THE CONTENTS OF THIS JOURNAL ISSUE OF "AUDIOVISUAL INSTRUCTION," VOLUME 10, NUMBER 1, JANUARY 1965, ARE DEVOTED TO WAYS OF INSTRUCTING THE SOCIALLY DISADVANTAGED CHILD THROUGH MORE EFFECTIVE USE OF MATERIALS. SOME OF THE ARTICLES BRIEFLY DISCUSS THE USE OF AUDIOVISUAL INSTRUCTION IN PRESCHOOL AND KINDERGARTEN PROGRAMS, IN A PEACE CORPS PROJECT, AND IN PROGRAMS FOR APPALACHIANS, DROPOUTS, MIGRANTS, INDIANS, AND NON-ENGLISH SPEAKING AND BILINGUAL CHILDREN. OTHERS REPORT ON PROGRAMS IN NEW YORK CITY, MILWAUKEE, SAN DIEGO, DETROIT, AND CHICAGO. USE OF TELEVISION AND ELECTRONICS, THE "NEIGHBORHOOD SHOW," CREATIVE TEACHING, AND ACTION PROGRAMS TO TEACH THE SOCIALLY DISADVANTAGED ARE SUBJECTS OF OTHER ARTICLES. A DISCUSSION OF CURRENT AUDIOVISUAL LITERATURE AND AN INDEX OF REVIEWS OF MATERIALS ARE ALSO PRESENTED. (MR)
"... to help improve instruction through the more effective use of materials."

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MEDIA AND EDUCATION OF THE DISADVANTAGED: A RATIONALE

Richard W. Smith and A. W. VanderMeer

Any rationale is likely to begin with a definition of terms. The primary question to be answered in considering media and the disadvantaged is, therefore, who is disadvantaged? A naïve answer would be, a member of a particular ethnic minority group, or the slow learner, or a resident of a certain area in a metropolis. Such an answer, of course, would be a prototype not only of naïveté but also of categorical thinking, for although the disadvantaged may fit in all of these categories, classification in these categories is not tantamount to classification as disadvantaged. There are some culturally disadvantaged living in nearly every community, and there are some who belong to nearly every ethnic group. Also, the disadvantaged are not necessarily lacking in intelligence—some are of superior intelligence.

A second question in the rationale of media for the disadvantaged is, what can we reasonably hope media to do? It should be recognized at the outset that the aim of media in this connection is identical to the aim of media in any other educational context; namely, to ensure the highest probability that each individual will achieve to the maximum of his capabilities. The disadvantaged are not, it should be noted, all doomed; many have risen and many more will rise from the slum ghetto to success and even to well-deserved fame. The aim of media is to increase the chances that more will do so. The fact that any can overcome the hardships and deprivations of a slum environment should be sufficient to stop us if we are tempted to prejudice these people. All who are poor and ghettoized are not alike—they range enormously in abilities and attitudes.

A final question in the rationale is, who are the advantaged and what is their role in all this? It is easy to make the assumption that if adequate job training is provided, the disadvantaged will find an open door to opportunities that will permit them to join the ranks of the advantaged. The fact is that all too many doors are already being closed to members of racial minorities on grounds that can at best be discarded as irrelevant and, at worst, as immoral. Media for the disadvantaged is only one part of the equation; there is also need
for change in the advantaged to which media can contribute. One without the other will be less than completely effective.

Specifically, then, what is required of media for the disadvantaged? Probably the first requirement is that of validity—the quality of suitability for the specific learner group and for the situation being portrayed, including both direct and incidental features. For example, it should be obvious that if the media utilizes print, the print must be intelligible to the learner. Furthermore, it must be reasonably compelling from an external point of view. It should be aimed at developing a continuing interest in learning, and at enhancing the learner's ability and skill in learning from print and other media.

The content of media for the disadvantaged is crucial. Jerome Bruner, in Process of Education (Harvard University Press, 1960) maintains that the underlying principles that give structure to a subject should be given primary importance in teaching that subject. Specific topics and skills should evolve from this broader understanding. Such a method of teaching should equip the student to continue to learn within the general framework he has acquired, create interest in the subject as an on-going experience, and enhance retention of material.

Perhaps the most important point in content validity is that of incidental content validity. It is here that the local director or building coordinator plays a crucial role. He is in a key position to point out the shortcomings in existing materials and to reinforce their strong points. He must look at the content of materials with a critical eye. Are United States geography films which show no Negroes valid as instructional materials? Do math problems which have sample problems showing the purchase of farms belong in classes in urban areas? Should materials in the sciences emphasize the oneness of man?

In conclusion, the change that is possible for the culturally disadvantaged is related to the change that is necessary for the advantaged. Media must reflect the whole culture from which they emerge, or they are as harmful to the advantaged as to the disadvantaged.
The Effects of Cultural Deprivation on Learning Patterns

David P. Ausubel

The distinctive learning patterns of the culturally deprived child are a reflection of selective retardation in his intellectual development. In considering, therefore, how the learning of the disadvantaged differs from that of other children, and what implications this has for the use of instructional materials, we must examine the selective effects of environmental deprivation on the development of intelligence and the extent to which such effects are both reversible and irreversible.

Cultural Deprivation and Intellectual Development

Neither the contribution of the cultural environment to intellectual development nor the modifiability of children's relative intellectual ability as measured by intelligence tests is seriously disputed any longer. Whatever the individual's genic potentialities are, cognitive development occurs largely in response to a variable range of stimulation requiring incorporation, accommodation, adjustment, and reconciliation. The more variable the environment to which individuals are exposed, the higher is the resulting level of effective stimulation. Characteristic of the culturally deprived environment, however, is a restricted range and a less adequate and systematic ordering of stimulation sequences. The effects of this restricted environment include poor perceptual discrimination skills; inability to use adults as sources of information, correction, and reality testing, and as instruments for satisfying curiosity; an impoverished language-symbolic system; and a paucity of information, concepts, and relational propositions.

Hence, once we grant that the IQ represents a multiply determined functional capacity in the development of which experiential and motivational factors play an important regulatory role, it is superfluous to inquire whether it can be modified—both qualitatively and quantitatively—by significant variation in such factors. The more relevant questions at this point are the extent of the modification that is possible and the conditions under which it occurs, that is, how late in the course of cultural deprivation appropriate experience can reverse intellectual retardation, and what the most suitable kind of experience is for this purpose.

It is in the area of language development, and particularly with respect to the abstract dimension of verbal functioning, that the culturally deprived child manifests the greatest degree of intellectual retardation. Many factors contribute to this unfortunate developmental outcome. The culturally deprived home, to begin with, lacks the large variety of objects, utensils, toys, pictures, etc., that require labeling and serve as referents for language acquisition in the middle-class home. The culturally deprived child is also not spoken to or read to very much by adults. Hence, his auditory discrimination tends to be poor, and he receives little corrective feedback regarding his enunciation, pronunciation, and grammar. Furthermore, the syntactical model provided him by his parents is typically faulty. Later on, when new concepts and transactional terms are largely acquired verbally, i.e., by definition and context from speech and reading rather than by abstraction from direct concrete experience, he suffers from the paucity of abstractions in the everyday vocabulary of his elders; from the rarity of stimulating conversation in the home; from the relative absence of books, magazines, and newspapers; and from the lack of example of a reading adult in the family setting.

It is small wonder, therefore, that the abstract vocabulary of the culturally deprived child is deficient in range and precision, that his grammar and language usage are shoddy, that his attentivity and memory are poorly developed, and that he is impoverished in such language-related knowledge as the number concepts, self-identity information, and understanding of the physical, geometric, and geographical environments. Social class differences in language and conceptual measures also tend to increase with increasing age, thus demonstrating the cumulative effects of both continued environmental deprivation and of initial deficit in language development.

The culturally deprived child's entire orientation to language is also different from that of the middle-class child. He responds more to the concrete, tangible, immediate, and particularized properties of objects and situations than to their abstract, categorical, and relational properties. His speech is instigated more by the objects and actions he sees than by abstract ideas emanating from within, and he makes more ancillary use of nonverbal forms of communication. In short, the language of the culturally deprived child is more concrete, expressive, and informal than that of the middle-class child, showing signs of impoverishment mainly in its formal, abstract, and syntactical aspects.

However, the most important consequence of the culturally disadvantaged child's retardation is his slower and less complete transition from concrete to abstract modes of thought and understanding. This transition normally begins to occur in our culture during the
junior high school period. As a result, preadolescent and adolescent children are able to understand and manipulate relationships between abstractions directly, i.e., without the benefit of reference to current or immediately prior concrete-empirical experience. Thus they are no longer limited to semiabstract, intuitive, and particularized thought, and can formulate more precise, abstract, and general propositions that embody all possible hypothetical relationships between categorical variables.

This transition takes place more slowly and less completely in culturally deprived children for two reasons. First, the culturally deprived child lacks the necessary repertoire of clear and stable abstractions and transactional terms that is obviously prerequisite for the direct manipulation and understanding of relationships between abstractions. Second, for lack of adequate practice, he has not acquired sufficient facility in relating abstractions to each other with the benefit of concrete-empirical props, so that he can later dispense with their assistance at the same age as his environmentally more favored contemporaries. Because concrete thought operations are necessarily more time-consuming than their abstract-verbal counterparts, and also because of his distractibility, unfamiliarity with formal language, impaired self-confidence, and unresponsiveness to time pressure, the culturally deprived child typically works more slowly than the middle-class child in an academic setting.

The Effects of Cultural Deprivation Are Partly Irreversible

To avoid unrealistic expectations regarding the possibilities of educational amelioration, it is important for persons working with disadvantaged children both to appreciate that the effects of cultural deprivation on intellectual development are partly irreversible and to understand why this must necessarily be so. In the first place, since current and future rates of intellectual development are always conditioned or limited by the attainment of development, existing developmental deficits tend to become cumulative in nature. The child who has an existing deficit in growth incurred from past deprivation is less able to profit developmentally from new and more advanced levels of environmental stimulation. Thus, irrespective of the adequacy of all other factors—both internal and external—his deficit tends to increase cumulatively and to lead to permanent retardation.

New growth, in other words, always proceeds from the existing phenotype, that is, from already actualized capacity, rather than from potentialities inherent in the genotype. It makes no difference in terms of this limiting influence whether the attained deficiency is attributable to inferior genetic endowment or to inadequate environment. If, as a result of a consistently deprived environment during the early formative years, superior intellectual endowment is not actualized, the attained deficit in functional capacity significantly limits the extent to which later environmental stimulation, even if normal in quantity and quality, can increase the rate of cognitive growth. Hence, an individual’s prior success or failure in developing his intellectual capacities tends to keep his future rate of growth relatively constant.

In addition to the limiting condition of attained level of development or of existing degree of deficiency, we must consider the further limiting factor of the organism’s degree of plasticity or freedom to respond developmentally in a given direction in response to appropriate environmental stimulation. Generally speaking, the plasticity of intelligence tends to decrease with increasing age. At first, intelligence is a relatively undifferentiated capacity that can develop in several different directions. But as children grow older, particularly during preadolescence and adolescence, it becomes increasingly more differentiated as shown by the decreasing intercorrelation among the subtests of a given intelligence scale. Another indication of the trend toward the progressive differentiation of abilities is the fact that ten-year-old boys of high socioeconomic status make higher scores than ten-year-old boys of low socioeconomic status on tests of both verbal and mechanical ability, but at age 16 are only superior on the verbal test. Furthermore, the verbal ability scores of boys who drop out of school at the age of 17 tend to decline whereas their scores on tests of mechanical aptitude continue to improve. Thus by the time an individual reaches adolescence, differential factors of interest, relative ability, specialization of training, motivation, success and failure experience, and cultural expectation operate selectively to develop certain potential abilities and to leave others relatively undeveloped.

Once intelligence undergoes definite relative commitment in the various aforementioned channels, the individual is less responsive to stimulation in areas of minimal development than he was in the original undifferentiated state. Thus, for example, if because of inadequate stimulation during early and middle childhood, genetic potentialities for verbal intelligence fail to be adequately actualized, other facets of intelligence (e.g., mechanical, social) which are more satisfactorily stimulated become differentially more highly developed. At this point, therefore, the development of the individual’s verbal intelligence is not only limited by his existing deficiency in the verbal area, but also by the fact that his once undifferentiated intelligence has been definitely committed in other directions, and is hence less free than previously to respond to an enriched verbal environment. Hence it is evident that the possibility for complete reversibility of environmentally induced retardation in verbal intelligence decreases as children advance in age. This is not to say, of course, that later enrichment is entirely to no avail; but, in my opinion, some of this failure in developmental actualization is irreversible and cannot be compensated for later, irrespective of the amount of hyperstimulation that is applied.

Ameliorative Use of Instructional Materials

The hypothesis of cumulative development deficit implicitly assumes the continued operation of a learning environment the stimulating value of which remains average or below average during the crucial formative years. Hence, despite the twin limiting effects in disadvantaged pupils of attained deficit in intellectual development and of increasing differentiation of intelligence on subsequent responsiveness to cognitive stimulation,
it is completely consistent with the above theoretical analysis to hypothesize that an optimal learning environment could arrest and even reverse in part the existing degree of retardation. Such an environment must obviously be adequately stimulating, must be specially geared to the deprived individual's particular level of readiness in each subject-matter area and intellectual skill, as well as to his over-all level of cognitive maturity, and presupposes much individualized attention and guided remedial effort. This, of course, is a far cry from the kind of learning environment that culturally deprived children typically enjoy. In actual practice their existing intellectual deficit is usually compounded by the fact that not only are they less able than their peers to profit from appropriate new experience, but they also are usually overwhelmed by exposure to learning tasks that exceed by far their prevailing level of cognitive readiness. Hence, since they do not function at the required level of cognitive maturity and do not possess the necessary background of knowledge required for efficient learning, they typically fail, lose self-confidence in their ability to learn, become thoroughly demoralized in the school situation, and disinvolve themselves from it.

An optimal learning environment for culturally deprived pupils focuses therefore on two complementary aspects of cognitive readiness for learning—readiness in terms of general level of intellectual functioning and readiness in terms of specific subject-matter background. Appropriate use of instructional materials can enhance each aspect of readiness.

General unreadiness for school learning among culturally disadvantaged children largely reflects their slower and less complete transition from concrete to abstract modes of thought during the junior and senior high school years. Thus, in the presentation of abstract ideas and relational propositions, it is important for instructional materials and audiovisual aids to provide more concrete-empirical props and opportunities for direct physical manipulation of objects and situations than would be considered desirable in a more typical classroom. Such props, for example, might include generous use of such techniques as Cuisenaire rods, the abacus, schematic models and diagrams, and role-playing activities; and in the teaching of mathematics and science, much reliance would be placed on applicability to common problems in the immediate environment and on supportive illustrations and analogies drawn from everyday experience. It should be appreciated, however, that these techniques are merely ways of facilitating the transition to a more abstract level of cognitive functioning. We do not want to induce permanent dependence on concrete-empirical props or to be satisfied with this state of affairs as our ultimate objective.

Specific subject-matter unreadiness among culturally deprived children is a consequence of their failure to master the basic intellectual skills and to acquire an adequate foundation of integrative concepts and principles in the hierarchically organized disciplines. It is essential, therefore, that the initial selection of learning materials take account of pupils' existing state of knowledge and sophistication in the various subject-matter areas, no matter how primitive this happens to be. Once the appropriate starting point is ascertained, continued subject-matter readiness can then be assured by using structured, sequentially organized materials and by insisting on mastery of all ongoing lessons before new learning tasks are introduced. These latter teaching strategies can, in turn, be implemented most effectively through programed instruction.

The careful sequential arrangement and gradation of difficulty characteristic of programed instruction maintains readiness by insuring that each attained increment in learning serves as an appropriate foundation or anchoring post for the learning and retention of subsequent items in the ordered sequence. In addition, competent programing of materials presupposes maximum attention to such matters as lucidity, organization, and the explanatory and integrative power of substantive content. The programed instruction format also promotes readiness by making it possible to insure that the presentation of new material is always deferred until that degree of consolidation or overlearning required for efficient sequential learning is attained. This is accomplished by self-pacing, by frequent testing and the provision of feedback, and by furnishing adequately spaced reviews and opportunity for differential practice of the more difficult components of a task.

Advocacy of programed instruction as best suited to the needs of the culturally deprived pupil does not necessarily imply endorsement of the small-frame format typical of most teaching machine programs and programed textbooks. As a matter of fact, in terms of both the logical requirements of meaningful learning and the actual size of the learning task that can be conveniently accommodated by the learner, the frame length typically used by teaching machines is artificially and unnecessarily abbreviated. It tends to fragment the ideas presented in the program so that their interrelationships are obscured and their logical structure is destroyed. Neither does endorsement of programed instruction imply that the effectiveness of the method is attributable to the mechanical reinforcement of rote verbal responses. Quite the contrary! Programed instruction is effective in school learning precisely because its emphasis on lucidity of presentation, sequential arrangement, clarification, consolidation, and integration of related materials enhances meaningful learning processes. For example, in the learning of grammar through repetitive practice with feedback of the principal syntactical forms in written and spoken discourse, the learning becomes transferable only if the program requires the learner to appreciate the precise relationships between the verbal manipulations he practices and the changes in meaning that he induces by such manipulations. Mere ability rotely to emit the correct forms as ends in themselves, apart from their relationship to meaning, results in learning that is restricted to the specific practice frames under consideration.

