English Language Arts in American High Schools

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Foreword

THIS BULLETIN is the second in a series of studies aimed at describing current developments in the secondary school curriculum as they are revealed in recent courses of study and teaching guides. It is the only analysis of the English curriculum in grades 7–12 which has been made by the Office in the past 25 years. This survey includes the four major areas of the language arts: writing, speaking, listening, and reading and literature.

Besides acquainting teachers, supervisors, and administrators with the general content and nature of language arts guides and courses of study, this bulletin may serve as a source of information for curriculum leaders and committees wishing to consider various approaches to producing or revising courses of study. It tells how language arts curriculum committees are organized, how they carry on their work, and the guidelines they follow. It also describes ways in which committees determine scope and sequence for learning activities, how they prepare resource units, and how they provide for individual differences. Finally, it points out the major changes which have occurred in the high school language arts curriculum since Dora V. Smith's study, *Instruction in English*, in 1932.

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Chapter I

Scope of the Investigation

Background of the Survey

A QUARTER of a century ago, Dora V. Smith made a national study of the teaching of English in secondary schools through an analysis of 156 courses of study received from 127 cities and 33 States and through classroom visits to 15 widely separated States. The results of her investigation were published under the title *Instruction in English* as one of 28 monographs in the National Survey of Secondary Education. In 1932 William John Cooper, U. S. Commissioner of Education, wrote "This manuscript on English . . . shows the changes that have come over this subject during the past 40 years particularly, describes the conditions in which it now is, and makes suggestions for further study." [1]

How have new knowledge, a diversified secondary-school population, and a growing public interest in the quality of education affected the language arts curriculum since Dr. Smith's study? During the past 25 years, the percentage of youth remaining in school until graduation has doubled. How has the increased interest of the school population in advanced education affected the language arts program? Today, 54 percent of the high school graduates continue their education in college or other institutions full or part time; more than 45 percent of the graduates attend college full time. What, if any, influence have these facts had on language arts programs? How has the impact of television and other mass media on youth affected instruction in reading, listening, speaking, and writing? What use has been made of new knowledge concerning child growth and development, plus the research findings on adolescent interests, needs, and motivations?

[1] Dora V. Smith, *Instruction in English*. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office. Office of Education Bulletin 1932, No. 17, Monograph No. 20, p. vi. (Out of print.)

What effect has the research in reading, grammar and usage, linguistics, and semantics had on the teaching of the language arts?

How have social and technological changes affected the program? Has our position of leadership among the free nations of the world brought about any changes in the literature program? What, if any, influence have the demands of industrial, business, and governmental groups had on the teaching of English?

Have the increasingly difficult language demands placed upon homemakers, stenographers, salespeople, filling station operators, clerks, farmers, lawyers, scientists, and most of the other people in our present society led to an upgrading of the language program in high schools?

And most important of all perhaps—how have the demands, tensions, and conflicts of living in today's family, community, nation, and world affected the content of the language arts curriculum?

Nature of the Survey

The modern course of study, when it is not based on the contents of 1 or 2 basic textbooks, is rich in suggestions for teachers. It is an educational resource which serves as an inservice aid and a professional stimulus. As such, it deserves careful consideration. Also, next to the teacher and the textbook, it is probably the most important school influence in determining the type of education a pupil is offered.

The present survey includes an analysis of 285 courses of study from 44 States, the District of Columbia, the Canal Zone, and Hawaii. It attempts to show various changes which have occurred in the high school English curriculum since Dr. Smith's study and to indicate the general nature of English programs offered today throughout America.[2] Also, the present report reveals how curriculum work is initiated; the persons involved; the guidelines used for curriculum work; how scope and sequence patterns are determined; how resource units are developed; types of resource units used at various levels; provisions made for individual differences through multitrack programs, electives, acceleration, and enrichment; and promising practices in language arts as suggested by courses of study.

[2] This survey does not include a detailed analysis of the program in grammar, usage, and mechanics. A later bulletin on this subject is planned.

In an effort to obtain all secondary-school courses of study and teaching guides in language arts now being used in public schools of the United States, the writer addressed letters of inquiry to State superintendents of public instruction or their deputies, leaders in teacher education, and selected members of the National Council of Teachers of English. In addition, the Librarian of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, in the spring of 1956, addressed 6,000 letters to administrators of school systems in the United States asking them to forward to the Departmental library copies of all curriculum materials prepared for teachers' use. These materials, which became a part of the library, were an invaluable resource for the present survey.

Of the 285 courses of study and teaching guides analyzed, 256 were prepared locally for use by 164 city, county, or district school systems in 42 States, the District of Columbia, the Canal Zone, and Hawaii. Of the 256 local guides 201 were published in the 1950's; 30 in the 1940's; and 25 were undated.

All State courses of study in current use—29 in 21 States—were included in the survey; 15 of the 29 were published in the 1950's; 13 in the 1940's; and 1 in 1938. State courses of study are revised much less frequently than local courses.

The number of local courses of study and guides produced within each State varies from 0 to 38. The most courses of study, as shown in Appendix B and Appendix C, have been prepared in California, Texas, Wisconsin, and Michigan, in that order. None of these States has had a high school English course issued by the State department of education for use by the public secondary schools within the State.

Table I shows the number of courses of study in high school language arts included in this survey from communities of different population range. Fifty courses were produced in 20 localities ranging in population from 100,000 to 199,999; and 36 courses in 21 localities of between 200,000 and 499,999. Small communities are also represented in the survey. Thirty-five courses were produced in 30 communities having a population of 25,000 to 49,999; 35 courses in 28 communities of 10,000 to 24,999; and 30 courses in 28 communities of 10,000 or fewer inhabitants.

As shown in table II, great variation exists in the number of grades covered by the 285 courses of study and guides in language arts. Of the 29 State guides, 8 cover 12 or more grades, thus providing English teachers in the 8 States an opportunity to get an overview of the entire program and to note what the pupils have been taught in earlier grades. A much smaller proportion of local courses include a 12-year program within 1 volume. Only

23 out of a total of 256 cover the entire elementary- and second school program in English. On the other hand, 86 of the l courses cover 1 or 2 grades.

More than a third (11) of the State guides provide a full 6-y program from grades 7 through 12; whereas, only a sixth of local courses cover the same junior-senior high school ye Thirty-one of the local courses are for the 3-year junior l school, and 40 for the 3-year senior high school.

In general, State and large city school systems are more li to have well-articulated programs covering several years. In most recently published courses the trend is toward 6- to 12-y programs. Where a separate volume was published for e grade, committees usually provided an outline of the entire l school language arts program or the 12-year program in the few pages of the volume.

Table I.—256 local courses of study from 164 sources

From localities having a population of—	Number of localities	Number of courses
1	2	3
Below 10,000	28	30
10,000–24,999	28	35
25,000–49,999	30	35
50,000–74,999	15	34
75,000–99,999	7	7
100,000–199,999	20	50
200,000–499,999	21	36
500,000–999,999	11	24
Over 1,000,000	4	5

Limitations of the Study

Obviously, one must not assume that courses of study giv complete and true reflection of the instruction offered all pu in the English classroom. Teachers are reminded in most cour that the program must be adapted to the needs and interests pupils. Many activities, learning experiences, and even units offered on an optional basis. Teachers are encouraged by so courses to be imaginative and creative in attaining objectives to deviate from the courses of study whenever the objectives be accomplished more successfully in other ways.

The language arts programs included in this study cannot be considered a representative sample of all those in public schools of the United States. Perhaps schools which are engaged in curriculum work may have programs which are less traditional, more flexible, and more closely geared to local needs than those schools which have not prepared or are not developing guides and courses of study. At least, one cannot assume that the present findings concerning language arts programs reflect accurately other language arts programs throughout America.

Table II.—Grade range of teaching guides and courses of study

Grade range	State guides	Local courses	Total
1	2	3	4
12 Grades, or more	8	23	31
Grades K–14	--------	3	3
Grades K–12	2	7	9
Grades 1–12	6	13	19
5–11 Grades	11	52	63
Grades 4–9	--------	1	1
Grades 4–12	--------	1	1
Grades 6–12	--------	2	2
Grades 7–12	11	43	54
Grades 8–12	--------	4	4
Grades 9–14	--------	1	1
3–4 Grades	4	95	99
Grades 7–9	--------	31	31
Grades 9–11	--------	4	4
Grades 9–12	4	20	24
Grades 10–12	--------	40	40
1–2 Grades	6	86	92
Grades 7–8	--------	6	6
Grades 9–10	1	2	3
Grades 10–11	--------	2	2
Grades 11–12	1	--------	1
Grade 7	--------	12	12
Grade 8	--------	8	8
Grade 9	1	15	16
Grade 10	1	13	14
Grade 11	1	16	17
Grade 12	1	12	13

Chapter II

Preparation of Courses of Study

THE MANNER in which courses of study are prepared today varies greatly. In some cities and States, scores of professional personnel representing many levels of instruction and diverse specialties may work under the direction of a steering committee for several years to develop a curriculum guide. Or, at the other extreme, a teacher may prepare a "guide" or syllabus in a few hours or days by using the table of contents in a basic textbook as the outline for the year's work. Obviously, the administrative leadership and the professional assistance available help to determine the quality of curriculum work accomplished, as well as the professional benefits realized by teachers engaged in this type of inservice activity.

Fewer than one-half of the bulletins and guides examined indicate the type of personnel involved in their preparation. The types of personnel and their methods of work are described below.

How Is Curriculum Work Initiated?

According to this study, the high school principal and department chairman usually initiated and provided leadership for course-of-study production and revision in local schools. In large cities, an assistant superintendent, a curriculum director, or a language arts supervisor frequently had the responsibility for stimulating interest and guiding course of study development or revision.

In cities having a department of curriculum in the central office, the assistant superintendent, the supervisor of language arts, or the curriculum director often appointed a steering committee con-

sisting of one or more English teachers from each high school, one or more librarians, counselors, and sometimes teachers of subjects other than English.

Nearly a fifth of the State and local courses of study examined were initiated or written in conjunction with a workshop. Usually, the workshop was carried on during the summer months at the local school, a nearby college, or at the State university. At the workshops, teachers identified local and national needs of youth in the language arts; reviewed the research in reading, spelling, and language; studied adolescent interests and learning processes; skimmed and read books for adolescents; set up aims in language arts; developed scope and sequence charts for language and reading skills; prepared resource and teaching units; and engaged in other professional activities related to course of study development.

Within the past few years, language arts guides and courses of study have been produced in whole or in part at local school workshops in Austin, Tex.; Orange, Tex.; Tulsa, Okla.; Eugene, Oreg.; Oakland, Calif.; Richmond County, Ga.; Gary, Ind.; Indianapolis, Ind.; Montgomery County, Md.; Baltimore County, Md.; and Dearborn, Mich. Among the States which have used workshops in planning and developing language arts bulletins are Florida, Mississippi, Nebraska, and Virginia.

Not all workshops for curriculum development were scheduled for the summer. During the school year some administrators arranged "curriculum days" so that teachers could define instructional problems, plan for the writing of resource units, and listen to talks on new methods, materials, and research findings. These professional activities were usually carried on during regular school time. Pupils usually did not attend school at such time. Where teachers were paid on a 10-month basis, curriculum workshops were sometimes conducted before classes began in the fall or from 1 to 4 weeks after school closed in the spring.

Where responsibilities for curriculum leadership or production were placed upon one or more English teachers within a city, a few schools released such teachers from teaching responsibilities to compensate them for time spent on curriculum work. Schools in Kalamazoo, Mich.; El Paso, Tex.; and Indianapolis, Ind., are among those which have followed this practice in course of study production.

In cities having a centralized curriculum and supervisory staff, the curriculum director or his qualified assistants promoted curriculum activity through departmental meetings and the appoint-

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ment of able and interested teachers to committees. In a few instances, curriculum work was the outgrowth of research studies or a survey of pupil achievement in reading, writing, speaking, spelling, and other areas. However, not many schools studied the needs, deficiencies, and weaknesses of their own students before embarking on a program of curriculum development or revision.

In State departments of education where statewide guides and courses of study were prepared, the responsibility for curriculum development was usually placed upon the director of secondary education or the supervisor of secondary education. As these professional persons were responsible for providing curriculum leadership and guidance in several secondary-school subjects, the time which they could spend on any one subject-matter area was sometimes limited. Also, some of them may not have had the specialized professional knowledge in reading, literature, and language, or the experience in teaching high school English needed to work closely with language arts committees designing or modifying their curriculum. Under such conditions, these directors or supervisors obtained the assistance of university specialists or supervisors and teachers of language arts who identified curriculum problems, furnished advice, and helped prepare materials. (See table III.)

Table III.—Personnel assisting in preparation of 21 State guides*

Personnel	State departments of education	Percent
1	2	3
1. High school English teachers	21	100
2. Other teachers	12	57
3. Administrators	18	86
4. State supervisors	17	81
5. State curriculum directors	19	90
6. Librarians	7	33
7. Audiovisual directors	1	5
8. Counselors	1	5
9. Research specialists	3	14
10. Consulting specialists from colleges, universities, etc.	18	86
11. Students	3	14
12. Lay persons	3	14

*The only teaching guides and courses of study referred to in table III are those which indicated the type of personnel who prepared them.

How Are Courses of Study Developed?

As shown in table III, p. 8, the persons who usually assisted with the preparation of State teaching guides were teachers of language arts, administrators, special consultants, State supervisors, and State curriculum directors. Librarians helped in the preparation of only 20 percent of the local courses of study and 33 percent of the State teaching guides despite the fact that most language arts courses recommend extensive reading of books by pupils and also contain bibliographies of books for them. Only 1 out of 21 State guides mentions the use of audiovisual directors or counselors; and only 3 refer to advice and assistance received from research specialists, from students, and from lay persons.

In the planning and preparation of local courses of study, teachers of language arts participated more frequently than administrators or other school personnel, as shown in table IV.

Table IV.—Personnel preparing 104 local courses of study*

Personnel	School systems	Percent
1	2	3
1. High school English teachers	104	100
2. Other teachers	24	23
3. Administrators	40	38
4. Supervisors of instruction	26	25
5. Curriculum directors	32	31
6. Librarians	21	20
7. Audiovisual specialists	7	7
8. Counselor and guidance specialists	11	11
9. Research specialists	9	9
10. Consulting specialists from colleges, State departments, etc.	41	39
11. Students	3	3
12. Lay persons	5	5

*The only teaching guides and courses of study referred to in table IV are those which indicated the type of personnel who prepared them.

A much smaller percentage of administrators, supervisors of instruction, and curriculum directors helped with the preparation of local courses of study than with State bulletins. However, 86 percent of the State and 39 percent of the local curriculum com-

mittees whose bulletins are included in this part of the survey reported that they had received help from outside consultants—usually from colleges and universities, big city school systems, or other sources.

As shown in tables III and IV, college and university professors frequently were called upon as consultants to assist with the production of curriculum bulletins. States which have made extensive use of such professional assistance include Florida, Iowa, Mississippi, Nebraska, New Jersey, North Carolina, South Dakota, Utah, and Virginia. In the bulletin *Language Arts in the Public Schools of North Carolina, Years 1–12*, the following statement of appreciation appears:

> * * * in this undertaking we have had the interest and cooperation of the institutions of higher learning, assisting in the endeavor by providing the services of many of their able faculty members. Particularly do we commend the assistance of the training schools in our State teachers' colleges who gave untiringly of their services. * * * [1]

In small communities having one high school, curriculum production was usually done by a committee of English teachers assisted by the principal. Where there were junior high schools in the district, the curriculum committee often included English teachers from both junior and senior high schools, especially when a 6-year language arts program was planned.

An illustration of how consultant and teachers plan and work together is given in the Foreword of *A Guide for Instruction in the Language Arts for Duluth Senior High Schools*:

> Three years ago Dr. Dora V. Smith, professor of education, University of Minnesota, was invited to Duluth to speak to the English teachers of the high schools. She explained the unit method of teaching and the ways of building up a curriculum.
>
> Teachers were then invited to membership in a general committee whose chief task it was to develop an English curriculum for the senior high schools of Duluth. They elected a president and a secretary, divided themselves into grade-level groups, and began their work. Grade-level committees made reports to the entire committee on the progress they found in the field of English throughout the country.
>
> Each teacher developed a unit for her own grade level. These units were distributed throughout the English classes in the city and were tested out at the various grade levels. Finally, these units were put in mimeographed form and were again tested in the English classes. * * * These units have now been put into a printed looseleaf folder and will again be distributed to the high schools.
>
> The curriculum will remain flexible. Units will be modified, omitted, or added as the need arises.

[1] State superintendent of public instruction, Raleigh, 1950, p. 9.

To provide opportunities for close articulation between the elementary and the secondary schools, some curriculum committees include teachers representing levels from kindergarten through grade 12. Before producing *Guideposts for the Language Arts*, the Seattle public schools had a committee representing all levels from kindergarten through high school which worked with the curriculum division for 5 years studying their school program. In their *Guideposts*, the committee set forth the goals, the sources of content material, learning experiences and language activities, and the sequences of supporting skills considered essential to the development of an effective language program. Later, using the *Guideposts* as a basic framework, a steering committee and committees of 6 to 8 teachers at each grade level developed *Unit Plans for the Language Arts, A Planned Sequence From Grades Seven Through Twelve.*[2]

A comprehensive program in curriculum development in language arts has been carried on since 1948 by the Oakland public schools. The introduction to the Oakland *Language Arts Guide, Third Progress Report, Grades Seven Through Twelve* explains that work on the guide "is a cooperative enterprise with student-teacher-administrator participation.* * * The entire program of language arts has been developed with representatives from all grade levels on the planning committee. In addition to this vertical committee concerned with articulation * * * horizontal committees have worked to develop the guide for use by teachers of the various grade or cycle levels."[3]

Before work was begun on the Oakland guide, a committee of three teachers, who were released from regular duties, visited every secondary school in the city and conferred with teachers about their instructional problems. Teachers were encouraged to make suggestions for improving the educational program. After all problems were recorded, analyzed, and grouped, the committee studied ways in which they might be solved. Among the teachers there was consensus that preparation and use of a language arts guide was one way to improve the educational program. Therefore, a planning committee was appointed to study the entire problem and to plan the pattern of the guide. On the planning committee were 2 assistant superintendents, 4 supervisors, 2 prin-

[2] Seattle Public Schools, Washington, 1954, p. v–vi.
[3] Superintendent's Cabinet, Oakland, Calif., Public Schools, 1953, p. 2.

cipals, and 10 teachers from different grade levels. A university consultant also worked with the committee.

After the planning committee had prepared tentative plans, they were reviewed and revised by various teacher and educator groups. Working committees were then appointed to develop the guide in detail.

> The method followed by all committee was one of working out general plans, submitting such plans to teacher groups for reactions and suggestions, then modifying the plans and implementing them by the development of specific details.* * * In addition to help from the teachers and students, the committee procured research studies, courses of study, and other helpful materials. Data on child growth and development provided the starting point for study by the entire committee. Consultant service was made available upon request by committee members.[4]

Months later, a writing committee of four members was selected from the secondary-school working committees to organize materials and prepare a report. Members of that committee were released from regular instructional duties. After the report was prepared, it was submitted to other committees and to a summer workshop group in language arts for further review. Weeks later, in time for the beginning of classes, a progress report was issued to teachers.

The report included the following sections: "We Go Forward," "We Believe," "How We Use This Guide in Our School," "We Improve Our Ways of Doing Together," "The Children," "We Plan Together," "We Improve Our Speaking and Listening," "We Use Learning Aids," and "How To Develop A Unit."[5] After using the teaching guide for a year, teachers made suggestions for its revision. Based on their ideas, two new sections, "We Improve Our Reading" and "We Improve Our Writing," were incorporated in the *Second Progress Report*, which appeared a year after the first guide was published. Other additions and revisions, including sample lessons, were made. Each year further revisions and additions, such as "We Provide for Individual Differences," were made in response to teachers' requests.

Inservice education activities for all teachers were carried on in conjunction with the work on the teaching guide. Extension courses were offered by colleges and universities to satisfy requests of language arts teachers. In their own classes, teachers tried out new materials and experimented with various methods.

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[4] Ibid., p. 2.
[5] Ibid., p. 2-4.

Citywide workshops were carried on during the school year and summer by teachers, supervisors, and professors. Principals, curriculum assistants, and chairmen and heads of English departments met several times to discuss ways of using the guide. Faculty meetings were also conducted to enlist the cooperation of all teachers in stressing communication skills in their classes.

A somewhat similar method of developing courses of study in language arts has been used for many years by the Denver public schools. First, a steering committee was formed by teacher representatives from kindergarten through the 12th grade. This steering committee coordinated the efforts of curriculum committees for each level of instruction: Elementary grades, the junior high school, and the senior high school, as well as the efforts of special committees on spelling and use of the library.

A committee survey of teaching practices in English showed a need for an integrated 13-year program in the Denver public schools:

> * * * The committee then studied the needs, characteristics, and interests of children of various ages, with particular reference to what is known about child growth and development in use of language. After making an investigation of modern theory, research, and promising practices in the field of English throughout the county, the committee developed a tentative statement of philosophy. This statement was distributed to the teachers of English in the Denver public schools for comment and suggestions, as were several revisions, before the final form was achieved. Under the supervision and direction of the steering committee, the curriculum committees shouldered the major burden of allocating experiences, processes, and skills to the appropriate grade levels.
>
> The committees screened hundreds of suggestions for units which had been submitted by teachers throughout the city and country, grouping and consolidating whenever possible. After the committees had decided upon the titles and general content of units for each particular grade level, a single unit was chosen for each grade to be fully developed as an illustrative example, so that teachers might create other units in a similar manner.
>
> Writers were then chosen to prepare the units, and teachers with specialized training were selected to write the chapters on spelling, handwriting, appraisal, and library services.[6]

Denver teachers are encouraged to develop fully the units described briefly in the Denver guide and to share successful units with other interested teachers. They are also advised that they should be thoroughly familiar with the experiences of pupils in

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[6] *A Program in English: A Guide for Teaching the Language Arts, Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve.* Denver, Colo., Public Schools, The Department of Instruction, Stock No. 90254, 1958, Introduction, p. vii.

grades just below and above their own, and that they might profit by having an understanding of the total English program throughout the 13-year sequence.

Occasionally, high school administrators ask parents and other local citizens to offer suggestions on educational policy or to help with the school's utilization of community resources such as public libraries, courts, museums, and television stations. For example, the educational staff of the Euclid, Ohio, public schools sought advice from both lay people and students in developing a planned curriculum from 1952 to 1954. Under the director of instruction, staff members were organized during the first year into committees which made vertical studies in subject matter, guidance, and other areas. The following school year, committees of teachers were organized by grade levels, from kindergarten through the sixth grade; and by departments for the junior and senior high schools. According to the preface of the *Teaching Guide, English Studies, Grades 10–12*:

> The making of this teaching guide was completely democratic. Not only did teachers of much experience work with teachers with only a few years in the classroom, but also students' opinions were solicited. The deans and other administrators were consulted freely on questions of organization, content, and course requirements. The final writing of the units was done by members of the department, each one developing the course which he is teaching. The units were then referred to the committee of the whole for revision and acceptance. * * * [1]

In general, the State courses of study currently in use have been developed along lines similar to those described above. However, committees producing State courses and guides are usually larger and sometimes represent a wider variety of professional competencies and interests than curriculum committees in local school districts. Supervisors and curriculum directors as well as language arts specialists on the State department staff are always active in preparing State courses of study; however, according to information given in the State bulletins, audiovisual specialists, counselors and guidance directors, students, and lay persons, librarians, and research specialists have seldom been consulted in the preparation of courses of study (table III), particularly those produced before 1950.

Some States have made extensive use of available resources in preparing language arts guides. For example, the University of the State of New York (the State education department) involved

[1] Euclid, Ohio, Public Schools, Curriculum Bulletin 17, 1954, Preface.

more than 1,000 classroom teachers, principals, and supervisors, and thousands of pupils in preparing the *Syllabus in English for Secondary Schools, Grades 7–12*[8] more than two decades ago. Under the leadership of the State supervisor of English, teachers set up objectives, prepared units, evaluated proposed materials, and carried on classroom studies in which they obtained students' reactions to literary selections. Consultative services of university professors, librarians, supervisors, and administrators were also obtained.

In the State of Pennsylvania, many lay and professional persons helped with the production of *A Course of Study in English for the Secondary Schools.*[9] Staff members from the department of public instruction, pupils, parents, businessmen, university and college consultants, school administrators, teachers, and many others helped to produce this language arts guide. Chairmen of nine district committees in the State collected ideas and materials for the bulletin.

