stockton, Frank. The Lady or the Tiger? and Other Tales. New York: Scribner, 1914.
- Webberly, Leonard. The Wound of Peter Wayne. New York: Ariel Books, 1955.
- White, E. B. Charlotte's Web. Ill. by Garth Williams. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1952.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Alexander, William M. "Assessing Curriculum Proposals." Curriculum Crossroads ed. A. Harry Passow. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1962.
- Allport, Gordon W. The Nature of Prejudice. New York: Doubleday and Co., Inc., 1954.
- Almy, Millie. "New Views on Intellectual Development in Early Childhood Education." Intellectual Development: Another Look. Papers from the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Eighth Curriculum Research Institute, ed. by A. Harry Passow and Robert R. Leeper. Washington: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1964.
- American Library Association. Education Division Newsletter. Chicago: American Library Association, No. 53, March, 1965.
- American Association of School Librarians. Standards for School Library Programs. Chicago: American Library Association, 1960.
- Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming: A New Focus for Education. Yearbook, 1962. Washington: ASCD, 1962.
- Beachner, Anna M. School Activities and the Library. Chicago: American Library Association, 1964.
- Bellack, Arno A. "The Structure of Knowledge and the Structure of the Curriculum" in A Reassessment of the Curriculum ed. by Dwayne Huebner. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964.
- Bhola, Harbans Singh. "Implications of New Democratic Theory for Planned Educational Change." Strategies for Educational Change. Newsletter, Vol. 1, No. 3. Columbus: Ohio State University, November, 1965.
- Bigge, Morris L. Learning Theories for Teachers. New York: Harper & Sons, 1964.

- Bloom, Benjamin S., Davis, Allison, and Hess, Robert. Compensatory Education for Cultural Deprivation. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1965.
- Bright, Richard L. quoted in Educational Researcher. Official Newsletter of the American Educational Research Association, February, 1966.
- Brown, Oliver. "The Impact of the Mental Health in Teacher Education Project at the University of Texas." Strength Through Reappraisal. Sixteenth Yearbook, 1963 Annual Meeting. Washington: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1963.
- Bruner, Jerome S. "Education As a Social Invention." Saturday Review, February 19, 1966. Vol. XLIX, No. 8, p. 70.
- Bruner, Jerome S. On Knowing. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1962.
- Bruner, Jerome S. The Process of Education. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1960.
- Bruner, Jerome S. "The Viewpoint of a Psychologist." (A Review of B. Inhelder and J. Piaget's; The Growth of Logical Thinking) British Journal of Psychology, 50: 1959, pp. 363-370.
- Cassirer, Ernest. An Essay on Man. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1944.
- Cerf, Bennett. "Looking to Electronics in the Publishing Field." The National Observer, February 21, 1966.
- Clear, Val. "Paperback Pedagogy." Saturday Review, Vol. XLVII, No. 7, February 15, 1964, p. 73.
- Clinchy, Evans. "Should We Bother Teaching Social Studies." Speech. Cranbrook Curriculum Conference, Bloomfield Hills, Michigan, February, 13, 1965.
- Combs, Arthur W. "Personality Theory and Its Implications for Curriculum." Learning More About Learning ed. by Alexander Frazier. Washington: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1959.
- Cottrell, Donald P. Teacher Education for a Free People. New York: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1956.

- Cyphert, Frederick R. "Current Practice in the Use of the Library in Selected Junior High Schools in Pennsylvania." Ann Arbor: University Microfilms, No. 24, 738, 1957.
- Denney, Reuel. "The Learner and his Audience." New Dimensions in Learning. Washington: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1962.
- Douglas, Justice William O. "Equality Before the Law." A Leo M. Franklin Memorial Lecture. Wayne State University, April 6, 1964.
- Educational Policies Commission. The Central Purpose of American Education. Washington: National Education Association, 1961.
- Emery, Donald G. "Good" Libraries Are Not Enough." Saturday Review, Vol. XLVII, No. 16, April 17, 1965.
- Fattu, Nicholas A. "Exploration of Interaction Among Instruction, Content, and Aptitude Variables." Journal of Teacher Education, Vol. XIV, No. 3, September, 1963.
- Flavell, J. H. The Developmental Psychology of Jean Piaget. New Jersey: D. Van Nostrand Co., Inc., 1963.
- Fowler, W. "Cognitive Learning in Infancy and Childhood." Psychological Bulletin, LIX, 1962, pp. 116-152.
- Frank, Lawrence K. The School as Agent for Cultural Renewal. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1959.
- Freiser, Leonard. "Toronto's Education Centre Library." Saturday Review, Vol. XLVIII, No. 16, April 17, 1965, p. 79.
- Friedlander, Bernard Z. "A Psychologist's Second Thought on Concepts, Curiosity and Discovery in Teaching and Learning." Harvard Educational Review, Vol. 35, 1965, No. 1, pp. 18-38.
- Gerbner, George. "A Theory of Communication and Its Implications for Teaching." The Nature of Teaching: Implications for the Education of Teachers. Edward A. and Rosa Uhrig Memorial Lectures. Milwaukee: The Edward A. Uhrig Foundation, 1962.
- Gesell, Arnold, and Thompson, Helen. Child Behavior and Development. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1943.