Adequate attention to the two factors of readiness specified above—through the appropriate use of instructional materials—can go a long way toward assuring effective learning for the first time, toward arresting or partly reversing the course of culturally induced retardation in intellectual development, and toward restoring the disadvantaged child's educational morale and confidence in his ability to learn.
Television for the Preschool Child

Lester F. Beck

In 1945, the American Association of School Administrators recommended the extension of school services downward to include children as young as three years old. This action was taken in recognition of the psychological fact that early learning during the preschool years facilitates later learning in the grades; or stated conversely, a child from an intellectually barren home is disadvantaged right from the start when he enters school.

Important as the Administrators' policy pronouncement was, its full implementation had to be deferred. Caught by the post-war population explosion, school systems found themselves hard-pressed to provide enough classrooms and teachers for the tide of pupils six and over without worrying about the millions under six who might be idling away their time at home.

Recently, some school districts have begun to experiment with broadcast television as a means of serving the intellectual needs of preschool children, not at school but in their own homes. Albuquerque, New Mexico (KNME-TV, Channel 5), and Miami, Florida (WTHS-TV, Channel 2), have full-scale kindergarten programs broadcast to homes five days per week. Content is coordinated with the first-grade curriculum and prepares the preschool child for his school experiences by developing reading, linguistic and number abilities, and social awareness.

The Albuquerque programs, which are 30 minutes long, have the teacher address the camera directly as though talking to each little child face-to-face. Special emphasis is given to language problems inherent in New Mexico's trilingual culture. At the end of the year, each child who writes to the TV station receives a Certificate of Recognition and a photograph of the TV teacher. Last year some 25,000 certificates were distributed.

In Miami, each daily program is divided into three parts of varying difficulty with each part running 15 minutes. A child may begin with an easy part and then see the same content repeated at a more advanced level. The easy programs are especially designed for culturally disadvantaged children, including children of Cuban exiles who are learning English. If mothers wish, they may bring their children to one of 60 viewing centers, staffed by students from the local junior college. The students monitor the TV sets and conduct appropriate follow-up activities suggested by the TV programs. In both Miami and Albuquerque, the programs are broadcast in the morning and repeated in late afternoon. Many primary grade children watch the afternoon broadcast when they get home from school.

In Memphis, Tennessee (WKNO-TV, Channel 10), the preschool TV offerings cover the conventional kindergarten curriculum, but in a unique way. Each 30-minute program is built around the romance and exciting mobility of trains, with the teacher, a young man, holding forth as an engineer from the old days, worldly in knowledge and sensitive in the art of living. Settings feature a combination train depot-general store and a scaled replica of the famous Civil War train, "The General." The depot is filled with all kinds of wonderful junk, pictures, pets, and puppets. The train on its revolving stage is always ready to take the teacher, guests, and children on exciting trips throughout the city and countryside. Processes of seeing, listening, and appreciating beauty in ordinary objects are cultivated during these trips. Many thought-stretching questions are asked and answered along the way, such as, "Is there beauty in a bucket?" and "Can a witch find true happiness in a bird cage?"

In Denver, Colorado (KRMA-TV, Channel 6), still another format for preschool education via TV is being tried. A series of 16 programs and an illustrated workbook have been produced to help parents prepare their children for reading in the first grade. More than 20,000 requests for copies of the workbook are received each time the TV programs are re-run. Research conducted by the Denver Public Schools shows that children whose parents help them in accordance with instructions given on the TV programs do significantly better in school than matched groups with no help. The findings further indicate that the facilitating effect extends at least through the first three grades and perhaps beyond.

All the programs described above are curriculum-oriented. They stress mainly content. Another approach to program design emphasizes process: perception of similarities and differences, concept formation, creativity (divergent thinking), problem solving, and the like. Currently I am analyzing TV programs, films, and related media for preschool children from these two points of view. The analysis may result in some leads about the design of TV programs for preschool children of all ages, including the one- and two-year-olds.
Helping the Child Who Doesn’t Make the Grade

Samuel Cohen
In the public schools, we tend to build a series of hurdles for each child to overcome as best he can until he crosses the finish line and receives his diploma. A significant number of children find it impossible to climb, let alone jump, over these hurdles for a variety of reasons. The resultant concern among educators has brought a flood of analyses over the years dealing with the identification and rehabilitation of these children.

The children who don't make the grade have been grouped and labeled in many ways. We have read and heard about the slum child, the general student, the member of a problem class, the underachiever, the culturally disadvantaged child, the slow learner, the underprivileged child, the deprived child, and most recently, the reluctant learner. Each of these labels, and the data and theory behind it, has validity for some portion of those children who fail in school but who cannot be considered retarded. Such children constitute the bulk of the dropouts, and a search for a way of preventing an early break with school has become a national concern.

Different Programs Required

A very significant portion of the children found in any of the above groupings require a program quite different from any that has been proposed for them. Some time ago there were two approaches to the problem. The first approach involved making believe that the problem really didn't exist. This approach was buttressed by physical improvement of school plants, by surface discipline seen by visitors, by impressive displays of student work, by neat and fairly complete workbooks of a surprising number of pupils, and by such things as the appearance of white shirts and ties at assembly programs.

The second approach involved the charge that the window dressing covered a "blackboard jungle." The students were disobedient, belligerent, sullen, short-tempered, and given to the regular use of abusive or foul language. Incidences of vandalism, drug addiction, and assault and robbery—sometimes with knife or gun—completed the picture which helped explain high teacher turnover. The very dress, walk, and appearance of white shirts and ties at assembly programs.

More recently, most people have come to realize the futility of either of these impressions of the child who cannot meet normal school requirements. Emphasis has shifted to early stress upon the mastery of the basic skills, especially reading. Such emphasis implies the belief that if these students could only read, they then could do what is expected of them and the problem would be in the process of solution.

Unfortunately, the ability to read alone is not a sufficient answer to the problem of many of the children now failing in school. The characteristics of the failing child include (a) poor academic ability; (b) serious academic retardation; (c) often, overage for grade; (d) rather high social sophistication; (e) a weak family structure usually combined with an undesirable home environment, not necessarily related to income; and (f) a history of disciplinary violations accompanying academic failure. Such a child's emotional condition renders his usable intelligence ineffective. Without values, attitudes, affections, and aspirations which normally come from a strong family unit, most of these children have not learned to give or receive affection and friendship, have few if any worthwhile adult models to emulate, have a long history of negative experiences with various authority figures, and have extremely narrow social, emotional, and intellectual horizons.

The school often intensifies these problems, within the framework of a serious intent to help the child, by adding to the student's accumulation of failure, shame, resentment, hostility, and suspicion of authority figures. The difficulty arises in that the approach used is academic. For the kind of child described, increased efforts to teach him to read, write, and cipher and not exhibit academic weaknesses before peers and teachers, and will create any diversion to prevent a lesson from exposing individual ignorance. An extreme example of this is the 16-year-old boy who once jumped to the top of his desk and began to masturbate in order to prevent a reading lesson from continuing and thereby allow his classmates to discover that he was unable to read.

Self-Respect Is a Primary Need

What, then, should be attempted with these children? They must reach certain personal goals before they can do academic work successfully. Their primary need is for self-respect and a worthy self-image. These children believe what society has indicated to them—that they are stupid, unlikeable, and troublesome. This causes a reliance upon what they believe to be superior physical strength and also contributes to the belief that relative strength is the basis for all relationships. The stronger individual gives the orders, and the weaker has no choice but to follow them or attempt to break the relationship.

The teacher must break through this barrier and establish an honest relationship with each individual student. He must overcome the student's suspicion and hostility. After all, if the student believes that he is stupid and unlikeable, how could the teacher want to be his friend? The student looks for ulterior motives. The teacher must convince the student that there are none, and must find some characteristics which he can honestly like, praise, and support. It is not possible to fool these children because they size up and understand adults quite well within their emotional limits.

The degree of difficulty that must be overcome can be shown by an example of a typical class of 27 students in the ninth grade, where the teacher's investigation indicated that (a) the students were between 14 and 16 years of age; (b) that 24 of them came from broken homes and lived with stepparents, a working mother, other relatives, or alone; (c) that 6 had police records; (d) that 4 were under psychiatrist care; and (e) that
5 were under the supervision of social or psychiatric case workers. They had an average standardized reading score of 3.2 and an average arithmetic score of 3.0. On the teacher's first day in class, a student raised his hand and, when recognized, said, "How long you expect to be with us, Teach? We already run out five teachers this year." In spite of reactions like this, a kind of friendship can be established with most of these children without the controlling factor being fear or brute strength. There can be a beginning of mutual respect.

Having established contact with a student, the teacher will move through a long and awkward period of building a relationship. The disadvantaged student does not know how to accept friendship or to be a friend. He may resort to bribery, flattery, or some other technique in his attempt to participate in this new relationship. The teacher must help each student and also begin to use the personal contact as the basis for classroom discipline and the building of a positive and better personality, attitudes, and values. The student must learn to be able to deal with other people, to think about himself, to evaluate his experiences, and to look toward the future in such a way that will enable him to become part of the broader society the school represents.

Small incidents become significant in the total fabric of such effort. A teacher's lack of perception in straining the attention span in the classroom, or the chance comment of one student to another, can lead to a sudden flare-up and a fist fight between two students. Another student is likely to say to the teacher, "Why don't you hit 'em, Teach, then they'll behave?" There are many ways to answer this important question. One teacher made a simple beginning by discussing the way in which a horse is trained and indicating the difference between his goals for his students and those of a horse trainer for his animals.

Time for Free Discussion

Working with values and attitudes requires breaking away from the normal course of study which these children are unable to master. Of course the usual syllabus must be followed part of the time because it is the only framework for school that these children have experienced; but time also must be allowed for free and frank discussion of topics of interest to the students. In junior high school classes in one school in a slum area of a large city, the first topics suggested by pupils were dope, sex, and crime. They did not really expect that the teacher would dare handle such topics, but he did. Within a few weeks, the teacher was able to shake students' misconceptions in these areas, and found that many of the topics led back into portions of the course of study he had been unable to deal with directly. For example, the discussion of venereal disease and dope addiction uncovered superstitions and ignorance concerning health and medicine and led to a unit of study in that field. The students had medieval attitudes toward hospitals, and a carefully planned visit to a nearby hospital began to convince them that most people who enter a hospital are cured and discharged. One tangible nonacademic result of this experience was a student's willingness to discuss symptoms with his teacher, which led to the diagnosis and treatment of the student's case of gonorrhea.

A discussion of crime uncovered a general concern with police and led to a study of the right to bear arms as guaranteed in the Constitution, graft, search without warrant, and other topics of real meaning in the daily lives of the pupils. The students knew bookies, played the numbers game, bought liquor in a bar although they were under legal age, and commented on patrolling who drove Cadillacs. They saw no better future than to become a bookie, a dope peddler, or a numbers man—the only occupations they knew that brought high status and high income to adults who had been teenagers very much like themselves.

A first step with one such group of students was a description of life in a small town which had no police department and a negligible crime rate. The students could not believe there was a community where people never locked their doors and lived without fear. Once convinced that such a community was not a figment of the teacher's imagination, the students reacted by asking, "Where is this town? It sounds like a pushover. We'll take it apart." From this point, many slow steps had to be taken to achieve serious thinking about the recognition of a stranger, the treatment of outsiders, and the advantages of living in an environment free from fear and violence.

With direction from the teacher, the students also discussed liquor, dope, and crime in terms of self-destruction. They talked about various ways of committing suicide, some immediate and some taking years. Problems of minority groups were discussed. In short, an entire range of topics which had deep meaning for the students offered opportunities to teach about self-understanding, to develop modifications in attitudes and values, and to teach certain areas of academic content. As simple a device as planning a class party with 17-year-olds produced many opportunities for teaching about possible values in honesty, friendship, and cooperation. The teacher was astonished at the degree of response to the party. Once started, the students couldn't do enough to share a one-to-one satisfying relationship with the teacher, and some even attempted such a relationship with each other.

Values of Cooperation

The initial assumption made by the students with a background of failure is that cooperation is for two kinds of people—those who get paid and those who are suckers. In one high school English class, an entire semester was devoted to the production of a motion picture about the school and its program. The film had teaching value and helped to improve English skills to some degree, but its primary purpose was to show that there is a real need for, and value in, cooperating with other people. Every student in the class understood that the film could not have been completed unless everyone cooperated. Other purposes were also realized in the production process: There was discussion about the degree of reality in individual choices of areas for vocational training; about the differences among sub-neighbors within the larger area served by the school; and about leadership and relationships and why certain people were picked to be the "stars" of the picture.
One teacher used role-playing to develop scenes. From these scenes the students selected ones they thought were best to incorporate into a class play. Content, drama, and humor were vehicles for dealing with problems in personality, relationships, and self-understanding.

These are but a few examples to illustrate some ways in which a teacher can help a child overcome his personal barriers and prepare him to want to learn academic fundamentals and to aspire to a socially acceptable personal and vocational life as an adult. Once personal and emotional headway is made, academic study can begin to become important and worthwhile to the pupils. The teacher begins this process with a few positive elements that can be helpful. Although most of these children feel that their present is useless and that their future is hopeless, they wish it were not so. They know with startling clarity what the American middle class ideal is like, in terms of people, material possessions, values, and attitudes. They have a desire, which is kept well hidden because it seems so impossible, to be a part of that middle class stream in American life.

Realistic Expectations are Essential

There is a danger, however, that short-range success will lead the child to unrealistic expectations, and the teacher must try to anticipate and prevent this if possible. For example, a 16-year-old boy who learned to read for the first time in the eighth grade was brought up to fourth-grade reading levels within one year. He was no longer a behavior problem; he thought well of school and began to think well of himself; he became more open and friendly in his relationships with other people; he began to enjoy “normal” experiences he had never had before. Eight years of school failure lay behind him, as well as one stay in jail on an attempted rape conviction. He lived with an aunt and saw his married sister occasionally. Before he learned to read, these meetings with his sister had always been unpleasant because his brother-in-law was always “preaching” to him. Now his brother-in-law was delighted with his progress, but blind to its limits. He told the boy that he now could get a job at the Navy yard, which involved passing an examination requiring high school academic skills. Informed of this, the teacher had no choice but to tell the boy, as gently as possible, that he could not pass such an examination and could not, in a few months, be prepared for the examination. The boy could not accept the situation, and accused the teacher of misleading him and fooling him and of wasting his time. The boy reverted to his previous behavior pattern, and the teacher was unable to reach him again.

Sixteen years of age may be too late to begin making major changes in a boy with a background of failure. However, with the help of teachers, most children are able to make more realistic self-appraisals after a few years. The school must not only be organized to recognize and work with this kind of student in the manner described but also must follow him beyond the classroom and help him with job placement. This should often begin with a combination work-study program in the last year or two of high school. It must include post-high school placement efforts. Many of the students will have to be prepared for salary limitations and discrimination and prejudice which are likely to be encountered beyond the immediate environment. At the present time, many of these children are certain to have trouble with police and many spend time in jail. At the very least, a proper program in school would save the taxpayers the money expended in arresting, trying, and jailing these children.

Audiovisual Techniques and Materials

Another aspect of working with children of low ability and serious academic retardation involves the use of audiovisual instruction. A great deal of cognitive change is possible among individuals who do not know how to read. The use of audiovisual techniques and materials, including charts, recordings, radio and television programs, pictures, and programed materials can enable an illiterate or semi-illiterate youth or adult to master considerable sophistication in skills, information, and concepts. Substantial evidence for this work cannot yet be found in the public schools, but must be sought in the work of organizations training retarded children, in the training and retraining efforts of various American industries, and in the educational efforts of a number of international agencies working in the so-called underdeveloped areas of the world. This use of audiovisual instruction is important. It indicates the possibility of working toward major personal goals for these children, without sacrificing academic instruction, until sufficient success has been achieved to enable the student to succeed with normal academic techniques and materials based upon the ability to read.

Every school has children who are considered problems because they disrupt the smooth operation of the program and require an inordinate amount of attention while achieving minimal success. They are passed on by teachers from class to class and from school to school with more relief than regret, and administrators are also relieved when they finally drop out of school. The regular program is impossible for these students, and a watered-down program doesn’t work, either. The problem is not solved by dumping these children into classes of shop, home economics, and salesmanship. It is necessary to stop worrying about the program and to look seriously at the child, to find out why he cannot or will not abide by the rules and regulations and try to do the work required in class. Out of this analysis should grow a program to help these children cease to be problems.

Such a program, geared to the unique needs of the students who don’t make the grade, include the techniques, goals, approaches, and materials described above. Teachers should prepare for such work with training in the techniques of the group worker, the social worker, and the school psychologist. It helps no one to train teachers by giving them strong academic backgrounds and methods for teaching academically oriented pupils and then to place them with classes of children for whom they are totally unprepared. Properly trained teachers, working within an administratively approved instructional program designed for these disadvantaged children, can help them tremendously and, at the same time, prevent them from disrupting the rest of the school program. The school, the students, and our society will reap the benefits of such improvements in our efforts to provide education for all American children and youth.