Publications of the National Council of Teachers of English, particularly *The English Language Arts* prepared by the Commission on the English Curriculum, have influenced the philosophy, aims, and content of most courses of study produced since 1952. The most recent volume of the Commission, *The English Language Arts in the Secondary Schools*, is already being used by teachers engaged in curriculum work in El Paso, Tex.; Washington, D. C.; Louisville, Ky.; and several other places. *Teaching English Usage*, by Robert C. Pooley, has undoubtedly influenced committees preparing the grammar and usage sections of curriculum bulletins on language arts. Based upon research findings, it offers a careful analysis of the relative importance of items of usage and suggests various levels at which items should be taught. Reference to Dr. Pooley's work is made in several courses of study.

Principles Followed in Curriculum Work

What principles seem to be effective in course of study development and revision? What techniques used by administrators and curriculum directors seem to produce desired results? Briefly, here are some techniques and principles that are recommended in the various courses of study:

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[8] Albany, State Education Department, 1936, reprint 1948, p. 8.

[9] Harrisburg, Commonwealth of Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, Bulletin 290, 1953, p. xi.

1. Through a schoolwide survey, discover the curricular problems teachers are concerned about; then, focus attention on a few major problems that they have in common.

2. If necessary, use the broken-front approach—that is, first involve those persons who are most interested in studying and changing the curricular program; then, as they move ahead, encourage others to join them. Avoid high-pressure methods.

3. Focus attention on a few major problems rather than many minor ones.

4. Provide necessary books, instructional resources, consultants, clerical help, etc., and an adequate budget to enable the curriculum committee to do its job.

5. Help teachers and others to see the total role of all participants and to understand their own job in the entire undertaking.

6. Keep the attention of the working group focused on: (*a*) What is being accomplished; and (*b*) what remains to be done.

7. Have a long-range program.

8. Involve in the curriculum work the persons to be affected by the changes recommended.

Chapter III

Guide Lines to Curriculum Development

ABRAHAM LINCOLN once said, "If we could first know where we are, and whither we are tending, we could better judge what to do, and how to do it." In planning a course of study, curriculum workers, too, must determine where they are and where they want to go before they decide what to do and how to do it; for there are many divergent roads which a curriculum committee may follow. For instance, how do teachers, administrators, and others decide whether an adolescent should memorize a Shakespearian soliloquy, or learn the principal parts of irregular verbs, or read certain literary selections, or practice letter writing? Or how do they determine when and how a pupil can best learn to read with critical judgment?

An analysis of available courses of study in secondary-school language arts shows that most curriculum committees follow definite guidelines in their work.

In general, these four guidelines are used, in whole or in part: (1) A statement of educational philosophy; (2) an outline of general goals for secondary education, which usually indicates their relationships to language arts; (3) a statement of the interests, needs, growth characteristics, and developmental tasks of adolescents; and (4) valid research findings in language arts.

The First Guideline: A Philosophy of Education

Stemming from the nature and needs of society and a respect for the integrity of the individual, the first guideline is sometimes a philosophy of education. Slightly more than half of the State and local courses of study in high school language arts include brief to lengthy statements of educational philosophy which have served

as a guideline to curriculum development. Most of the statements in local courses are brief and sometimes sketchy. As shown by table V, 52 percent of the State courses and 53 percent of the local courses include such statements. The trend among State courses published since 1950 is toward the inclusion of a statement of educational philosophy or reference to such a statement in an overall guide to curriculum planning for the State.

Table V.—Statement of educational philosophy as a guideline

Courses	Number examined [1]	Number		Percent of—	
		Using	Not using	Use	Nonuse
1	2	3	4	5	6
State	21	11	10	52	48
Local	164	87	77	53	47

[1] Where a State or local district published separate volumes between grades 7–12, the volumes were counted as 1 course for this table.

The language arts platform of the Tulsa, Okla., secondary schools includes a statement of educational philosophy which explains the need for public education in a democratic society. Also, as the following paragraphs show, it makes clear the obligation of the school in a society which respects both the rights of the individual and the welfare of all the people:

> The method of democracy places responsibility on the individual, working with other individuals, for the solution of problems which are common to the general welfare. It is assumed that through a process of interaction of ideas * * * the most satisfactory rules of happy group living may be evolved. It is moreover assumed that each individual has a contribution to the attainment of the general welfare within the limit of his capacities.
>
> The State provides public education on the theory that a competent, educated citizenry is essential to the democratic process. Therefore, it becomes the obligation of the school to develop the potentialities of the individual for living a happy and satisfying life and for assuming an effective role in a democratic society.[1]

The strong influence that education has on the way people think, live, and act, and the responsibility that the schools have for the development of all American youth has been stated in "A Philosophy of Education for America," reprinted in the high school language arts courses for the Baltimore County, Md., public schools.

[1] *Curriculum Guide for Teachers of the Language Arts in Secondary Schools.* Tulsa, Okla., Public Schools, 1952, p. 4–5.

This statement, which was first issued by the Maryland State Department of Education, declares that:

> A philosophy of life is a way of looking at life; a philosophy of education is a way of looking at education. Just as the education of an individual changes him—transforms him in some way into a different person as a result of his experiences, so the education of a people shapes the character and the destiny of that people. * * *
>
> America has chosen the democratic way of life. If her democracy is to be improved and strengthened, the *quality of living* of the individual members of her society must be improved; and all the social agencies which bear upon and change the individual—the home, the church, the school, the community—must share joint responsibility for this task. However, since the school is the recognized agent of society for the formal, organized education of youth, it has a special responsibility for redefining its purposes and implementing these purposes in an educational program of greater effectiveness for our democratic society. Whatever the nature of the program evolved is, it must recognize the fact that education must be organized and planned to meet the needs of *all* American youth and not a selected few; it must accept the thesis that education is to be conceived not merely as having intellectual and cultural ends, but also as having purposes as broad as life itself. The public high school must be thought of as the place where normal teenage youth learn to do the things they are going to need to know how to do in the America of today and tomorrow; and where at the same time they have opportunity for maximum all-around personal development—physical, intellectual, social, and moral.[3]

Concern for the maximum development of each pupil is frequently expressed in statements of educational philosophy. For example, the language arts guide for the Denver public schools points out that there must be certain common goals for youth, and at the same time there must be provisions for the development of each pupil's special talents and interests. This recognition of individual differences among pupils and the responsibility that teachers have for adapting instruction accordingly is often evident in statements of educational philosophy. (See ch. VII.)

A few courses of study point out the implications of these differences for teachers and other staff members. For example, the faculty of the Euclid, Ohio, public schools in its "Statement of Beliefs" declares, in part, that:

> Schools should continually study the individual child, maintain a cumulative record of his development, and use the findings.
>
> The different needs and abilities of children require differing standards of achievement.
>
> The curriculum should consist largely of problem-solving situations

[3] *A Tentative Course of Study in Language Arts, Grade Eleven.* Towson, Md., Baltimore County Public Schools, 1958, p. 4–5.

on the level of the child's understanding and typical of basic problems of life.

The curriculum should improve pupils' emotional health, especially their feeling of individual worth, security, affection, recognition, and self-reliance.

The curriculum should develop from the immediate known interests of youth and should stimulate the physical, moral, and intellectual growth of every child.

The schools should cooperate with the home, church, and other worthy agencies which affect the growth and development of youth.[3]

The division of English of the Cleveland public schools in its statement of philosophy also points out the responsibilities teachers have for recognizing and providing for differences among pupils. It declares that:

An English teacher should be able:

To recognize the individual differences among pupils, and to provide for the individual's success through an adjustment of subject matter and methods, rather than through the establishment of inflexible criteria for all;

To find materials within the range of pupils' understanding—but not be afraid to ask pupils to stretch in order to reach ideas and ideals better and nobler than they would find themselves;

To overcome through techniques, methods, personality, and personal interest the antipathy of those pupils who regard English as a mixture of abstract grammar, "highbrow" literature, and a study of words they will never need to use.[4]

The idea of motivating pupils to work to capacity to "reach ideas and ideals better and nobler than they would find themselves" is most important today—particularly with average and above average students who are coasting along the path of mediocrity. Outstanding teachers are those who can open new vistas, illuminate long-range goals, and extend the intellectual horizons of their pupils, as well as develop in them a discriminating appreciation of our cultural heritage.

What else do the statements of educational philosophy include? Here are some ideas which recur in various courses of study and teaching guides:

1. The dynamic nature of our technological society requires constant curricular change.
2. The curriculum should be flexible but also have a scope and sequence pattern based upon youths' needs, interests, and growth characteristics.
3. Youth learn by reading, listening, observing, thinking, and then by doing—with the guidance and help of a qualified teacher.

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[3] *Teaching Guide, English Studies, Grades 10-12.* Euclid, Ohio, Public Schools, Curriculum Bulletin 17, 1954, p. 2-3.

[4] *English Activity Outlines, Grades 7, 8, 9.* Cleveland, Ohio, Public Schools, 1954, p. 3.

4. Education results from all the experiences which an individual has in the school, home, community, and elsewhere.
5. Schools must educate the total child. They must help him assume his physical, social, emotional, mental, and other developmental tasks.
6. Pupils learn many things at the same time: Knowledge, skills, attitudes, appreciations, etc. Therefore, schools must consider the effect which each type of learning experience has on the child as a whole. For instance, how does an assignment which requires a slow learner to memorize 50 lines of difficult verse affect his attitude toward poetry?
7. Learning begins at (or even before) birth and continues until death.

The Second Guideline: General Objectives of American Education and Aims of Language Arts

Since the establishment of the first Latin grammar school in Boston in 1635, the general goals of the American secondary school have been defined at regular intervals and with varied terminology. However, after 1918, when the historic Seven Cardinal Principles were stated by the Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education, few major changes were made in the expressed goals of public secondary education until publication of the recent volume *Behavioral Goals of General Education in High School.*[5]

In 1938 the Educational Policies Commission redefined, classified, expanded, and brought up-to-date the general objectives of education in its bulletin *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy.* Since then, this statement has been influential in determining the purposes of the public school curriculum. Numerous courses of study in English are based upon these four groups of objectives identified by the Educational Policies Commission:

1. The Objectives of Self-Realization.
2. The Objectives of Human Relationship.
3. The Objectives of Economic Efficiency.
4. The Objectives of Civic Responsibility.[6]

In preparing the *Guide to Secondary Education in Oregon for the School Years 1955–57,* the State department of education and a committee of teachers and administrators used both the Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education and the statement of the Educational Policies Commission. The Georgia State Department of

[5] Will French and Associates, *Behavioral Goals of General Education in High School.* New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1957.

[6] Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association of the United States and the American Association of School Administrators, Washington, D. C., September 1938, p. 47.

Education recommends in *Curriculum Framework for Georgia Schools* that the objectives set forth by the Educational Policies Commission be used by curriculum committees within the State. The 1958 *Source Guide for the English Language Arts*, produced for teachers in Indiana, also lists the Educational Policies Commission's objectives.

Many curriculum committees preparing courses of study in language arts have profited by using the four areas identified by the Educational Policies Commission as a frame of reference, by weighing the specific objectives listed under each of these four groupings, and by considering the relationship of language arts to these objectives. For example, under the area of self-realization are several objectives for which language arts teachers have assumed a major responsibility. They are:

> *The Inquiring Mind.* The educated person has an appetite for learning.
>
> *Speech.* The educated person can speak the mother tongue clearly.
>
> *Reading.* The educated person reads the mother tongue efficiently.
>
> *Writing.* The educated person writes the mother tongue effectively. * * *
>
> *Sight and Hearing.* The educated person is skilled in listening and observing. * * *
>
> *Intellectual Interests.* The educated person has mental resources for the use of leisure.
>
> *Esthetic Interests.* The educated person appreciates beauty.
>
> *Character.* The educated person gives responsible direction to his own life.[7]

Within the other three areas—human relationship, economic efficiency, and civic responsibility—are many objectives for which the language arts teacher, along with other teachers, assumes responsibility. These include respect for humanity, cooperation, courtesy, appreciation of homelife, good work habits, occupational efficiency, social understanding, critical judgment, tolerance, and devotion to democracy.

Sometimes directly, but more often indirectly, the general objectives in English courses of study are based upon the Cardinal Principles of Education or the four areas defined by the Educational Policies Commission.

For example, the objectives and areas proposed by the Educational Policies Commission were used as a starting point for grades 7, 8, 9, and 11 in guides for the teaching of English in the Manitowoc, Wis., public schools. For grade 7, the guide includes

[7] Educational Policies Commission, op. cit. p. 50.

work on orientation to the school, the development of good study habits, and living successfully in the home, school, and community. For grade 8, the following objectives are listed:

A. Self-realization:

1. To learn to appreciate the contributions of others to our common cultural heritage.
2. To develop greater skill in reading, both oral and silent.
3. To * * * broaden * * * reading tastes and to foster * * * enjoyment of good stories and poems.
4. To help overcome the fear of participating before a group.
5. To develop a freedom of expression in oral and written work * * *
6. To learn to discriminate among the offerings of screen, radio, and television, as well as among magazines and books.

B. Human relations:

1. To develop an understanding of human relationships through the study of generally recognized literature, as well as through that which is contemporary.
2. To learn to evaluate moral and ethical standards as depicted in the literature studied.
3. To help rid the mind of prejudices against any group and to learn to evaluate the individual on defensible grounds.
4. To develop an awareness of * * * problems.
5. To write mailable, friendly letters.

C. Economic efficiency:

1. To learn to write mailable business letters.
2. To understand the need for seeing a job through to its completion.
3. To acquire habits of neatness and orderliness in presenting all assignments.
4. To learn to evaluate fairly the work of self and others.

D. Civic efficiency:

1. To learn to accept responsibility, meeting all assignments on time and to the best of one's ability.
2. To encourage participation in group activities.
3. To listen attentively to what others have to say and to accept their contributions on their own merits.
4. To learn the true meaning of criticism and to learn to give and take it in the proper spirit.[8]

The Committee on Curriculum Problems in Secondary-School English of the San Francisco Unified School District also used the broad-area approach in setting up the *Framework for Secondary School English.*[9] The committee was guided by the proposition that instruction in English has final goals in common with all instruction in American schools, that is, the self-realization, social

[8] *A Guide for the Teaching of English in the Eighth Grade.* Manitowoc, Wis. Public Schools, 1955, p. 1–2.

[9] San Francisco, Calif., Unified School District, 1954, p. 1.

competence, economic competence, and civic competence of the student.

In recent years, statements made by the Commission on the English Curriculum of the National Council of Teachers of English concerning general objectives have had a steadily increasing influence on persons preparing guides and courses of study in language arts.

As stated by the NCTE Curriculum Commission, the major purposes of American education are, in general:

(1) cultivation of satisfying and wholesome personal lives;
(2) development of social sensitivity and effective participation in the life of the local community, the Nation, and the world;
(3) preparation for vocational competence.[10]

In volume III of its series, the Curriculum Commission refers to "four areas of growth which should be stimulated by the secondary-school program: growth of boys and girls as individual persons, as members of social groups, as citizens, and as workers."[11] Obviously, these four areas are very similar to those defined by the Educational Policies Commission.

The NCTE objectives have served as the point of departure for curriculum work in several parts of the country. In Aberdeen, S. Dak., the Language Arts Steering Committee developed a philosophy for the language arts program after a careful study and discussion of *The English Language Arts*. It also adopted the major purposes of American education as listed by the Commission on the English Curriculum. Committees planning the 1956 Minnesota course of study for high school language arts and the Duluth, Minn., course followed the same guidelines.

In developing its *Framework for Secondary School English*, the San Francisco committee accepted as fundamental to its program the ten major goals for students defined by the Curriculum Commission of the National Council of Teachers of English in chapter III of *The English Language Arts*. These goals, which were also used in the Florida bulletin *Experiencing the Language Arts*, are as follows:

1. Wholesome personal development.
2. Dynamic and worthwhile allegiances through heightened moral perception and a personal sense of values.
3. Growing intellectual curiosity and capacity for critical thinking.

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[10] Commission on the English Curriculum, National Council of Teachers of English, *The English Language Arts*. New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1952, p. 6–7.

[11] ———, *The English Language Arts in the Secondary School*. New York, NCTE Curriculum Series, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1956, p. 42.

4. Effective use of language in the daily affairs of life.
5. Habitual and intelligent use of the mass modes of communication.
6. Growing personal interests and increasingly mature standards of enjoyment.
7. Effective habits of work.
8. Competent use of language and reading for vocational purposes.
9. Social sensitivity and effective participation in the group life.
10. Faith in and allegiance to the basic values of a democratic society.[12]

Several courses of study in language arts show how the general objectives of secondary education are related to the basic needs of the individual in today's world. These courses usually begin by showing the importance of the language arts in the daily activities of a well-rounded and well-adjusted person. For example, the Minnesota State course, *A Guide for Instruction in the Language Arts*, points out that to be a responsible citizen one must be able to read intelligently and critically, to listen discriminatingly, and to affect the thinking of others through spoken and written language. One must learn how language is used to appeal to emotions for good and evil. Ability to read and write also affects vocational competence; ability in the language arts affects one's social effectiveness. Wide reading can lead to a better understanding of other persons, ethnic groups, and nationalities; it can lead to better community, national, and international relations. Language and literature contribute to one's enjoyment of hobbies, sports, the theater, movies, reading, and many other types of recreation. Also, according to the Minnesota bulletin, language arts can help the individual to become more sensitive to the beauties and values of life, and thus become a happier person.[13]

In a prefatory statement, the Aberdeen, S. Dak., committee has shown the relationships among a philosophy of education, the broad purposes of education, and the aims or goals of teaching the language arts:

ADAPTING OLD GOALS TO NEW CONDITIONS

The goals of teaching the language arts are as old as the ideas of Western civilization; yet each generation faces the task of interpreting these goals anew in the light of the conditions of its own age. To think clearly and honestly, to read thoughtfully, to communicate effectively, and to listen intelligently have always been basic to the perpetuation of democratic ways of living. Men and women who have gained most from literature through the ages have been those who could see in it

[12] San Francisco, Calif., Unified School District, 1954, p. 2.
[13] St. Paul, State Department of Education Curriculum Bulletin No. 18, 1954, p. 7-9.

the reflection of human experience and could yield to its power to quicken the understanding and to sensitize the feelings.

MEETING THE DEMANDS OF MODERN LIFE

* * * As social progress struggles to keep pace with science and invention, men must come to know and understand each other—not for the satisfaction of an idle curiosity as to "how the other half lives," but for the achievement of that social cohesion on which the future of democracy depends. Language is a social instrument. How much it does to improve or to disrupt human relations, both linguists and sociologists are just beginning to realize. The need for a personal and a national sense of values was never greater than it is today. A knowledge and understanding of men and of nations, a careful examination of the values to which both have adhered in the past, a renewed scrutiny of these values as guides for the future, and the development of constructive avenues of intercommunication among men everywhere are primary requisites for intelligent living.

Literature, which has revealed the record of man's thought and spirit through the years, can give perspective on the conflicting ideas and ideals of today's world, granting to youth spiritual insight and a sense of proportion. Reading and expression at the same time can develop his power to use all available sources of information, to think critically, and to express himself with clarity and precision.

This is an urgent world: Democracy is on the march. The foes of democracy give little time for hesitation. More than ever the people of the United States are depending on their schools from the nursery school to college and adult education to fit their sons and daughters to meet adequately the challenge of the times.[14]

For one reason or other, some English curriculum committees either did not define the general objectives of secondary-school education or did not include them in their language arts courses of study. Of 21 State courses examined, 9 devoted no space to the general objectives of education nor did they consider the relationship of language arts to the broad objectives. Thus, approximately 43 percent of the State courses neither employed this curriculum guideline nor referred to another State publication in which it was included.

Percentagewise, as shown in table VI, local courses of study gave slightly less consideration to general objectives than State courses did. Of a total of 164 local guides examined, 72 made no reference to major aims of education. Thus, about 44 percent did not use this guideline; 92, or 56 percent, of the local guides did include a statement about general aims of secondary education or refer to another local publication containing such a statement. In

[14] *"LEARNING THROUGH ACTION." A Guide for Teaching the Language Arts Program in Senior High School.* Aberdeen, S. Dak., 1965, p. II–III.

Table VI.—Use of general objectives as guidelines

Courses	Number courses [1] examined	Number courses		Percent	
		Used	Not used	Used	Not used
	2	3	4	5	6
State	21	12	9	57	43
Local	164	92	72	56	44

[1] Where a State or local district published separate volumes between grades 7 to 12, the volumes were counted as 1 course for this table.

many guides, only a paragraph or two were devoted to the broad purposes of education. However, this percentage is much higher than the one reported by Dr. Smith in 1932; only 14 of 156 courses of study she analyzed referred to the general objectives of secondary education.[15]

Perhaps many of the curriculum committees which did not develop a written statement of general objectives considered them informally while defining specific aims for teaching language arts and while deciding on learning activities to include in the curriculum. Or perhaps some committees were fearful of getting bogged down in the semantic morass of nebulous pedagogical generalities. Unfortunately, too many curriculum committees have toiled for months, or even years, to develop a philosophy and objectives of education only to lose their way in semantic bogs and have their curriculum project disappear in a slough of despond.

But aims are important. Before starting on a journey, a traveler usually knows his destination. If he knows where he wants to go, he can better select a direct and economical route. He can decide how he should travel. General objectives are like the ultimate goal of a man traveling on a long journey. The stopping places en route are the specific aims or immediate goals. The mode of travel and route are the activities in the English curriculum which enable the teacher and pupils to attain the objectives that are most significant. Unless the pupils and teacher have clearly in mind where they are going and unless they believe strongly in the value of their goals and the means of attaining them, there is a good possibility that their classwork will be irrelevant, purposeless, and valueless.

[15] Dora V. Smith. *Instruction in English.* Washington, D. C., U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education Bulletin 1932, No. 17, Monograph No. 20, p. 9.

The Third Guideline: Adolescent Interests, Needs, and Characteristics

Twenty-five years ago, courses of study in English made only passing reference to the interests, needs, and developmental characteristics of youth. The 1932 curriculum study *Instruction in English*[16] made only slight mention of adolescent interests, needs, and characteristics as guidelines to curriculum building. One significant reference was to the use of pupil interest in developing thematic reading units and the free reading movement in the junior high school; another was to composition units organized around "functional centers of expression" in Denver, Colo., and Highland Park, Mich.

During the past 25 years, the importance of student interest as a means of facilitating and strengthening learning has been generally accepted by American educators. As a result, research has been carried on by many psychologists, sociologists, and others in the behavioral sciences to discover young people's interests. In the area of reading interests alone, several major studies and dozens of minor surveys have been conducted.[17]

Needs of youth are also related to the quality of learning, particularly when pupils recognize how their learning experiences will result in the satisfying of needs. Statements of general and specific aims of education are often related to the needs of adolescents. Several courses of study published by State departments of education and metropolitan school systems describe the needs of youth or refer to other publications describing them. One list which has been used by several curriculum committees is "The Imperative Needs of Youth," first published by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals in 1944 and later described in the March, 1947, issue of *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*.

Of the 21 State courses of study 6 contain descriptions of pupils' needs, interests, and characteristics or refer to similar information in other State bulletins. These six courses were produced by the State departments of education in Alabama, Florida, Mississippi, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Virginia. The Florida bulletin also lists "The Imperative Needs of Youth."[18]

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[16] Smith, op. cit., p. 24–25; p. 49–50.

[17] Arno Jewett. "Research Concerning Reading Interests of Secondary-School Pupils." Washington, D. C., Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Resources for Teaching English Series, Circular No. 554, rev. August 1957, 7 p.

[18] The 1958 Indiana *Source Guide for the English Language Arts* also describes the physical, psychological, and social characteristics of pupils that affect the learning of the English language arts. This bulletin appeared too late to be made a part of the present study.

English for Nebraska High Schools, published by the State Department of Education, discusses the importance of knowing both pupil and community needs. In addition, it tells how teachers may obtain and use information about pupils and how English classes may carry on surveys which give an insight into the various aspects of community life.[19]

As part of a statewide curriculum program, the Office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Illinois, published in 1950 a general guide to curriculum development for junior high schools, prepared originally by the Problems Approach Committee of the Wisconsin Cooperative Educational Planning Program. A chapter in that bulletin describes (1) pupils' characteristics and behavior as related to growth, (2) tasks the pupil faces, and (3) what the schools can do. Pupil characteristics are grouped according to physical, social and emotional, and intellectual development and intellectual-cultural interests.[20]

Another State guide, *Curriculum Framework for Georgia Schools*, contains a useful chart which reviews the growth characteristics of youth at different levels of maturity. A second chart suggests numerous learning experiences based upon the growth characteristics of youth and the major objectives of education. The *Framework* was prepared for use by State curriculum committees in developing bulletins, guides, and resource units in various subject areas.

The *Guide to Secondary Education in Oregon* also includes a description of the characteristics and needs of youth from 11 to 13 and from 14 to 16 years. The Foreword to the handbook *Language Arts in Oregon Secondary Schools* under the heading "These Are Our Boys and Girls" also describes today's youth.