- Goodenough, Florence L., and Tyler, Leona B. Developmental Psychology. New York: Appleton-Century, Croft, 1959.
- Goodlad, John. "Knowledge, Pre-Collegiate Education and the Preparation of Teachers." The Nature of Knowledge: Its Implications for the Education of Teachers. Edward A. and Rosa Uhrig Memorial Lectures. Milwaukee: Edward A. Uhrig Foundation, 1961.
- Goodlad, John. Planning and Organizing for Teaching. Washington: National Education Association, 1963.
- Grannis, Joseph. "Working Paper on the Franklin School Social Studies Proposal." (Revised November 15, 1960). Mimeographed.
- Hagrasy, Saad M. el. "The Teacher's Role in Library Service: An Investigation and Its Devices." PhD. dissertation, Rutgers--The State University, 1961. Summary in Journal of Experimental Education. June 30, 1962.
- Hendrix, Gertrude. "A New Clue to Transfer of Learning." Elementary School Journal, December, 1947, p. 200.
- Henne, Frances. "Structuring Library Education Curriculums for Preparing Librarians of Material Centers." The School Library as a Materials Center. Proceedings of a Conference under the auspices of the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Washington: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1963.
- Hunt, J. Intelligence and Experience. New York: The Ronald Press, 1961.
- Hunt, J. Piaget's Observations As a Source of Hypotheses Concerning Motivation. Paper read at the Annual Meeting, American Psychological Association, 1962.
- Hutchins, R. M. Education for Freedom. Louisiana: Louisiana State University Press, 1943.
- Ilg, Frances, and Ames, Louise B. "Developmental Trends in Arithmetic." Journal of Genetic Psychology, LXXIX, September, 1951.
- The Instructor. "News Front." November, 1965. Vol. LXXV, No. 3, p. 2.

- Johnson, Donald M. "Cognitive Structure and Intellectual Processes." Intellectual Development: Another Look. Papers from the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Eighth Curriculum Research Institute, ed. by A. Harry Passow and Ralph R. Leeper. Washington: ASCD, 1964.
- Johnson, Mauritz, Jr. "School in the Middle-Junior High: Education's Problem Child." Saturday Review, Vol. XLV, No. 21, July 21, 1962, pp. 40-43.
- Knapp, Patricia B. College Teaching and the College Library. Chicago: American Library Association, 1959.
- Langer, Suzanne. Philosophy in a New Key. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1957.
- Lerner, Max. "Society and the Curriculum." A Reassessment of the Curriculum. ed. Dwayne Huebner. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964.
- Linton, Ralph. "Present World Conditions in Cultural Perspective." The Science of Man in the World Crisis. ed. K. Linton. New York: Columbia University Press, 1945.
- Lovejoy, Arthur O. Essays in the History of Ideas. New York: G. P. Putnam and Sons, 1948.
- Lowe, John Livingston. "On Reading." quoted by Frances Clark Sagers, Summoned By Books. New York: The Viking Press, 1965.
- Luchins, Abraham S. "Implications of Gestalt Psychology for AV Learning." Audio-Visual Communications Review. Supplement 4. September-October, 1961.
- Mayer, Milton. "To Know and To Do." Saturday Review. Vol. XLVII, No. 7, February 15, 1964, p. 62.
- McCandless, Boyd R. Children and Adolescents. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961.
- Melerhenry, W. C. "Implications of Learning Theory for Instructional Technology." Phi Delta Kappan, Vol., No. 46, May, 1965, pp. 435-437.
- Miel, Alice. "Reassessment of the Curriculum--Why?" A Reassessment of the Curriculum, ed. Dwayne Huebner. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964.