Audiovisual Instruction—January 1965

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Nineteen hundred and sixty-three marked an end and a beginning in Prince Edward County in Virginia. It marked an end to the lack of educational opportunity for the county's 1,600 Negro children who had suffered for four years the effects of the shutdown of the public schools which resulted from the integration controversy. But it also marked a beginning—a beginning of a unique educational enterprise called the Prince Edward Free School Association.

Now that the short but timely existence of the Free Schools is a matter of history, it is possible to look back and see how this enterprise served the many culturally disadvantaged children of the rural Virginia county. It is also possible to see the implications which the Free Schools' program holds for similarly disadvantaged children throughout our nation.

A Brief History

In September 1963, Dr. Neil V. Sullivan left his position as superintendent of Schools in Williston, L. I., New York, to come to Prince Edward County to set up the Free Schools. He came at the request of a group of Virginia educators who had formed the Prince Edward Free School Association with the support of private, organizational, and corporate funds. The school system which he was to head in Farmville, Virginia, was to be open to all children of the county, regardless of color, and was to have an integrated faculty and staff.

The task before the board of trustees, superintendent of schools, and staff of the Free Schools was enormous. They were to try to help children who had been without education for four long and arduous years to make up, insofar as possible, for the gaps in their education. Almost universally the children whom the Free Schools were to serve came from economically and culturally impoverished homes where many of the parents were illiterate. They were inadequately clothed and fed. Many didn't know how to turn a page or hold a pencil, and some could only communicate in fragmented sentences, monosyllables, or with gestures. The children who once had been able to read had lost this skill in large part during the period the schools were shut down. As a result of these and many other factors, the IQ scores of many of the children had dropped as much as 30 points in the four-year period when there were no schools open to them.

Such a desperate situation called for drastic measures. The traditional school program obviously would be inadequate to deal with the needs of these children. After careful analysis, a program was initiated in the Free Schools which included a nongraded school concept; team teaching; an expanded audiovisual program; and a longer school day, week, and year than is usual.

The Nongraded Concept and Team Teaching

In order to put the nongraded concept into practice, the children were assigned to the elementary division, which was further subdivided into the primary and middle schools; or to the secondary division, which was subdivided into the lower and upper schools. Each student in the Free Schools progressed from level to level as quickly as he was able to master the materials and skills. No grade labels were specified, nor were there any promotions or retentions. When a child covered the materials slowly or when the level was too high, he was regrouped. The child's academic and emotional progress determined his place.

Initially, age groups constituted the basis for place-
Children in the 6-9 age bracket were assigned to the primary school: those in the 10-12 bracket, to the middle school; those 13-15, to the lower school; and those 16 years of age and over, to the upper school. After the schools had been in operation for a while, most of the students developed and progressed to the extent that there were no longer pure age groups.

Instructional emphasis was directed to different areas at the various levels. In the primary school, emphasis was placed on reading, oral and written communication skills, social understandings, and cultural orientation and enrichment. As fundamental skills were developed, academic emphasis shifted toward more conventional content. Reading instruction, the language arts, social science, and mathematics were emphasized in the middle school. Course offerings in the upper school covered the areas of general education, college preparatory courses, business education, home making, agriculture, the building trades, auto mechanics, and industrial arts.

Team teaching is a natural adjunct to the nongraded school concept, where children move from class to class in accordance with their academic needs. In the Free Schools, teams were composed of a team leader, one or more junior teachers, special area teachers, and related consultants in order to meet the special needs of the children. This organization fell into line with a definition of team teaching which appeared in the May 1961 issue of The Journal of Secondary Education, which defined the practice as "an arrangement whereby two or more class groups during a given period (s) meet in order to take advantage of their respective special competences."

The Audiovisual Program

Two major problems had to be considered in initiating and implementing a truly effective audiovisual program for the Free Schools: obtaining costly major items of audiovisual equipment, and justifying such equipment for a school system that would be in operation for only one short year. The former problem, that
of obtaining TV equipment and materials, was solved by the tireless efforts of Dr. Sullivan and William vanden Heuvel, a special assistant to the Attorney General of the United States. Audiovisual equipment was secured through purchases, donations by private citizens, and the tremendous generosity of manufacturers of AV equipment, film producers, distributors, and film libraries. Many items that would have been prohibitive in cost were given to the Free Schools.

In order to insure obtaining maximum value from the equipment during the Free Schools’ brief period of operation, it was necessary to plan the audiovisual program carefully. The audiovisual program was headed by a director who worked closely with and through the directors of elementary and secondary education. It was the audiovisual director’s responsibility to coordinate the selection, purchase, circulation, repair, and storage of audiovisual equipment. His second major responsibility was for an in-service teacher training program in audiovisual education.

The central AV Center was located in the high school, which also served as an administration building. The AV center contained materials and equipment utilized by the high school, and major items circulated to the elementary schools. The film and filmstrip collections also were housed there.

The three elementary schools each had their comparable share of AV materials and equipment. They had building coordinators who devoted several hours a day to AV materials.

A daily pick-up and delivery service enabled the audiovisual center to keep the schools supplied with needed materials and equipment. This important task, which was performed by the audiovisual director’s assistant, ensured the efficient delivery, distribution, and collection of films and other important items.

One of the schools’ most effective pieces of equipment proved to be the Language Master, a device which enables the student to see written words, sentences, and symbols as well as being able to hear the specific items...
pronounced by means of a card which contains a magnetic sound track. The voice on the sound track has a Midwestern or general speech pattern. Teachers may record their own voices for regional characteristics on the machine cards, and the students are also able to make their own vocal sounds and to compare them with the master or the teacher's voice. Additional blank cards are available for making special situation materials. The Language Master was of great value in teaching the children of Prince Edward County, many of whom had serious speech problems.

Educational television also played an important part in the Free Schools. The schools were enrolled in ETV courses, beamed from Richmond, Virginia. These classes, which were viewed for one hour per day, covered the areas of music, art, science, and current events. There were over 30 sets in operation in the four schools, and both the students and the teachers responded well to the ETV offerings.

Inservice AV Education

Inservice training in the correct use of educational media enhanced the use of the AV materials and equipment available in the Free Schools. The AV director visited one or more schools each day. During these visits, advice, information, and utilization problems were discussed. The AV director also made himself available to handle problems beyond the scope of the building coordinators.

The most important aspect of the inservice AV training was the weekly session at one or more of the schools which normally lasted one hour or less and which was devoted to demonstrating or explaining some phase of educational media.

Field Trips

Field trips and excursions greatly helped to broaden the horizons of the students. The large buses owned by the Association were a familiar sight around the area. The students made trips to Richmond to the museum and to hear the Richmond symphony orchestra. Visits were also made to New York; to places in North Carolina; and to historical sites in Virginia, Washington, D.C., and the surrounding areas. Before these trips, many of the children had never been out of their small county.

The immediate community was not overlooked, either. Visits to banks and other institutions served to bring the town into the classroom and the classroom into the town.

Summer School Program

The Free Schools operated a six-weeks summer school program from June 22 to August 6. Classes started at 8:30 A.M. and ended at 11:30 A.M., followed by a lunch period. The afternoons, from 1 P.M. to 3 P.M., were devoted to special activities such as art, athletics, typing, home economics, industrial arts, music, and recreational films. Students were divided into groups and took part in assigned afternoon activities two or more times during the week.
The AV Center performed its normal functions during the entire summer period with the additional responsibility of providing a daily recreational film. With the support of the Motion Picture Association of America, the AV Center showed a completely different film package every day. The package usually included a current feature film and a cartoon or short subject.

**AV in the Community**

During the major part of the Prince Edward Free Schools' existence, the local motion picture theater did not admit persons of color, and so there were some children who had never seen feature films in a theater setting. The daily recreational films, therefore, were greatly enjoyed by the students. The Free Schools' staff, students, and members of the community also enjoyed a free current feature two or more times a week in the evenings during the entire year. Hollywood and New York feature film producers made available to the Free Schools some of the latest films in 16mm, many of which were in Cinemascope.

The many cultural activities afforded the Free Schools were also open to the community. Noted concert singers, high school bands, the Dartmouth College Glee Club, the Virginia State College symphony orchestra, and many other persons entertained not only the staff and students, but interested members of the community as well.

**Promise for the Future**

The Prince Edward Free Schools closed in August 1964. The situation in the county is still far from ideal. Although the public schools have been reopened, a private academy is in its sixth year of operation, and most of the white children in the county attend it. Many of the children of Prince Edward County bear academic, cultural, and emotional scars from their four years of educational deprivation that may never be completely eradicated.

The audiovisual program in the Free Schools was a tremendous success, however. It was one of the programs that the Free Schools trustees insisted that the public schools continue. Several thousands of dollars of unused funds were specifically designated to support the AV program in the reopened public schools. All of the equipment acquired by the Free School Association was given to the public schools. The equipment loaned to the Free Schools by such firms as Bell & Howell was purchased by the Free Schools and also was given to the public schools. The complete inventory of AV materials and equipment was estimated to be worth nearly $50,000.

There is no doubt that the audiovisual program played a great part in the Free Schools' total program of education for the disadvantaged. It should serve as an indication to other schools serving similarly disadvantaged children that audiovisual instruction can contribute greatly to overcoming social and cultural poverty.
The ability of children from socially disadvantaged backgrounds to adjust to and learn in group settings is seriously impaired by limitations in language development. At the Institute for Developmental Studies, New York Medical College, the area of language is emphasized in our nursery enrichment program (5, 4) and is central to the research studies of the Institute (3).

It is recognized at the Institute that there are two serious issues involved in implementing language training.

The first issue is that the language which the child must learn in the classroom is greatly different from the language which he uses at home and on the street. Moreover, the child comes into the classroom already well schooled in that other language. The problem is not merely one of providing for deficit, but rather of dealing with the many ways in which school language and learning conflict with existing modes of expression. Not only is there a previously learned set of behaviors, but during the time that the child is exposed to “school” language he is still exposed in his home and neighborhood environments to the other language.

The second issue is that nursery and kindergarten classrooms are not very appropriate places for accomplishing the job that needs to be done. The social setting of the classroom does not provide the opportunity for the kind of continued tutorial training that occurs in middle-class homes.

One or two teachers in a classroom of 15-30 children find the job of dealing with such language limitations too complex. Among the reasons for this difficulty is the fact that most teachers are not experts in language, especially the language of lower-class children. It is appropriate to point out that while knowledge in this area is growing rapidly, it is still limited. Only recently has the role of language in learning begun to be explored experientially (8). Moreover, serious work related to the definition of lower-class language has just begun (1, 7, 9).

Especially with young children, teachers have to spend the major portion of their time in classroom management. They have only limited time for extended individual conversations, which are the bases of the social situations in which vocabularily is modified and language shaped.

Mechanical Technology Multiplies Teacher Effort

Mechanical technology offers a means of multiplying the efforts of the teacher. Within the context of this article, mechanical technology is represented by a tape recorder with up to six sets of earphones.

Many educators will react negatively to such mechanical technology. They will feel that it is less than humane to have a young child sit in a booth, visually isolated from his peers, while he works, book in hand, with earphones covering his ears. These persons will argue that the child needs the teacher—a human teacher—to read stories just the way that the middle-class parent does. To begin with, the commitment to the importance of taped stories does not preclude the teacher’s reading to individuals and groups of children. However, this commitment recognizes that there are limits to the opportunities teachers have to read to individual children in the classroom.

More important, there is a host of research which indicates the importance of isolating the listener from background stimulation that prevents attention to the relevant aspects of what is to be learned (10, 6, 2). In summing up the implications of his own work, Zeaman has suggested that the key to the education of moderately retarded children rests in the engineering of their attention. Isolating children from their peers and from background noise goes a long way toward contributing to the “engineering of the child’s attention.”

Two unique attributes of the tape recorder are worthy of mention. The first involves the special application of this medium for nonverbal children. In testing new tapes on children, we have followed the practice of asking for those children who rarely speak to the teacher or to their peers, and have been amazed by their attentiveness and the surprising amount of verbal response they give to the questions asked on the tape. More verbal children also have been found to attend to and respond to the tapes. However, this type of equipment seems to have a unique contribution to make to those more hesitant in their verbal behavior.

The other unique attribute of the tape recorder involves the reproducibility of stories and lessons. Tapes can be played over and over in ways that permit individualization. For example, children enjoying hearing their favorite stories over and over again—more so than do their teachers. By using the tape recorder, the teacher can enable some of the students to hear a favorite again and again while he is working with other members of the class.

An Operational Unit in the Classroom

Ideally, the listening center should be in a quiet, secluded area of the classroom. Here, from one to six
children, each with a set of earphones, can sit at a table or shelf which provides adequate work space for each child. As they listen to a tape through earphones, each child is working on an independent, individual basis. When the tape ends, one child turns off the tape recorder, earphones are removed, and the children leave the center. They are replaced by other children who put on earphones, turn on the recorder, and proceed with their work. The teacher, once she has placed the tape for the day on the recorder, is minimally involved. She is free to work with other groups in other areas of the room. This is the ideal—the goal to be achieved.

Realistically, "freeing the teacher" is another way of saying "developing competence in children." In all teaching, we seek to develop within the child the ability to deal competently with his environment. This is no less true in the use of the listening center. In the first weeks, and in some cases, months, of its use, the major objective is the development of independence and competence in the use of physical apparatus as well as the learning of behaviors expected in the use of the center itself.

With this objective in mind, the physical set-up of the center and the choice of an area in the classroom for the center become most important. Careful planning on the part of the teacher in the establishment of the center and thought as to the routines and behaviors expected are the first steps toward the smooth and functional operation of the listening center in the classroom.

The requirements and equipment needed in each center follow:

- A tape recorder with a plastic cover which will protect the machine when it is not in use.
- A shelf on which to keep the tape recorder. It is strongly recommended that the tape recorder not be kept on the table or shelf at which the children sit. The machine itself is often distracting to children.
- One set of earphones for each child. Hopefully a center will accommodate six children at the same time. However, it is recognized that the number of children in a center will vary, depending on classroom space available.
- A table, set of tables, or shelf with chairs. There should be sufficient work space for each child.
- A shelf or other storage facilities for books and materials used with tapes.
- Collapsible or moveable dividers which are placed on tables or shelves to form individual booths for each child.

As has been stated, the ideal place for a listening center is a quiet, secluded area of the classroom. However, it is recognized that in many classrooms with limited space, creating such an area poses serious problems. In such cases, the important thing to bear in mind is that children are less distracted by noise when listening than they are by extraneous activity and materials. For this reason it is important that the children face away from other classroom activities, and that distractions of any kind, such as pictures on the wall in that area or other unrelated materials, be removed or kept at an absolute minimum. The area should also be one that is relatively free of traffic, i.e., not one through which children have to pass to get to the bathroom or other frequently used areas of the room.

Where tables and chairs are not at a premium and it is possible to set up the center on the first day of school, do so omitting the tape recorder and earphones. If the children gravitate to this area for other activities, ask that they work elsewhere, perhaps giving a casual explanation that the area will be used later for something special.

Introducing the Tape Recorder and Earphones

Before the listening center is put into operation, it is suggested that the tape recorder be introduced to the class in a group situation. Each situation, of course, will be determined by the teacher according to the character and size of her class; so that one teacher, after careful evaluation of her class, might decide to first use the tape recorder in the listening center with a few children. This could be effective in a small class with two teachers. In a large class with only one teacher, however, it has seemed more effective and practical so far to introduce the tape recorder in a group situation.

In either case the following points have been found to be important in the initial presentation of the tape recorder:

- Be brief. A short session leaving the children eagerly looking forward to more is most important. Even though children may want to prolong the session, it has proved more effective to cut it short, thus avoiding oversaturation.
- As in any other group lesson, it is important to have the class settled and quiet with attention focused on the covered machine before starting the lesson.
- Remove the plastic cover so that the children will do the same later.
- Teach the name "tape recorder."
- Plug in the microphone, giving a brief description of it while doing so.
- Record the singing of the group or a child saying his name.
- Immediately play back the recording for the children.
- Replace the plastic cover at the close of the lesson with a brief explanation of its purpose, saying something like, "This will help keep the dust from getting in."

In this initial presentation, it is most important that the children learn that the tape recorder is a special piece of equipment to be handled with care and respect. The teacher conveys this attitude to the children by words, but mostly by her own careful handling of the machine. In her demonstration it is clear that she only touches the machine to turn it on and off.

In the second presentation, the aim is to establish the pattern of behavioral responses required in listening to a tape. Following a review of what has been learned previously concerning the physical handling of the machine, the children listen to a tape of a short story at the end of which a few questions are asked. They are encouraged to respond to the questions in such a way that it helps establish the pattern of responding to the voice on the tape recorder.
Once the children have become familiar with the above, the earphones may be introduced. Once again, this would be preceded by a review of previous learnings, followed by a demonstration of the correct use of the earphones. A child may then be asked to initiate the demonstration, to listen briefly through the earphones, and then to tell the class what he heard. Since nearly every child will want to participate, this is usually a good time for the teacher to point out that each will have a turn, though not all can listen that day, and that there will be a special place for the use of earphones and tape recorder. The listening center then can be pointed out.