One of the first State courses in language arts to outline growth characteristics of youth and the implications for English teachers was *Experiencing the Language Arts*, published by the Florida State Department of Education in 1948. On a double-page spread are four columns headed as follows: "Physical, Mental, and Emotional Characteristics;" "Language Characteristics;" "School Experiences Offering Opportunities for Language Growth;" and "Implications for the Teacher."[21] The characteristics of youth have been described in the same way in chapter II of *The English*

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[19] Lincoln, State Department of Education, 1955, p. 9–15.

[20] *Guides to Curriculum Building, The Junior High School Level.* Springfield, Ill., Secondary School Curriculum Program, Bulletin No. 8, 1950, p. 8–72.

[21] Tallahassee, State Department of Education, Bulletin No. 34, 1948, p. 34–63.

Language Arts in the Secondary School, volume III of the NCTE Curriculum Series.

Characteristics of pupils on the junior and senior high school levels are also delineated in the New Jersey course of study in language arts. Concerning junior high school pupils, the following information is given:

> Most pupils in the upper elementary grades and junior high school are going through a period of rapid growth and change, which make new adjustments necessary. They show marked differences in rate of development; they continue to have need for physical activity.
>
> Because of wide differences in physical, intellectual, emotional, and social development, their performances are very unequal. There is wide variation in reading ability, for instance, ranging in any given grade from primary to adult level. * * *
>
> Because of their broadening experiences and their increasing mental maturity, they are more able to generalize and to comprehend abstract ideas. They want to understand themselves and are interested in finding their own potentialities.
>
> Though they are often uncertain and confused, they are beginning consciously to seek a set of values, a moral code.
>
> They continue to have wide interests. They like variety, adventure, excitement. Many of them are interested in sports, animals, mystery, humor, hobbies, airplanes, movie stars, television, and radio. Girls often take interest in sentiment and romance before the boys do. These pupils like to explore to satisfy their interests and curiosity.
>
> Many of them are beginning to be interested in earning a living.
>
> Both boys and girls are concerned about sex. Boys want to act like boys and girls like girls. It is important to them to become attractive to the opposite sex.
>
> Children of this age usually have a strong desire to be members of a social group patterned on adult clubs, and they usually prefer group games to individual activities. They prefer approval by their peers to that of adults although they still feel the need of the security of adult support.[22]

The New Jersey State course describes senior high pupils in the following words:

> Senior high school pupils are completing the physical changes begun at the junior high school level. Disproportionate rates of physical growth further emphasize the individual differences in intelligence, scholastic achievement, background, and interests. Girls have matured a year or two ahead of boys; now boys are catching up rapidly.
>
> Pupils of this age continue to mature in the ability to reason. They may show unusual powers of abstract thinking.
>
> They need to see the reason for reading and study. They have an intense desire to know, but to be meaningful to them, school work must deal with reality.

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[22] *Growth in Language from Kindergarten Through High School.* Trenton, N. J., State Department of Education School Bulletin No. 17, 1951, p. 122-23.

Emotionally they are somewhat unstable. They form opinions about social problems such as crime and war, but these tend to follow the opinions of their families. They are easily swayed by propaganda.

* * * * * * *

They vary greatly in their interests and tastes. In their reading boys usually prefer books about athletics, science, real adventure, work, mysteries. Girls often prefer best sellers, particularly love stories. Most boys prefer to talk rather than write; but when they have to write they like to describe outdoor activities. Girls enjoy writing letters about friends, dates, or their personal life.

Pupils of this age generally want to explore intellectual esthetic interests without very definite direction, and often concentrate on 1 or 2 hobbies.

They tend to like the stimulation of some popular songs, some television and radio programs, many movies, some recordings, and numerous shows, without much discrimination or sensitivity.

There is a pronounced tendency to join up. Youth loves to belong, and is intensely loyal to organizations. There are two marked groups, the followers and the leaders. The leaders imitate the idols of the hour and the followers are attracted by reflected glory. All conform to group standards. Desire for recognition and praise is universal.

These teen-agers imitate adults but are impatient with adults' conservatism. They resent domination and are becoming independent of adults as helpers and guides.[23]

After each description of high school pupils, the New Jersey bulletin points out the implications for the development of a language arts program; also, it suggests various learning experiences to meet pupils' needs.

As shown by table VII, 43 out of a total of 164 local courses of study deal with the interests, needs, and characteristics of youth. This represents a percentage of 26 as compared with a percentage of 29 for State courses. Also, most State courses provide much more detailed information about the nature of adolescents than local courses do.

Table VII.—Use of adolescent interests, needs, and characteristics as a guideline

Courses	Courses examined [1]	Number		Percent of	
		Using	Not using	Use	Nonuse
1	2	3	4	5	6
State	21	6	15	29	71
Local	164	43	121	26	74

[1] Where a State or local district published separate volumes between grades 7 to 12, the volumes were counted as 1 course for this table.

[23] Ibid., p. 141–42.

A statement of characteristics, needs, and interests of junior and senior high school pupils prefaces the two guides for English teachers recently published by the Indianapolis public schools. The Indianapolis Senior High School guide (grades 9–12) lists the following needs for adolescents:

Need for recognition and approval:
- Appreciation of developing adult status;
- Appreciation of capabilities and encouragement in their development.

Need for developing greater independence and self-confidence.
Need for verbal and physical expression within group:
- Opportunity to perform and succeed in some area;
- Outlets for energy and ideas;
- Opportunity to grow in acceptable ways.

Need for a feeling of belonging in school, family, and social groups.
Need for wholesome activities and associations with opposite sex.
Need for developing sense of personal worth:
- Feeling that one's own opinions are important;
- Feeling of usefulness;
- Feeling of pride in accomplishment.

Need for integrated philosophy of living.
Harmonization of self with ideals and with reality.
A religious belief.
A moral code.[24]

In both junior and senior high school bulletins, the physical, psychological, and social characteristics of youth are identified. Junior high students' needs are listed under the headings: *Physical Needs, Mental Needs, Emotional Needs,* and *Social Needs.* Interests of senior high school youth are grouped under physical, psychological, and social.

The three volumes of the Palo Alto, Calif., Unified School District, *Teacher's Guide for Language Arts in Grades VII, VIII, and IX,* also describe the common characteristics and needs of pupils in each of the junior high school grades. Another California bulletin which gives extensive consideration to the makeup of pupils at different developmental levels is the *Tulare County Cooperative Language Arts Guide.*[25]

After a discussion of the differences and variations among adolescents, the Tulare County guide presents a coherent picture of adolescent characteristics, experiential needs, personal and social needs, language needs, and outcomes. Here is the pattern:

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[24] *The Language Arts, A Tentative Guide for Teachers, Senior High School.* Indianapolis, Ind., Public Schools, Bulletin No. 86, 1955, p. 2.

[25] Visalia, Calif., Tulare County Board of Education, 1949, p. 75–87; p. 89–104.

ADOLESCENT YOUTH ARE LIKE THIS

***Physically*, they—**

- Tire easily.

***Intellectually*, they—**

- Are likely to be confused.

***Emotionally*, they—**

- May worry about the future.

Socially, they—

- Work well in groups.

SO THEY NEED THIS

- A rhythm of rest and activity.
- A philosophy of life.
- Understanding of their moods.
- Many active group learning situations.

THEY NEED TO GROW IN THESE WAYS

***Personally*:**

- Refinement of speech.

***Socially*:**

- Making visitors feel comfortable and at ease.

SO THEY NEED THESE LANGUAGE EXPERIENCES

***Listening*:**

- Getting information from radio, speeches, panel discussions, forums.

***Speaking*:**

- Talking to small groups.

***Reading*:**

- Reading biographies and autobiographies.

***Writing*:**

- Writing business and social letters.

AND THESE SKILLS SHOULD EMERGE

- Selecting key statements from talk or discussion.
- Modulation of voice to suit occasion.
- Gauging speed of reading purpose, scanning, skimming.
- Knowledge of forms for letters, themes, articles.

Source: Visalia, Calif., *Tulare County Cooperative Language Arts Guide*, 1949, p. 76–79.

Below each of the guidelines for grades 7-10, specific details and examples related to the heading are given. A similar developmental chart is given for "THE YOUNG ADULTS" in grades 11-14.

The Fourth Guideline: Research Findings

Findings from two general types of research are being used as guidelines for curriculum development in English: (1) Action research aimed at determining and improving local conditions; and (2) graduate, professional, and other research having general significance. Since an extensive amount of research is available in reading as well as in language, particularly in grammar and usage, curriculum committees have an opportunity to know and use scholarly research in these areas as well as in the other language arts. However, local courses of study analyzed in this survey did not generally reflect such knowledge and use.

Action Research at the Local Level

Although the interests, motivations, habits, and values of youth throughout America are becoming more uniform because of the influence of travel, motion pictures, television, and mass advertising, significant differences continue to exist among youth in goals, values, and interests, as well as in academic attainments in language arts. Teachers need to know what these differences are. Sometimes exceptional cultural, economic, civic, and vocational conditions also have a significant bearing on the educational needs and attainments of youth in a community.

Teachers doing action research acquire professional competencies which may improve their instructional effectiveness and even open to them more responsible and remunerative opportunities.

The values of action research are well stated in the 1953 report of the superintendent of schools, New York City:

> The curriculum, in many instances, is determined more by tradition and opinion than by research. Research must be used to provide additional information on the value of different kinds of instructional materials, how to effect change, and how to get good practices into the classroom. Much more study needs to be given to the kinds of pupil experiences which are best and how the school should organize and teach these experiences.
>
> * * * * * * *

> Research on curriculum which holds the greatest promise is conducted on a cooperative basis with the participation, in various ways, of all people interested in improvement. The use of scientific methods by teachers, supervisors, and researchers, in their attack on a problem is central. Such research starts with actual problems. People change, but they do so only as they understand and gain insight into problems, purposes, methods, procedures, reasons, causes and implications. * * *
>
> A technique now being widely used is action research, a practical method of experimentation in the classroom conducted cooperatively by researchers, groups of teachers, pupils and supervisors. * * * [26]

Before beginning work on *English-Speech Language Arts for Senior High Schools*, the high school division of the New York City schools initiated a survey in 1946 "to arrive at some conclusions as to the efficacy of instruction in English and speech." Results of the survey, published in the 1952 report *Instruction in English and Speech*, were considered in the preparation of the 1956 course of study.

Similarly, action research was carried on in the New York City classrooms to discover the best spelling materials and teaching methods. Results of this research were carefully considered in the development of spelling guides and bulletins for teacher use. Experimentation and research also guided the curriculum work of the language arts committees in Chicago, Ill.; Tulsa, Okla.; Rochester, N. Y.; Lake County and Tulare County, Calif.; and the States of New York and Pennsylvania.

Teachers in Rochester carried on a controlled reading experiment for a year to determine the relative effectiveness of various methods and materials for improving reading in grades 9 and 12. Curriculum committees in Pennsylvania studied the book preferences of over 30,000 pupils in grades 7 through 12 in various communities throughout the State. Items of usage, grammar, and punctuation were grouped and tried out in classes enrolling a total of 2,000 pupils by the New York State Committee before it decided which items were most important and at what levels they should be taught. In the Tulsa, Okla., curriculum guide, teachers included the results of a usage survey showing errors made by pupils in grades 6 through 12, and the frequency of errors at various levels.

A survey revealing the geographic, economic, social, and cultural variations in the community was the starting point for the language arts guide in Tulare County, Calif. The guide reminds teachers of the implications that family values and living conditions have for language instruction.

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[26] *Our Public Schools, Part I. Building the Curriculum.* New York. Report of the Superintendent of Schools of the City of New York. 1952. p. 24–5.

Specific information on pupils' current interests was obtained through an inventory study carried on by English teachers in Lake County, Calif. Results of the study in grades 7–8 and 9–12 were published in the county course of study. The information was offered to teachers for use in motivating learning and as subject matter for language activities. Through a questionnaire, Lake County teachers obtained data on the types of entertainment and activity appealing to students in schools of the county. Questions on entertainment were grouped according to (1) relatively passive entertainment: Reading books, newspapers, magazines; listening to radio; watching television; attending movies; and (2) participation in relatively active hobbies or entertainment: Pets, collections, clubs, sports and games, experiments, construction, and creative arts (dancing). Pupils were questioned about school interests, occupational goals, and wishes for their future. Finally, pupils listed their out-of-school use of language in the areas of listening, speaking, and writing.

The foregoing examples illustrate varied types of information which local and State curriculum committees can obtain about students. However, only a very small percentage of the courses included in this survey mention or describe action research as a guideline for curriculum development.

Using Research With General Significance

Slightly more than half (52 percent) of the State courses of study in language arts refer to generally accepted research findings, whereas only 16 percent of the local courses refer to such research. (See table VIII.) Thus, the variation between State and local courses of study in the use of this guideline is the greatest of all four.

Table VIII.—Use of research findings as a guideline

Courses	Courses examined [1]	Findings		Percent	
		Used	Not used	Use	Nonuse
State	21	11	10	52	48
Local	164	26	138	16	84

[1] Where a State or local district published separate volumes between grades 7 and 12, the volumes were counted as 1 course for this table.

There is no way of knowing exactly to what extent research influenced the development of these courses. Knowledge of research findings in reading, language, and other language arts undoubtedly influenced curriculum committees which did not cite research in their published bulletins. Also, courses of study produced in conjunction with a college workshop or with the aid of a language arts specialist or consultant might have been influenced by the research knowledge of participants.

What types of research in language arts are generally used? Research in the teaching of grammar and usage is referred to in State bulletins on language arts produced in Iowa, Minnesota, New Hampshire, New Jersey, North Dakota, Pennsylvania, and Virginia. Research showing that instruction in formal diagraming does not result in greater writing competence is mentioned in the guide produced in Portland, Oreg. Implementation of research findings in grammar, usage, and elementary linguistics is well illustrated in the language sections of junior high school guides published in 1955 by the public schools of Montgomery County, Md. The influence which language change should have on acceptable usage is pointed out in the Minnesota State bulletin.[27] In general, however, research in grammar and usage has had a negligible influence on the language program.

In addition to using research in language, curriculum committees have used the results of scientific studies showing the frequency of spelling errors in commonly written words and effective methods of teaching spelling and vocabulary. The New York State syllabus used such research as early as 1935. Recent lists of frequently written words, as determined by research, appear in the Indianapolis secondary-school guides published in 1955. The San Francisco guide, *Classroom Practices in the Teaching of English*, includes a list of frequently misspelled words compiled from research studies and from lists of words misspelled by students in classroom writing.

Consistent findings of research concerning reading interests, although not often identified as such, are reflected in the titles of many resource units which are literature centered. Titles of such units are often based upon research showing adolescents' interest in animals, adventure, mystery, humor, outdoor life, famous people, homelife, dating, and romance. Titles of classics

[27] *A Guide for Instruction in the Language Arts, Secondary School, Grades 7–12*, Curriculum Bulletin No. 18, St. Paul, Minn., 1956, p. 15–16.

in order of pupil preference, based on George Norvell's study of *The Reading Interests of Young People*, are given for the 11th and 12th grades in the Tulsa, Okla., guide.[28] A few other guides refer to specific studies of adolescents' reading interests.

Research in developmental and remedial reading, or in such areas as vocabulary development, word recognition, reading for details, reading for main idea, and reading with critical judgment is seldom cited in courses included in the present survey. However, the influence of such research is evident in several courses of study and guides, especially those developed in 1955 or later.

Almost no use of research as a guideline for the preparation of courses of study is found in the other language arts: Speaking and listening. Also, except for findings in spelling, grammar, and usage, research is seldom referred to in sections or units on writing. One reason may be that research in these areas is not as extensive as in reading and language; another reason may be that it is not well known; or a third reason may be that the findings are not generally accepted by teachers.

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[28] *The Language Arts in Secondary Schools.* Tulsa, Okla., Public Schools Curriculum Guide for Teachers, 1952, p. 78 and 83.

Chapter IV

Organization of Language Arts Programs

VARIOUS GUIDE LINES being used for curriculum development in the language arts were noted in chapter III. They are: (*a*) A philosophy of education; (*b*) the general objectives of American education and the relationship of language arts to these objectives; (*c*) adolescent interests, needs, and characteristics; and (*d*) research findings in the language arts. The growing importance of considering the nature, needs, and interests of the adolescent in the selection and placement of curricular content and experiences is particularly evident in courses published since World War II.

Curriculum workers agree that the learning of language, reading, and other skills should be developmental and in accord with the patterns and rates of adolescent growth. However, the fact that maturation affects young people's readiness to learn does not mean that young people acquire outstanding competencies as readers, writers, or speakers without expert instruction. Our present knowledge of adolescent growth merely reminds us that at certain stages in physical, emotional, experiential, and intellectual development, adolescents, as a group, are more ready to learn than at other stages. Of course a skillful teacher who uses excellent instructional materials can foster emotional, experiential, and intellectual readiness for learning as well as take advantage of such readiness in promoting learning.

A basic problem in curriculum work is how to plan a psychologically sound pattern of learning experiences in accord with the guidelines mentioned above, and at the same time provide for a wide range of individual differences in ability, interest, achievement, habits, values, and long-range goals. (See Chapter VII, Providing for Individual Differences.) The scope or boundary lines of the English language arts are nebulous at

best. However, the content and experiences included in the subject of language arts are generally determined by the aims set forth by various professional and lay groups. Among the groups which help to determine these aims are the National Council of Teachers of English, high school administrators, English teachers, curriculum specialists, supervisors of instruction, publishers, and the American people. Of course, much of the general content of the curriculum has its source in the prevailing local, regional, and national culture. Today, the international struggle for the friendship and support of free peoples is also beginning to influence the English curriculum. (See chapter VIII.)

The allocation of learning activities and content at consecutive levels is also determined in part by several things, some of which are: (*a*) Tradition; (*b*) the basic nature of the adolescent; (*c*) the acquired and shifting interests of the adolescent; (*d*) dropout and graduation statistics; (*e*) the economic, social, and intellectual status of the community; (*f*) requirements and standards of institutions of higher learning; (*g*) standardized tests and scholarship requirements; and (*h*) State, National, and international needs or pressures.

Because of the importance of curriculum organization in effective teaching and efficient learning, an effort was made in this survey to determine how learning experiences and subject content were organized in language arts courses of study—especially in grammar, reading, writing, speaking, listening, and literature. Also noted were ways in which differences among individual pupils were provided for in curriculum patterns.

Scope and Sequence Patterns

Curriculum committees in several cities and States have prepared scope and sequence charts for grammar and usage, reading, writing, speaking, and listening. As pointed out in chapter V, a few committees have drawn up such charts for literature. Approximately a third of the publications analyzed for this study include basic spelling lists, usually for each grade level.

A comprehensive scope and sequence chart, "Language Arts Goals for Children and Youth,"[1] has been prepared by the division of instructional services of the Pasadena, Calif., city schools. Goals are expressed in terms of pupil accomplishment desired for

[1] Scope and Sequence Chart. Pasadena City Schools, "Language Arts Goals for Children and Youth," Kindergarten through grade 14, n. d.

each grade from kindergarten through grade 14. Under each of the 15 grade headings at the top of the chart are lists of the abilities, skills, and competencies to be emphasized for each of the language arts. On the left of the chart, the language arts are divided into speaking, listening, handwriting, spelling, grammar, written expression, developmental reading, and literature. A brief statement of the Pasadena teachers' point of view on each of these areas is given.

Teachers using the chart are advised that "The goals indicate the grade level at which the emphasis is placed. However, there must be enough flexibility * * * to meet the special needs of * * * particular groups. Because of individual differences, pupils will vary in the degree to which they attain these goals. Goals not previously attained by a pupil must become the concern of his present teacher."[2]

For grade 8, the chart lists the following goals in the area of developmental reading:

1. Knows *when* to read at a fast or slow pace, and *why*.
2. Continues to look for the main idea in the paragraph; adds details.
3. Increases vocabulary through attention to context.
4. Learns to read and interpret various media—maps, graphs, and charts.
5. Increases skill in the use of table of contents, index, glossary, and footnotes.

In grammar, the chart lists the following activities for pupils at the ninth-grade level:

1. Studies types of sentences: simple, compound, complex.
2. Begins study of direct and indirect objects, predicate nouns, and predicate adjectives.
3. Studies types and correct uses of verbs and pronouns.[3]

If it is used flexibly by teachers, a scope and sequence chart of this type has many values. First, it helps to insure that no important skills, information, appreciations, and other desired learnings are overlooked or neglected by teachers who use the chart. Secondly, it provides for logical as well as psychological development of reading, speaking, listening, and writing skills. Third, it helps to promote articulation between various school levels: The 6-year elementary school, the junior high school, and the senior high school. Fourth, it fixes responsibility for introducing and emphasizing various skills, information, and appreciatons. Fifth, it shows teachers the many interrelationships among the various language arts.

[2] Ibid.
[3] Ibid.

To show the direction of growth which a teacher may expect in language arts from kindergarten through grade 12, the Denver, Colo., guide includes 4 charts, 1 each for reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Each chart has four divisions: Kindergarten through grade 2; grades 3-6; junior high school; and senior high school.[4]

For example, in the chart on *Listening* at the junior high school level, the following section appears:

IK. *Radio, Television:*

Process or skill:

Radio and television programs used in classroom.

Radio and television programs chosen independently.

Expected attainment:

Growth in ability to discern purpose of program and to adjust listening techniques accordingly.

Growth in ability to relate what is heard to own purposes, needs.

Growth in discrimination in selection of programs for entertainment.

Growing skill in visualizing the effects heard on radio: appearance of characters in a radio play, setting of play or program, reactions of others to speech of characters in play, and the like.

Growing awareness of relation between what is heard and what is seen on television.[5]

A process or skill, as explained in the Denver guide, may involve language tools, knowledge, attitudes, techniques, interests, etc., which are fundamental to the performance of any language activity. It may merely be the capitalizing of a proper noun, or it may be a reader's use of context clues to determine the meaning of new words. Whenever possible, the processes and skills have been listed in the approximate order of pupil maturity. Items under *Expected Attainment* are also listed in this order. (See the above section on listening.) Attainment is not intended as a minimum standard but as a direction in which pupils are to grow. In contrast to several other charts, the Denver chart seldom repeats specific items from grade level to grade level, even though they are to be developed further as needed.

Teachers using the Denver guide are advised that "These skills and processes are not meant to be taught in isolation nor for themselves. Instead, they are to be woven into some unit of work or some assignment, as stated throughout the guide and described fully in the units."[6]

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[4] *A Program in English. A Guide for Teaching the Language Arts Kindergarten through Grade 12.* Denver, Colo., Public Schools, 1953, p. 206–211.

[5] Ibid., p. 207.

[6] Ibid., p. 206.

Another guide which offers a broad, sequential outline of essential skills as well as life experiences in reading, writing, speaking, and listening has been produced by the language arts committee of the Chicago public schools. The Chicago language arts program is also divided into sections conforming to stages of pupil growth which include: Early childhood (K-2); later childhood (grades 3-5); early adolescence (grades 6-8); adolescence (grades 9-12); and early adulthood (grades 13-14).

In the outline of the Chicago program, learning experiences are listed for each grade under the main heading "Essentials of Communication."[1] The learning experiences are grouped in the first column under the subheadings: *Reading, Writing, Speaking,* and *Listening.* To the right of this column are "Suggested Integrated Units" which provide opportunities for learning and using skills and abilities listed under "Essentials of Communication." Extraclass and extraschool experiences providing opportunities for pupil growth in each language arts area are listed under the headings "Semiclass Areas," "Home," and "Community." Within the semiclass category are homeroom, guidance, auditorium arts, and other extraclass activities. For example, in grade 9B experiences, units, and learning-living activities are listed under five column headings, as shown on pages 44 and 45.

The classroom teacher decides which integrated units are to be taught and the nature of each unit. Teachers organize the integrated unit so that they can teach fundamental skills in a purposive context; however, to insure that the skills are mastered, teachers supplement the integrated units with additional instructional drills and exercises when needed.

Another type of scope and sequence chart representative of those found in several recently developed courses of study is one published by the Indianapolis public schools. It appears as an appendix to their language arts guides for teachers in the junior and senior high schools. This chart indicates the sequence of abilities and skills to be acquired from kindergarten through grade 12. Skills to be introduced, emphasized, and maintained at various grade levels are listed under the headings: "Reading," "Writing," "Speaking," and "Listening." (See table on page 48.) In the columns across from the skill or ability listed, an *X* shows the grade level at which a skill is to be introduced or maintained. Three *X*'s are used to point out skills receiving major emphasis. The letter *R* indicates the need to develop readiness for a skill.

[1] *Teaching Guide for the Language Arts.* Preschool Through Junior College. Chicago Public Schools, 1954, p. 16, 24, 40, 52, and 82.