- Mouly, George J. The Science of Educational Research. New York: American Book Company, 1963.
- Nardelli, Robert R. "Some Aspects of Creative Reading." Journal of Educational Research, Vol. L, 1957, p. 14.
- National Education Association. Elementary School Organization. Washington: The Association, 1961.
- The Nature of Knowledge: Implications for the Education of Teachers. William Jenkins, ed. Edward A. and Rosa Uhrig Lectures. Milwaukee: The Edward A. Uhrig Foundation, 1961.
- The Nature of Teaching: Implications for the Education of Teachers. Louise M. Berman ed. Edward A. and Rosa Uhrig Memorial Lectures. Milwaukee: The Edward A. Uhrig Foundations, 1962.
- Newmann, Fred M. "Adolescents' Acceptance of Authority: A Methodological Study." Harvard Educational Review. Vol. 35, No. 3, Summer, 1964, p. 305.
- Pribram, Karl H. "Neurological Notes on the Art of Educating." Theories of Learning and Instruction, ed. Ernest R. Hilgard. Sixty-Third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: Chicago University Press, 1964.
- Pyle, Wilma Jean. "An Exploratory Study in Reading on the First Grade Level Using a Combination of Trade Books and Their Corresponding Phonograph Recordings." (Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Wayne State University, 1963).
- Quillen, I. James. "What are the Basic Concepts to be Developed in Childhood?" Childhood Education. XXIII, 1947.
- Rapp, Albert. "Experimental Background of the Problems of Learning." Classical Journal. Vol. XXXX (1945), pp. 467-480.
- Rath, Louis. "The Nature of Teaching." The Nature of Teaching: Implications for the Education of Teachers. Edward A. and Rosa Uhrig Memorial Lectures. Milwaukee: The Edward A. Uhrig Foundation, 1962.

- Russell, David H. "Reading and the Healthy Personality." Elementary English. Vol. XXIX, April, 1952.
- Saylor, J. G., and Alexander, W. M. Curriculum Planning for Better Teaching and Learning. New York: Rinehart, 1954.
- Schaefer, Robert J. "Teachers College and School Curriculum." A Reassessment of the Curriculum. Dwayne Huebner, ed. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964.
- The School Library as a Materials Center. Mary Helen Mahar, ed. Proceedings of a conference under the auspices of the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Washington: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1963.
- School Library Development Project. "Research Needs of the School Library Program." Chicago: American Association of School Libraries, May, 1961.
- Schramm, Wilbur. "Introduction: Interim Report." Fund for the Advancement of Education. Four Case Studies of Programed Instruction. New York: The Fund, 1964.
- Schwab, Joseph J. (Speech) "The Concept of Structure in the Subject Fields" for Council of Cooperation in Teacher Education of the American Council on Education, 20th Annual Meeting. Washington, D.C.: October 20-21, 1961.
- Secondary School Seminar. Problems Involved in the Development of the Secondary School Curriculum for Today's Schools. Columbia University, 1961.
- Shaker Heights City School District. Third Year Report and Final Summary of an Experimental Program.
- Shera, J. Student Use of Libraries. Chicago: A.L.A., 1964.
- Sizer, Theodore R. "Classroom Revolution: Reform Movement on Panacea." Saturday Review. Vol. XLVIII, No. 25, June 19, 1965.
- Sizer, Theodore R. quoted in "Looking to Electronics in the Publishing Field." The National Observer. February 21, 1966.