Introducing the Listening Center

Once the tape recorder and earphones have been introduced to the group, it is suggested that they then be placed in the listening center for use there. As has been stated before, the time for beginning the center will depend on many factors and will vary from group to group.

In a class with two teachers it may well be possible, and certainly most desirable, to introduce the use of tapes in the center at the beginning of or very early in the school year. This would require the full attention of one teacher working with a small group of children.

In a class with one teacher, it has seemed more practical so far to introduce the tapes in a group setting. Then, as children learn to work independently in other classroom areas, the teacher is able to work with a small group in the listening center.

One use of mechanical technology in the program of the Institute for Developmental Studies has been presented in this article. A wide variety of other audiovisual devices are being used in work at the Institute, especially by Dr. Cynthia Deutsch in her studies in auditory discrimination and learning-how-to-learn.

In presenting the listening center, we have concentrated on those problems relating to the tape recorder as a complex piece of equipment to be used by four- and five-year-olds from disadvantaged backgrounds. We have not described the psychological and educational technology involved in constructing tapes and booklets suitable for immature learners. However, it should be stated that these principles draw from the discipline of programmed instruction. Tapes are carefully sequenced so that each takes a child a step further in a particular learning task. “Feedback” is provided by the voice saying “Did you say . . .” or by asking the child to repeat the answer. That children do respond to questions asked on the tape, and that they do repeat answers when required to do so, has been abundantly evident in our testing of tapes in classrooms. Many enter into what might be termed a running dialogue with the voice on the tape, giving not only the required responses, but delightfully spontaneous comments. For example, in a tape on the fireman, the children were told that if they were to hold a fireman’s hat in their hands it would be very heavy. Later in the tape, in the review of information given, the question was asked, “If you were to hold a fireman’s hat in your hand, would it feel light or would it be heavy?” One child replied, “It’d be heavy for you but light for Superman.”

It would appear that a child regards the voice coming through the earphones as speaking directly and personally to him and `responds accordingly.

In the making of tapes and the setting up of listening centers we have relied heavily on the insights of classroom teachers. They have provided and continue to provide invaluable help in identifying techniques and procedures for making the listening center an effective and independently operational unit in the classroom.

References

The Peace Corps ETV Project in Colombia

John R. Winnie

In December of 1962, at the request of the Colombian Government, the Peace Corps sent Tedson Meyers, former assistant to Newton Minow of the FCC and a television consultant for the Corps, to Bogota, Colombia, to confer with officials in government and education to determine the feasibility of a country-wide educational television project involving the Ministries of Education, Communications, and the Peace Corps. Following an exploratory and investigatory period, Mr. Meyers assisted government and ministry officials in developing an ETV project proposal to the Agency for International Development and the Peace Corps, and thus laid the groundwork for what is the largest single program of U.S. assistance—private or governmental—in the field of educational television overseas.

My first contact with the Peace Corps was in March of 1963. I was invited to Washington for consultation with the staff on the proposed ETV project in Latin America. My appointment as an associate Peace Corps representative for Colombia and project director of the ETV program was made June 1, 1963. Immediately thereafter I undertook an unusual assignment, a project which had as its goal the development and programming of a national ETV network for Colombia, South America.

Colombia, in many ways, was uniquely suited for this project. Its government-owned TV network is one of the largest and fastest growing in Latin America. It has eight VHF stations on U.S. standards and eight translators. The network boasts what is probably the world’s longest microwave jump, a relay of 240 miles between two snow-covered peaks in the Andes. Eighty-five percent of Colombia’s people and 94 percent of its schools are within range of the transmitters. There are some 300,000 receivers in the country and approximately 14,500,000 people. The needs of its educational system are similar to those of most of the underdeveloped countries of this hemisphere: not enough teachers, not enough schools, and not enough classrooms. Colombia is a nation where not more than half the population can read or write and where the average school teacher has a fifth-grade education. It is a country with an inadequate national budget to handle the problems created by a new generation thirsting for education.

A visit to, and an investigation of, proposed training sites in Italy and Puerto Rico led me to propose to the PC Training Section that training take place in the United States and Puerto Rico. Unfortunately, a fever outbreak in Puerto Rico during August and September forced cancellation of this phase of the program. Early conferences with government, Peace Corps, and A.I.D. officials in Bogota indicated the necessity of initiating the volunteer training program at the earliest date if the personnel were to be ready to go to work with the opening of the new school year in February 1964.

The first Peace Corps educational television project got underway with the arrival of the first contingent of volunteers selected for training on June 10, 1963, at the University of New Mexico Training Center. In Washington, the staff had been busy during April and May selecting the volunteers with the assistance of David Stewart of the Joint Council on Educational Television (now the Joint Council on Educational Broadcasting), Seth Spaulding of the U.S. Office of Education, and myself. Volunteers for this assignment had been carefully screened for backgrounds, skills, and experiences in communications and/or education.

The major problem confronting me with this first trainee group was the development, in cooperation with the Training Section, of a program for the television volunteers. In addition to the basic program, which placed emphasis on language, physical training, area studies, U.S. institutions, world affairs, and communism, we drafted a specialized program in television which would provide the volunteers with common backgrounds and experiences in educational television. The initial training group of 16 PCV’s, which was to comprise the studio and technical unit for the project, was joined in August by a group of 18 Colombian counterparts selected in Bogota from the studio personnel of Radiotelevisora Nacional and the Ministry of Education.

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Following three months of basic training at the Training Center and at station KNME-TV, under the direction of Claude Hempen and Wayne Bundy, the PCV’s were moved to Lincoln, Nebraska. Here at the University of Nebraska the group experienced an intensive 30-day technical training session under the direction of Ron Hull and the personnel of KUON-TV. John Kuiper of the University of Iowa Television Center was added to this staff and was placed in charge of film training. In late August the group was sent on home leave and then reassembled in Washington, D.C., for a 10-day briefing and visitation of studios in Washington, Hagerstown, Maryland, and New York. Educational station WNDT-TV, at that time under the direction of Sam Gould, conducted a special training session for the Peace Corps-Colombian unit. The group left New York on September 20 for Bogota, Colombia. Following a week-long orientation and indoctrination period for the PCV’s, the group, including Colombian
counterparts and new personnel from Radiotelevisora Nacional, began a six-weeks in-country training session at the studios of Radiotelevisora, destined to be the home of the ETV project.

In the meantime, as project director, I had been working with the Washington staff in the selection of a second volunteer group and the development of a training program for a “utilization” unit which would work in the field with Colombian teachers using the ETV program. This group, which began training in September of 1963, was joined by a Colombian counterpart group of 12 educators. Following four months of training, which included extensive field work with teachers and students in remote Spanish-speaking areas of New Mexico utilizing the ETV programs of station KNME-TV, the PCV’s were sent on home leave. Meanwhile, the Colombian counterparts embarked on a special visitation program in the Chicago and Washington areas. The unit reassembled in Washington and, following a period of visitations, seminars, and lectures in the Washington and New York area, left for Colombia on January 3, 1964.

A late, but important addition to the project, was a contingent of 26 PCV’s originally scheduled for the Dominican Republic, but cancelled out of that country because of tenuous government relationships and unsettled conditions following the downfall of Juan Bosch. This unit had originally been screened for backgrounds, training, and experience in the teaching field. The unit underwent a “crash” ETV program under the direction of James Loper at Los Angeles State College. Utilizing the facilities of the Los Angeles State College TV Production Center and the Anaheim School District ETV program, the emphasis in training was on utilization, program development, and materials development for teachers and students. The unit arrived in Colombia on December 3, 1963, and added needed strength to the personnel involved in the project.

Initially, approximately 500 receivers were installed in the state of Cundinamarca, which includes the nation’s capital, Bogota. In the second half of the current school year, an additional 1,000 receivers were to be installed in other states of the country. These receivers were purchased with counterpart funds allocated to the project by the U.S. Agency for International Development.

The original group of five ETV technicians was joined in January of 1964 by a group of six technicians from the second unit. Working with Colombian technical assistants assigned from Radiotelevisora Nacional, this group installed, repaired, and maintained all receiver and antennae equipment. One of the chief problems this group encountered was the difficulty of installing antennas on schools with tile, thatch, and bamboo roofs. After the chief technician, Charles Perry of Chattanooga, Tennessee, broke through the roof but survived the fall to the classroom floor, special lightweight aluminum extension ladders were procured for the technicians’ use.

Colombia’s educational television network went on the air March 2, 1964, with the beginning of the school year, and ETV programs were received not only in Cundinamarca, but across the length and breadth of the country. The first programs telecast were in the area of teacher training. These programs were in advance of the in-class telecasts and were designed to acquaint the teacher with the nature and scope of the project, as well as to introduce subject areas and teaching techniques. All programs are pre-video-taped, and the resulting library of taped materials insures program continuity and future growth. Currently on the air are programs in mathematics, grades 1 and 5; social sciences, grades 3, 4, 5; natural sciences, grades 3, 4, 5, and language, grades 1 and 2. Also, and of primary importance to the project, is a continuation of the teacher training programs viewed by all the Colombian teachers using the ETV in-class programs. Future areas to be programed include health, physical education, music, art, vocational training, and literacy.

One of the most important elements of this project is the use in the field of a large core of teachers who are experienced and trained Peace Corps volunteers, working with Colombian teachers in “utilization.” The traditional teaching style in Latin America is the use of lecture and the rote system. Class periods are largely composed of verbal exchanges. The lack of texts, blackboards, papers, pencils, etc., in the classroom would appall the average American teacher. The ETV graphic and visual materials on the air and the printed study guides and brochures supplied to the classroom teachers represent a powerful graphic presentation which very few, if any, Colombian teachers can duplicate in their teaching situations. The utilization volunteers have been thoroughly trained in all aspects of visual creation and presentation. Great emphasis was placed in training on providing these people with skills that would be useful in limited situations. Working with the Colombian teachers before, during, and after programs, the utilization group should in time have a marked effect upon the performance of the classroom teachers. In the second half of the current school year, the Ministry of Education will select 50 counterpart teachers to work in the field with the PCV utilization group. This will ensure a strong cadre of trained Colombians to carry on this important phase of the subject.

Both the Colombian Ministry of Education and the Peace Corps are interested in determining the effectiveness of the project. To evaluate it, the Peace Corps has contracted with the Stanford Institute of Communications Research. The unit assigned to the research project is headed by Nathan Maccoby and George Comstock. These men will spend a good part of their time in Colombia for the next year and a half testing and evaluating all aspects of the project. Undoubtedly their findings will have a significant effect on future Latin American ETV projects.

The problems in the field are generally similar to those found in any U.S. ETV project. However, there are some unique ones. PCV Kyra Eberle, White Plains, New York, was assigned to the school area surrounding the village of San Francisco in Colombia. She found that transportation in the area was inadequate and time consuming. Her problem was solved when the mayor of San Francisco informed the Peace Corps that the village would furnish Kyra with a horse for transportation, if the Peace Corps would furnish the saddle. So,
Kyra, like the early day circuit riding ministers, now commutes by mountain trail. Another major problem encountered was that of receiver security. Many of the schools which need and want the ETV program are unattended after regular school hours, and it was found inadvisable to place receivers in schools that did not maintain someone in residence. One school, in Chia, solved the security problem by imbedding a steel platform in the concrete floor of the classroom and then anchoring the TV receiver to the platform with steel bands and bars. To many of the Colombians in Cundinamarca's villages, the TV sets given to the schools have become a matter of civic pride. The possibility of a TV set for their school has even stimulated several village groups to bring electricity into their towns to power the sets.

One of the more interesting uses of ETV in Colombia has been the employment of the program in morning primary level classes for the prisoners in La Picota jail, one of Colombia's largest penal institutions. Elena Radley, a PCV from Chicago, Illinois, was originally assigned to work in the jail with a literacy program. The great interest of the prisoners in learning led her to obtain receivers from the Ministry of Education and then to organize a school program with the men. She located a sufficient number of educated prisoners that could work as teachers. The penal system in Colombia, unlike that of the United States, has a very limited rehabilitation program. Consequently, the ETV school project in La Picota is deluged with prisoners wanting something to do. With literally 24 hours a day available for study, the prisoners make remarkable educational progress.

In general, Colombian teachers and students are enthusiastic about the ETV project. In most cases, the receiver in the classroom is the first that the child or teacher has seen. The excitement engendered in the classroom by the programs is something that must be seen to be appreciated. It was necessary to have the screen go black and then have the teacher turn off the receiver in order to convince the students that the ETV program had been completed. While bringing superior teachers to thousands of youngsters in the classroom every day, the programs are swiftly upgrading the classroom teachers.

Colombia Peace Corps Director Christopher Sheldon sees the ETV project as the first step in the creation of an entirely new field for the Peace Corps. "I believe that the ETV project will be the most successful technical project which the Peace Corps has entered. It will be compared with the community development work which has been so successful throughout our operations. I feel that ETV will eventually be integrated into all phases of community development work, including health programs, agriculture projects, and literacy training."

The Peace Corps ETV project daily becomes more firmly entrenched in the educational structure of Colombia. It is wishful thinking to hope for "dramatic" results in the first year of the project. Effecting such changes in an educational system that has taken hundreds of years to develop is neither easy nor to be expected. However, given time and attention, the ETV program may become the most important new development in the Colombian educational system of the last 100 years.

*A utilization unit demonstrates the nature and uses of audiovisual equipment at a regional teachers meeting outside Bogota.*
In today's society concern for the education of the culturally disadvantaged youth is of major importance to the educator and to the layman alike. Our society has reached a level of complexity and interdependency which requires each individual to make his own unique contribution. Education is being recognized as the only means by which such a utopian goal can be achieved. For the culturally disadvantaged the usual teaching methods will not suffice. These people lack the educational background and the learning experiences to succeed in the conventional classroom even though they have attended school the usual number of classroom years. Both the culturally disadvantaged and mentally handicapped children tend to have a very limited verbal vocabulary and a very short attention span. It follows then that these children cannot gain as much from reading a book or listening to a lecture as would be desired. Because of these deficiencies they are unable to profit from many of the traditional teaching methods.

In a search for a procedure which will both inform and involve the disadvantaged person in learning activities, two interesting experiments have been conducted at Omaha South High School in Omaha, Nebraska.

One experiment in directed listening was conducted last year in which five social studies teachers in 18 different classes participated. For this experiment special tape-recorded lectures were produced, and a carefully designed listening guide sheet was prepared for each lecture. The tape recording was the vehicle by which the information was conveyed, and the guide sheet served as a focusing device for emphasizing main ideas. A key sentence was selected from each paragraph of the audiovisual narration and printed on the guide sheet, and a blank space was inserted into the sentence at a point where the student was to write in the key word. This completed work sheet followed the sequence of the presentation, and the pupil filled in the blanks as the presentation proceeded. Such an attention-focusing device makes it very difficult for the student to tune out the instruction. The guide sheet was discussed in the class, and the student made corrections for any misunderstanding he might have received.

Evidence of teachers' opinions, test grades, and pupils' opinions indicates that this form of audiovisual instruction is a superior method for educating the culturally disadvantaged in the field of social studies. Directed listening with a completion guide sheet improves the student's ability to organize material, increases his vocabulary, and helps his retention. This claim was proven through the experiments conducted at Omaha South High School.
The value of this method is the level of understanding these projects seems to greatly reduce the discipline completion of a successful production. Participation in the standard educational films.

I believe that lectures should be tape-recorded and presented to the culturally disadvantaged in order to provide a consistency of message and a program of listening.

Intelligence is not confined to any one social status or geographic area. Mentally superior young people can be found in all locations. When these students come from a culturally disadvantaged household, the school provides the only opportunity to break the bonds of cultural poverty. One bond, the lack of creativity, can be broken by teaching creativity to these children by the use of certain audiovisual methods. I call this teaching device The Nebraska Technique of Pupil-Created Audiovisual Productions. Students who wish to participate in this endeavor are asked to form themselves into groups of four. In my classes participation is voluntary because students must furnish their own materials. Committees are formed, not only because it cuts down the cost of production per person, but also because students need to learn to work with others.

The students are asked to select their own topics. The production should be a relatively small historical segment such as The Battle of Gettysburg—not The Civil War or The Early Life of Abraham Lincoln—not Abraham Lincoln, etc. The students are then asked to compile a bibliography of 24 sources which will illustrate their topic. By pursuing these sources they become informed about their chosen subject. The final preparation step is the creation of a script or narration for their production.

After the script is completed, 20 pictures are selected to heighten interest or illustrate the various portions of the script. The students may add effects to make the presentation sound more realistic as the script is narrated on the recording tape. For reproducing their pictures into color slides, using my 35mm camera and copying device, I make the camera settings, but the students actually do the work. The students come in after school, narrate the script, and put the sound effects on the tape. The cue to advance the slides is indicated by a spoon striking a drinking glass. After the students play back their endeavor they almost invariably re-do their narration and often rewrite the entire script. When the report is given in class, the students operate the slide projector, tape recorder, and evaluate their work along with their fellow students. The best productions are saved to be used in subsequent terms for the teaching of similar units. My students claim that they prefer to see the student-produced media rather than some of the standard educational films.