Table IX.—Language arts

Essentials of communication (pupil experiences in reading, writing, speaking, listening)	Suggested integrated units
1	2
READING:	
Gains proficiency in getting the main idea in increasingly difficult material.	
Adapts rate of reading to material and purpose.	
Develops skill in using library materials and reference aids.	
Plans an independent reading program.	
Reads widely in fields of personal interests.	Becoming oriented to the school through the communicative arts.
Expands recognition vocabulary.	
Understands the essentials of the short story as a type of literature.	
Reads a variety of short stories.	
WRITING:	
Observes correct procedure in filling in printed forms.	
Uses language effectively in everyday communication: reports, memoranda, letters.	
Achieves clarity in the narration of simple experiences.	
Improves in creative expression through writing short narratives.	
Follows established manuscript form.	Finding enjoyment in a personal reading program.
Continues the habit of proofreading own work.	
Sentence and paragraph building:	
Develops sentence sense (avoids run-on sentences and sentence fragments).	
Develops an understanding of the essential elements of the simple sentence.	
Gains skill in communicating thought in effective simple sentences.	
Varies word order in sentences.	
Relates sentences in paragraph to one single thought.	
Capitalization:	
Observes rules for use of capital letters.	
Punctuation:	Appreciating the short story in magazines and books.
Employs correct punctuation: End marks, apostrophe, quotation marks, underlining, comma.	
Spelling and word study:	
Acquires the ability to diagnose and to correct individual spelling difficulties.	
Uses the dictionary to check spelling and meaning of words.	
Forms and uses plurals and possessives of nouns correctly.	
Increases functional vocabulary.	

program—Grade 9B

Semiclass areas (working relationship with teacher-sponsor)	Home (working relationship with parents)	Community (working relationship with agencies)
3	4	5
Using the school library.	Adding books to the home library.	Using public library facilities.
Reading the school newspaper and school handbook.	Reading short stories in periodicals.	Surveying the school community to determine centers of special interest to language arts: Theaters, libraries.
Interviewing upperclassmen about school policies and procedure.	Subscribing to a favorite magazine.	
Listening to bulletins and announcements issued in homeroom.	Writing letters to friends and relatives.	Investigating kinds of printed forms used in various community agencies.
Interviewing club sponsors about extracurricular activities.	Listening to selected radio and television programs.	Making and acknowledging introductions.
Requesting information and advice from teachers and upperclassmen.	Planning and observing a program of systematic study habits.	Interviewing community leaders concerning the types of literature sold and the motion pictures exhibited in the community.
Visiting school newspaper office.	Acquainting parents with school through school newspaper and school handbook.	Enjoying worthwhile motion pictures.
Writing short story for school newspaper.		

Table IX.—Language arts

Essentials of communication (pupil experiences in reading, writing, speaking, listening)	Suggested integrated units
1	2
SPEAKING:	
Uses language effectively in everyday communication: Conversation, introductions, directions, explanations, reports, interviews, announcements.	Surveying library services and facilities.
Practices the techniques of parliamentary procedure and group discussion.	
Appreciates the power of speaking effectively.	
Attains ease in oral communication.	
LISTENING:	
Increases ability to listen actively and courteously to class explanation, discussion, and conversation.	
Develops respect for the point of view of others.	
Contributes to maintaining a good listening atmosphere in the classroom.	

Source: *Teaching Guide for Language Arts*, Chicago Public Schools, p. 52.

For example, in the table under the subject *"Reading,"* these topics appear: *Comprehension, Reading Mechanics, Word Analysis and Vocabulary Development.* The subtopic *Appreciation*, listed under *Comprehension*, is broken down into skills and abilities, as shown on page 48.

Teachers using the Indianapolis guides are reminded that the abilities and skills listed in the chart should be taught in functional situations adapted to pupil needs. The introduction to the guides adds:

> The chart should help the teacher to know the language maturity he can assume for individuals and groups in his classroom although he will recognize that no two children learn at the same rate. Discovery of each child's level of language development and provision for maximum growth from that point are basic responsibilities of the teacher.

To provide continuity in learning, other cities and counties—including Tulsa, Okla.; Port Arthur, Tex.; Rochester, N. Y.; Louisville, Ky.; Minneapolis, Minn.; New York City; and Montgomery County, Md.—offer a scope and sequence program in one or more of the language arts.

The Minneapolis bulletin, *Communication, A Guide for the Teaching of Speaking and Writing*, suggests planned learning experiences for three levels: Elementary, junior high school, and senior high school. The learning experiences in written expres-

program—Grade 9B—Continued

Semiclass areas (working relationship with teacher-sponsor)	Home (working relationship with parents)	Community (working relationship with agencies)
3	4	5
Reading and interpreting *Student's Progress Report Book* in homeroom. Filling in enrollment program cards and other printed forms in homeroom.	Discussing school activities with family.	Observing correct discussion techniques in club activities; writing minutes for club.

sion for the junior high school include the writing of letters, stories, scripts, newspaper articles, reports, summaries, digests, notes, and outlines; and also the preparation of records, minutes, notices, and printed forms. Subject matter to be introduced in the junior high school as part of the planned experiences in communication are specified under the headings: *Capitalization, Punctuation, Correct Usage, Terminology* (parts of speech and sentence), *Sentence Structure, Grammar, Organization of Thought,* and *Manuscript Forms.*[8]

For the senior high school, subject matter and skills are listed under *Capitalization, Punctuation, Organization and Development of Ideas, Sentence Structure, Correct Usage, Fundamentals of Speech,* and *Mass Media of Communication.* The last topic is subdivided into the newspaper, radio and television, and the magazine. The Minneapolis publication, like other guides, reminds teachers that subject-matter facts are seldom learned outright, all at once, for all time; but that "They are learned gradually in a succession of exposures to them within a setting that makes knowing about them seem important." Thus, they are to be taught within the planned learning experiences as suggested under the heading *Specific Goals To Be Sought by the Teacher,* or as needed by the pupils.

[8] Minneapolis Public Schools, 1960, p. 47–54.

Table X.—Language arts program—Kindergarten through grade 12

[R = need to develop readiness; X = introduction or maintenance; XXX = major emphasis]

Reading	Grade level												
	K	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
APPRECIATION													
Pupils should—													
Read and think critically:													
Interpret point of view, attitudes, and feelings of author	----	----	----	----	----	R	X	X	X	X	XXX	XXX	XXX
Interpret relationships: Character to character; incident to incident; character to incident	----	----	----	R	X	X	X	X	X	X	XXX	XXX	XXX
Realize difference between reality and make-believe	----	R	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Predict outcomes; draw conclusions	----	XXX	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Evaluate character traits	----	X	X	X	X	X	X	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX
Understand implied meanings	----	----	----	R	X	X	X	X	X	X	XXX	XXX	XXX
Recognize and interpret picturesque language	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Recognize and interpret figures of speech	----	----	----	----	R	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Recognize and interpret symbolism and allusions	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	R	X	X	X	X	X
Recognize unnatural word order in poetry	----	----	----	----	----	----	R	X	X	X	X	X	X

Clarify concepts	----	----	----	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Distinguish between the relevant and the irrelevant	----	R	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	XXX	XXX	XXX
Realize difference between fact and opinion	----	----	----	----	R	X	X	X	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX
Determine validity of information	----	----	----	----	X	X	X	X	X	X	XXX	XXX	XXX
*		*			*			*			*		*
Anticipate events	----	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Prepare for audience reading (oral)	----	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Relate information to own experiences	----	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Develop standards of personal conduct	----	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX

Source: *The Language Arts*, Indianapolis, Ind., Public Schools Curriculum Bulletins 35 and 36, 1955, Appendix A3–A4.

A scope and sequence section which allocates the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and appreciations to be taught in the 9th, 10th, 11th, and 12th years is an important part of the 1956 curriculum bulletin for New York City schools. The section is called "Allocation of Learnings." According to this bulletin:

> * * * The list of allocations for each year should be interpreted in terms of the middle or "average" group, who may be expected at the conclusion of a year's work to show substantial growth in the various skills and abilities stressed in that year. These lists are to be taken as a predetermined series of emphases, not as a set of minimum essentials whose mastery will be used to determine advancement from one grade to another.
>
> In developing teaching units * * *, teachers should plan to include activities designed to develop those learnings which are called for in the "Allocation of Learnings." * * *[9]

A State bulletin which offers a developmental outline of abilities and skills was published in 1956 by the Maryland State Department of Education. The bulletin, *Language Arts*, states that:

> Concepts in the language arts should be developed gradually and consistently. * * * Growth in language requires a sequential development of skills from grades 1 through 12. * * *[10]

Within the bulletin, skills are grouped under listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Under writing, skills are subgrouped as follows: Capitalization, punctuation, grammar, usage, and paragraph writing. The various school levels at which skills are located include: Primary, intermediate, junior high school, and senior high school. Learning activities and experiences which will help to develop the skills outlined are suggested for content fields and extraclass activities. Also included in this bulletin are chapters on the purposes of a literature program, goals in teaching spelling, and aims in teaching handwriting at the various school levels.

Almost all courses of study included in the present survey provide programs which have a definite sequential pattern, especially in grammar and usage, spelling, punctuation, and reading. More recent courses of study offer a flexible scope and sequence pattern in all the language arts. These courses repeatedly emphasize that the program must be adapted to the individual's present levels of achievement, maturity, ability, and his purpose and needs.

A means by which a curriculum may provide for these differences, interrelate the language arts, and follow a sequential pattern based upon the common needs and interests of youth is provided by the unit method of instruction. This method is described in the next chapter.

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[9] *English-Speech Language Arts for Senior High Schools.* New York City Board of Education, Curriculum Bulletin 1955–56 Series, No. 12, p. 60–61.

[10] *Planning for Effective Learning, Language Arts.* Annapolis, State Department of Education for the Superintendent's Committee on Curriculum Supervision, 1956, p. 1.

Chapter V

The Resource Unit in Language Arts

ONE of the significant characteristics of the courses of study included in this survey is the use of the unit method as a means of organizing learning experiences in the language arts. The possible values of the unit method have been discussed in recent years by several curriculum authorities, including Harold Alberty and Edward A. Krug. However, as early as 1932, in the report of her survey of English courses of study, Dora V. Smith pointed out the advantages of the unit method:

> The prevalence of the unit method of instruction throughout the country has been exceedingly beneficial in helping both teacher and pupil to see a literary selection as a whole and to consider it in relation to others of similar theme or type. It has led to broader discussion, to less emphasis upon meticulous detail, and to the seeking of wider relationships both in literature and with other forms of expression. It is responsible also for the coming in of more laboratory procedures, where actual reading and use of books in the classroom supplement mere discussion of materials read outside.[1]

What Does A Unit Include?

Although there are various types of units, the one usually found in courses of study is a resource unit. Learning experiences in the resource unit are related to a significant educational purpose, a basic need or human problem, a theme, a famous author and his works, a communication job, or a literary type of interest and value to the students. It contains a reservoir of suggestions for pupil activities, ranging from simple to complex, from which the learner and teacher may choose in order to accomplish worthwhile educational objectives for pupils of widely varied abilities.

[1] Dora V. Smith, *Instruction in English*. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office. Office of Education Bulletin 1932, No. 17, Monograph No. 20, p. 59–60.

The importance of using resource units flexibly is expressed in the senior high school English guide of the Springfield, Mo., public schools as follows:

> A resource unit is so constructed that a teacher who makes use of it will select from it rather than adopt it in its entirety. * * * The resource unit is extensive rather than intensive, is suggestive rather than prescriptive, is flexible rather than rigid, and is designed to stimulate creative adaptation by the teacher to meet the needs of class groups and of the individuals in them. For the teacher it should provide the background and establish the assurance necessary to do effective planning with pupils of the on-going teaching unit.[2]

Resource units in courses of study usually contain several or all of the following parts:

> 1. An *introduction*, which includes the title, general educational purpose, and relation to other units.
>
> 2. A statement of *desired outcomes* in terms of student skills, attitudes, knowledge, and habits. (Reading, writing, speaking, and listening skills which are to be taught are occasionally grouped by themselves.)
>
> 3. Brief descriptions of suggested *pupil activities* and experiences related to the basic aims of the unit or to other significant objectives in reading, writing, speaking, and listening. (These suggested activities are the reservoir from which students and teachers draw when they plan their work for the unit.) Suggested activities are often grouped under the headings: (*a*) "Introductory," (*b*) "Developmental," and (*c*) "Culminating."
>
> 4. *Evaluation of outcomes* on the basis of the specific aims set up at the beginning of the unit, plus an assessment of additional outcomes. Recommendations for future learning are sometimes added.
>
> 5. Bibliographies of reading materials, audiovisual aids, and community resources for student learning.
>
> 6. Bibliography of professional materials of value to the teacher of the unit.

Suggestions concerning ways to plan a unit are included in several courses of study. The language arts guides of the Oakland, Calif., and Tulsa, Okla., public schools are two which give detailed information on this subject.

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[2] *English Language Arts* (Senior High School Level). Springfield, Mo., Public Schools Bulletin No. 5, 1955, p. 85.

To What Extent Are Resource Units Used?

In State Courses

To what extent are sample resource or similar units included in State courses of study? Of the 21 States which have published courses of study and guides in English, 12 (or 57 percent) have produced bulletins which include one or more sample units of the resource type. These States are Florida, Indiana, Iowa, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New York, North Carolina, North Dakota, Pennsylvania, and Virginia. Other State courses suggest possible titles and themes for units and the approximate time to be spent on each.

Resource units in the published courses of study were prepared by members of the curriculum committee or by other teachers in the State. Some guides which contain units, such as the Minnesota bulletin, advise teachers to study first the boys and girls in their classes and then to adapt the units to their special needs. It adds this advice:

> Teachers should plan a semester's work or a year's work using units in the order best suited to the needs of the class. * * * The amount of time which can be profitably used may vary with different groups. * * *[3]

Many of the sample units are literature-centered; several others deal chiefly with the use of the library and the writing of business and social letters. However, most of the resource units not borrowed from adopted textbooks integrate the language arts by providing learning activities in reading, speaking, listening, and writing.

In Local Courses

As shown in table XI, local courses of study are much less likely to include sample or illustrative resource units than State courses. Only 35 percent of the local courses (58 of 164) include 1 or more units of the resource type. In most courses the units are more limited in scope, suggested activities, and evaluation techniques than the units in State courses of study.

Notable exceptions, however, are the resource units in bulletins

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[3] *A Guide for Instruction in the Language Arts.* Secondary School, Grades 7-12. St. Paul, Minn., State Department of Education Curriculum Bulletin No. 18, 1956, p. 17.

published by the public schools in Oakland, Calif.; Denver, Colo.; Dade County, Fla.; Portland, Oreg.; New York City; Austin, Dallas, Orange, and Port Arthur, Tex.; Duluth, Minn.; Baltimore County, Md.; Seattle, Wash.; Aberdeen, S. Dak.; Grosse Point, Mich.; Tulsa, Okla.; and Arlington County, Va.

Table XI.—Courses of study which have sample resource units

Courses	Number[1] examined	Number having units	Percent
State	21	12	57
Local	164	58	35

[1] Where a State or local district published separate volumes between grades 7-12, the volumes were counted as 1 course for this table.

Although most local courses of study do not contain resource units, 16 of those without units do offer suggestions for the preparation of such units and a list of unit titles for each grade level. In fact, many of the syllabuses which contain sample units also include a list of unit titles for each grade.

How Are the Scope and Sequence of Resource Units Determined?

The criteria employed in determining which units will be taught and when they will be taught are usually these:

(1) the nature and needs of society as reflected in the aims of education; and

(2) the needs, problems, interests, and growth patterns of youth as determined by expert opinion and research.

As a framework for the development of resource units in secondary-school English, grades 7-12, a committee of San Francisco teachers in 1954 developed a scope and sequence chart of unit titles related to the broad purposes of education: Self-Realization, Social Competence, Economic Competence, and Civic Competence. Titles of resource units listed under the four areas include these:

Grade 7—"Wonder Workers," "Animal Parade," "Family Furor," "Hobbies," and "The Sporting Gesture;"

Grade 8—"I Am an American," "Reading the Ads," "At Work and at Play;"

Grade 9—"Families Are Like That," "The Arts," "Planning for High School, "Planning for a Job."

Similar units relating to the broad purposes of education are also listed for grades 10-12. A detailed discussion of the development of resource and teaching units and two examples of resource units are included in *Classroom Practices in the Teaching of English*, published by the San Francisco Unified School District.

Obviously, a chart listing titles of units considered valuable to students in language arts has the advantage of preventing undesirable duplication, of insuring that the range of units is sufficiently broad to satisfy desirable aims, and of providing for a developmental, sequential pattern of learning experiences. Another advantage is that units dealing with a developmental need may be repeated with a new emphasis at different grade levels in accordance with changed maturational needs. For example, the San Francisco chart includes a few units on group living for grades 7 through 12. The unit "Family Furor" for grade 7 deals with the basic problems a beginning adolescent has in getting along with his family; whereas the unit "The People in My Life," grade 10, has a broader emphasis; and the unit "The Constant Values," grade 11, helps the maturing adolescent to develop principles for effective group living.

A need generally recognized in the determination of titles for resource units is the adjustment and orientation of students to a new school environment, particularly grade 7 in a junior high school; grade 9 in a 4-year high school; and, occasionally, grade 10 in a 3-year high school. A few public schools, including those in Tulsa, Okla., have an orientation unit at the beginning of each year. Orientation and "getting acquainted" units have been prepared by teachers in many parts of the United States, including Los Angeles, Oakland, and San Francisco, Calif.; Glendale and Prescott, Ariz.; Austin and Highland Park, Tex.; Denver, Colo.; and the States of Minnesota, Pennsylvania, and Virginia. In fact, the general theme for the entire year of seventh grade English in the Palo Alto, Calif., junior high schools is orientation. The guide for grade 7 suggests units on "Orientation to the School," "Orientation to Self," "Orientation to Others," and "Orientation to New Possibilities," in that sequence.

Purposes of these orientation units include helping the new students to (1) feel at home in their school, (2) make new friends, (3) learn school regulations and customs, (4) learn how to use the school library, (5) understand how to use textbooks and

classroom materials, (6) understand the curricular offerings in the entire school program, (7) learn about extraclass activities available to them, and (8) realize the values of language arts for social and vocational use.

An interesting description of how a teacher helped her students become oriented to their school is contained in the Virginia guide, *Language Arts in Grades One through Twelve.*[4]

The types of units and the general content of the English curriculum are developed in the following chapter, "The English Program."

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[4] Richmond, Commonwealth of Virginia State Board of Education, Division of Purchasing and Printing, vol. 85, 1952, No. 7, p. 114–19.

Chapter VI

The English Program

THE ENGLISH CURRICULUM does have a content of its own even though it varies from school to school and State to State. And the objectives, activities, and instructional content in areas of written composition, oral communication, and grammar and usage have not changed greatly during the past 25 years. This generalization does not apply to the junior high school program in reading and listening. The amount of emphasis to be given to various activities cannot be determined accurately by an analysis of today's courses of study; for the majority suggest that the English teacher should consider the level of achievement already attained by students, as well as their communication needs and capabilities, and that she should provide for individual differences accordingly.

Units and Content in the Junior High Program

In addition to units with an orientation emphasis, junior high courses of study contain resource units which are literature-centered, composition-centered, speech-centered, listening-centered, and grammar-centered. Except for units which are based largely on a construction or topic of grammar such as the sentence, modifiers, etc., most of the units in the junior high school are related to a theme, need, or interest. Over three-fourths of the State courses of study which include units for the junior high

school years have one or more units which are idea or theme centered. However, units on the library and reference books, letterwriting, television, motion pictures, reporting, telephoning, conversation, the ballad, and the short story are also common in various years of the junior high school.

A majority of the units organized about a theme or idea are literature centered. However, such resource units usually cut across the language arts areas, just as the communication program of the Orange, Tex., secondary schools does. The Orange guide states that:

> In all language arts units the core is reading, a theme in literature, or personal experiences. From each unit emanate writing, speaking, listening, and observing activities in which thinking is interwoven. During each unit the teacher should teach that grammar necessary to clear communication, developing with the pupils a program including pronunciation, spelling, punctuation, capitalization, word study.[1]

Some resource units specify the grammar, usage, vocabulary, spelling, and punctuation which should be taught as part of the unit. These items are sometimes taken from a scope and sequence chart in language. (See Grade Expectancies in the Communications Skills, Appendix A.)

In grade 7, units are often concerned with animals, legends and folklore, sports, outdoor life, adventure, mystery, humor, science, and other interests of 12- and 13-year-olds. Units more closely related to the needs of youth deal with hobbies, health, growing up, making friends, life in other countries, outstanding people, and family life.

Units in grade 8 frequently emphasize American life and literature—especially in schools where eighth-graders are required to study American history. For example, the Oakland, Calif., course recommends units on "The Westward Movement," "American Heritage," and "American Folklore." The Albany, Calif., guide recommends that the eighth-grade program in language arts emphasize American life, ideals, traditions, goals, humor, recreation, and people. The Palo Alto, Calif., English language arts guide for grade 8 uses "The American Heritage" as a thematic strand for a year's course. The course includes units titled "Elements of the American Heritage," "Our Regional Literature" (including tall tales), "Group Contributions to the American Heritage," "Individual Contributions to the American Heritage," and "The Heritage of Tomorrow."

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[1] *This Land of Ours (Revised Edition). A Communication Program for Grade Eleven.* Orange, Tex., Public Schools Curriculum Bulletin 611, 1947, p. xii.

The eighth-grade guide published by the Port Arthur, Tex., schools in 1954 includes a 24-week unit called "America the Beautiful." In Austin, the junior high schools have a year's program in the eighth grade centered on the theme "Americans Live and Learn." The 11 units in the program are titled "America Works," "America Dares," "America Laughs," "America Out-of-Doors," "America Plays," "America Challenges," "America Buys and Sells," "America Creates," "America's Treasure House," "America Lives and Learns," and "America Worships." Eighth grade units suggested in the Minneapolis curriculum guide for English and social studies also place strong emphasis on American life.

The Shaker Heights, Ohio, course of study for grade 8 includes the following titles: "Early Americans," "Westward Movement," "American Ideals," "Great Americans," and "American Tales and Legends." Additional eighth-grade titles are "Science and Invention," "Excitement and Mystery," and "Hobbies and Sports."

Other courses of study have units related specifically to communication and social-living needs of youth, such as units on letterwriting, club leadership, planning for the future, using leisure to advantage, choosing television and motion picture programs, work and play, and finding and using information.

Emphasis on personal growth and social relationships is evident in the ninth-grade units in many syllabuses. The ninth-grader's need for help in understanding himself and the world about him is stated in the introduction to a unit, "Who Are You?" in the Palo Alto, Calif., *Teacher's Guide for English Language Arts, Grade IX:*

> Troubled by the conflicting needs for security and independence, caught by the overpowering urge to conform to the gang, beset with an irrepressible attraction toward the opposite sex, and filled with dreams of glory and freedom, ninth-graders are in one of the most confusing periods of their lives. Anxiety and disappointment alternate with confidence and fulfillment. Life for them is just a tangled mass of interwoven problems. Their reactions to these things are varied and inconsistent. Some react with aggressive self-assertion, others with mixed cooperation and rebellion, still others with withdrawal and retreat to the world of fantasy. For all their sophistication and independence, these boys and girls are basically confused and unsure of themselves.[2]

For grade 9, problems of family and community living—as well as personal development—are the core of many units in-

[2] Palo Alto Unified School District, n. d., p. 9-I-1.

cluded in the courses of study and guides surveyed. Ninth-grade units have titles such as "Teen Days," "Understanding Oneself and Others," "The World and I," "Recreation," "Thrift," "Growing Up," "Careers for All," "Outstanding People," and "Enjoying Family Life." For grade 9, the Indianapolis language arts guide suggests the following unit titles related to developmental needs: "Orientation," "Recognizing Duties of Citizenship," "Family Relationships; Personal Problems," "Foundations for the Future," "Gaining New Interests," "Appreciation of All Living Things," "Making New Friends," "Freedom and Responsibility," "Growing Up," and "Building Character."[3]

Ninth-grade units which stress oral and written communication have titles such as "Conversation," "Improving Your Speech," "Listening and Discussing," and "Writing Letters."

Slightly more than a third of the courses of study offering a unit-type organization for grade 9 include one or more units organized according to literary type. Usually, only 1 or 2 literary types are studied as such in the ninth grade. The biographical sketch, the short story, and narrative poetry are the types most frequently found. Although many courses of study require that ninth-grade students read 1 or 2 novels in class, few of them encourage teachers to emphasize the qualities and characteristics which set the novel apart as a literary form.

One approach to teaching literary types is that given in the Alabama Course of Study, Grades 1–12. After recommending the *thematic* type of unit organization, the bulletin states:

> Literary types as such will not be studied in junior high school, but all types will be introduced to discover the many different forms of reading through which a particular interest may be satisfied.[4]

A gradual introduction of junior high pupils to many different types of literature—the short story, novel, ballad, lyric, drama, biography, essay, and article—is evident in other courses of study.