- Smith, B. Othanel. "A Conceptual Analysis of Instructional Behavior." Journal of Teachers Education. Vol. XIV, No. 3, September, 1963.
- Smith, B. Othanel. "The Need for Logic in Methods Courses." Theory Into Practice. Columbus: Bureau of Educational Research. Vol. III, No. 1, February, 1964.
- Smith, B. O., Stanley, W. O., and Shores, H. J. Fundamentals of Curriculum Development. New York: World Book, 1957.
- Social Studies Curriculum Center. "Major Concepts for the Social Studies." Syracuse: Syracuse University, November, 1965.
- Stratemeyer, Florence. "Implications for Teacher Education." A Reassessment of the Curriculum. ed. Dwayne Huebner. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964.
- Suchman, J. Richard. "Building Skills for Autonomous Discovery," Merrill Palmer Quarterly, Vol. VII, No. 3.
- Suchman, J. Richard. "The Child and the Inquiry Process." Intellectual Development: Another Look. Papers from the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Eighth Curriculum Research Institute. ed. by A. Harry Passow and Robert R. Leeper. Washington: ASCD, 1964.
- Suchman, J. Richard. "The Conditions for Inquiry." The Instructor. Vol. LXXV, No. 3, November, 1965.
- Taba, Hilda. Curriculum Development: Theory and Practice. New York: Harcourt Brace and World, Inc., 1962.
- Task Force on Teaching English to the Disadvantaged. Language Programs for the Disadvantaged. Champaign: National Council of Teachers of English, 1965.
- Taylor, Kenneth I. "The World of Instructional Materials and You." Speech given Michigan Association of School Librarians, Oakland County Chapter, November 9, 1965.
- Thelen, Herbert A. "Insight of Teaching from a Theory of Interaction." The Nature of Teaching: Implications for the Education of Teachers. Edward A. and Rosa Uhrig Memorial Lectures. Milwaukee: The Edward A. Uhrig Foundation, 1962.

- Thomas, R. M., and Swartout, S. G. Integrated Teaching Materials. New York: David McKay Co., 1963.
- Trump, J. Lloyd. "Changing Concepts of Instruction and the School Library As a Materials Center." The School Library As a Material Center. ed. by Mary Helen Mahar. Proceedings of a Conference under the Auspices of the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Washington: U.S. Department of HEW, 1963.
- Trump, J. Lloyd. quoted in Jesse Shera, Student Use of Libraries. Chicago: American Library Association, 1964.
- Tyler, Fred T. "Issues Related to Readiness to Learn." Theories of Learning and Instructions. ed. Ernest R. Hilgard. Sixty-third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: Chicago University Press, 1964.
- Upton, Albert. Design for Thinking. Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1961.
- Walker, Jerry L. "An Investigation Into Individual Differences and the Structure of Literature and Suggested Guidelines for a Program to Teach the Structure of Literature to the Individual." (Unpublished Ed. D. dissertation, Wayne State University, 1964.
- Washburne, J. N. "The Use of Questions in Social Science Material." Journal of Educational Psychology. Vol. XX, 1929.
- Weber, C. A. "Do Teachers Understand Learning Theory?" Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. 46, May, 1965.
- Weiss, Margaret R. "The Questing Camera." Saturday Review. Vol. XLVIII, No. 35, August 28, 1965.
- White, R. W. "Competence and the Psychosexual Stages of Development" in Nebraska Symposium, 1960. ed. by M. R. Jones. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1960.
- Whitehead, A. N. Aims of Education and Other Essays New York: The Macmillan Company, 1929.
- Wilhelms, Fred T. "Professional Education Period as a Time of Self-Discovery and Personal Development." Strength Through Reappraisal. Sixteenth Yearbook, 1963 Annual Meeting. Washington: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1963.

Winsor, Charlotte B. "Educational Change Process in a Field Project." Strength Through Reappraisal. Sixteenth Yearbook, 1963 Annual Meeting. Washington: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1963.

Woodruff, Asahel. "The Use of Concepts in Teaching and Learning." Journal of Teacher Education. March, 1964, Vol. XV, No. 1.

AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL STATEMENT

Name: Charlene R. Swarthout

Education: Wayne State University, B.A. 1942;
Wayne State University, M.A. 1949.

Positions: Teacher of Literature, performing arts, and library in the Detroit Public Schools, 1945-1965; Supervisor of Student Teachers, Elementary Education Department, Wayne State University, 1965-1966; Member of the Junior High School Book Selection Committee, Detroit Public Schools, 1964-65; Member of the Curriculum Research Committee, Michigan Department of Education, since 1965; Consultant in Detroit Public Schools Workshop, "Adapting Curriculum Needs to the Individual Child," May-June, 1966; Group Leader, Southeast Area Curriculum Conference, September, 1965.

Memberships: Member of American Educational Research Association; American Library Association; Michigan Association School Librarians; Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Offices: Board Member, Vice-President, and currently President, Library Science Alumni Association, Wayne State University.

Publication: "How Do You Perceive Your School Library?"
Michigan Elementary Principal, May-June, 1966