Students receive a great deal of satisfaction from the completion of a successful production. Participation in these projects seems to greatly reduce the discipline problems that arise with such groups. Another measure of the value of this method is the level of understanding now attained by these students in social studies. Finally, by the traditional yardstick, their test scores all show improvement, and some students receive the highest social studies grades of their scholastic career. The largest gain cannot be measured: It is the feeling of accomplishment these young people have as they see and hear the effect of their creation upon the viewer; but this pride can be recognized as it is mirrored in their faces.

Electronic Teaching for School Dropouts

Daniel W. Behnke

An experimental pilot project in the fields of remedial reading and social adjustment of able-bodied dependent school dropouts between 16 and 20 years of age was undertaken recently by the Cook County, Illinois, Department of Public Aid. The project involved the use of electronic teaching facilities and specially developed reading material and the provision of intensive supportive services to the student.

A distinctive feature of this experiment was the instructional setting designed by the Electronic Teaching Facilities, Inc., of Chicago. Reading instruction was given to the students in a large room that was divided into two sections: the instruction area and the student positions. The instruction area was located in the front of the room and was equipped with video and audio facilities, namely, master teacher desk with control board, TV cameras, tachistoscope, controlled reader, and film and slide chains. The teaching system was predicated on a two-person team in the classroom, the teacher and his technical assistant. Most of the facilities were placed behind the teacher and were separated from the rest of the room by a partition. The teacher sat at a control board and faced the students and one of the TV cameras.

In front of the teacher there were 24 wooden booths set up in four rows and clustered by three. Each booth provided work area for one student and was equipped with a TV monitor, microphone, and set of head-phones. The lesson material was transmitted by the teacher to the student in the booth via TV monitor and earphones, so that the student saw as well as heard the lesson. At any time during the reading session, the student and the teacher could also communicate privately by means of microphone and headphones without interrupting the classroom procedure.

The reading program consisted of 54 90-minute sessions scheduled for Monday, Wednesday, and Friday during a period of 18 weeks. The 33 students involved in the experiment were divided into two groups on the basis of how far they lived from the class site, those
living closest reporting to the first class, the remainder to the second.

The pioneering character of the experiment did not allow for measuring in depth the effectiveness of the electronic teaching facilities; however, it was noted that this type of instructional setting has certain advantages for the dropout and that it was preferred over the regular classroom by the vast majority of the youths in the sample. The setting enabled the individual youth to be free from normal classroom procedures and competition, thereby allowing him to progress at a pace determined only by his own ability. It also provided fewer distractions for the dropout, whose attention span is rather limited due to prior damage from a succession of failures. For the teacher, this arrangement provided an opportunity to become aware immediately of the student's reading difficulties, to help him right away, and, if necessary, to revise the lesson material.

Other findings of the experiment appeared to indicate that any educational or work-oriented program for dependent school dropouts should be undergirded with strong and individualized supportive measures, because many of these youths reveal not only educational problems but also social and emotional problems. It was further found that the students who progressed most in reading skills had also shown more positive change in behavior.

"The Neighborhood Show"

Robert D. Smith

"The Neighborhood Show" is a series of daily half-hour television programs designed to provide health and welfare agencies of the nation's capital city with a forceful, compelling, and regularly attended instrument of communication between themselves and the low-income population they serve, as well as a medium of self-expression for impoverished and disadvantaged people in the District of Columbia. The programs will be produced by, and telecast on, WETA/Channel 26, Washington's noncommercial educational television station.

Under the leadership and coordination of the United Planning Organization, such agencies as Washington's Urban League, neighborhood church organizations, settlement houses, block social clubs, and other agencies are cooperating to mount a major attack upon the conditions that characterize a large area of the District of Columbia as a disadvantaged community. The "Neighborhood Show" will become an instrument which these organizations will use effectively as part of their broad action program to change or remove the sources of poverty.

The outward appearance of "The Neighborhood Show" will resemble NBC's "Today Show," in that the "Neighborhood Show" will consist of a series of short features on many different topics presented by program hosts drawn from the indigenous talent of the target audience. These features will fall into two classes: (a) functionally useful information presented in interesting and usable form, and (b) pure entertainment drawn from and representing the best of the indigenous talent of the target audience.

A sample of topics featured in the programs would contain the following:

- Rights to adequate housing and where to find it
- Inexpensive housing improvements
- Buying food and preparing meals on limited budgets
- "Hotline to Employment," a regular feature listing jobs and job-training opportunities available
- Interviews with employers about opportunities for work
- Getting ahead on the job
- Child and baby care facilities available
- Preschool and day care facilities for working parents
- Vocational retraining opportunities
- Free or inexpensive medical facilities
- Information about social security and public assistance
- Neighborhood news
- Public school courses and objectives
- Subjects children are learning in school
- How to buy consumer goods wisely
- How, where, and when to borrow money
- Rodent and insect extermination
- Coverage of neighborhood socials and meetings
- Dramatic and musical performances by local talent
- Brief interviews with doctors, policemen, retailers, judges, social workers, credit collectors, teachers, truck drivers, bricklayers, unemployed persons, housewives, school children, ministers, and others who are part of everyday life in the low-income community.

The primary purpose of entertainment segments is to attract a large and faithful audience which will enjoy and find useful the information about services available in the community, opportunities for employment and education, methods of improving living standards, and other topics which are woven into the programs.

The features on each program will be of different length and employ every possible format to heighten interest. The programs will be telecast on WETA/Channel 26, Monday through Friday at the dinner hour. It is expected that the programs will be rebroadcast on a Washington commercial channel the following morning to maximize exposure to the target audience. The programs will be produced live in the studios of WETA with prerecorded segments produced at various locations by two alternating production teams. The two teams will each be equipped with sound-on-film cameras, still cameras, and transistorized tape recorders to provide for extensive location production of segments for integration into the studio programs. The WETA mobile videotape truck will be used to record important events which take place in
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the target community. The recent establishment of the WETA major production studios on the campus of Howard University in Washington, at the edge of a major area of poverty in the District, will facilitate maximum participation in the programs by individuals in the audience.

To achieve high initial utilization of the program by the target audience, the United Planning Organization and its affiliated neighborhood agencies will place into service at least 50 portable television sets at points in the area where people congregate. Some sets will be placed in store fronts with external speakers mounted outside. Other sets will be placed semipermanently in meeting halls of the neighborhood agencies, settlement houses, restaurants, and bars. Still others will be moved from locale to locale on a temporary basis to provide viewing posts for neighborhoods whose residents are then participating in programs. This high degree of involvement of neighborhood residents and local talent groups, coupled with the advertising of viewing posts for such occasions, is designed to attract large initial interest in the programs, hopefully develop habitual viewing on the part of the target audience, and overcome whatever temporary problems might arise out of the fact that not all sets in homes now receive UHF television channels.

In addition to this plan to maximize viewing, the neighborhood agencies also will serve as recruiting points for participating talent; feed program feature ideas to the production teams; provide location production points; be alert to, and record, audience response to the programs; and serve as distribution points for useful written information publicized on the programs. But most of all, the neighborhood agencies will be served by, rather than serve, the programs, for the programs are designed to direct the audience to the various agencies for services, assistance, and opportunities that are available.

At this writing, an initial appropriation of program development funds has been approved by the Office of Economic Opportunity through the United Planning Organization, as an integral part of the broadly based design to attack the problems of poverty in Washington. The funds made available to WETA will allow further development of the project, the establishment of working relations with neighborhood agencies, and the design of the first month's programs.

In addition to its value to Washington organizations as they launch the war on poverty in the nation's capital, it is expected that the television project will demonstrate to similar organizations throughout the country that, (a) a continuing daily television program can be an effective and economical tool in the hands of health, welfare, vocational, educational, and legal organizations charged with the responsibility of attacking poverty and deprivation, (b) that television is as potent a means of stimulating community action as it is a medium of entertainment and diversion, and (c) that noncommercial educational television is the television institution in this country best fitted, philosophically and economically, to program on a sustained basis for special audiences within a community.

Audiovisual Aids in Appalachia

James E. Moore and Estill Davidson

Appalachia is an area characterized by beautiful scenery and proud and willing people. It is also an area beset by dwindling natural resources resulting from exploitation, by lack of opportunity for industrial employment, and, consequently, by poor roads and schools.

Many of the school-age children growing up in Appalachia today, therefore, are economically and culturally disadvantaged. It is important that these children acquire information on conservation and the importance of good schools and roads, and that they gain a deeper understanding of how people in other parts of the United States and in other lands live.

In Laurel County, Kentucky, the Keavy Elementary School has inaugurated a new and better audiovisual aids program in an attempt to bring needed information and understanding to its students. It is felt that if these children are exposed to a variety of new experiences through a number of media, their cultural level will rise, their attitudes will change, and that this in turn will result in an across-the-board improvement in the status of their area.

Teaching aids and supplemental equipment are being furnished for the various subject areas at different levels of ability. The equipment in the school includes two slide projectors, one overhead projector, one 16mm projector, three record players, three microscopes and a science kit, and numerous maps, charts, and primary visual aids. There are over 100 filmstrips and dozens of records pertaining to some important subject area. The use of this material is set up according to the needs of the pupils and the teachers. Each class is organized for the maximum use of the audiovisual materials. The teachers and pupils make good use of the materials and are proud they have such materials to work with in the various subject areas.

Keavy School has a primary block in grades 1-3 where each child progresses at his own rate of ability. Many audiovisual materials are in use in this program, particularly in science and reading.

A 30-minute program each week has been set up to show free films in the areas of science, math, social studies, and other subjects. These films are booked in advance and are used in conjunction with regular units which are being presented by the teachers.

All audiovisual equipment and materials are stored in the library, where each teacher has access to them.
Filmstrips are filed in carrying cases for each subject taught, which minimizes the time needed to look for materials in a particular subject field.

Keavy Elementary School is located 12 miles from the County Seat of Laurel in a small farming community. As a result of the school's being located in Keavy, the community has come to be a prosperous one. An excellent beginning has been made in Keavy in the use of media for the education of the disadvantaged. Plans call for the improvement and expansion of the program of audiovisual aids, for it is realized that such a program is a great help in improving the teaching-learning process. Most important, the children of Keavy Elementary School are getting cultural enrichment from this program that could not otherwise be given them.

Teaching Students from Bilingual or Non-English Speaking Homes

Iris Mulvaney

Two of several efforts in the Tucson Public Schools to create educational programs suited to the needs of disadvantaged students have made extensive use of varied media and teaching techniques. Many pupils in Safford and Wakefield Junior High Schools are from bilingual or non-English speaking homes with limited socioeconomic resources. The major instructional needs—to motivate and to increase facility in English—were approached differently in each of the two schools. One emphasized the refinement of language skills; the other, a change in the student's self-concept. Now in their third year of operation, each project has sent its first group of "graduates" to senior high schools.

At Safford Junior High a social case worker, a counselor, and two teams of four teachers working together—one team with half the seventh grade, one with half the eighth grade—focused their efforts on:

* Helping students to discover and take pride in their dual heritage as Americans and as members of a particular cultural group
* Promoting self-analysis, self-awareness, self-respect, and self-direction so that students will consider the future and the need to establish life goals for themselves
* Providing experiences beyond textbooks, both active and vicarious, to help students extend their concept of community and communicate better within their environment.

To achieve these goals the teams have complete freedom to develop or discover instructional materials. Teachers have learned that what they might consider

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the group, it was necessary to stimulate their pride in both personal and group improvement.

One teacher, well-prepared in anthropology and with some knowledge of linguistic analysis, was homeroom teacher for the group, retaining them for approximately three and one-half clock hours and centering her instruction on improved understanding and use of English. Based on modified social studies content, the primary skills stressed were listening and systematically controlled speaking, since several elements in the students' first language, Spanish, interfered with English proficiency.

Instructional activities based on combined audio-lingual and audiovisual techniques included the following:

- Language records were used in a simplified language laboratory (8 headsets inserted into one or more jack-boxes attached to a record player).
- The same listening device was used with a tape recorder. Small groups practiced specific drills in pronunciation or sentence patterns. Students also listened to stories tape-recorded by a variety of individuals of differing age and sex. As they followed in their books, emphasis was on pronunciation, intonation, and rhythm.
- Charts were used extensively for various purposes: to illustrate Spanish-English contrasts, intonation contours, kernel sentences, and other elements of language structure. On constant display were charts with the International Phonetic Alphabet symbols. Although students were not required to memorize them, they quickly learned how effectively these symbols could help them in their hearing, pronunciation, and spelling difficulties.
- Linguistic analysis and comparison of specific phonetic and syntactical items in English and Spanish provided students with insights into the nature of their problems. Generative grammar, which enables any speaker to generate many sentences from a few kernel or model sentences, was found to be a successful technique enabling the students to use vocabulary words they already knew in systematic grammatical patterns.
- Free discussion frequently stimulated by films, filmstrips, and recordings encouraged the use of oral English, but more important, provided a valuable diagnostic opportunity for teacher and students alike. On the basis of this diagnosis, sequential materials were prepared and evaluated by the students.
- The opaque projector was used to display students' work and other instructional materials. Pictures, generally depicting phases of American culture, were used to broaden the experiential background and to provide topics for the controlled syntactical structuring of students' ideas. Thus, through a deeper knowledge of English structure, constantly reinforced by daily oral practice, these students learned to progress from the concrete to the abstract, from the specific to the general. The same group continued with similar instruction the following year. Significantly, most of these students did not "regress" during the summer months. A more rapid accretion of learning was observed and accredited to mastery of fundamental skills which previously had being lacking. Standardized tests and tape recordings given before students entered grade seven and at the end of grade eight showed encouraging results, especially in reading, listening, and abstract reasoning skills. While some students were able to function effectively at grade level, others were still in need of remedial instruction.

Improvement in poise and confidence was clearly discernible, but how much of this could be attributed to the fact that the group was frequently "on display" is not known.

Eventually the approach to language learning developed at Wakefield will probably be one section of the broader program in progress at Safford, which, in turn, may become the pattern of instruction recommended to all schools with large populations of bilinguals or culturally deprived students.

The real need is to incorporate such instruction into the curriculum in a planned sequence from the time these children enter school, but regardless of the grade level at which such an attempt is made, teachers who have worked with the classes at Safford and at Wakefield know that purposeful, consistent use of varied media can speed learning for these students.

Environment-Enrichment Program in Pennsylvania

Henry W. Ray

Centennial School District, Johnsville, Pennsylvania, contains the hub school for an "environment-enrichment" program sponsored by the Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, the Pennsylvania Department of Health and Welfare, and our local school district. The Ford Foundation provides supporting funds for this project, which is designed to cover a period of five years and was inaugurated at the beginning of the 1963-64 school year.

The goal of this project is to reduce the number of high school dropouts by providing underprivileged children with an earlier and better start in education. The children who are involved in this project begin school at a minimum of three and a half years. They are selected from families who would fit into class 4 and class 5 of the Hollingshead Scale.

We believe that some of the learning problems of children who fit into the category often labeled "culturally deprived" will be lessened if their experience background is enlarged and enriched through selected visual and aural experiences.

Eight millimeter films are an excellent resource to use with these children. We use films in 8mm cartridge format and in 8mm sound. Most of these films repre-
sent our personal production efforts, for at the present time there are few suitable 8mm films available from commercial sources. We are using a few of the "Headline" series from Castle Films, Inc., which are 50 feet in length and can be contained in the Technicolor projector cartridge.

Our most useful films have been ones which have been filmed in the immediate school community area. They include heavy road machinery in operation, farm animals, traffic scenes, and other common things which have the quality of motion. A 10-foot length of film showing a horse and pony in action holds the attention of the children for a surprising period of time. The continuous repeating action made possible by the loop/cartridge is a real boon for teaching.

Thirty-five millimeter color positive slides are used extensively. These are presented to the children at a projection session in sets of 15 or 20 slides. It has been our policy to use series of slides which offer a broad, highly varied experience. Each individual slide projected is a surprise, and attention by the children is always strong. A typical set of color slides might include slides of a doll, a store window, a fireplug, a street corner, a piece of construction machinery, a painting, a character from a comic strip, a flower, a zoo animal, a pet, and a piece of sculpture.

Slides are also included which challenge the child's ability to distinguish figure from ground, to recognize weather conditions such as a rainy day, a sunny day, a windy day, and a broad range of other concepts.

It is interesting to note that the children related the projection of slides to a book. A common declaration by the children, impatient for the next slide to be projected, was "Turn the page!"

Sixteen millimeter films were made occasionally for documentary purposes. These sometimes were projected for the children and used by the teacher to help them reflect upon what they had been doing. These films sometimes recorded some highly active behavior situations which the teacher used to advantage as mirrors of behavior and subsequent social learnings for the children.

Commercial disc recordings were used extensively and were popular with the children. These included story records, music, rhythm, and game recordings.

A popular piece of equipment is a metal sand box converted to a water box. In the inch or two of water contained in this box the children filled and emptied a variety of sizes of plastic bottles and other containers. Detergent was sometimes added to make the water pleasantly "bubbly." We believe the children experienced some beginnings in understanding concepts of liquid volume and properties of liquids.