The Program in Written Composition

Dr. Smith, in 1932, found the topics in written composition which are listed on page 61 mentioned 10 or more times in 40 courses of study:

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[3] *The Language Arts: Reading, Writing, Speaking, Listening.* A Tentative Guide For Teachers, Senior High School, 9, 10, 11, 12. Indianapolis, Ind., Public Schools Curriculum Bulletin No. 36, 1955, p. 12.

[4] Montgomery, Ala., State Board of Education, Bulletin No. 8, 1954, p. 134–35.

Junior high schools[8]

Business letters
Social or personal letters
Simple narratives of personal experience
Writing imaginary stories
Outlining
Writing reports
Note taking
Written explanation
Writing announcements
Taking dictation
Writing minutes
Character sketches
Vocabulary drills
Original essays or stories

With the exception of "Taking dictation," these topics are mentioned as frequently in recent courses of study for the junior high school as they were 25 years ago. Other writing activities which are included in at least 25 percent of the recent courses are: (1) The writing of news stories and other prose for school publications; (2) completing questionnaires and other forms; (3) writing directions; (4) keeping logs and diaries; (5) writing notes of invitation, acceptance, congratulation, and sympathy; (6) preparing summaries and digests; and (7) writing reviews of books, motion pictures, and television programs.

Courses of study published for the Chicago, New York City, and Minneapolis junior high schools recommend that pupils write skits, radio plays, television scripts, and short dramatizations. A few courses also suggest that pupils write verse, anecdotes, announcements of coming events, and reviews of books, movies, and television and radio shows.

The Program in Oral Communication

Provision is made in all language arts courses of study for instruction in speaking. The values of careful planning in teaching speech and of having definite objectives for each lesson are stated in the *Mississippi School Bulletin, English, Grades 7-12*, as follows:

> * * * Speech instruction and activities should be planned to provide specific, purposeful training to improve speech effectiveness and should grow out of the situations that are within the interest and experience of the student. In other words, concrete objectives should be set up for each activity and for each day's work. For instance, the reading experience of students may serve as a conversational piece, but the conversation should not be aimless; in the activity students should learn some of the principles of good conversation, what constitutes

[8] Dora V. Smith, *Instruction in English*. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, Office of Education Bulletin 1932, No. 17, Monograph No. 20, p. 25.

courtesy, what hinders good conversation. The teacher should encourage the quiet student and restrain the overtalkative and should direct the conversation to avoid sidetracking through irrelevant remarks. Speech training should be purposeful, systematic, and functional.[6]

Oral communication activities recommended in recent courses of study are generally similar to those reported by Dr. Smith in 1932. A fourth of the courses included in her study listed the following learning experiences:

Junior high schools[7]

Conversations	Dramatizing
Speeches	Giving instructions
Storytelling	Sales talks
Anecdotes	Reports from magazines
Practice in conducting meetings	Book reports
Relating personal experiences	Interviews
Using the telephone	Announcements

The above-listed oral activities are included in more than half of the courses covered by this survey. Other oral activities which are suggested frequently are: (1) Oral reading, including interpretation of literature and choral reading; (2) simple parliamentary procedure; (3) argumentation and informal debates; (4) asking and answering questions; (5) making explanations and giving directions; (6) giving brief oral reports on a topic; (7) discussing controversial issues and other subjects; (8) taking part in forum, roundtable, and panel discussions; (9) performing introductions of oneself and others; and (10) planning with an individual and with a group.

The New York City Bulletin, *English Language Arts: Grades 7, 8, 9*, recommends that pupils learn to use illustrative material such as models, pictures, and maps while giving oral reports; and to use mechanical sound devices such as microphones, earphones, public address systems, and tape recorders.[8]

The Program in Listening

Speaking almost always involves listening, because oral communication requires a speaker and one or more listeners if meaning is to be transmitted. Since the introduction of the motion picture,

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[6] Jackson, Miss., State Department of Education School Bulletin No. 145, March 1957, p. 36.
[7] Smith, p. 31.
[8] Board of Education, City of New York, Curriculum Bulletin Number 11, 1955–56 Series, p. 52–53.

radio, and television, listening has grown steadily as a medium for receiving information, ideas, and impressions. However, inattentive and unappreciative listening often disrupts or distorts the intended message of a speaker. Some research indicates that people listen at approximately a 25 percent level of efficiency.[9] Therefore, during the past 20 years, English curriculum committees have thought it advisable to introduce instructional content and experiences aimed at improving the listening abilities of pupils. Today, approximately three-fourths of the State and local courses of study and guides in language arts offer suggestions for teaching listening. However, the objectives and activities for this area vary much more than those suggested for other areas of language arts.

The New York City bulletin, *English Language Arts: Grades 7, 8, 9*, points out that "Oral communication involves the expression and reception of ideas through Speaking, Listening, Observing and Reacting." It then reminds the teacher that:

> Listening is needed for—
>
> Acquisition of information.
>
> Evaluation of data.
>
> Appreciation of the beauty, power, and function of the spoken word.
>
> Interpretation and evaluation of the quality and authenticity of materials presented orally.
>
> Selectivity in choice among mass media; appropriate use of mass media.
>
> Leisure time activity.
>
> When—
>
> participating in large audience situations, in classrooms, in auditoriums, in public gatherings, at "movies" or at lectures;
>
> participating in face to face and/or small group conversations, discussions, and presentations—in committee procedures; when interviewing, when reporting, when listening to tape recordings and transcriptions;
>
> reacting intellectually and emotionally, as an individual, to materials presented orally—in classroom situations, large audience situations, home and community situations, to the radio, to television, and to the "movies."[10]

A few courses of study point out that skills needed for effective listening will differ according to the purpose of the speaker and the type of material being presented. A majority of the courses point out the interrelationships existing between speaking and listening.

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[9] Ralph G. Nichols and Leonard A. Stevens, *Are You Listening?* New York, McGraw-Hill, 1957, p. ix.

[10] Board of Education, City of New York, Curriculum Bulletin No. 11, 1955–56 Series, p. 19–20.

The Minnesota bulletin includes most of the listening skills mentioned in other courses of study, as shown below.

> Skills in listening must be differentiated according to the purpose of the speaker or listener and the form of presentation:

Speaker's purpose	*Listener's purpose*
1. To inform	To secure information accurately. To evaluate the information. To use the information for the purpose at hand.
2. To persuade	To follow the line of reasoning carefully. To judge its value. To be conscious of the speaker's intent and method. To yield to or repudiate his ideas.
3. To entertain	To respond with pleasure. To judge the level of entertainment. To adapt methods of listening to a play, serious or farcical, a vaudeville act, a reading.
4. To move or to actuate	To respond emotionally. To be conscious of the nature of appeals. To yield to dramatic power of plays, movies, readings.[11]

Over half of the courses of study which include material on listening recommend that the listening skills be taught as a part of the classwork in speaking. Specific recommendations for teaching listening and speaking together include these activities: (1) Announcements, assignments, instructions, questions and answers, and reports; (2) group discussions; (3) conversations; (4) speeches; and (5) introductions. Other listening instruction is related to readings and recordings of literature and broadcasts by radio and television.

Several of the aims for teaching listening parallel those for teaching reading in the junior high school. In the main, the aims of teaching listening are to help pupils learn: (1) to note the speaker's purpose; (2) to anticipate the speaker's message; (3) to note his qualifications; (4) to understand his point of view; (5) to follow and recall his main ideas; (6) to distinguish between emotional appeals and factual statements; (7) to visualize objects described; (8) to note whether examples and details logically support the speaker's main theses, generalizations, and conclusions; (9) to relate the speaker's ideas to their own knowledge; and (10) to recall important information. Another aim is to im-

[11] *A Guide for Instruction in the Language Arts.* Secondary School, Grades 7–12. St. Paul, Minn. State Department of Education, Curriculum Bulletin No. 18, 1956, p. 56–57.

prove pupils' appreciation of superior motion pictures, television productions, and drama.

Units and Content in Grades 10–12

To categorize the unit type of organization in grades 10, 11, and 12, and to arrive at accurate statistics for purposes of comparison are almost impossible. Many units may fit two or more categories. For example, a unit called "They Dared To Do" may be classified as thematic or literary-type biography. Or, a unit on "Reading Poetry for Enjoyment" may have a literary-type, chronological, or thematic organization, or a combination of the three.

Most English programs in grades 10 and 11 have a multitype organization. A few units may be organized according to literary type, a few according to theme, a few according to communication need. The more traditional courses may also offer topical units in grammar and usage. After examining the courses of study for grades 10, 11, and 12, one may safely conclude that a much more traditional type of program prevails in the senior high than in the junior high years.

Approximately sixty percent of the local courses of study containing unit topics suggest that some or all literature in grade 10 be organized and taught by literary type. Eighteen percent of all local courses recommend that the thematic or idea-centered unit predominate. The remaining 22 percent suggest one or more types of organization: Author, literary period, or chronological development. Units centered on language needs in grade 10 include such topics or themes as "Conducting Business by Letter," "Exchanging Ideas," "Social Communication," "Courtesy and Conversation," "Outlining," "Use of Library Materials," "Group Discussion," and "Listening for Understanding."

Although grade 10 once seemed the logical—or perhaps most convenient—level at which to introduce literature representative of cultures in various parts of the world, pioneer efforts in the area have not developed into a trend. One reason may be the difficulty of finding world literature which is appealing to adolescents and which has a satisfactory index of readability. Whether the present emphasis on literary types will continue in grade 10 or whether the theme emphasis will become a trend is difficult to predict. Perhaps, a combined thematic-literary-type form of organization will prove to be most successful in achieving the aims of teaching literature in grades 10–12.

A few recent courses recommend that 1 or 2 literary types be studied in each of the last 3 years. For example, the 1957 Mississippi bulletin, *English, Grades 7–12*, suggests:

> * * * that the novel as a literary form be stressed in the 10th grade; the short story and the lyric in the 11th; and drama, essay, and other poetic forms in the 12th grade.
>
> * * * Stress should be placed always upon comprehension, understanding, and enjoyment and upon the relationship of literature to life. . . .[12]

As in the junior high school, few classics are prescribed for study in grade 10. However, *Julius Caesar*, *Silas Marner*, and *A Tale of Two Cities* are notable exceptions. About 60 percent of the courses of study specify that *Julius Caesar* will be taught in grade 9, 10, or 11. Over three-fourths of these courses, however, indicate that *Julius Caesar* should be studied in grade 10. This placement is one grade higher than the modal grade placement reported in 1932 by Dr. Smith, who found that *Julius Caesar* was taught slightly more often in grade 9 than in grade 10. Shakespeare's *As You Like It*, which was once studied widely in grade 10, has almost disappeared as a requirement. Where a specific novel is recommended for study in grade 10, *Silas Marner* remains a favorite for average and above average students, closely followed in frequency by *A Tale of Two Cities*. This grade placement and popularity index are the same as reported by Dr. Smith in her study.

Of all grades from 7 to 12, the one having the most standardized content is grade 11. Here, the usual course is American literature. Over 80 percent of the local courses and slightly less than 80 percent of the State courses call for the study of American literature during the 11th grade. The Missouri course lists several English classics for study along with American literature. Topics about American life and literature are suggested for study in grade 10 by the Pennsylvania *Course of Study in English for the Secondary Schools*.

There seems to be no standard type of unit organization in grade 11, but a combination of one or more of the following: Chronological, thematic, regional, literary, works of famous authors, American ideals and principles, and various others. The most frequent type of unit suggested is a combination of theme, literary emphasis, and chronological development.

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[12] Jackson, State Department of Education, Division of Instruction, p. 93.

Recent courses of study feature units such as "The Search for Freedom and Democracy," "America the Beautiful," and "The Search for the Good Life in America." Units dealing with the early struggles of colonists for freedom or with later movements are not restricted to writings by men of the period—John Smith, Benjamin Franklin, and Thomas Jefferson—but include literature about the colonial and revolutionary periods by 20th century writers such as Kenneth Roberts, Sherwood Anderson, Stephen Vincent Benét, and Esther Forbes.

An idea of the variety of units to be found in the study of American life and literature may be gained by looking at the titles in the Iowa course in American literature for grade 11. The first unit, "All Over America," is a study of the Midwest, New England, and New York State, the Deep South, the mountain regions, the Great Southwest, the Pacific slope, and the Northwest. The second unit, "The American Dream," traces the birth and growth of the principles of equality and freedom from the early 17th century to the mid-20th century. Succeeding units are "Wagons Westward," "Toward the Promised Land," "American Science," "America in the Machine Age," "America's Newspaper," "America's Lighter Side," "American Ideals," and "American Writers." The last unit allows a teacher to include "a systematic survey of literary history" in which pupils study famous American authors in chronological order.[13]

The Dallas public schools also offer a comprehensive unit in grade 11 called "Roots of Freedom." Other units in the Dallas resource bulletin are "American Portraits," "Living Poetry" (American), and "American Mosaic." The last unit aims, in part, to give pupils a perspective for judging the contributions of various sections of the country and elements of culture, to identify the influences which unify the diverse pattern of American life, to relate significant ideas in literature to their own lives, and to grow in their ability to speak and write effectively.[14]

An unusual combination of themes, regional literature, ideals, and literary types, to be used as a basis for units, is suggested in the New York City bulletin *English-Speech Language Arts for Senior High Schools*. Unit topics suggested for study are listed under the general theme shown on the next page.

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[13] *Communication Series English Grades 11–12.* Des Moines, Iowa, the Department of Public Instruction, Secondary School Cooperative Curriculum Program, volume IX, 1948, p. 63–158.

[14] *Language Arts for Secondary Schools.* Dallas, Tex., Independent School District, Resource Materials Curriculum Bulletin Series, 1953, p. 125–30.

ELEVENTH YEAR

Theme: The Individual and the American Heritage.

1. Westward Ho!—thePioneer Spirit.
2. Great Americans and Their Legacy to Us.
3. Let's See the Funny Side: American Humor.
4. The Regions of America Contribute to Her Heritage.
5. America in Song and Story.
6. Guideposts to Liberty.
7. The Union: Storehouse of Treasures From All Lands.
8. Tell All the People: Mass Media.
9. American Literature: Ideals in the American Heritage.
10. New York City: Focal Point of American Culture.
11. Secession versus Union: A Drama of Human Relations—Many Became One.[14]

Other cities which use a basic theme for each year's work in English are Duluth, Minn., and Rochester, N. Y.

In the last revision of their language arts program, the Denver public schools abandoned the chronological study of American literature. The disadvantages of the chronological approach are stated in the Denver guide as follows:

> Contemporary materials, which hold the greatest interest for adolescents, are sometimes slighted in a course organized by chronology, and students' attention is frequently focused on literary history, rather than on the liberalizing experiences of literature itself. In addition, it is almost impossible for teachers to individualize assignments when a course in American Literature is organized chronologically, because the limitations of materials in the early and middle periods give no scope for adjusting reading assignments to individual abilities and interests.[15]

To replace the former type of organization, the Denver guide explains that:

> The new course is organized into three divisions: *Life, Liberty,* and *The Pursuit of Happiness.* The first section, Life, deals with such topics as "Regional Literature," "Racial Problems," "Lives of Famous Americans," and "Religion and Philosophy." *Liberty* treats of "Colonial Beginnings," "Historic Documents," "Literature of the War Years," and "The Spirit of Democracy." Under *Pursuit of Happiness* are found "Humor," "Adventure," "The Out-of-Doors," "Types of Literature," "Understanding People," and "The Fine Arts."

In grade 12, there is as much diversity in the English program as there is uniformity in grade 11. One reason for the diversity

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[14] Board of Education of the City of New York, Curriculum Bulletin, 1955–56 Series, No. 12, p. 59–60.

[15] *A Program in English: A Guide for Teaching the Language Arts Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve.* Denver, Colo., Public Schools, The Department of Instruction, 1958, p. 158.

in grade 12 is that elective courses in language arts are most frequently available to seniors, especially in high schools enrolling 500 or more students. Another reason is that only 16 States have laws requiring that high school graduates earn 4 Carnegie units in English. (See table XII, p. 76.) Although a few States—including Iowa, Nebraska, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania—require only three years of English, they recommend that 4 years be taken. Colorado and Michigan do not have a State requirement, but local boards usually require at least 3 units of English. Connecticut, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island have no State requirements; however, local boards usually require 4 units of English.

In grade 12, the traditionally required course in English literature, organized on a chronological basis, seems to be slowly losing ground. Today, it is usually offered either as an elective course in the general curriculum or as a required course in the college-preparatory curriculum. Although a few of the State syllabuses published before 1950 include the traditional English literature course, recent State guides published for teachers in Minnesota, Mississippi, Nebraska, North Dakota, and Virginia suggest that English and other world literature be taught as a single course. In several States, British literature is given more emphasis than world literature. In a few cases, the emphasis is reversed. The Alabama guide suggests that pupils who have special interests and abilities in language arts be engaged in the formal study of "either English or a combination of English literature with world masterpieces * * * which show the meaning, development and influence of the Christian idea." [17]

Fewer than half of the local courses of study have a required course in English literature. Twelve percent offer English literature in grade 11. Units in most of these courses follow a chronological pattern and parallel closely the literary-period type of organization prevalent in the best-selling textbooks on English literature. Occasionally, thematic titles are given to units which are taught in a chronological sequence. Sometimes a unit in modern literature begins the literature course. Units offered under the chronological approach are usually these: The Anglo-Saxon period, the Elizabethan period, the 17th century, the 18th century, the Romantic period, the Victorian period, and the 20th century. Except for units on Chaucer, Shakespeare, and Milton, the author approach

[17] *Alabama Course of Study, Grades 1-12.* Montgomery, Ala., State Board of Education, Bulletin No. 8, 1954, p. 154.

is almost never used. The literary types most often studied as such in grade 12 are the full-length drama and the novel.

World literature is required in grade 12 in 13 percent of the local courses of study which specify programs in literature. As an elective course, world literature is offered in grade 12 in over 10 percent of the courses examined. Only a few schools offer world literature in grade 11.

Among the various units in world literature are those used in the Nebraska and Minnesota State bulletins and several local bulletins. *English for Nebraska Schools* suggests units related to the theme "Orientation to the World Community." The 1956 Minnesota guide includes two illustrative units titled "Understanding World Problems Through Literature" and "The Influence of Environment on Personality and Thought as Revealed in Novels by Authors of Various Nationalities." The first unit encourages the study of such problems as conflicting rights, interests, and ideas; survival against man and nature; war and peace; and family life. The extensive reading list which accompanies the unit is composed largely of 20th century literature about people in countries throughout the world.

A problems-type of unit on world literature and other communication arts is suggested for grade 11 in the Pennsylvania course under the title "Universal Problems as Reflected in Literature, Music, Painting, Architecture, and Sculpture."

In New York City, the theme for the twelfth grade is "The Individual's Quest for Universal Values." Among several units related to this theme are "Heroes and Heroines of All Nations and Ages," "World Understanding Through Literature," "The Arts in Modern Living," and "The Good Life."

Perhaps the most comprehensive course in world literature is one offered to above-average students in grade 12 by the Wilmington, Dela., schools. The course, "Universal Elements in Human Nature," aims—among other things—at helping the pupil—

> To understand how differences in geography, climate, and historical development give rise to different standards; to understand and value man's thoughts, attitudes, and ideals as affected by his environment and background * * *; to evaluate other attitudes and mores by our standards; to understand how the backgrounds of other peoples affect their evaluation of American standards and practices. * * * [18]

The principal objective of the course is to show that the basic emotions and ideals of all men are fundamentally alike with re-

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[18] *Guiding Learning in the Secondary Schools*, "Universal Elements in Human Nature." Twelfth Grade. Wilmington, Del., Public Schools, English Department, September 1954, p. 2.

spect to their family relationships, love of homeland, fears, desire for learning, need for work, desire for adventure, ambitions, love of beauty and nature, need for friendship, and desire for freedom and justice.

The Rochester, N. Y., public schools offer a similar course called "World Understanding." Many schools have units on the theme "Understanding Other People." Besides aiming to show pupils that different nationalities and races have common hopes and fears, such units aim at showing how ecological, environmental, and cultural influences have brought about different values and customs among peoples in various parts of the world.

Written Composition in Senior High Schools

The topics in written composition which Dr. Smith found mentioned 10 or more times in 40 courses of study are as follows:

Senior high schools [29]

Business letters	Reports
Social letters	News stories
Outlining	1,000-word themes
Original essays or stories	Imaginary stories
Précis writing	Writing descriptions
Simple narratives of personal experiences	Note taking
Explanations	Preparation of senior essays

Today, except for the senior essay, each of the above-cited writing activities is recommended in one-third or more of the senior high courses of study. Business and social letters are mentioned in all of the courses which list topics for study. Instead of suggesting 1,000-word themes, 65 percent of the course outlines for grade 11 or 12 recommend the writing of a research paper. A detailed illustrative unit on "Writing the Research Paper"[30] in grade 12A is included in the Chicago language arts guide. Where the program is college-preparatory, the recommendation concerning research papers usually becomes a requirement even though college composition instructors have repeatedly stated that they would prefer to have high school pupils spend their time learning to write shorter compositions instead of lengthy research papers.

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[29] Smith, op. cit. p. 25.

[30] *Teaching Guide for the Language Arts.* Preschool Through Junior College. Chicago Public Schools, n. d., p. 79–81.

A few courses (12 percent) recommend the writing of impromptu or extempore themes under time limitations in class. Analyses, reviews and criticisms of various types of literature are other kinds of writing experience suggested for grades 11 and 12.

Over 80 percent of the courses of study suggest various types of creative writing activities for senior high pupils. Besides writing verse, anecdotes, and personal narratives, pupils are expected to experiment with the writing of radio and TV skits, advertisements, editorials, diaries, feature stories, personal essays, and descriptive prose.

A majority of courses recommend that proofreading be taught throughout the high school years. To teach proofreading, the San Francisco English bulletin recommends that the teacher "Have the writing period a laboratory period during which the teacher helps individual students while the actual writing is being done. * * * Set up a copy desk with rotating members, and have students work at criticizing and correcting papers other students have written. * * * Duplicate or use an opaque projector to show a paper with a great many errors, and have the whole class correct it."[21] Other practical ideas on teaching written composition are given in this bulletin and those published by Oakland, Minneapolis, Salt Lake City, Philadelphia, and the State of Mississippi. A checklist to be used by the student to make him responsible for his own written work is included in *A Guide to Activities in English, Speech, Journalism and Dramatics* published by the Salt Lake City Board of Education. The Denver course offers many suggestions for grading students' papers, including standards for different types of writing, ways to save time in grading, and marking papers. A chapter on the teaching of creative writing—short stories, poetry, plays, essays, and radio plays—is included in *English in the Senior High School,* New York State Education Department.

Oral Communication in Senior High School

Oral communication activities which are suggested by courses of study for senior high school pupils are generally similar to those reported by Dr. Smith in 1932. At least a fourth of the courses she examined included the following:

[21] *Classroom Practices in the Teaching of English.* San Francisco Unified School District, English Curriculum Committee, Secondary Division, 1950–52, p. 57.

Senior High Schools [22]

Conversation	Reports of reading
Speeches	Announcements
Conducting meetings	Storytelling
Relating personal experiences	Debating
Discussion of current topics	Telling anecdotes
Reports from magazines	Oral reading

In addition to the activities listed above, today's curriculum in speech includes panel discussions and symposiums, broadcasting and telecasting, choral speaking, dramatizing, taking part in an interview, practicing social amenities, transacting group business, and introducing speakers. Formal debating seems to be losing its place to informal argumentation in the regular English program.

The specific outcomes desired in oral communication at the senior high school level have been summarized in the Indianapolis course, as quoted below.

SPEAKING [23]

Desired Outcomes—Specific

Personal values:

Pupils should develop—

- Power to express thoughts clearly, effectively, and courteously.
- The habit of following accepted standards of usage.
- A pleasing voice.
- Self-confidence and poise.

Social and civic values:

Pupils should develop—

- Social poise.
- The habit of practicing amenities of polite conversation.
- Reasonable skill in adapting speech appropriate to the occasion.
- Sufficient command of parliamentary procedure to assure a hearing and fair consideration of their ideas.
- Ability to read orally for the pleasure and enlightenment of others.
- Ability to express their ideas on civic affairs clearly, convincingly, and courteously.
- Ability to discuss controversial matters without offending.
- The habit of participating in group discussions.
- Respect for the rights of freedom of speech.

Vocational values:

Pupils should develop—

- Skill in communicating to secure cooperation.
- Communication skills for interviews.

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[22] Smith, op. cit. p. 81.

[23] *The Language Arts.* A Tentative Guide for Teachers, Senior High School. Indianapolis Public Schools Curriculum Bulletin No. 86, 1955, p. 100.

Adequacy in speech for vocational demands.
Imagination in their work.

Listening in the Senior High School

Listening activities in the senior high school are generally aimed at developing and upgrading the skills acquired by pupils in the junior high schools. (See pp. 62 to 65 for a discussion of these skills.) As in the earlier grades, listening skills are taught along with the work in speech. A list of functional activities in speaking and listening is given in the New York City bulletin *English-Speech Language Arts for Senior High Schools*. It emphasizes the importance of listening courteously and attentively, as well as critically, in person-to-person, small-group, and large-audience situations. Also stressed are the abilities to understand the differences betweens news commentaries and news reports, and the ways in which broadcasters appeal to personal interests, emotions, and prejudices. A few bulletins, including the Minnesota and New York City courses of study, offer special units on television, radio, and motion pictures which aim at improving student appreciation of these media.

The many types of listening activities being taught in the senior high school are summarized in one of the Baltimore County language arts guides. It lists these:

Types of Listening Activities

A. Listening to a recorded musical program, a radio drama, a story read by the teacher or by a classmate, a religious service; reporting one's impressions and emotions.
B. Listening to instructions, directions, and explanations by classroom teacher and repeating them accurately and in the order given.
C. Listening to and reproducing anecdotes, stories, radio dramas, sound films, or records—being careful to bring out the point or purpose.
D. Listening to a student report, making brief mental notes of the important points and reporting them.
E. Taking notes on an assembly talk, a lecture by the teacher, or a speech heard over the radio, organizing them, and showing by the arrangement of the outline the main ideas and supporting statements.
F. Listening to an explanation, a speech, or the statement of a point of view, and reporting the gist of it in a sentence or two.
G. Reporting honestly and fairly one of the following: A conversation involving a point of controversy, the debate on a motion in a meeting, the gist of an argument or a discussion.
H. Listening to news summaries on the radio and reporting the most significant ones to the class.
I. Listening to a news commentator and deciding how his review of the news differs from that of a newscaster.

J. Reading aloud to the class a brief article—perhaps an editorial—on some topic of interest, and having the listeners state the central idea.
K. Reading aloud to the class a more sustained article and having the class take notes; then, after allowing time for the organization of the notes in good outline form, comparing and evaluating them.
L. Reading a story aloud or listening to one over the radio, and having someone give a synopsis of the plot.
M. Listening to a radio forum or round table discussion on a controversial issue and reporting to the class the topic under discussion and the several points of view developed.
N. Evaluating the speakers on such a program—stating whether they stuck to the subject under discussion; made their point of view clear; presented their ideas fairly and dispassionately and supported them with facts. * * *
O. Listening to political speeches, to detect such propaganda as name calling, testimonials, etc., and pointing it out.
P. Listening to * * * inspirational programs and reporting one's impressions.
Q. Listening to "escape" music, radio thrillers, adventure movies, and explaining why you like them.
R. Discussing sound effects in radio dramas—devices used, effectiveness; also, the effects of silence.
S. Discussing how music is used in the movies, on the radio—to convey mood, motion, passage of time.
T. Attending a sound picture production, evaluating it yourself, then comparing your evaluation with the news critic's review.
U. Listening to a speech over the radio or at a meeting, then writing a paragraph developing an important point the speaker made.
V. Interviewing a teacher or other adult on some question of policy or opinion and reporting the interview.[34]

Changes in Unit Organization During the Past 25 Years

There have been decided shifts in the organization of the literature program during the past 25 years. The most popular type of literature courses found by Dr. Smith was a list of classics in almost half of the schools in every grade except 11, where the percentage was over 35. Today, very few junior high schools organize literature programs around a list of classics. Except in New England, few public senior high schools use separate classics for the complete program in literature. Where a classic forms the basis for a unit, it is usually a novel or a Shakespearian play taught in grades 10 or 12.

In 1932 the theme type of organization for junior high school literature was used in courses of study as follows: Seventh grade

[34] *Language Arts. Grade Eleven.* Towson, Md., Baltimore County Public Schools, 1953, p. 18–19.

—19.2 percent; eighth grade—15.4 percent; and ninth grade—9 percent. A combined theme and literary type organization was also used in about 10 percent of the courses for grades 7–9.[25] Today, the thematic unit is found in over 75 percent of the junior high courses which contain literature units. The trend, as indicated in the most recent courses, seems to be toward a more extensive use of the theme- or idea-centered unit in grades 7, 8, and 9. In grades 10 and 11 of the high school, Dr. Smith found very slight use of the thematic type of organization (1–3.4 percent), and none in grade 12.[26] Today, 18 percent of the senior high schools use the theme approach for literature in grade 10.

Although the literary type was the form of organization in grade 11 in almost half of the courses of study 25 years ago, today it is only one of several forms of organization and is often combined with a thematic, or modified chronological, or regional organization.

In grade 12 there also has been a shift from an emphasis on the organization of literature according to classics and literary types. Courses in English literature are usually organized chronologically and are divided into literary periods. Courses in world literature are organized either according to chronology or, more recently, philosophical principles, or ethics and ideals.

Table XII.—State requirements for high school English (grades 9–12)

	Years of English required in 1957
Alabama	4.
Arizona	3.
Arkansas	4.
California (for college-prep.)	3 units.
Colorado (not State requirement but School Board practice)	3.
Connecticut (no specific State requirement; local boards of education usually require)	4.
Delaware	4.
Florida	3.
Georgia	3.
Idaho	3.
Illinois	3.
Indiana	3.
Iowa (no State requirement)	4 recommended.

[25] Smith, op. cit. p. 49.
[26] Smith, op. cit. p. 49.

Table XII.—State requirements for high-school English (grades 9–12)—Con.

	Years of English Required in 1957
Kansas	3.
Kentucky	3.
Louisiana	3.
Maine	4.
Maryland	4.
Massachusetts—no requirement by State but most communities require	4.
Michigan—no State requirement but usual practice	3.
Minnesota	4.
Mississippi (4 must be offered)	3 required.
Missouri	3.
Montana	4.
Nebraska (no State requirement)	4 recommended.
Nevada	3.
New Hampshire	4.
New Jersey (no State requirement)	4 customary
New Mexico	3.
New York	4.
North Carolina	4.
North Dakota	4.
Ohio	3.
Oklahoma	4.
Oregon	3.
Pennsylvania (4 years recommended)	3.
Rhode Island	4 customary.
South Carolina	4.
South Dakota	3.
Tennessee	4.
Texas	3.
Utah	3.
Vermont	4.
Virginia	4.
Washington	3.
West Virginia	3.
Wisconsin	3 customary.
Wyoming	3 recommended.
District of Columbia and outlying areas:	
Alaska	3.
Canal Zone	3.
District of Columbia	4.
Hawaii	4.
Puerto Rico	3.

Chapter VII

Providing for Individual Differences

Importance of the Subject

Although much has been written and spoken on the subject of individual differences and though many efforts have been made to provide for them, the problem persists—especially in required subjects such as English. There are several reasons for believing that the problem will become even more complex than it has been. One reason is that the American high school is holding an increasingly large percentage of young people, especially those of lower mental ability, until they are 16 or complete high school. Another is the postwar mobility of the American family, especially of poorly educated groups seeking opportunities for economic and social progress in industrialized urban areas. Adolescents in such families are sometimes many grades behind the achievement levels of pupils of the same age in the communities or school districts to which they migrate. Significant differences in values, codes of conduct, work habits, recreational interests, and vocational goals also exist between the regular, established students and the migratory youth enrolling in a new school. All of these differences in one class add to the responsibilities of the English teacher.

The problem of providing for individual differences, especially among the intellectually gifted pupils, may become more serious as colleges and universities continue to raise their admission requirements and as vocations and professions demand a higher level of language competencies.

Providing adequately for individual differences is the basis of quality in education—quality education for all pupils. During the

past few years, individual parents and citizen groups have become more interested than ever in their schools. A recent development which is causing some American educators to seek ways of improving the quality and content of education for each individual is the increasing need for highly educated and trained manpower, caused in part by the Cold War and technological advances in various parts of the world.

What Courses of Study Are Suggesting

Multitrack Programs

In her study 25 years ago, Dr. Smith found that about one-third of the courses of study offered 2- or 3-track programs and that more than a third offered slow and rapid learners some form of variation from the regular course. Today, only about one-fourth of the courses of study indicate that a multitrack program is being followed. Schools having such a program are usually in the New England States, California, and the large metropolitan areas such as St. Louis, Mo., and Washington, D. C.

However, courses of study may not give a true picture of the extent to which the multitrack program is being used; for many schools which have a 2- or 3-track program in language arts may not have prepared courses of study for any but the general or academic programs. There does, however, seem to be a new interest in the multitrack program, especially in large cities and industrial areas. About 15 percent of the courses of study refer to a 2-track program; another 10 percent refer to a 3-track program.

Except for a few schools experimenting with a 4-track program, those having several tracks follow either a 2- or 3-track plan. Where the 2-track plan is followed, as in the senior high school of York, Pa., one track is for the academic or college-bound pupils and the other is for the nonacademic or terminal group. However, some schools—such as Bakersfield, Calif.—use the second track for poor readers and low-ability pupils.

Glendale, Ariz., has a track in enriched or academic English for pupils who have maintained an average of "2" or better in previous work, or have shown an achievement level above average. Other pupils follow a track in general or modified English from grade 9 through grade 11. Glendale pupils in the enriched or

academic course study the same literature as other pupils but do more intensive and extensive reading, write more compositions, give more oral reports, and engage in more projects related to the class aims.

Schools in districts or States which require four units of English for graduation occasionally have a special college-preparatory course in grade 12 and a second course in general English which aims at helping a pupil acquire the language skills needed to succeed in his vocational and social activities. In such courses, one finds a strong emphasis on the development of communication skills, the appreciation of modern literature, and an understanding of the role of mass media, especially magazines and newspapers. A unit on "Choosing a Career" or "After High School—What?" is sometimes included in the 12th grade general education course.

Still another type of program aimed at providing for individual differences is offered in the Nyack, N. Y., Senior High School. There, the 2-track program which is followed is administered in a flexible manner. Pupils of widely varied abilities are to be found in both tracks. Special courses, called career English, are provided for groups of terminal students. "Some groups, however, consist chiefly of above average and superior students who expect to attend college."[1]

Three-track programs are not mentioned as frequently in courses of study as 2-track programs. Intelligence score, reading ability, and previous achievement in language arts are three criteria most often used for placement of pupils in one of the tracks. For example, the Colorado Springs High School provides three levels of English instruction for grades 10 and 11. To the regular or college-preparatory course are assigned all pupils who are recommended by their former teachers and who receive a ninth-grade rating on the standardized tests given in the junior high school or on the achievement tests given by the local department of tests and measurements. Assigned to the general or second-level course are those pupils who receive an eighth-grade rating on the standardized achievement tests and who are recommended by their former teachers. The basic or third-level course is for pupils receiving a rating of seventh grade, or below, on the standardized tests and also for pupils who score higher than grade 7 on the tests but are recommended for the basic course because they failed to achieve in the

[1] *The Language Arts Program in Nyack Junior and Senior High Schools, English 7–12*, Nyack, N. Y., 1955, p. 1.

higher grade level. "This modification," states the bulletin of the department of English, "allows the teacher of English to center attention on the basic need of all the pupils and to provide enrichment of a course for brighter pupils and remedial activities for the slower learner. * * * The plan gives each pupil the benefit of experiencing a reasonable success commensurate with his ability."[2]

The Sacramento, Calif., schools also have three separate programs. The third track—which is for the slowest pupils—contains work somewhat similar to that done by the other groups; however, the teachers of pupils in the third track set a slower pace and have lower standards of achievement.

A few courses of study include work in remedial English in addition to English courses for the regular and superior students. For example, Maywood, Ill., has three separate courses for these groups in grades 9–12. Each course contains different units and uses different texts. Pupils placed in remedial English courses are repeaters or entering freshmen scoring 90 or less on an intelligence test or having a reading level below grade 7.

"A," "B," and "C" rails are provided for grades 7 through 12 in the English courses of study for pupils in the San Angelo, Tex., public schools. Students assigned to the "A" rail are those who have consistently done excellent work in English. In each grade, "A" students are expected to review the grammatical principles more rapidly than pupils in rail "B" and are also expected to spend more time on the difficult principles. For the "A" group, reading materials are more advanced, the study of literature as an art is emphasized, and higher standards are set in both speaking and writing. Creativity and a sense of responsibility are two traits which are encouraged in the "A" program, and more time is devoted to composition work and reading than to drill exercises. The bulletin also says, "The reading and memorizing of poetry, the reading of prose classics, the discussion of apt wording, and an occasional attempt at creative expression should give a continuing growth in the appreciation of the beauty and utility of the language."[3]

As mentioned earlier, a few schools are experimenting with a 4-track program in language arts. The Sandusky, Ohio, Junior High School course of study for grades 7 and 8 describes the plan as follows:

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[2] *Curriculum Outlines and Course of Study of the Department of English.*" Colorado Springs, Colo., High School, March 1954, p. 2.

[3] *English Curriculum Studies.* Grades 7–8. San Angelo, Tex., Public Schools, 1955–56, p. 8.

> Our school system has tried to satisfy the needs of the students by using an adjusted curriculum with texts suited to the abilities of the various groups. By means of a testing program already started in the earlier grades and recommendations of the teachers, our student body is classified into four levels of ability for part of the school-day.
>
> We speak of these as groups I, II, III, and IV; group I being the accelerated students; group II, the average group; group III, the slow learners; group IV, the special class.
>
> Students in groups I, II, and III study the same basic material in English. However, the teacher adapts the depth of the material taught to the capacities and needs of his pupils. Students in group IV use the basic material outlined for group IV.[4]

In Group IV—which is largely composed of pupils who are 3 to 4 years retarded—teachers stress work in human relations, improvement of reading, oral communication, spelling, and the writing of meaningful sentences. Pupils read stories on their interest level but near their ability level. To broaden the pupils' experience, teachers read more advanced literature to them.

So that teachers may know their students well and give them individual attention, pupils in grades 7 and 8 in the Sandusky schools remain with the same teacher for two consecutive periods. In grade 7 the two periods include English and geography; and in grade 8, English and history. Thus, with 3 sections a day the teacher has only half as many students as he would have in 6 different classes. "Teaching these combined subjects in successive periods allows a freedom of time and often a correlation of oral reports and book reports,"[5] according to the introduction of the 1955-56 Sandusky, Ohio, guide. The plan was started in 1949.

This type of scheduling, which is known as block scheduling, seems to have become a definite trend in the junior high school during the past few years according to a study made and reported in 1956 by Ellsworth Tompkins.[6]

The high schools in Hartford, Conn., also group students in four sections on the basis of their ability and achievement. The four sections are: Honors, academic, general, and personal.

To be scheduled for the honors class, a pupil must be recommended by his English teacher, and she must feel sure that he has the ability to do "A" or "B" work throughout the next school

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[4] *Sandusky Junior High School Course of Study*. Grades 7-8. Sandusky, Ohio, Sandusky Junior High School, 1955-56, p. 2.

[5] Ibid., p. 2.

[6] Ellsworth Tompkins. "The Daily Schedule in Junior High Schools." A Study of the Committee on Junior High School Education. *The Bulletin* of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, May 1956, p. 176-220.

year. Also, pupils in grade 8 who are recommended for a ninth-grade honors class should have scored on the eighth-grade level, or higher, in the following sections of a standardized achievement test: Paragraph meaning, vocabulary, language usage, and spelling. The purpose of the honors class "is to provide special opportunities for the gifted youngster, who need not be preparing for college but definitely is material for those colleges having the most rigid requirements in English."[7]

A pupil is placed in the academic section in Hartford upon the recommendations of teachers who feel that the pupil is capable of earning a "C" or better in the regular English course. An eighth-grade pupil who is recommended for the academic class should have an eighth-grade equivalent and should have scored at the eighth-grade level in paragraph meaning and language usage. The academic class aims at training students who may or may not be planning to attend college.

General English in the Hartford high schools is for students who might receive a "C" or more probably a "D" or an "E" in a regular English class, who do not plan to go to college, and who need some individual attention and some remedial work in English. As eighth-grade students, they should have achieved at least a sixth-grade level on the language parts of a standardized achievement test.

The personal class is for low-ability pupils who require a very simplified course in English and who need much individual and remedial work. Eighth-graders recommended for the personal class should also have scored below the sixth-grade level on pertinent parts of a standardized achievement test. To insure flexibility in the program, students may be transferred from one section to another when advisable, especially during the first marking period of each year.

2. *Individualizing Instruction*

Almost all courses of study emphasize the need for teachers to individualize the language arts program for the benefit of students ranging from the slowest to the brightest. Many courses point out that teachers must know their students' strengths, weaknesses, and deficiencies in language skills if they are to individualize instruction. Classroom performance, standardized test results, re-

[7] *Courses of Study in English, Grades 9 12.* Hartford, Conn., Public Schools, 1954, p. 1.

ports from parents, and pupil accomplishments in extraclass activities are all means by which teachers are learning about their pupils, according to instructional guides. Teachers are also given suggestions for learning about the pupil's home background, his personality problems, and his educational and vocational goals.

Frequently, this information is acquired through the oral and written activities of pupils. Compositions on personal subjects such as, "How I See Myself," "People Don't Understand Me," "I'm Confused," "It's Hard to Grow Up," "Why Did I Do That?" all suggested in the Palo Alto, Calif., guides for grades 7-9—help the teacher to understand the pupil as well as the pupil to understand himself.

As indicated in chapter V, resource units are one means of providing activities related to pupil needs and interests. In discussing the development of units, the Pennsylvania State course of study states that:

> Any unit should be based upon the needs of the particular group of pupils with whom the teacher is working. This start presupposes, on the part of the teacher, a knowledge of adolescents in general and of these adolescents in particular. The former knowledge is gained from a study of authorities; the latter, from observation, home visits, study of school records, interviews, and testing.[8]

The Pennsylvania course also points out that the teacher should study the community in which a pupil is reared, especially the racial composition, the value systems, the problems, and the educational level of the community. Beginning teachers and teachers who have not lived long in the community in which they teach can overcome many instructional problems by studying the community.

Although some courses attempt to meet the needs of rapid and slow learners by means of multi-track programs, others provide a single curriculum and attempt to enrich the program for the pupil of high intelligence and to modify and simplify it for the less capable pupil.

For example, a chapter, "We Provide for Individual Differences," in the high school language arts guide for Oakland, Calif., makes several specific suggestions for teaching both slow and rapid learners. It points out that "* * * the teacher should provide for the gifted pupil some common experiences which he shares with other adolescents as well as some experiences different in

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[8] *Courses of Study in English.* Harrisburg, Pa., State Department of Public Instruction Bulletin 280, 1952, p. 18.

kind, quality, and level of insight."[9] After pointing out that gifted pupils have the same basic needs as other children, the bulletin cautions teachers to avoid giving bright pupils an exaggerated notion of the importance of their abilities or of precipitating them into adult patterns.

> They should be allowed to do considerable independent planning which challenges their initiative and resourcefulness. These pupils need opportunities for problem solving which require collecting data, weighing values, making decisions, drawing conclusions, and directing action.[10]

Among the suggestions offered in the Oakland guide for the teaching of bright pupils are these:

> 1. Extend the range and variety of their reading to include more biographical, scientific, esthetic, and philosophical works.
> 2. Encourage originality.
> 3. Establish higher standards and encourage bright pupils to read at levels commensurate with their ability.
> 4. Develop increasing independence by letting gifted pupils assume responsibility in planning, executing, and evaluating their own work.
> 5. Increase and refine their skills of reading comprehension, interpretation, and critical thinking.
> 6. Improve their work habits.
> 7. Provide them a variety of reading materials and increase the amount and quality of reading.
> 8. Provide enrichment activities in dramatics, television, radio, science, and poetry, as well as in art and music for pupils with talent.
> 9. Relate reading to firsthand experience in the community.
> 10. Develop leadership qualities.
> 11. Guide social adjustment.
> 12. Provide a variety of writing activities, especially creative writing of short stories and poetry.[11]

Needs of slow students, too, are being identified and the reasons for their retardation recognized. Courses of study in language arts are recommending that slow pupils be taught language skills and reading content that will help them live better lives at home and in the community. Work in language arts is being related to family life and vocational needs. These include courtesy in conversation, neatness in writing, care of property, ability to work with others and to follow instructions, clear enunciation, ability to keep records and to write accurate reports, and many other abilities.

In the field of reading, slow learners are being given special instruction, often on individualized or small-group bases. Among

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[9] *The Language Arts Guide Third Progress Report.* Grades 7 through 12. Oakland, Calif., Public Schools, December 1953, p. 211.

[10] Ibid., p. 212.

[11] Ibid., p. 213–14.

the skills being taught are recognition of new words, learning vocabulary through context and dictionary use, finding main ideas and details through outlining, defining reading purpose, adjusting rate to purpose and difficulty of material, following punctuation signals, and understanding the author's message.[12]

The needs of slow learners are being met by some teachers through intraclass grouping in heterogeneous classes. After the deficiencies and needs of slow pupils have been identified through tests and observation, the teacher gives special instruction in spelling, grammar, or reading to small groups of pupils who have common weaknesses. Such pupils may use reading materials with a vocabulary and conceptual load which are slightly above their level of reading comprehension. That is, a small group of eighth-graders retarded 3 years in reading may be reading a story or article having a fifth- or sixth-grade level of readability. Extensive reading is generally advocated and used as a means for improving the literary appreciation of all pupils.

In addition to these types of group instruction, teachers who can find time are giving individual instruction to pupils by suggesting special projects related to their ability and interest. If John likes baseball, his English teacher or athletic coach recommends biographies of Babe Ruth or Mickey Mantle. Another slow learner may be reading easy books about deep sea diving, mountain climbing, or outdoor life. Individualized assignments are being used by skillful teachers who have small classes and a reasonable teaching load.

Courses of study and guides which contain suggestions for teaching slow learners usually advise teachers to follow these basic principles:

1. Help the pupil to understand the practical value of what he is doing.
2. Use language which the child understands.
3. Use the inductive approach so that the pupil can formulate his own rules or principles.
4. Make drills short and snappy.
5. Overcome vocabulary and conceptual difficulties by doing teaching during assignments.
6. Have frequent reviews of skills taught.
7. Have pupils use newly learned skills in and out of school.
8. Praise pupils for achievement—even though it may seem slight.
9. Help pupils see the progress that they have made.

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[12] Arno Jewett (ed.), *Improving Reading in the Junior High School.* Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, Office of Education Bulletin 1957, No. 10, p. 151–61, Appendix I.

Instead of recommending that slow pupils be taught grammar and usage by diagraming and parsing, a few recent courses of study suggest the oral approach to good usage. With this approach the pupil hears the correct form and repeats it aloud several times in different contexts.

Instead of trying to teach essay and poetry writing to slow students, teachers are showing them how to fill out forms, order blanks, and questionnaires as well as how to write brief, factual reports and friendly and social letters.

Acceleration

Another plan which makes possible a special program for the bright pupil is acceleration. Under this plan pupils do 3 years' work in 2 years, or even 2 years' work in 1. They do not skip grades. In large schools, they usually are grouped with pupils of the same chronological age. Today, several thousand bright junior high school pupils in New York City are studying language arts in special-progress classes in which they cover the 3-year program in 2 years. To enter a special-progress class, a pupil finishing the sixth grade must have an I. Q. of 130 or higher, have a reading grade score of 8.5, be 11 years or older, have a superior school record, be emotionally stable, be physically fit, and have permission from his parents to pursue the program.

In describing the work done in accelerated classes, Mary A. Kennedy, Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Curriculum, Junior High School Division, New York City Schools, writes:

> Special accent is placed on creative writing. Pupils are encouraged to write scripts for presentation over the public address system and for inclusion in school newspapers and magazines. Often these works are broadened into full-length playlets or novelettes. Students are given opportunity to engage in research. Some compile anthologies of poetry and prose. Panel discussions, mock trials, and public forums also constitute a generous share of the program. Students take an active part in the preparation of presentations for assemblies and parents' meetings.
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> * * * * * * *
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> Gifted pupils under teacher guidance often survey the community to gather news and report to their classes regarding new developments in settlement houses, parks, churches, and the like. Under teacher guidance they also assist in scheduling visits for agents of the government, speakers from the police and fire departments and welfare agencies. When the schools cooperate with neighborhood agencies in

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cleanup campaigns and safety drives, gifted students also take the lead.[13]

In an evaluation of the special-progress classes in New York City, Joseph N. Justman found that there was little difference in the personal and social adjustment of matched groups of intellectually gifted pupils drawn from the special-progress classes and those drawn from the normal-progress classes. Dr. Justman also reports that "The segregation of intellectually gifted pupils in a special class is generally accompanied by academic achievement superior to that normally attained by equally gifted pupils who remain in normal-progress groups. * * * The indications are that some of the advantage is associated with pupil enrollment in a special-progress group."[14] In this study, the special-progress pupils did better in writing poems and stories than matched pupils in the regular classes. Mean differences in favor of the special-progress students were statistically significant in overall quality of writing and in vividness of diction, style, creativity, and technical aspects of composition.