The teacher was constantly inventing devices and techniques through which the children gained increased power to listen and to speak, to see, to hear, and to feel. Paper cups and scraps of cloth, bits of wood and hammer and nails, walks to a brook, and a bus trip to a nearby farm—these and many other effective designs and devices make up the world of audiovisual resources that have been and are being used successfully to enrich and salvage the potential of the culturally deprived child.

Growing up in crowded shacks without books, magazines, television, or newspapers, and in families too preoccupied with earning a few dollars to buy bread to take time for many words with each other produces a generation of seriously disadvantaged children. The migrant child suffers even more than most of the disadvantaged poor because his mobility prohibits the formation of any lasting ties with community services, the school, the church, or recreational facilities. Therefore few stimuli from outside the family ever reach him. Traveling as he does in crowded busses or cars or in the back of a covered truck, he sees little and understands less of what he sees.

For these reasons when the migrant child is enrolled in a school program it is important that he be surrounded by many good audiovisual materials which will enable him to grasp new concepts and to understand the images, both old and new, which he encounters. Reading and communication skills of migrant children are usually severely retarded either because of a limited vocabulary in their native language or a non-English speaking home environment. Under these circumstances audiovisuals assume a highly significant role in building vocabulary and in helping the child understand what he sees and hears.

Efforts to build an effective audiovisual program with migrant children have been few. Most have been entirely dependent on the initiative of the teacher. Efforts to improve the use of audiovisuals in the program by planning units of study which would involve a maximum use of various media. A special room was set aside for the project with the older primary group. "The Westward Movement" was decided upon as one unit of study. Movies, filmstrips, books, stories, records, and songs dealing with this historical period in the development of the United States were assembled.

The children participated actively in the unit. Not only did they watch the films, but the teachers involved them in conversation about what they had seen and heard. It was discovered, for instance, that not a single
Teaching the "Big City" to the Migrant Child

Alfred M. Potts, II

It is a relative truth that children of agricultural migratory families are different. For the teacher of the migrant child it is important to know how they are different, from whom they are different, and in what way they are different.

The major question for response here is: What audiovisual means may be effectively provided and fully utilized for achievement of desirable learning by the migrant child?

The first of two supportive questions must be answered initially. What are the possessed differences in characteristics that must be known and considered in curriculum preparation? These differences stem chiefly from the varied cultural environments in which the children live and receive their behavioral training. The migrant child's differences are often quite at variance with the child reared in the dominant culture patterns. To achieve two-way understanding and acceptance between groups the children might relate their experiences through free-hand drawings of "things" they know about and verbal description of their works.

The second question then may be considered. What are the objectives to be achieved through schooling? If the assumption is accepted that children of minority cultures do need to learn the competencies of the dominant culture to achieve socioeconomic sufficiency, is it the school's prerogative to direct the child into the dominant culture stream to the exclusion of the native culture? If the school would assume a responsibility for biculturation of the child, both child and society might be the benefactors. Whichever the direction, enrichment will result in visual and understandable presentation of the life-associations and cultures of both groups. Anthropomorphized animal characters are especially useful in transcending racial and ethnic group prejudices.

Regardless of the direction selected, the matter of readiness for learning must be considered. The learning which has been achieved by a migrant child from his environment varies in level and is of eclectic nature. His life conditions have failed to create a readiness for learning comparable to the readiness of the dominant group child. This may be due largely to the lack of interpretation or association of meaning with things seen, heard, or experienced. It may be partially due to a different frame of value orientation in his cultural setting to such life-related elements as time, health, family, religion, economics, and play. The teacher may identify pupil value-orientations in observation of play, in the responsiveness in daily interpupil and intergroup activities, and in the manipulation of models, puppets, and equipment.

The migrant child is handicapped by having this different or lesser background for comprehension. This suggests that he has more to learn. To overcome these handicaps in the school situation, it is necessary to present knowledge and to develop skills in a manner that can be absorbed. Visual representation of things and of ideas, with parallel audio presentation for development of communications skills, are proving to be highly effective approaches. Adaptability of audiovisual communications to the variables in achievement levels of migrant children can make a unique contribution to curriculum.

Few migrant children are truly "bilingual." Whether English, Spanish, or an Indian tongue, or English and another is spoken, their verbal competence is limited. Of continuing difficulty for them is that similar words in different languages can have different meanings; one word in English can have multiple meanings and usage. The child's understanding of the semantic of sound symbols, i.e., words, is minimal. Words secure their meanings from the culture of which they are a part. It is necessary to learn the idea, the concept within the context of the culture-association. "Seeing"—with its full implication—the meaningfulness of things, ideas, and words is aided by visual representation and language association.
In the excellent migrant education program of Colorado it has been found that filmstrips are more effective than the motion picture. The child can look at a film without "seeing" it, without understanding it. Nonconsciousness during the viewing is a block to comprehension. With filmstrips, however, one image can be shown for the duration of a learning exercise, with transfer of images for association. "Real" images have greater value than representative graphic charts, maps, or other forms.

Possibly the most effective audiovisual experiencing is in the use of field trips. The planning for trips should include selection of the place to be visited for the potential it offers in achieving a purpose. The experiencing through seeing, hearing, doing, and responsive expressing should be planned with (a) an introductory orientation, (b) through the specific elements, and (c) climaxed with an integration and correlation for total meaningfulness of what is seen. Attaching the child in some personal way to the learning at an early phase of the experience will create greater receptivity, retention, and meaningfulness.

An example will illustrate potentials to be utilized by the teaching staff. Note that the emphasis is placed upon creating a learning situation. The teaching element is related to the learning in a role of a skill tool. On trips, plan for the teachers of each grade level to relate learning to his respective group.

To learn the concept of "big city" is the aim. Still pictures and action pictures of the whole city, segments, buildings, parks, traffic, and of people on streets, at work, and at home can be shown and explained. Contrasting pictures of rural and small communities familiar to the children can be interposed for clarity through contrast. Through socio-drama pupils may relate to conceptualization of their way of life.

The trip itself should be planned to see the varied elements of "big city" that were introduced beforehand with pictures. The movement, the activities of the people can be related to the buildings, streets, vehicles, parks. Following the viewing of the separate elements of the city, it might be possible to ascend a hill or tall building to see the whole of it from above.

The follow-up to the trip could include a second showing of some of the pictures first used. A "big city" socio-drama might also be presented. Here is opportunity for development of linguistic skills: the correct pronunciation of the words needed to tell about the city, their meanings, their correct use in sentences with stress on patterns and grammatical structures, and their representation with written symbols which can be reproduced, stored, and read. Student production of symbolic materials can be especially meaningful and influential to comprehension.

The education of a migrant child often involves dual learning; it may involve the "unlearning" of erroneous previous conceptions and, above all, it involves learning from the ground up because of the limitations of the child's preparation. Nonverbal comparative creations can be most effective in such parallel learning activities.

With migrant children, one cannot assume adequate development of either the concept or the cultural setting, or of the linguistic facility in its cultural setting. To be reasonably sure of comprehension, each learning should be developed in full without presuming that its supporting elements are known. It cannot be assumed that a migrant child knows merely because he says he knows. The use of visual aids is of unsurpassed value in crossing barriers that result from linguistic deficiencies and cultural disorientations.

Audiovisual presentation is one of the necessary means in providing learning situations for the migrant child. Though not totally self-sufficient, it is indispensable. It must neither be ignored nor considered as self-sufficient. Integrate it—use it—and use it with creative wisdom.

**Indian Materials Centers**

Hildegard Thompson

The American public generally is either uninformed or misinformed about the segment of the national population of Indian ancestry that lives on Indian reservations, primarily in Western States. This group numbers over 300,000. Most of these Indians look to the Bureau of Indian Affairs of the Department of the Interior to serve as trustee of their property, and many of them must still look to the Bureau of Indian Affairs for special services such as education.

Generally speaking, residents of Indian reservations are not as well educated as the rest of the national population. The causes of this situation are complex and historically rooted. The educated Indian of the past, lacking opportunities on the reservation to make the fullest use of his high school or college education, moved elsewhere, leaving the less educated on the reservation. This situation is changing. Indians increasingly are insisting on expanded educational opportunities for themselves and their children. Consequently, high school and college enrollments are mounting.

Two thirds of the Indian children attend public schools, but the Bureau operates a school system on certain reservations where public schools are not available and for Indian children who need special programs to overcome serious educational and social deficits. Over 50,000 educationally or socially disadvantaged Indian children are enrolled in over 263 Bureau schools.

These children enter school with all of the disadvantages of rural poverty and isolation plus a more vexing language disadvantage. Almost all of these Indian children must learn to speak English after they...
Indian students in the Intermountain School in Utah use the tape recorder to record travel experiences and to improve their speech.

enter school. Those who do speak English when they enter Bureau schools usually speak it poorly as their second, not their first, language.

Bureau schools are charged with the responsibility of teaching English as well as giving the special type of instruction needed to bring these disadvantaged Indian youth abreast with the demands of the times.

The Bureau relies heavily on specially prepared teaching materials reinforced with audiovisual aids. Bureau teachers use a great variety of aids such as filmstrips, films, charts, slides, pictures, models, tape recorders, and records to develop new concepts and understandings that would otherwise be difficult for Indian students with limited English to grasp through verbal presentation alone.

Recognizing the importance of visual and auditory reinforcements, the Bureau has designed a materials center to be included in all new schools, and during the past year has constructed several such centers. The materials center adjoins the library and the two function as a unit.

The materials center is equipped with a variety of visual and auditory materials and equipment for use by both teachers and students. Work space is provided for both individual work and small-group activity. A student may practice his English speech on tape recorders, listen to English speech on records and tapes, or prepare visual materials to supplement his class presentations. Small groups may work on group projects.

Teachers are provided work space to prepare materials for instructional purposes. Both teachers and students may check out visual materials in the same manner as library books. Librarians with the assistance of visual aid technicians assist both teachers and students in the use of the equipment and materials.

One Bureau high school, the Intermountain School, offers a program to train visual aid technicians. The materials center is used as an instructional laboratory for a course on how to use and maintain modern audiovisual equipment; how to inspect and repair film; how to prepare slides, charts, and tape; and how to manage and operate a materials center. The graduates of this course are in great demand in Bureau schools and in visual aids distribution centers outside the Bureau.

The library-materials center is becoming the heart of the instructional program in Bureau schools. This center is making a great contribution to the Bureau's effort to bring undereducated, disadvantaged Indian children and youth abreast with the needs of the twentieth century.
In the New York City school system, the Bureau of Audio-Visual Instruction is engaged in many projects to improve applications of the newer instructional media and methods in the education of the disadvantaged.

In the field of early childhood, a study is under way in two schools in Williamsburg at the kindergarten-second grade level to develop more intensive applications of multimedia resources, particularly in relation to language development skills and citizenship. A major emphasis is on improving school-home liaison during the six months prior to children's entry into kindergarten, involving the use of special color slide orientation for parents.

The most important of the school system's special projects for the disadvantaged is the "More Effective Schools" program sponsored by the superintendent of schools. This has a major audiovisual instruction emphasis and includes provision of full-time audiovisualists and intensive and enriched use of the newer teaching tools in language skills development.

In cooperation with the Office of Research of the City University of New York, a special formal study of the role and contributions of audiovisual resources in teaching reading is being undertaken in 11 elementary schools with the assistance of a grant from the U.S. Office of Education.

For several years the Bureau of Audio-Visual Instruction also has been cooperating with the Division of Elementary Schools in a pilot demonstration project involving about 11 schools. This project has been showing valuable results in the intensive use of filmstrips and phonograph records in elementary reading instruction to strengthen the experiential base for concept development.

Closely related to the reading project is the cultural resources service program of the Bureau of Audio-Visual Instruction. This service includes performances by touring performing arts and theatre groups through the schools, particularly offerings of Shakespeare and ballet programs and opera groups. A Saturday morning theatre project in a number of neighborhood schools has met with considerable success. Many thousands of pupils are being enabled to strengthen their cultural background through the provision of discount prices and free tickets to valuable performing arts experiences in theatres. In cooperation with the Metropolitan Opera...
Milwaukee Report
Gerard P. Farley

At first glance, Milwaukee’s experience in “behind-the-wheel” driver education instruction refutes the claim that disadvantaged students need special treatment or consideration. Of the 3,175 students who took this course in the summer of 1964, only 27 dropped the course, 20 failed, and two moved away. These young people—a random sample of the local school population—had to pass a written state examination and a State Motor Vehicle Department driver’s test to com-

ple the course. Some may wonder how the disadvan-
taged could compete on equal terms with all other students. In this case, a wide range of media was employed: the Driv-O-Trainer, 8mm films, instructional television, filmstrips, models, and late model cars. Why did 98.5 percent succeed in this course? Two reasons stand out sharply: first, the students were dealing with the “real thing”—it was a firsthand experience; second, they were highly motivated—they wanted to earn a license to drive. Undoubtedly, students will work harder and gain greater success if instruction is made more realistic and school goals have real meaning for them.

Successful education need not be costly, either. After deducting state aids, the per pupil cost for this valuable six-weeks course was only 84 cents.

On the other hand, the Audio-Visual Department conducted a study last year to determine which teaching aids were most appropriate for use in a six-weeks unit of a health course. Films, study guides, filmstrips, slides, charts, recordings, transparencies, and flat pictures were sent to health classes in six sections of the city. All types of media were used, but, admittedly, the motivation was not the same as in driver education.

Teachers and students in the health course indicated which materials were most helpful. When the results were tabulated, it became clear that no single medium was best for all. Disadvantaged students, in general, needed simpler, slower paced materials, but the extensive library of audiovisual materials on different grade levels provided the variety needed by both the advantaged and the disadvantaged. This selection remains in the hands of the only person who can make the right choice—the classroom teacher.

Equality of opportunity has been provided through a fair and generous system of providing equipment on a prescribed basis. Old equipment is replaced on a realistic timetable so that worn-out teaching aids do not discourage proper use of the media. That a wide variety of teaching materials is provided to accompany this equipment is attested to by the library of over 14,100 films, 5,600 filmstrips, 1,100 specimens, 1,300 tapes, and over 74,000 slides. All films are selected by curriculum specialists only after close screening, and no single offering is approved as the only choice.

Certain programs have been formulated specifically for disadvantaged groups. Special classes have been set up for in-migrant and transient students who are handicapped for various reasons. These students who lack familiarity with the community and with “life in the big city” are taken on field trips to extend their contacts. Planned camping trips are also provided. This group makes extensive use of all types of audiovisual materials.

Among other disadvantaged groups aided through audiovisual technology are the students with foreign or regional speech patterns which serve as a barrier to basic communication and later job placement. Using a simplified language laboratory and the “listen and repeat” methods used in teaching foreign language, many of these children have been helped to learn normal, acceptable speech patterns. Students show rapid improvement when they realize that speech improvement can win them new friends and ready acceptance.

Cultural enrichment activities have been added in
the fields of music, art, and drama. Stereo music is provided both through the visit of the Milwaukee Symphony Orchestra and through the use of new stereo phonographs. Art experiences are extended beyond the regular school day both by activities in the school and out in the community. Dramatic groups visit the schools, and students are invited to join. Scientific and historic exhibits tour the schools to provide enrichment.

A special elementary summer school was conducted in 1964. Unlike the usual program geared to “repeaters” or “skippers,” this project was conceived for the child of normal ability who needed enrichment activities to strengthen his educational background. The curriculum was basically the same as in the regular school program, but the child’s work was extended beyond the classroom as much as possible. There were many field trips, and wide use was made of all audiovisual media.

All disadvantages are not of a socioeconomic nature. Some students are disabled because of some physical defect. Such is the case of the deaf or extremely hard-of-hearing person. With hearing aids and special amplifying systems, these children can be helped in special classrooms, but often they miss out on many of the activities with normal children. This was true of 120 children at the Neeskara School until 1964 when a special sound induction loop was installed in the school auditorium. Since then, they have been participating fully in the school activities, taking part in programs, plays, film showings, and television presentations. With the boost of power now provided, they can hear in this large area and mingle more normally with their advanced classmates.

During the past year, elementary schools in the depressed areas received their first overhead projectors. As an aid the Audio-Visual Department produced a 12-minute film which demonstrated what teachers could do with this tool and explained services performed by the department. To assure teacher competency, faculty meetings were required where the Audio-Visual Department personnel demonstrated the use of the overhead projector in all subjects and on all grade levels. These faculty demonstrations in the several schools served as a springboard for more realistic and more colorful teaching by providing a flexible tool which can be adapted to the needs and interest of a particular class at its individual stage of readiness.

Over the years there have been a number of teacher and student education programs which have helped the cause of the disadvantaged. For three years, the school board has sponsored a human relations workshop highlighting community problems, and this year a special workshop is being conducted for teachers from the inner city, focusing attention on their special problems. This summer over 1,100 students from grades 5 to 12 received special instruction in equipment operation, and a limited number mastered the handling of the language laboratory. This training resulted in much greater use of audiovisual equipment and materials, especially in the deprived areas of the city.

Milwaukee has fostered many other programs for the disadvantaged where the use of media is not as obvious. In some cases students have been grouped in special classes; in other instances they have remained with the normal group after adaptations have been made. There is no single solution, but in every project every effort is being made to see that the student is highly motivated and that media are used realistically. Milwaukee is using all the new tools to attack this problem—and finding some new ways to use old tools. Yes, Milwaukee is concerned about the disadvantaged, and Milwaukee is busy doing something about them.