Similar results in favor of moderate acceleration of carefully selected students with high intelligence, social stability, and physical fitness have been reported by Lewis Terman, Sidney Pressey, and Noel Keys. Their studies show that young students in college consistently equal or surpass the achievement of older students of equivalent intelligence. Findings reported by the director of the Program for Early Admission to College, sponsored by the Fund for the Advancement of Education, show similar results in favor of carefully guided acceleration of students with high academic ability and personal maturity. Under this program, students who had not completed the last year or 2 of high school were admitted as freshmen to certain colleges and universities provided they had attained high scores on scholastic aptitude and achievement tests.

The Long Beach, Calif., junior and senior high schools also consider acceleration of pupils to be part of their academic program. In addition to an ability grouping program in academic sections, the Long Beach handbooks for high-school teachers recommend that teachers consider the background of each superior pupil:

[13] Robert J. Havighurst, Eugene Stivers, and Robert F. DeHaan, *A Survey of the Education of Gifted Children*. Chicago, Ill., The University of Chicago Press, Supplementary Educational Monographs No. 88, November 1955, p. 71–72.

[14] Joseph Justman, "Academic Achievement of Intellectually Gifted Accelerants and Non-Accelerants in Junior High School," *The School Review*, March 1954, p. 150.

> * * * with a view to the possibility of accelerating him. In those cases where it was felt that the child would profit from special promotion, was physically mature, had shown good personal-social development, had made superior subject achievement, and where the parents gave their consent, acceleration would be permited. * * * This would normally provide one 1 year's acceleration in the total program and never more than 2 years. * * *
>
> *It is strongly urged that all school personnel recognize that, no matter what grouping and acceleration practices be utilized,* enrichment of each very superior pupil's program is a necessity. * * * [15]

In spite of the research findings which seem to favor moderate acceleration of gifted youth who are socially and physically mature, only a small percentage of schools have used acceleration as a means of providing for rapid learners. Only 4 percent of the junior high schools, 4 percent of the senior high schools, and 2 percent of the 4-year high schools having enrollments of over 300 reported in 1954 that they had special classes where acceleration was practiced.[16]

In view of the ever-increasing percentage of high school graduates going to college, of the accelerated extension of knowledge, of the national demands for specialized knowledge and skills, one might ask why only a few schools in America are experimenting with acceleration as a means of permitting gifted youth to reach higher levels of academic study than they might otherwise attain under the escalator pace normally offered to these young people.

Elective Courses

As indicated in this study, the most popular elective courses in language arts are world literature, modern literature, speech and public speaking, journalism, creative writing, and dramatics. These electives are usually offered to seniors, and occasionally to both juniors and seniors. Where English is required in the senior year, college bound students are often expected to take the traditional course in English literature or at least a world literature course with strong emphasis on English literature.

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[15] *The Very Superior Pupil.* A Handbook for the Junior High School Teacher. Long Beach, Calif., Public Schools, Division of Instruction, 1955, p. 4.

[16] Arno Jewett, J. Dan Huß, and Others. *Teaching Rapid and Slow Learners in High School.* Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, Office of Education Bulletin 1954, No. 5, p. 8.

Chapter VIII

Changes in English Programs During the Past Quarter Century

SEVERAL CHANGES in English programs have taken place during the past quarter century—at least as reflected in the courses of study and teaching guides in use today. Most of these changes, as described below, have come about gradually—at times almost imperceptibly—in response to new demands, social changes, and research findings.

Developmental Reading Instruction

Devolopmental reading is being made a part of the language arts programs of many junior high schools and of a few senior high schools. In her survey 25 years ago, Dr. Smith did not refer to developmental reading programs as such, although she did find that about one-third of the junior high school courses mentioned reading skills, often in connection with remedial programs. Today, almost half of the junior high courses have a section on aims and activities for a reading program which may be termed developmental. In these courses, developmental reading is often considered to be a "sequential program of instruction which (1) reinforces and extends desirable reading skills and appreciations acquired in earlier grades; and (2) develops new skills and appreciations as they are needed to comprehend advanced and complex forms of written communication."[1]

Most developmental reading programs in junior and senior high schools aim at teaching the pupil to—

[1] Arno Jewett (ed.), *Improving Reading in the Junior High School.* Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, Office of Education Bulletin 1957, No. 10, p. 87.

(1) define and keep in mind his reading purpose;
(2) adjust his speed to his purpose and to suit the difficulty of the material;
(3) extend his vocabulary;
(4) locate and recall main ideas;
(5) locate and recall important details;
(6) see cause and effect relationships;
(7) read with critical alertness and judgment;
(8) distinguish between fact and opinion;
(9) know how to find reliable information;
(10) understand the author's purpose or theme.

Other reading aims found in courses of study and guides are to help pupils: Follow punctuation signals, understand differences between types of poetry and prose, interpret symbols, understand figurative speech, sense the author's tone, visualize images, follow flashbacks, and distinguish between fiction which conveys false values and stereotypes and fiction which portrays life accurately.

The prevailing philosophy of the teaching of developmental reading in high school is expressed in an English bulletin published by the San Francisco schools. It points out that:

> The organized teaching of reading as a skill should not stop suddenly at the end of elementary school. Most students in junior and senior high schools and even in colleges need continuous help in improving their reading for speed, understanding, and appreciation. Such improvement is of vital importance, since inability to read is one of the greatest single causes of frustration in students and is thought by many authorities to be a basic cause for failure and dropping out.[2]

Another guide points out that all members of the school staff should assume responsibility for teaching reading, but that the English teacher "should assume leadership in helping teachers in other subject areas with reading techniques and aid in developing a schoolwide reading program."[3]

To be developmental, the junior high reading program must build on the progress pupils have made in the elementary school. Recognition that the teaching of reading in high school must be closely articulated with the elementary school program is found in the following courses of study: *Language Arts*, the Maryland State Department of Education; *Growth in Language From Kindergarten Through High School*, the New Jersey Department of Education; *A Guide for Teaching the Language Arts, Kinder-*

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[2] *Classroom Practices in the Teaching of English.* San Francisco Unified School District, 1952, p. 49.

[3] *The Language Arts Guide, Third Progress Report, Grades Seven Through Twelve.* Oakland, Calif., Public Schools, 1958, p. 145.

garten Through Grade Twelve, Denver public schools; and *English Language Arts: Grades 7-8-9*, Board of Education, New York City.

The Maryland guide includes a scope and sequence chart of reading abilities and skills which the committee believes should be taught at the primary, intermediate, junior high school, and senior high school levels. A similar chart has been included in high school guides prepared by language arts committees in Indianapolis and San Francisco. (See appendix A.)

Literature About People in Other Parts of the World

In response to America's interest in world affairs and her position of leadership in the free world, over two-thirds of the courses developed since 1950 include units aimed at developing an understanding and appreciation of other peoples and cultures. Units on other peoples and countries are found in grades 7 through 12. Also, as mentioned in chapter VI, 13 percent of the local courses of study require a course in world literature; and another 10 percent of the bulletins refer to courses in world literature which are offered as electives. Cities offering this elective include Aberdeen, S. Dak.; Duluth, Minn.; Philadelphia, Pa.; Portland, Oreg.; Reno, Nev.; and Whitefish Bay, Wis.

In her study 25 years ago, Dr. Smith reported only one elective course in "world masterpieces." Under her statement of aims of teaching literature in the high school, no reference was made to developing an appreciation of other peoples and cultures through the study of world literature.

Pupil Guidance Through Speaking and Writing

During the past 25 years, learning experiences in speaking and writing have become closely related to the social, vocational, personal, and civic needs of youth. After her analysis of composition aims as given in courses of study current in 1932, Dr. Smith reported that "The desirability of having ideas to express occurs seventh in the list, and the bearing of these ideas upon the social and civic relationships in everyday life is as low as 14th."[4] Her

[4] Dora V. Smith, *Instruction in English*. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, Office of Education Bulletin 1932, No. 17, Monograph No. 20, p. 18 and 19.

study also reported that the aim of fitting pupils for the oral and written activities of daily living was 10th in a list of 15 aims in teaching composition. In the field of oral activities, Dr. Smith found a more functional emphasis.

As shown in chapters V and VI, resource units which have a guidance emphasis usually suggest numerous writing and speaking activities aimed at helping youth understand themselves and their associates. For grades 7 through 12, units such as "Growing Up," "Understanding Oneself," "Family Life," and "Understanding Others," often provide literary selections which motivate students to write and speak about their personal problems and their relationships with others.

Today's courses of study, as indicated in chapter VI, suggest communication activities closely related to the needs of youth in school, in the home, and in the community. In fact, a few schools recommend that teachers have their pupils make a study of how they use language and then make an analysis of the competencies they need to develop.

Improving Listening Skills

Although the teaching of listening skills was not mentioned in Dr. Smith's survey 25 years ago, suggestions for teaching listening are found today in 70 percent of the State guides and 76 percent of the local guides.

The importance of listening has been brought into focus by the popularity of the radio, motion pictures, and television as media of instruction as well as entertainment. Today, listening is considered one of the language arts.

As stated in the Pennsylvania *Course of Study in English for the Secondary Schools:*

> Listening is one of the fundamental language skills. It is a medium through which children, young people, and adults gain a large portion of their education—their information, their understanding of the world and of human affairs, their ideals, sense of values, and their appreciation. In this day of mass communication (much of it oral), it is of vital importance that our pupils be taught to listen effectively and critically.[5]

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[5] Commonwealth of Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, Harrisburg. Bulletin 290, 1952, p. 36.

Study of Television and Other Mass Media

During the past quarter century the influence of mass media upon pupils' language habits, vocabulary knowledge, cultural values, behavior patterns, and knowledge of life in general has become increasingly powerful. Recognition of this development has led many curriculum committees to incorporate learning activities and sometimes units on mass media in their courses of study.

Today, two-thirds of the courses of study and guides include suggestions for teaching about magazines, newspapers, radio, and television. The chief aims of such instruction are to help pupils become discriminating in their selection of mass media, to evaluate what they read and hear, and to appreciate and enjoy worthwhile programs based on well-known literature.

Almost half of the courses covering grades 7 through 12 have one or more units on mass media. A few courses offer units at successive grade levels. For example, the Minnesota *Guide for Instruction in the Language Arts* includes these units: "Choosing Books and Movies" (grade 9); "Radio and Television" (grade 10); "The Role of the Press" (grade 11); and "Motion Pictures" (grade 12). Besides having separate units on mass media, courses of study suggest many activities related to newspapers, magazines, movies, and television in other units which are literature- or language-centered.

Units on television in recent courses of study often include the following topics for study: (1) Sources of information about programs; (2) criteria for judging quality of programs, especially newscasts, panels, and variety shows; (3) the nature of advertising; (4) the effect of language; and (5) the influence of television on people.

Teaching Critical Thinking

Dr. Smith, in 1932, reported that she had found only slight emphasis in courses of study on the teaching of critical thinking. Today, however, over half of the courses of study include objectives and activities which pertain to the teaching of propaganda analysis or critical thinking. In a few instances, as in the North Dakota bulletin *The English Language Arts* and the Iowa bulletin *English, Grades 11 and 12*, separate units are offered for grade 12. The New York bulletin *English in the Senior High School*

includes a section called "Propaganda: How To Recognize and Analyze It;" but the bulletin says that critical thinking requires context and that the techniques and skills should be employed in all problem-centered units.

Units and activities on critical thinking aim at helping pupils to note emotional appeals, loaded words, slanted communication, value judgments, stereotypes, half truths, diversionary arguments, name calling, and pseudoauthorities. Pupils are being taught to ask and answer the questions: What is said? By whom? For what purpose? In what way? With what authority?

Instruction in Elementary Semantics

Recent courses of study in language arts seem to be moving away from propaganda analysis to a study of elementary semantics and the nature of language. Separate units of this type are to be found in bulletins produced by curriculum committees in Portland, Oreg.; Rochester, N. Y.; Tulare County, and Long Beach, Calif.; Seattle, Wash.; and the States of Iowa, New Jersey, and Minnesota; and other places.

The Baltimore County, Md., bulletins include units entitled: "You and Your Language," "Look at Your Language," and "Language Has Manners, Too." Among titles of units published by other school systems are: "Understanding Our Language," "Communicating in Our Home Town" (grade 9); "The Power of Language" (grade 10); and "Language in Contemporary Life" (grade 12).

Such units usually acquaint pupils with the history of language, its social purpose, its imperfections as a tool for communication, its dynamic quality and evolving nature, the nature of meaning, levels of abstraction, connotation, report language, and the power of language.

Other Major Emphases

As suggested or pointed out in earlier chapters, there have been several other major developments in language arts programs during the past quarter of a century. In brief, they are as follows:

(1) an increased use of the unit method of instruction, especially of the resource unit;

(2) a nationwide movement to teach reading, writing, speaking, and listening skills together whenever they are interrelated in a learning situation;
(3) an extensive use of the thematic or idea-centered unit, especially in the junior high school;
(4) a renewed interest in adapting the instructional program to meet the needs and promote the abilities of rapid- and- slow-learning pupils;
(5) an effort to determine adequate scope and sequence for the language arts program, especially in grammar, usage, mechanics, and reading;
(6) a general concern for improving articulation between all divisions of the school system from kindergarten through college;
(7) a concerted effort to teach youth an appreciation of the privileges and obligations of living in a free, democratic society and to instill in youth the moral values and ethics which help to unify free peoples.

These are among the significant changes which have taken place in English programs during the past 25 years. Almost all of them have come about as the result of changes in our national and international scene, the results of carefully conducted research, and the leadership of professionally oriented individuals, local and State groups, and national organizations.

The directions which English programs will take in the future are certain to be affected by changes on the local, national, and international scenes. Our free civilization will continue to make more exacting and difficult demands upon youth in the areas of the language arts. Language is the coin for creative thinking as well as the currency for exchanging ideas. It produces dividends in our daily life. It is the means whereby our spiritual and moral values are passed on through literature from one generation to the next.

Because of his or her responsibilities for teaching reading, writing, speaking, and listening, the teacher of language arts is the person upon whom the success of the entire educational program depends. This is a fact which curriculum workers in every area of knowledge must consider in their efforts to improve the quality of secondary and higher education. For only as they build on basic communicative skills and cultural values can all high school teachers provide the best possible education for America's youth.

Appendix A.—Scope and Sequence Chart

(Page 97 through 104 prepared by Committee on Curriculum Problems in Secondary School English, San Francisco Unified School District.)

Grade Expectancies in the Communications Skills

Writing	Spelling and word study	Speaking and listening	Skills and grammar	Skills in punctuation and capitalization
		GRADE 7		
I. Manuscript form as in Style Sheet: A. Correct heading. B. Neatness. C. Legibility. II. Simple sentence as a tool for expressing a single idea. III. Paragraph: A. Topic sentence. B. Closing sentence. IV. Social correspondence: A. Friendly letter. B. Informal invitation. C. Thanks. D. Sympathy. V. Topical outlining for original papers (8 level). VI. Book reports. VII. Careful revision of written work.	I. State text—Word mastery. II. Lists. A. Personal. B. From reading. C. From written work. D. From Classroom Practices. E. From Style Sheet. III. Contractions and possessives. IV. Syllabication. V. Synonyms and antonyms. VI. Prefixes, suffixes, and roots. VII. Dictionary: A. Definition. B. Diacritical marks. C. Parts of speech. D. Inflections. E. Selecting definition suitable to context.	*(All principles of construction and style listed under writing apply to speaking as well)* I. Discussion—(class): As preparation for written work. II. Conversation: A. Smalltalk. B. Telephone. C. Social introductions. D. Giving directions. III. Storytelling: A. Anecdotes—(surprise ending). B. Joke (comic). C. Personal incidents (narrative). IV. Reports: A. Books and magazines. B. Current events. C. Hobbies and interests. D. Announcements. V. Parliamentary procedure (basic): A. Presiding and recording officers. B. Getting the floor.	GRADE L7 I. Subject: Simple and compound. II. Predicate: Simple and compound. III. Parts of speech: Definition and recognition (except adjective and adverb). IV. Prepositional phrases: Recognition. V. Correction of fragment and run-on sentence. GRADE H7 I. Review as needed. II. Direct object: Especially pronoun. III. Predicate noun: Especially pronoun. IV. Predicate adjective. V. Parts of speech: Recognition and use; emphasis on personal pronoun.	I. Period: A. Terminal. B. With abbreviations. II. Comma: A. Direct address. B. Yes and no. C. Series. D. Direct quotation. E. Letter parts. III. Quotation marks: A. Simple quotation. B. Broken quotation. IV. Apostrophe: A. Possession. B. Contractions. V. Exclamation mark. VI. Colon in expressing time. VII. Capitalization: A. Proper nouns and adjectives. B. First word in sentence. C. The pronoun I. D. Titles.

Grade Expectancies in the Communications Skills—Continued

Writing	Spelling and word study	Speaking and listening	Skills and grammar	Skills in punctuation and capitalization
		GRADE 7		
		(All principles of construction and style listed under writing apply to speaking as well) C. Making a motion. D. Nominating and electing. VI. Speeches: A. Extempore (brief). B. Theme (1-2 minutes). VII. Choral reading. VIII. Courteous listening. IX. Memorizing: A. Short dramatic sketches. B. Short selections—prose and poetry. Attention to— 1. Ease and confidence. 2. Enunciation. 3. Suitable pace. 4. Simple sentence outline. 5. Maintaining audience contact.	VI. Clauses: Recognition. VII. Relation of word order to meaning.	

GRADE 8

I. Extension of 7th grade learnings.
II. Compound sentence as combination of equal ideas.
Complex sentence as combination of unequal ideas.
III. Paragraph: Logical development.
IV. Business letter.
V. Book reports—varied forms:
A. Letters.
B. Diaries.
C. Poems.
D. Book jackets.
VI. Original narrative.
VII. Newswriting.
VIII. Scripts for dramatization.
IX. Verse (optional).

I. Continuation of 7th grade.
II. Emphases in spelling:
A. Plurals of nouns.
B. Words spelled phonetically.
C. Abbreviations.
III. Emphases in word study.
A. Specific terms for vague generalities (pleasant or decent for nice).
B. Origins of personal and family names and of place names.
C. Choosing among synonyms.

I. Review as needed.
II. Discussions:
A. Informal.
B. Panel.
III. Dramatization.
IV. Speeches:
A. Extempore.
B. Introductions—platform.
C. Theme (2-3 minutes).
D. Microphone.
V. Interpretive reading:
A. Choral.
B. Plays.
C. Poetry.
D. Prose.
VI. Voice recording for evaluation.
VII. Listening for information:
A. In class and assembly.
B. Radio and TV.
C. Following directions.
Attention to—
1. Posture.
2. Pronunciation.
3. Topic outline.

GR L8

I. Review as needed.
II. Indirect object: Especially pronoun.
III. Modifiers:
A. Adjective:
1. Comparison.
2. Position in sentence.
B. Adverb:
1. Comparison.
2. Confusion with adjective.
C. Prepositional phrase.
IV. Verbs:
A. Tense.
B. Auxiliary.
C. Present participle.
D. Past participle.
E. Conjugation of to be.

GR H8

I. Review as needed.
II. Clauses (as modifiers).
III. Kinds of sentences:
A. Simple.
B. Compound.
C. Complex.
IV. Sentence structure:
A. Agreement of subject and predicate.
B. Inverted order.
C. Understood subject.
V. Nouns, pronouns:
A. Case.
B. Number.
C. Gender.

I. Period: Review.
II. Comma:
A. Review.
B. Phrases in series.
C. Compound sentence.
D. Introductory words, phrases, clauses.
III. Question mark: Review.
IV. Apostrophe:
A. Review.
B. Plurals of letters and figures.
V. Quotation mark: Review.
VI. Exclamation mark: Review.
VII. Colon in business letter.
VIII. Semicolon:
A. Compound sentences.
B. In series of dates, addresses, and the like.
IX. Capitalization:
A. Titles.
B. In letter parts.

Grade Expectancies in the Communications Skills—Continued

Writing	Spelling and word study	Speaking and listening	Skills and grammar	Skills in punctuation and capitalization
		GRADE 9		
I. Extension of 8th grade learnings. II. Paragraph: A. Unity. B. Coherence. C. Emphasis. III. Précis writing. IV. Written reports: A. Minutes of meeting. B. Assigned topics. 1. Bibliography. 2. Reading notes. V. 150–300 word theme. VI. Substituting vivid verbs for profuse modification. VII. Eradicating undesirable mannerisms. VIII. Discouraging use of incomplete comparison. IX. Discouraging overuse of superlatives.	I. Continuation of 8th grade. II. Emphases in spelling: A. Rule for final e before a suffix. B. ie-ei rule, and exceptions. C. Words misspelled because mispronounced. III. Emphases in word study: A. The habit of vocabulary building. B. The habit of keeping vocabulary notebooks. C. Detailed study of prefixes and suffixes. D. Sensing appropriateness of language level to audience and situation. E. Word origins in myth and legend. F. Telegraphic style.	*(All principles of construction and style listed under writing apply to speaking as well)* I. Review as needed. II. Parliamentary: A. Committee work. B. Responsibilities of officers. III. Interviewing. IV. Reports: A. Critical evaluations of books, plays, TV, radio, and movies. B. Description and evaluation of school activities. V. Speeches: A. Extempore. B. Campaign. C. Theme (3–4 minutes). VI. Critical thinking in reading and listening to advertising, editorials, and news. Attention to— 1. Use of notes. 2. Style. 3. Adjusting volume to audience and total situation.	GR 9 I. Review as needed. II. Agreement of pronoun and antecedent. III. The noun clause (recognition). IV. Verbs: A. Irregular and troublesome verb forms. B. Active and passive. C. Transitive, intransitive, and linking. V. Direct and indirect quotations. VI. Appositives. VII. Clauses: Restrictive and nonrestrictive.	I. Review of 7th and 8th grade punctuation. II. Comma: A. Parenthetical elements. B. Appositive adjectives. C. Coordinate adjectives and adverbs. D. Nonrestrictive clauses. E. Contrast. F. Omissions. G. Clarity. H. With appositives. III. Quotation marks: A. Title. B. Special treatment of a word or phrase. IV. Colon to introduce formal series or statement. V. Dash. VI. Parentheses. VII. Italics (underlining). VIII. Capitalization: A. School subjects. B. Personification. C. Pp. 7–8, Style Sheet.

GRADE 10

I. Extension of 9th grade learnings. II. Paragraph development: A. Various methods: 1. Details. 2. Example. 3. Comparison and contrast. 4. Cause and effect. 5. Definition. 6. Repetition. B. Transitions: 1. Between paragraphs. 2. Within paragraphs. III. 250-300 word expository theme: A. 4-level outline. B. Effective beginning. C. Adequate conclusion. D. Central theme: 1. Adherence to. 2. Logical development of. 3. Selecting appropriate detail. IV. Parallel construction. V. Correction of misplaced and dangling modifiers. VI. Avoidance of careless shift of tense, person, or point-of view.	I. Continuation of 9th grade. II. Emphases in spelling. A. Compound words. B. Final e before a suffix. C. able and ible. D. Double letters: 1. For pronunciation. 2. From added prefixes. 3. From added suffixes. III. Emphases in word study: A. Vocabulary development. B. Connotation and denotation. C. Student-made definitions. D. Avoiding trite expressions and banalities. E. Awareness of malapropisms. IV. Practice in use of reference books: A. Roget's Thesaurus. B. Rodale's Word Finder. C. Dictionaries of synonyms and antonyms.	I. Review as needed. II. Reports: A. Current issues. B. Research. III. Speeches: A. Their structure. B. Theme (4-5 minutes). IV. Discussion: A. Roundtable. V. Critical thinking in accepting authorities and validating evidence: A. Magazines and newspapers. B. Speeches and conversation. Attention to— 1. Variety in emphasis: A. Pitch. B. Pause. C. Tempo. 2. Better diction.	Review and amplifications as needed.	Review and amplifications as needed.

Grade Expectancies in the Communications Skills—Continued

Writing	Spelling and word study	Speaking and listening	Skills and grammar	Skills in punctuation and capitalization
		GRADE 11		
I. Extension of 10th grade learnings. II. Strengthening of— A. Unity in sentence, paragraph, and theme. B. Coherence in sentence and paragraph. C. Emphasis in sentence and paragraph. D. Simplicity and directness of expression. III. Improvement of style: A. Variety in sentence structure. B. Avoidance of trite expressions and ornate style. C. Figurative language. D. Condensation through subordination. E. Thorough study of connectives. IV. 300-400 Word theme. V. Term paper: A. Research. B. Organization. C. Quotations, footnotes, bibliography. VI. Surveys and charts. VII. Creative writing (verse optional with student).	I. Continuation of 10th grade. II. Emphases in spelling: A. -ent, -ent, and -ance, -ence endings. B. Plurals from other languages such as data, phenomena, beaux. III. Emphases in word study: A. Vocabulary broadening. B. Levels of language. C. Avoiding vague expressions. D. Avoiding foreign words or expressions where good English equivalents are available. E. Sensing undesirable connotations of certain words for certain audiences.	*(All principles of construction and style listed under writing apply to speaking as well)* I. Review as needed. II. Debating. III. Parliamentary procedure: A. Writing and interpreting a constitution. B. Writing and interpreting bylaws. C. Precedence of motions. IV. Critical thinking: A. Systematic introduction to inductive and deductive thinking. B. Awareness of rationalizing. Attention to— 1. Extempore speech: A. Response to questions. B. Group discussion. 2. Prepared speech: A. Outline. B. Citing authority.	Review and amplifications as needed.	Review and amplifications as needed.