San Diego Report

Robert A. Bennett

The McAtter Bill passed by the California State Legislature has provided the San Diego City Schools with funds for an exciting project in compensatory education. As in other metropolitan areas in the United States, one section of the city has become the home of many children who live in a culture far different from that of the predominantly white, middle-class neighborhoods. Children from these “culturally different” homes frequently come to school with little experience with the standard English dialect used by their teachers. Many of the cultural resources of the community have not been used by their families, and the lives of these children have been restricted by the confines of their immediate neighborhood. To provide equal educational opportunities to children living in this environment requires additional programs to compensate for their cultural differences.

Imaginative use of instructional materials and audiovisual equipment has proved to be an effective method of implementing the San Diego program in compensatory education. Although much of the first year of the project (1963-64) was devoted to planning, important changes in the instructional program were evident before the end of the year. Many elementary school children had their first library experiences, and “filmtrips” were fully operational. This year other new teaching approaches will be introduced. Three programs deserve special mention: “filmtrips,” the spokesman, and the listening post.

The “filmtrip” program was originated to meet a special need. At a time when we were attempting to provide broader community experiences to the children from culturally different areas of the city, all funds for field trips were cut off. With a very limited budget the Curriculum Services Division decided to produce a series of films about the community, which were called “filmtrips.” Criteria used in selecting topics included significance of content to the curriculum, use of

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children in the pictures as an aid to identification with the experience, and the unavailability of commercial materials on a similar subject. Filmtrips were completed on such subjects as the harbor, airport, telephone company, missions, art gallery, theaters, museums, "Historical Old Town," transportation, wholesale and retail markets, the hospital, truck gardens, and orchards. The only three basic items needed in producing the filmtrips were a good 35mm camera, a slide-copying camera, and tape recording equipment. A teacher’s guide was prepared for each filmtrip, and several of the filmtrips also had taped narration to accompany the pictures. Several business and civic groups assisted in planning, filming, and preparing the commentary, thereby making the entire project an exciting adventure in school-community cooperation.

The spokesman project was an experimental program on the use of the classroom telephone. Our purpose was to evaluate its use as a means of enriching instruction and making more effective use of community resources. The spokesman is a regular telephone instrument with a separately housed amplifying speaker. The instrument is used in the normal telephone fashion with the additional feature that both the voices of the child or teacher in the classroom and of the outside resource person are amplified and heard. When used in an instructional situation, appointments for calls are usually made in advance by teacher, secretary, or principal. Sometimes informal calls are made without advance notice to capitalize on opportune situations. During the time that the call is in progress, the teacher may supplement the conversation by outlining information or writing words or phrases on the board related to the concepts or understandings being discussed. At the conclusion of the conference the teacher again summarizes to ensure that the resource person’s comments are fully understood by the children. Calls are made to a wide range of resource people throughout the community whose expertise in certain areas can be shared with the pupils and teachers. A call to a resource person may be taped if permission is obtained, and then can be replayed for the purpose of reviewing or clarifying statements of the resource person. Although the experimental program was extremely successful, full-scale use of the spokesman in compensatory education schools has not yet been possible in San Diego. The program will be implemented, however, as funds become available.

The listening post is simply a tape recorder with several headphone attachments which permits a small group to listen to material appropriate to them without distracting other children in the class. The uses of the listening post are limited only by the creativity and ingenuity of the teacher. We know, for example, that many children from a culturally different environment do not hear standard English phonemes in their home or neighborhood. The listening post can provide these children with additional opportunities to enrich their language experiences as they listen to stories read by the teacher, excerpts from the disc recordings, or dialogue recorded by others.

Of course, filmstrips, study prints, disc and tape recordings, and a variety of instructional materials continue to provide the backbone of our program for all children. But certain children, the culturally different, need experiences beyond the standard program to compensate for certain educational handicaps. Audiovisual materials and equipment—especially the filmstrip, the spokesman, and the listening post—will help to provide the enriching experiences required in an effective compensatory education program.

Detroit Report

Peter Golej

The general condition of rapid and significant change which exists in our world today has brought with it an increase in population mobility. The resulting changes in Detroit's social structure have made necessary the establishment of several new educational programs as well as adjustments in previously existing programs designed to cope specifically with the problems resulting from cultural disadvantages. A few of these programs and the contributions of instructional media toward the realization of specific goals are described below.

MDTA Project. Prominently displayed on the wall of the teachers' workroom at the Skills Training Center of the Detroit Manpower Development Training Act Project is a white card with the single word "Think" appearing on it. That the teachers take this to mean "think creatively" is evident from the instructional devices that have been developed and are being used with the students enrolled at the Center, among whom are illiterate adults. All enrolled at the Center are in need of some degree of training in elementary language or number skills either to become employable in a chosen occupation or to achieve a higher level of employment skill.

The scarcity of suitable instructional materials has made it necessary for teachers in this and in similar areas of instruction to employ materials and methods which make use of adult interests and experience in teaching elementary skills. Posters portraying good human relations, which are student-produced and relate closely to adult experience, are a good example. Another visual device being used with success is the student scrapbook made up of materials clipped from magazines to illustrate a central theme.

The problems arising from a limited reading vocabulary are avoided by the use of taped recordings. Adults who are painfully aware of their inability to read respond well to taped lessons. Teachers who work with adults and students of high school age in this and other
rehabilitation projects have included tape recordings and slides in programmed instruction materials which they themselves have written. The teaching staff at the Skills Training Center is planning to include closed-circuit television in the instructional program.

Two time-tested visual devices—flash cards and labels—are being used often in teaching word recognition to adults. Labels are attached to doors, windows, walls, floors, furniture, tools, and other items that have a particular relationship to the skill being learned. Flash cards are used both in the conventional manner and in the opaque projector.

It is but a short step from the flash card to the tachistoscope, and several such devices are being used with apparent success. Supplementary reading and number skill exercises for use with the overhead projector have been prepared by the teachers. Many of these require completion or marking of the transparency by the student. The manipulation of various devices by students appears to stimulate interest and contribute to the learning process.

A collection of instructional 2x2 slides is being developed by the teaching staff. Commercially available instructional materials, particularly films and filmstrips, are being carefully evaluated, and those that can be of use in the instructional program are being acquired and added to the in-building audiovisual library. Teachers at the Center often provide their own comments with slides, filmstrips, and even films. Frequent pauses for discussion during a showing are the rule rather than the exception.

Every effort is being made to improve the self-image of the student and to develop a sense of equality and belonging. The uniform has proven itself to be a particularly valuable device. Not only has its use resulted in an improved self-image on the part of the individual and the group, but it has become a means of improving habits of neatness and cleanliness and developing greater respect for clothing and materials.

Extensive use is made of community resources. Trips are taken to places of business and industry, especially those offering employment opportunities of the type to which these students can aspire. Specialists are brought to the classroom to share valuable information and to present very effective demonstrations, particularly in the areas of fire prevention and electrical safety.

Detroit Great Cities School Improvement Project. Another program which makes much use of community resources is the Detroit Great Cities School Improvement Project, which currently is being expanded from 7 to 27 schools located in culturally deprived areas. This program, designed to serve the preschool child as well as children of school age, is community centered and, as such, involves parents, teachers, and community residents. A special bus has been provided for pupil trips. Parents who accompany their children often plan similar trips for adult groups.

In this program, the improvement of the self-image begins at the nursery school level. In several schools, large reproductions of characters from the City Reading Series decorate the walls of the nursery classrooms. Children enrolled in the nursery school are thus introduced to the characters whom they will meet later in their readers. These characters, as well as the stories and illustrations in the integrated readers, are within the range of experience of children living in culturally deprived areas, and, in fact, most children living in urban areas.

Parents and community residents are encouraged to visit the schools and to avail themselves of the opportunity to use school facilities and equipment for activities that they themselves can help to initiate and organize. Such activities may be of an individual or group nature. Articles may be brought from home and repaired with school equipment. Afternoon or evening crafts classes may be organized. Teachers and area residents often volunteer their services. Successful activities of this type are contributing to the improvement of the self-image on the part of the individual, the group, and even the community.

At the high school level, much work is done in the Great Cities Project with audiovisual materials and methods for the improvement of language skills. Special reading improvement programs telecast from WTVS, Channel 56, are used effectively. Students are prepared for viewing and engage in postviewing activities designed to improve vocabulary and other language skills. Tachistoscopic devices and reading pacers are being used experimentally in this program. One popular device is a "homemade" reading pacer. Words previously written on a strip of paper are pulled past an aperture at a speed controlled by the student. Other devices used are word wheels, drill cards with flaps, and word games.

Job Upgrading Program. Students who are enrolled in the Job Upgrading Program work part time. Students who might otherwise become dropouts are enabled to remain in school and acquire a basic education. Audiovisual materials of a guidance nature are an important part of this instructional program. Students learn how to get and keep a job, how to get along well with others, and how to recognize and make better use of their own abilities. Readily available guidance materials in the form of sound films, filmstrips, slides, pictures, and recordings are used effectively in this program. Much of this material is available from the Audiovisual Teaching Aids Library which services all Detroit public schools. New materials are being added regularly to this library. Teachers seldom find it necessary to go to other sources for instructional audiovisual materials.

Special Education. The Special Education Vocational Rehabilitation Project is primarily for research and demonstration. One of the achievements of this project is the development of programed instruction materials utilizing projected images with sound and an electric board. When the student has made a correct response by inserting a metallic probe in the proper perforation, the tape recorder is started and the next question is presented. Students with serious reading difficulties can benefit from this method of instruction.

Teachers who work with mentally retarded children enrolled in special education classes are finding that some of the instructional materials they have created and have been using with an opaque projector acquire
greater instructional potential if modified for use with the overhead projector. The availability of both types of projectors has increased the variety of materials that can be used successfully with children of limited ability.

In addition, special education teachers may obtain and use any materials available from the central audiovisual materials library and the Children's Museum. The latter circulates mounted pictures, models, charts, special maps and globes, specimens, and realia in kit form. Classes are encouraged to visit the museum and participate in activities under the leadership of museum staff teachers. Several programs make possible a variety of pupil trips in and around the metropolitan area. Teachers seek to extend the exceptional child's experiential background by including frequent walking trips to nearby places.

It is hoped that this brief report will be interpreted as an indication of the many ways in which teachers in Detroit are using instructional media to cope with some of the problems encountered in the education of the disadvantaged.

Chicago Report

Helen P. Bradley

In an attempt to provide an educational program that would give to all children the opportunity to realize their achievement potential, the Chicago Board of Education has undertaken the operation of special summer schools. The Board wanted to experiment, under the most favorable conditions, with the best methods of teaching children in densely populated areas, many of whom could be called "culturally disadvantaged" children.

It was the purpose of the Board to motivate these children to relate well to school and to involve parents actively in the program so that the goals of the school would be understood and so that a partnership might be developed between the home and the school in the pursuit of excellence in education.

This special summer school program has grown from three schools in 1960 with 1,800 children to 20 schools with 13,000 children in 1964. Special features of the 1964 program included kindergarten classes in all schools and preschool classes in three of the schools. As in previous years, in all schools there were classes from first grade through sixth grade.

The special summer school program emphasized motivation, flexibility, and creativity in every teaching and learning situation. Class size was limited to 25 pupils. The major emphasis was on the language arts with special attention given to the development of reading skills and the improvement of reading comprehension. Practical experience was given in arithmetic, and science and social studies furnished the theme for the other units of work. Thus, all the subjects normally included in the curriculum were correlated in the learning activities.

Working under the leadership of a principal, the staff included experienced and excellent teachers who provided intensive teacher-nurse, psychological, library, and consultant services. Special resource teachers were available to provide enrichment to the program.

The focus of the special program was centered on providing the ideal environment for learning for every child, and the rich resources of the city were utilized to stimulate children's interests and to develop an appreciation for the advantages of Chicago.

An abundance of text and work materials and a variety of audiovisual aids in far greater amounts than is found in the normal school were provided in each school. The teachers were encouraged to experiment in classroom procedures and received intensive in-service training from specialists in diverse fields. There was an enthusiastic acceptance and interest in the program on the part of everyone. Among the special techniques and conditions utilized by these special schools were the following:

- Individual filmstrip viewers in the classroom permitting the youngsters to research and learn from materials for special purposes in the midst of a group engaged in other activities.
- Field trips related to units of learning in the classroom were organized for every class in every school with many classes enjoying a second and third trip in the eight-week period.
- Instruction utilizing every conceivable type of audiovisual aid and taking advantage of the motivation that children derive from differences in presentation.
- Frequent participation in large-group activities with a focus on the value the children received from involvement instead of its appeal as a program.
- Permanent motion picture film libraries in each school covering a wealth of general topics. These collections were supplemented by biweekly deliveries in unlimited amounts.
- A 24-hour repair service on all audiovisual equipment and the furnishing of loan equipment when repairs required a period longer than 24 hours.
- An AV consultant available from the central office for demonstration, training, and advice, and a trained audiovisual coordinator in each school.
- A parent-coordinator whose sole function was to conduct a parent information and education program designed to actively involve parents and community leaders in the education of children.

The record achieved in the special summer schools in Chicago is outstanding. Large gains have been noted in the academic areas, and the children's attitudes have improved substantially. They have willingly accepted their responsibilities in the project and have looked forward eagerly to the next day, for every day is a happy and exciting experience.
Economic Opportunity Act of 1964

Its Implications for Public School Education

Thomas J. McLernon

On August 20, 1964, President Johnson put his signature to the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, the first major piece of legislation introduced and passed under his administration. The "Poverty Bill," as it is more commonly known, became Public Law 88-452.

During its stormy voyage through the halls of Congress, it was made clear that this was not a piece of educational legislation, but rather a discriminatory act, aimed at a specific segment of our population, to do a specific task, namely, to help eradicate poverty. It is generally agreed that the EOA is not education legislation in that it does not provide general aid to the public schools and is not administered through the usual educational channels. However, it depends in a large measure on the educational process for its success, and many of the programs will be conducted either in or through public school facilities. With this in mind, it is to the advantage of every educator to be familiar with the provisions of this legislation.

The Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 establishes an Office of Economic Opportunity in the Executive Office of the President. The OEO director is R. Sargent Shriver, who has a planning and coordinating staff responsible for coordinating the poverty-related programs of all government agencies. Within the OEO, separate staffs operate a Job Corps, a program for Volunteers In Service to America (VISTA), A Community Action Program, and special programs for migrant workers.

In addition the OEO distributes funds to existing agencies to operate other programs authorized under the bill: work-training programs administered through the Labor Department; work-study programs and adult basic education through HEW; special rural antipoverty programs through Agriculture; small business loans through the Small Business Administration; and community work and training projects for welfare recipients through HEW.

There are four Titles in the EOA which have special significance and implications for the public schools, whether rural or urban, which are concerned about young people and the unemployed and underemployed in their community.

The following is a brief summary of these Titles:

**Title I—Youth Programs: $412.5 million.**

*Part A.* Establishes a Job Corps to provide education, work experience, and vocational training in conservation camps and residential training centers; would enroll 40,000 young men and women, aged 16-21, this year, 100,000 next year. Administered by Office of Economic Opportunity. Total cost, $190 million.

*Part B.* Establishes a Work-Training Program under which the director of OEO enters into agreements with state and local governments or nonprofit organizations to pay part of the cost of full- or part-time employment to enable 200,000 young men and women, 16-21, to continue or resume their education or to increase their employability. Administered by Labor Department. Total cost, $150 million.

*Part C.* Establishes a Work-Study Program under which the director of OEO enters into agreements with institutions of higher learning to pay part of the costs of part-time employment to permit 140,000 students from low-income families to enter upon or continue higher education. Administered by Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Total cost, $72.5 million.

**Title II—Community Action Programs: $340 million**

Part A. Authorizes the director of OEO to pay up to 90 percent of the costs of antipoverty programs planned and carried out at the community level. Programs will be administered by the communities and will coordinate poverty-related programs of various federal agencies. Total cost, $315 million.

Part B. Authorizes the director of OEO to make grants to states to provide basic education and literacy training to adults. Administered by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Total cost, $25 million.

**Title V—Work-Experience Programs: $150 million.**

Authorizes the director of OEO to transfer funds to HEW to pay costs of experimental, pilot, or demonstration projects designed to stimulate the adoption in the states of programs of providing constructive work experience or training for unemployed fathers and needy persons.

**Title VI—Administration and Coordination: $10 million.**

Establishes the Office of Economic Opportunity and specifies its functions. Authorizes the director of OEO to recruit and train an estimated 5,000 VISTA volunteers to serve in specified mental health, migrant, Indian, and other federal programs including the Job Corps, as well as in state and community antipoverty programs.

The part of the legislation that seems to be causing the greatest concern to educators is Part A of Title II under Community Action Programs. The following is an attempt to answer some of the inquiries that have been made. The answers to the questions have been taken directly from informational materials now being circulated by the Office of Economic Opportunity.