A. Avoidance of circumlocution. B. Avoidance of technical language in nontechnical writing.				
GRADE 12				
I. Extension of 11th grade writing. II. Emphasis on extempore writing. III. 500-word theme. IV. Style: A. Tone. B. Satire, irony, parody, and burlesque. C. Euphony. V. Economy of words without sacrificing meaning. VI. Using implication rather than unnecessary explicit detail. VII. Sensing weakening effect of overuse of passive. VIII. Avoiding mixed figures of speech.	I. Continuation of 11th grade. II. Emphases in spelling: A. Alternate spellings. B. Foreign words commonly used in English. C. Words from study of literature: 1. Technical terms. 2. Names of authors, titles, characters. III. Emphases in word study: A. Vocabulary extension. B. Semantics. C. History of language. D. Evaluating special types of language: 1. Slang. 2. Jargon. 3. Idiom. 4. Colloquialisms, provincialisms, localisms. 5. Affected styles and concepts. 6. Vulgarisms. E. Relationship between choice of language and sensitivity to human relations.	I. Review as needed. II. Critical thinking: A. Method of proof. B. Recognition of fallacy. C. Significance of integrity in reasoning. Attention to— 1. Platform techniques: A. Gesture. B. Movement. 2. Voice: A. Breathing. B. Placement. 3. Relation of sound and word choice to emotional effect.	Review and amplifications as needed.	Review and amplifications as needed.

See page 104 for chart on Emphasis in Usage.

Emphasis in Usage

The items below are to be taught at every grade level at which teachers find them necessary.

I. Avoidance of double negative:
- A. Involving, *no, not, hardly, scarcely, never, nowhere.*
- B. Involving, *none, no one, nobody.*

II. Avoidance of illiterate verb forms:
- A. *Ain't* for *am not, isn't, aren't.*
- B. *Don't* for *doesn't.*
- C. *Says* for *said* in relating conversation.
- D. *You was.*
- E. *Of* for *have* (*should of done*).
- F. *Had ought.*
- *G. *Have got.*

III. Avoidance of confusion in meaning and principal parts of—

lie	do
lay	tear
drink	break
freeze	go
take	burst
run	wear
write	swing
come	leave
see	let
give	lend
begin	borrow
know	learn
eat	teach
bring	dive

IV. Care in use of pronouns:
- A. Clarity of reference.
- B. Correct case form:
  1. In compound subject and object.
  2. After linking verb.
  3. After *than.*
- C. Avoidance of *he, she,* or *it* in double subject. (The man *he* ——.)
- D. Avoidance of *they* and *you* as indefinites.
- E. Care in the use of *it* as an indefinite.
- *F. Avoidance of "*It* says in the book that ——".
- *G. Avoidance of *they, them, their* with singular indefinite pronoun as antecedent.
- H. Avoidance of use of *myself* for *I* or *me.*

V. Distinguishing between adjective and adverb:
- *good* and *well,*
- **sure* and *surely,*
- **real* and *really,*

V. Distinguishing between adjective and adverb—Continued
- **most* and *almost,*
  (but indicate that words like *slow, quick, fast, cheap, high, right,* and *deep* may be used as both adjective and adverb).

VI. Correct use of *a* and *an.*

VII. Distinguishing between *less* and *fewer.*

VIII. Avoidance of *them* as an adjective (*them there eyes*).

IX. Eradicating use of *here* and *there* with demonstrative adjectives (*this here boy*) (*that there girl*).

X. Use of *person* instead of *party.*

XI. Use of *as far as* instead of *all the further.*

XII. Use of *rather* instead of *sort of* or *kind of.*

XIII. Distinguishing between *unless* and *without.*

XIV. Attention to idiomatic use of prepositions:
- A. Unnecessary prepositions:
  1. *Off of* and *off from* for *off* and *from.*
  2. *Up* used unnecessarily after a verb.
  3. *At* at end of sentence beginning with *where.*
- B. Distinction between *between* and *among.*
- C. Correct preposition with certain words (*agree to, with; angry at, with, independent of*).
- *D. *Try to* in preference to *try and.*
- *E. Avoiding the split infinitive.

*XV. Explanation of distinction between *shall* and *will, should* and *would, may* and *can.*

XVI. Care in use of relative pronouns:
- *A. Use of *which* without a definite substantive as antecedent.
- *B. Use of *whose* as a substitute for *of which.*
- C. Use of *who* for persons, *which* for things, and *that* for both.
- *D. *Who* and *whoever, whom* and *whomever.*
- *E. Plural verb after *one of those* (*people*) *who.*

XVII. Avoiding overuse of *and.*

*XVIII. Avoiding use of *due to* for *because of.*

*XIX. Avoiding use of *the reason is because.*

*Starred items represent practices in usage still demanded by some teachers and by some language authorities, at least in formal writing, but no longer observed in general speech and ignored by many British and American writers of high repute.

Source: "Chart III, Grade Expectancies in the Communication Skills." San Francisco: San Francisco Unified School District, Committee on Curriculum Problems in Secondary School English, 1954.

Appendix B

State Curriculum Guides and Courses of Study in High School Language Arts Used in This Study

ALABAMA..... *Alabama Course of Study, Grades 1–12.* Montgomery, State Board of Education, State Department of Education, Bulletin No. 8, 1954. 602 p.

FLORIDA..... *Experiencing the Language Arts. A Guide to Teachers in Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve.* Tallahassee, State Department of Education, Bulletin No. 34, 1948, 311 p.

INDIANA*..... *Course of Study in English for Grades 7–12 in Indiana.* Indianapolis, State Department of Public Instruction, Bulletin No. 167, 1946. 401 p.

IOWA..... *Communication Series English Grades 9–10.* Vol. 8, 1948, 428 p.; and *Communication Series English Grades 11–12.* Vol. 9, 1948, 311 p. Des Moines, State Department of Public Instruction, Secondary School Cooperative Curriculum Program. 2 vols.

MARYLAND..... *Planning for Effective Learning, Language Arts.* Baltimore, State Department of Education for the Superintendent's Committee on Curriculum Supervision, 1956. 52 p.

MINNESOTA..... *A Guide for Instruction in the Language Arts.* Secondary School, Grades 7–12. St. Paul, State Department of Education, Curriculum Bulletin No. 18, 1956. 378 p.

MISSISSIPPI..... *A Suggested Program of Oral Communication for Mississippi Schools.* Grades 1–12. Bulletin No. 139, 1953, 174 p.; and *Communication Series English Grades 7–12.* Bulletin No. 145, 1957. 164 p. Jackson, State Department of Education, Division of Instruction. 2 vols.

MISSOURI..... *Language Arts, General English.* Missouri at Work on the Public School Curriculum. Jefferson City, State Department of Education, Secondary School Series, Bulletin 3A, 1941. 424 p.

NEBRASKA..... *English for Nebraska High Schools.* Grades 9–12. Suggestions for Four-Year Program in High School English. Lincoln, State Department of Public Instruction, Second Printing 1949. 123 p.

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*The latest bulletin was received after completion of this study: *Source Guide for the English Language Arts.* Indianapolis, State of Indiana Department of Public Instruction, produced by the State Language Arts Committee, Bulletin No. 230, 1958. 233 p.

NEW HAMPSHIRE — *Program of Studies Recommended for the Public Schools of New Hampshire, Grades 7 to 12, Part II, English.* Concord, State Board of Education, 5th edition, 1938. 250 p.

NEW JERSEY — *Growth—Language From Kindergarten Through High School.* Trenton, State Department of Education, School Bulletin No. 17, 1951. 166 p.

NEW MEXICO — *English, Tentative Guides for High School Teachers.* Grades 9–12. Santa Fe, New Mexico State Board of Education, Bulletin No. 1, 1945; revised 1958. 212 p.

NEW YORK — *Syllabus in English for Secondary Schools.* Grades 7–12. Albany, The University of the State of New York Press, 1948; reprint of Syllabus in 1935, 299 p.; and *English in the Senior High School.* A Supplement to the Syllabus in English. Albany, State Education Department, 1955. 199 p. 2 vols.

NORTH CAROLINA — *Language Arts in the Public Schools of North Carolina.* Grades 1–12. Raleigh, State Department of Public Instruction, Publication No. 249, 2d edition prepared 1945; revised 1950. 810 p.

NORTH DAKOTA — *The English Language Arts (Verbal Communication), Course of Study (High School).* Grades 9–12. Bismarck, Department of Public Instruction, 1958. 89 p.

OREGON — *Language Arts in Oregon Secondary Schools.* Grades 7–12. 1952, 86 p.; and *Guide to Secondary Education in Oregon for School Years 1955–57.* 1955. 181 p. Salem, State Department of Education. 2 vols.

PENNSYLVANIA — *A Course of Study in English for the Secondary Schools.* A Progress Report. Harrisburg, Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, Department of Public Instruction, Bulletin 280, 1952. 298 p.

SOUTH CAROLINA — *South Carolina Schools May Bulletin, 1954.* Grades 7–12. English Syllabus, p. 82–89; and *Suggestions for the Teaching of Language Arts in the Twelve-Year Program,* 1946. 70 p. Columbia, State Department of Education. 2 vols.

SOUTH DAKOTA — *Language Arts Course of Study for South Dakota High Schools, 1947, Ninth Year.* Bulletin 8Z, 47 p.; also for *Tenth Year,* Bulletin 8B, 47 p.; for *Eleventh year,* Bulletin 8C, 44 p.; and for *Twelfth Year,* Bulletin 8D, 45 p. Pierre, State Department of Public Instruction. 4 vols.

UTAH — *Language Arts Course of Study for Secondary Schools.* Grades 7–12. Salt Lake City, State Department of Public Instruction, 1947. 54 p.

VIRGINIA — *Language Arts in Grades One Through Twelve.* A Tentative Guide to Curriculum Development. Richmond, Commonwealth of Virginia State Board of Education, Division of Purchasing and Printing, vol. 35, No. 7, 1952. 212 p.

Appendix C

Local Guides and Courses of Study in High School Language Arts Used in This Study

ALABAMA:

Alexander City — *Syllabus for English Teachers, Grades 6–12.* Alexander City Schools, 1953. 12 p.

Birmingham — *English Department of Woodlawn High School.* Outline of courses of study. n. d., 15 p.; *Junior High School English.* Course of Study—Secondary. 1949, n. p.; and *Senior High School English.* Course of Study—Secondary. 1949, n. p. Birmingham Public Schools. 8 vols.

Chilton County — *Course of Study in English for Grades 6–12 in Chilton County.* Clanton, Chilton County Public Schools, n. d., 12 p.

Homewood — *Course of Study, English Department.* Shades Valley High School, 1955. 63 p.

ARIZONA:

Glendale — *A Tentative Outline for English—Grades 9–12.* Glendale Union High School District, 1955. 55 p.

Prescott — *Course Outlines, Junior High School English, Grades 7–9.* Prescott Junior High School, 1955, n. p.; and *Curriculum Outlines for 1954–55.* Grades 7–8–9. Prescott Public Schools, 1955. 8 p. 2 vols.

ARKANSAS:

Fort Smith — *A Course of Study for Junior High School English, Grades 7, 8, 9.* Fort Smith Public Schools, 1954. 11 p.

CALIFORNIA:

Albany — *A Tentative Guide for the Teaching of English at Albany High School.* Grades 8–12. Albany Unified School District, 1954. 85 p.

Bakersfield — *English Department Course of Study.* Grades 9–12. East Bakersfield High School, revised 1955. n. p.

Berkeley — *Course of Study in English for Junior High Schools.* Berkeley Public Schools, 1946, 42 p.; and *Course of Study in English—Senior High School.* Berkeley Unified School District, 1952. 61 p. 2 vols.

CALIFORNIA—Continued

El Dorado County.. *The English and Related Language Arts Curriculum at El Dorado County High School.* Placerville, El Dorado County Public Schools, 1954. n. p.

Fresno..... *Supplement to the Senior High Language Arts Courses of Study.* Fresno Unified School District, 1955. 103 p.

Lake County..... *Teaching the Language Arts in Lake County.* Part II. Grades 4-12. Lakeport, Lake County Schools, 1952. 250 p.

Long Beach..... *Language Arts in the Junior High School, A Teacher's Guide (Tentative Edition).* 1950, 174 p.; also for *Tenth Grade*, 1951, 59 p.; for *Eleventh Grade*, 1951, 77 p.; and *Twelfth Grade*, 1951, 68 p. Long Beach Public Schools. 4 vols.

Los Angeles..... *Tentative Outline Course of Study—B7 English-Social Studies.* 1951, 22 p.; and *B9 English-Social Studies.* Publication No. SC-475, 1952, 42 p. Los Angeles City Schools Curriculum Division. 2 vols.

Lynwood..... *Course of Study in English.* Grades 9-12, plus "Public Speaking" and "Drama I, II, III." Lynwood High School, vol. I, 1956. n. p.

Mill Valley..... *Course of Study, English.* Tamalpais Union High School District, 1956. 63 p.

Oakland..... *The Language Arts Guide, Third Progress Report, Grades 7-12.* Oakland Public Schools, 1953. 283 p.

Orange County..... *Language Arts Guides for Secondary Grades 9-14.* Santa Ana, Orange County Schools Bulletin Series No. II, No. S-1 (revised) 1953. 75 p.

Palo Alto..... *Teacher's Guide for English Language Arts.* Grades 7, 8, and 9. Palo Alto Unified School District, n. d., n. p. 3 vols.

Pasadena..... *The English-Social Studies Program in the Pasadena Junior High Schools.* 1955, n. p.; and *Language Arts Goals for Children and Youth.* Scope and Sequence Chart, K through Grade 14, n. d. Pasadena City Schools.

Sacramento..... *Course of Study in English for Grade Seven, Junior High Schools.* 1955, 96 p.; *Grade Eight*, 1955, 78 p.; *Grade Nine*, 1954, 61 p.; and *Course of Study in English 3, Senior High Schools.* 1955, 81 p.; *English 4X*, 1955, 48 p.; *English 4Y*, 1955, 17 p.; *English 5X*, 1955, 42 p.; *English 5Y*, 1955, 46 p.; *English 5Z*, 1955, 18 p.; *English 6X*, 1955, 86 p.; *English 6Y*, 1955, 68 p.; and *English Literature Survey*, 1949, 12 p. Sacramento City Unified School District. 12 vols.

CALIFORNIA—Continued

San Francisco..... *Framework for Secondary School English*. Progress Report of Committee on Curriculum Problems in Secondary English. San Francisco Unified School District, 1954. 22 p. plus charts.

Santa Rosa..... *Course of Study in English*. Grades 7–9. Santa Rosa Junior High School, n. d., p. 1–70.

Stockton..... *Senior High School Curriculum Guide—Language Arts*. Stockton Public Schools, 1956. p. 1–70.

Tulare County..... *Tulare County Cooperative Language Arts Guide*. K through Grade 14. Visalia, Tulare County Schools, 1949. 127 p.

Woodland..... *Outline of Course of Study for the Secondary Schools*. Woodland Union High School District, 1953, p. 1–45.

CANAL ZONE (THE)..... *Course of Study in Literature and Usage for English 10*. Curriculum Monograph No. 10, 1953, 33 p.; *Course of Study in Literature and Composition for English 11. America and American Life in Literature and Composition*. Curriculum Monograph 16–A, 1952, 21 p.; and *Course of Study in Literature and Composition for English 12. Our English Heritage in Song and Story*. 1952. 26 p. Canal Zone Government Division of Schools. 3 vols.

COLORADO:

Colorado Springs..... *Curriculum Outline and Course of Study of the Department of English*. Junior High Schools, 1955, 19 p.; and *Curriculum Outline and Course of Study of the Department of English*. Colorado Springs High School, 1954, 16 p. Colorado Springs Public Schools. 2 vols.

Denver..... *A Program in English: A Guide for Teaching the Language Arts Kindergarten Through Grade 12*. Denver Public Schools, 1953. 402 p.

Longmont..... *Our English Program, K–12*. Longmont Public Schools, 1956. n. p.

Pueblo..... *Instructional Guide for Teachers of Pueblo Public High Schools—Department of English*. Pueblo Public Schools, 1952. 102 p.

CONNECTICUT:

Darien..... *Course of Study—Grades 10–12*. Department of English, Darien Public Schools, n. d. 5 p.

Hartford..... *Course of Study in English, Grades 10–12*. Hartford Public Schools, revised 1954. 86 p.

Stratford..... *English Course of Study*. Grades 10–12. English Department, Stratford High School, 1954. n. p.

Westport..... *Course of Study in English Language*. Staples High School, n. d. 34 p.

DELAWARE:

Wilmington..... *Guiding Learning in the Secondary Schools—English Department—7th Grade.* "Growing Up." 1954, 20 p.; "American Traditions." 1954, 20 p.; —*8th Grade.* "People From Many Lands." 1954, 18 p.; "Man As a Worker." 1954, 13 p.; —*9th Grade.* "America in Story." 1954, 18 p.; —*10th Grade.* "Living As a High-School Person." 1954, 16 p.;—*11th Grade.* "America Interpreted Through American Literature." 1954, 20 p.;—*12th Grade.* "Universal Elements in Human Nature." 1954, 21 p.; "English Life Interpreted Through English Literature." 1954, 13 p.; "Cooperative Living." 1954, n. p. Wilmington Public Schools. 6 vols.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA (THE):

Washington..... *A Guide to the Teaching of English.* Grades 7–12. The District of Columbia Board of Education, 1946. 325 p.

FLORIDA:

Dade County..... *Language Arts Curriculum Guide.* Grades 7–12. Miami, Dade County Schools Curriculum Bulletin No. 6, 1951, pp. 1–134.

GEORGIA:

Atlanta..... *Growth in English: A Guide for Teachers.* Atlanta Community High Schools, 1953. 153 p.

Richmond County..... *Suggested Curriculum Revision (Tentative) English.* Junior High School Committee, 1955, 41 p.; and *English Curriculum for Senior High Schools in Richmond County.* 1955. 41 p. Augusta, Richmond County Board of Education. 2 vols.

HAWAII:

Honolulu..... *Language Arts Guide.* Grades 7–12. First Progress Report, University High School, University of Hawaii, 1956. 159 p.

ILLINOIS:

Chicago..... *Teaching Guide for the Language Arts—Preschool through Junior College.* Chicago Public Schools, 1956. 103 p.

Jacksonville..... *General Outline of the English Curriculum, Jacksonville High School.* Grades 9–12. n. d., n. p.

Maywood..... *English.* Grades 9–11. Proviso Township High School. 1956. n. p.

INDIANA:

Gary..... *Oral and Written Language.* An Outline of Fundamentals for Grades 7 Through 12. 1955, 90 p.; and *Language Arts Outline.* Grades 7–8. 1945, 22 p. Gary Public Schools. 2 vols.

INDIANA—Continued

Indianapolis..... *The Language Arts: A Tentative Guide for Teachers.* Junior High School Grades 7 and 8. Curriculum Bulletin No. 35, 1955, 219 p., plus Appendix; and *The Language Arts: A Tentative Guide for Teachers. Senior High School: 9, 10, 11, 12.* Curriculum Bulletin No. 36, 1955, 122 p., plus Appendix. Indianapolis Public Schools. 2 vols.

Lebanon..... *Lebanon High School Course of Study for Grades 7-12.* English Department, 1955. 18 p.

Mishawaka..... *Outlines and Suggestions for the Teaching of English.* Grades 7 and 8. Mishawaka Junior High School, 1954. n. p.

KANSAS:

Salina..... *Revised Courses of Study—Communicative Arts.* Salina Secondary Schools, 1953. n. p.

KENTUCKY:

Covington..... *Outline of Objectives and Course of Study of 9th, 10th, 11th, and 12th Grade English.* Holmes High Schools, 1947. n. p.

Louisville..... *Tentative Course of Study, English, Junior High Schools.* Bulletin 2, Part 1, 1945, 205 p.; *English, Senior High Schools.* Bulletin 2, Part 2, 1945, 174 p.; and *English—Chart of Basic Skills, Pupil Activities, and Knowledge in English for Junior and Senior High Schools,* Grades 7-12. Curriculum Bulletin 2, Supplement A, 1949, Reprint 1955, 11 p. Louisville Public Schools. 3 vols.

LOUISIANA:

New Orleans..... *Course of Study in English for the Public High Schools of New Orleans.* New Orleans Public Schools, 1946. n. p.

MAINE:

Lewiston..... *English Course of Study.* Grades 9-11. Lewiston High School, 1954. n. p.

Scarborough..... *Language Arts Program.* Grades 1-12. Scarborough School Department, 1951, 133 p.

Southwest Harbor, Northeast Harbor. *School Union 98 Secondary Course of Study.* Pemetic High School, Southwest Harbor; Mount Desert High School, Northeast Harbor, 1952. 14 p.

MARYLAND:

Anne Arundel County.. *Tentative Course in Language Arts in the Eleventh Grade.* Annapolis, Anne Arundel County Public Schools, 1956. 108 p.

Baltimore County..... *A Tentative Course of Study in English for Grade 10.* 1948, 127 p.; *Grade 11.* 1953, 209 p.; *Grade 12.* 1950. 180 p. Towson, Baltimore County Public Schools. 3 vols.

MARYLAND—Continued

Montgomery County.. *English Language Arts, A Guide. Seventh Grade.* Bulletin No. 129, 1955, 186 p.; *Eighth Grade.* Bulletin No. 130, 1955, 112 p.; and *Ninth Grade.* Bulletin No. 131, 1955, 123 p. Rockville, Montgomery County Public Schools. 3 vols.

Prince George's County. *A Guide for the Senior High School Literature Program in Language Arts.* Grades 10, 11, 12. Upper Marlboro, Prince George's County Public Schools, 1956. 130 p.

Washington County... *Curriculum Development Program, Language Arts.* Grades 1–12. "Working Together in the Schools of Washington County." Hagerstown, Washington County Public Schools, 1955. 213 p.

MASSACHUSETTS:

Concord..... *Syllabus and Time Distribution for the English Courses, Grades 9–12.* Concord High School, 1955. n. p.

Everett..... *Parlin Junior High School English.* Grades 7, 8, 9, Parlin Junior High School, 1955. n. p.

Framingham..... *Language Arts Teacher's Guide—Grades 1–12.* Framingham Public Schools, 1953. n. p.

Milton..... *Curriculum Guide.* English Curriculum for Junior and Senior High Schools. Milton Public Schools, revised 1954. 35 p.

Newtonville..... *Department of English—Course of Study, Grades 10, 11, 12.* Newton High School, n. d., n. p.

Springfield..... *Guide for the Study of English.* Grade 7 through Grade 12. Springfield Public Schools, 1955. 36 p.

MICHIGAN:

Battle Creek..... *Tentative Guide for Teaching Language Arts Skills, Kindergarten Through Grade 12.* 1949, n. p.; *Junior High Social Studies and English Program for 7th Grade, 8th Grade, and 9th Grade.* 1952, n. p.; and *Introduction to 10th Grade Language and Literature.* 1953. 146 p. Battle Creek Public Schools. 3 vols.

Birmingham..... *Course of Study Outlines.* Grades 7–9. Language Arts Department, Birmingham Junior High School, 1956, n. p.; *Course of Study Outlines.* Grades 9–12. English Department, Birmingham Senior High School, 1955. 17 p. 2 vols.

Dearborn..... *English Curriculum Material, 10th, 11th, 12th Grades.* Dearborn Senior High Schools, 1955. n. p.

MICHIGAN—Continued

Grand Rapids..... *Suggested Study Guide for Grade 7 in Unit Geography and English. English-Civics for Grade 9.* 1954, 69 p.; *Course of Study in English.* Grades 10 and 11. 1955, 56 p. Grand Rapids Public Schools. 2 vols.

Grosse Point..... *Junior High School English—Grades 7A, 7B, 8A, 8B, 9A and 9B.* n. d., n. p.; *Senior High School English—IV R, V R, VI R; IV, V, VI, VII, VIII.* n. d., n. p. Grosse Point Public Schools. 2 vols.

Ionia..... *Outline of English Course of Study—Grades Seven to Twelve, Inclusive.* Ionia High School, 1955. n. p.

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