**What Is Community Action?**

The Community Action Programs will provide technical and financial assistance for urban and rural com-
The problems of poverty are a network of social ills like illiteracy, unemployment, poor health, and dilapidated housing. To alleviate them will require a network of antipoverty attacks that are varied while they are coordinated. This combination—fashioned by local talent and leadership—is the major aim of the Community Action Programs.

Specifically, remedial reading, literacy courses, job training, employment counseling, homemaker services, job development and training, vocational rehabilitation, and health services are only some of the individual programs that can be supported and coordinated with a detailed local antipoverty program.

In the past, many of these separate programs have been scattered and uncoordinated. A remedial reading program, for example, has limited effect if there is no literacy course to permit the parent to guide and help his child. Both programs have limited effect if the parents have no marketable skills and live in squalor. A program that addresses all of these difficulties in a systematic fashion will truly help that child and his family to remove the shackles of poverty. And this is the intent of Community Action.

The Federal Government will help local communities to develop and support these antipoverty programs. However, federal assistance will depend on the community's determination to do the following:

1. Mobilize its own public and private resources for this attack;
2. Develop programs of sufficient scope and size that give promise of eliminating a cause or causes of poverty;
3. Involve the poor themselves in developing and operating the antipoverty programs;
4. Administer and coordinate the Community Action Program through public or private nonprofit agencies or a combination of these.

In smaller communities and in those with more limited resources, local leaders can begin a Community Action Program in stages. For example, a community might start with a preschool program coupled with a health service clinic for these youngsters. These would be followed by other specific programs all linked to each other in a coordinated campaign.

All local programs should use the talents of persons living in and affected by the poverty-stricken neighborhoods in planning and operating programs. As workers in projects, they could be used as aides to professionals, as recreational and day care assistants, and as helpers in homemaker and health services. Some other examples are community research aides, library aides, tutoring assistants, probation aides, and family service workers.

Further, Community Action Programs should see that existing local, state, and federal programs are linked to each other in a concentrated drive against poverty. Assistance now available to states and local communities under the Manpower Development and Training Act, the 1962 Public Welfare Amendments, vocational education, and the various programs under the Housing and Home Finance Agency all should be joined with any total community antipoverty effort. Community Action Programs, in short, will fuse the old scattered programs while providing the technical and financial assistance to initiate the new attack against the varied problems that have ensnared the poor.

What Kind of Programs Might Be Developed?

Community Action Programs will vary as the needs of the people vary in different parts of the nation. They must be part of a total effort to help people escape poverty, not to make it more bearable. Here are some illustrations that might be part of a Community Action Program:

1. Providing service and activities to develop new employment opportunities;
2. Providing special and remedial education, with particular emphasis on reading, writing, and mathematics;*
3. Providing comprehensive academic counseling and guidance services and school social work services;
4. Providing after-school study centers, after-school tutoring, and summer, week-end, and after-school academic classes;
5. Establishing programs for the benefit of preschool children;
6. Reducing adult illiteracy;
7. Developing and carrying out special education or other programs for migrant or transient families;
8. Improving the living conditions of the elderly;
9. Arranging for or providing health examinations and health education for school children;
10. Rehabilitating and retraining physically or mentally handicapped persons;
11. Providing health, rehabilitation, employment, educational, and related services to young men not qualified for military services;
12. Providing community child-care centers and youth activity centers;
13. Improving housing and living facilities and home management skills;
14. Providing services to enable families from rural areas to meet problems of urban living;
15. Providing recreation and physical fitness services and facilities.

How Do You Tell What Is Needed in Your Community?

The problems of the poor must be assessed in more than money terms. Simply enumerating the low income families will not permit you to select a priority list of projects. Here are some of the factors you should sort out:

1. The number of low-income families, particularly those with children;
2. The extent of persistent unemployment and underemployment;
3. The number and proportion of people receiving

*General aid to elementary or secondary education in any school or school system is prohibited by the legislation, and thus funds could not be provided for general reduction in class size, school construction, general teachers' salaries (as opposed to those of special remedial reading instructors), textbook acquisition, religious instruction, or the established curriculum.
cash or other assistance on a needs basis from public agencies or private organizations;
4. The number of migrant or transient low-income families;
5. School dropout rates, military service rejection rates, and other evidences of low educational attainment;
6. The incidence of disease, disability, and infant mortality;
7. Housing conditions;
8. Adequacy of community facilities and services; and

Who Will Pay for the Programs?
Federal money will be available (a) to help establish Community Action groups, (b) to assist in developing programs, (c) to support those programs, and (d) for specialized technical aid.
The Federal Government will pay up to 90 percent of the cost of Community Action Programs in the first two years. The balance, to be furnished by local Community Action groups, can be in cash or in kind, such as services and facilities, to support local programs.

How Do You Begin?
1. Bring together the appropriate voluntary and government agencies in welfare, health, housing, education, and employment as participants in developing a Community Action program. Include leaders from the areas in which the program will operate.
2. Assemble all available information on the poverty problem. Identify the extent of poverty in the community and begin to determine major characteristics. List the problems in order of priority.
3. Develop a set of proposals to attack the causes of poverty. Determine what local resources are available to support such programs.
4. Decide on a specific geographical area for the program.
5. Form a local Community Action organization that includes not only government and voluntary organizations, but business, labor, and other key civic organizations as well.
6. If technical help is needed in developing programs, ask for it from Community Action Programs, Office of Economic Opportunity.
7. Contact the state government to determine how its agencies and programs can help and can be integrated into the total local antipoverty effort.
8. Develop projects in order of importance and ability to carry them through.
9. Apply to the Community Action Programs, Office of Economic Opportunity, Washington, D.C. 20525, for the detailed forms to submit your application.

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Communicating Guidance Information to Specialty Oriented Students

Kenneth B. Hoyt and Lee W. Cochran

Societal progress creates problems for people. Never in the history of the United States has our societal and occupational structure been changing at a more rapid rate. During the decade of the 1960's, 26 million youth will leave our secondary schools. Of these, 19.5 million including 12 million high school graduates and an estimated 7.5 million high school dropouts will have decided to do something other than enter a four-year college or university. The kinds of occupations these persons can expect to find available increasingly will be ones calling for possession of specific job skills. They will be occupations demanding, by and large, some kind of post-high school training prior to labor market entry. The necessity for considering both training and vocational objectives will be apparent to a large majority of these so-called “non-college-bound” youth. They will certainly have problems.

Prime professional responsibilities for assisting these youth in their post-high school educational-vocational decisions must be assumed by the 27,000 secondary school counselors in the United States. These counselors are charged with helping youth prepare to meet the certainty of uncertainty in a rapidly changing society. At the same time, assistance must be given in formulation of plans for some kinds of specific actions to be taken when these students leave the secondary school. Most important, this assistance must be communicated in such a way as to simultaneously protect the right of the individual to freedom of choice and to provide some guarantee of a basis for wise decision making. Counselors, like the students they serve, will also have problems.

The kinds of assistance school counselors are being called on to give represent a largely new area of knowledge in the counseling and guidance field. In addition to learning about occupations at below-college grade, counselors also have to know about training opportunities available to these youth. Most important, they will have to know much more about these youth themselves—their characteristics, educational motivations, self-concepts, and patterns of abilities if this new challenge is to be met effectively. Counselors in our secondary schools must become as proficient at helping those who choose not to go to college as they currently are in assisting the college-bound. We are not well prepared to meet this challenge in today’s secondary schools.

The purpose of this article is to present some background information relative to one research attempt to assist counselors in helping these students and to provide some concrete examples of the kinds of problems involved in communicating research results in a meaningful fashion. It is hoped that it will serve as an illustration of how the counselor education staff and the Audiovisual Center at the University of Iowa were able to work together in producing tangible research results.

The Research Program

In early 1962, The Specialty Oriented Student Research Program was established at the University of Iowa. This research program has had as its overriding goal the collection, analysis, and dissemination of research data holding potential for use in the educational-vocational guidance of persons contemplating attendance at trade, technical, or business schools after leaving the secondary school.

Attainment of this overall objective is being sought through conducting a wide variety of research studies. One type of research study aims at arriving at a better understanding of the specialty oriented student—his characteristics, motivations, and environmental background. In this type of study, primary emphasis is placed on trying to arrive at understandings which will provide concepts of viewing people as something other than simply “non-college-bound.” A second type of investigation is comprised of prediction studies involving both tests and nontesting instruments and the prediction of both training and post-training vocational success. Finally, a third type of study consists of a very large number of survey descriptive research undertakings involving students enrolled in specific training programs in specific schools. These studies, while involving some of the same data as are used in the other two types, are unique in that they are purposely planned to help a prospective enrollee in one of these training programs answer the question, “What is likely to happen to me if I enroll in this program at this institution?” The number of these studies undertaken is as numerous as are the numbers of specific training programs in
which subjects included in the total research program are enrolled. It is primarily this kind of research study whose results form the major basis for this article.

All subjects included in the research program to date have been either present or former students enrolled in trade, technical, or business schools at the post-high school level. Some data have been collected from students in publicly supported schools, but the majority has been collected from students in 40 specific training programs in 22 private schools. These schools have each signed an agreement with the University of Iowa giving permission for members of the research program to collect, analyze, and report research data. The major reason why the vast majority of data collected to date has been from students enrolled in private schools is that research grants made available in support of the program have come from an organization of private schools known as SOS Research, Incorporated. If and when other sources of research support become available, it is expected that the major emphasis will shift to collection of data from students enrolled in publicly supported institutions. Both public and private schools represent educational opportunities for youth and, therefore, logical settings in which to collect research data.

It is important to recognize that all data collected in the Specialty Oriented Student Research Program come from students. No study is made of schools, but only of students enrolled in schools. The schools and specific curricular majors in schools serve simply as specifications of the limited generalizability of the research findings. To date, original base data requiring approximately six hours of administration time have been collected from over 5,000 students, and first year follow-up data have been collected from over 2,000 of these same persons who had left training seeking employment at the time the first follow-up study was conducted. All data are keypunched and then transferred to magnetic tape and/or disk storage in the Iowa Computer Center as a common data bank available for use in the entire complex of studies. As a continuing research program, it is anticipated that data collection, analysis, and dissemination will continue for an indefinite number of years until literally hundreds of training programs in hundreds of institutions involving hundreds of thousands of students are included. Millions of bits of information already have been collected. The problem has been, how can these bits of information be reported in such a way as to be useful in the educational-vocational guidance of persons contemplating attendance at one or more of the participating research schools?

Nature of Specific Research Information

The type of research findings growing out of the third kind of study outlined above represents an essentially new approach to providing educational-occupational information. Ample evidence exists to indicate that current occupational information has some serious faults (1, 2, 4, 7). Observation of the use of occupational information which does exist in many secondary schools supports the contention that much of it is not used extensively by either high school students or their counselors. Such observations have led us to suspect that the trouble with occupational information goes considerably beyond its reading difficulty level and its relative scarcity for those occupations specialty oriented students enter. We suspect the major difficulties are that (a) current information has ignored the human element too much—the question of what happens to people in training and to people in occupations; and (b) current information, being largely general in nature, lacks usefulness in helping individuals at the point of specific decision making. In this sense, it is difficult to use meaningfully within the context of specific educational-vocational counseling at those points where the client in counseling is trying to decide exactly what his next steps will be.

The new approach to providing educational-occupational information we are attempting to develop takes both of these major difficulties into account as well as those difficulties reported by other researchers. This is done in several ways. First, all data are concerned with characteristics and experiences of people in training and these same people in their occupations following training. They are purposely organized so that the client in counseling learns indirectly about training programs through learning directly about people in training and their training experiences. The client learns indirectly about occupations through learning about vocational experiences of people who complete specific training programs. Second, all data pertain to students who are and/or have been enrolled in specific training programs in specific institutions. The institution and the training program within the institution are both named. In considering implications data hold for him, a particular client is not dealing in generalities, but with information pertaining to a particular and specific decision he may be considering in the counseling process. Third, the contents of the information are organized around the kinds of questions high school students ask their counselors during the counseling interview. Examples of such questions include the following: (a) "What kinds of persons would I find in class with me?" (b) "How would I be likely to find a place to live?" (c) How do students at this school finance their education?" (d) "What do students now in training think of the school?" (e) "What are my chances of finishing the training?" (f) "What are my chances of getting a job?" (g) "What kind of job would I be likely to get?" and (h) "Where would this job be likely to be located?" By carefully considering these questions in terms of answers supplied by those who are enrolled in and have recently left the training program under consideration, the client has the best possible actuarial prediction of what is likely to happen to him.

In formulating this new approach to information, we are certainly not contending that present occupational information be replaced but only that the material we are preparing may serve to fill a gap left by conventional information at the point where the client in counseling is trying to make specific decisions. It seems reasonable to expect that more conventional information will continue to be valuable in general kinds of decisions made by counseling clients. In this sense, we see this new approach as supplementing but not replacing information currently available.
The Communication Problem

How can thousands of bits of information be compiled and presented in such a way as to be helpful to counselors, high school students, and the parents of such students? If such data are not to be misleading, it is essential that they be presented in readily understandable form. If they are to serve as one basis for specific decision making, they must be explicit in their meaning. If students and parents are to make decisions with the counselor's help, it is important that they, as well as the counselor, be able to read and comprehend the data. If any of these persons are to read these research data, the data must be arranged in an attractive format which will encourage their study.

When data are collected as they are in this research program from all students in attendance at trade, technical, and business schools, a further problem arises in separating out those data most appropriate for consideration by high school students. Essentially this becomes a problem of reporting data for only that segment of the total student body who are most like the high school seniors for whom the materials have been prepared, i.e., the unmarried male or female high school graduates less than 21 years of age. In doing so, it is at the same time essential that the reader be clearly aware of the proportion of all students in the school represented by the data he sees.

Finally, there is the problem of avoiding attaching

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**Figure 1. Summary of Responses of Unmarried Male (& Female) High School Graduates Less Than 21, to Item: 21**

21. How did you find a place to live when you came to this school?
1. I already had a place to live.
2. People here at the school helped me to find a place to live.
3. Some other student at the school helped me to find a place to live.
4. Friends in town here helped me to find a place to live.
5. I just looked around myself until I found a place to live.
6. Other (Explain):

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<th>Name of School</th>
<th>1 N</th>
<th>2 N</th>
<th>3 N</th>
<th>4 N</th>
<th>5 N</th>
<th>6 N</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
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<td>5</td>
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<td>26</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>66.7</td>
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<tr>
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<td>115</td>
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<tr>
<td>A I B (* 63.1)</td>
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<td>60</td>
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* Percent of all students in the sample who are unmarried high school graduates less than 21 years old.

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evaluative judgments of "good" or "bad" to data representing answers students enrolled in various training programs give to certain items or groups of items. In a guidance sense, no training program is properly viewed as either "good" or "bad" except in terms of its appropriateness for a given client. A given program may be "good" for one client and "bad" for another. These data must be presented in such a way that this kind of judgment can be made by the client during the counseling process.

Solving the Communication Problem

Our first thought with respect to the communication problem was to present all data in tabular form. It seemed that, on biographical information and follow-up items, the clearest way of presenting findings was to compile one table for each item. The wording of the item essentially formed the heading of the table. This was followed by a complete reproduction of responses available to students in responding to this item. The body of the table consisted of reporting the number and percentage of unmarried male or female high school graduates less than 21 years of age choosing each response to each item. Figure 1 on the preceding page is an example of this format as it was used in reporting base resident data for students attending the first participating research schools.

Approximately 200 such tables were prepared along with another set of tables representing test scores, intercorrelation matrices for the tests, and both single and multiple correlations of test scores with the criterion measures. All of these data were given to 30 experienced high school counselors enrolled in a short-term NDEA Counseling and Guidance Training Institute at the post-master's degree level held at the University of Iowa during the 1963 summer session. These counselors were carefully screened and selected from a pool of several hundred applicants who applied for this Institute. They were not typical high school counselors; rather, they were distinctly superior to most working in our high schools today.

Even these superior counselors found themselves unable to use the data easily in the form they were presented. They reported that having so many figures on a single page was confusing. Moreover, they found themselves constantly engaged in a process of going from page to page trying to come up with composite summaries of data from students in a specific training program in a specific school. By the end of the fourth week of the Institute, they had convinced us that this format would be an unworkable one in the office of a busy school counselor. Moreover, they had convinced us that data presented in this way would be largely incapable of comprehension by the high school students not planning to attend college, and by the parents of such students.

In the final four weeks of the Institute, these counselors devoted many hours of their "free" time to the task of thinking about and suggesting ways in which the data could be presented in a more meaningful and more useable fashion. Ideas finally crystallized into what was regarded as general acceptance of a notion for data presentation involving three basic elements: (1) Data should be prepared in booklet form with a different booklet for each curricular major in each training institution; (2) data should be organized around the questions high school students ask; and (3) data should be presented primarily in the form of charts, graphs, and pictographs with a bare minimum of straight tabular presentation. Papers prepared by Institute enrollees containing their thoughts were studied carefully after the Institute was concluded. The resulting format, which drew heavily on enrollee suggestions, is illustrated in Figure 2. It contains data for several items pertaining to student housing for unmarried female high school graduates less than 21 years of age enrolled in the secretarial curriculum at one of the business schools participating in the research.*

In the illustration presented above, the reader will note that several research items are summarized together in the same page of material. Attempts have been made to use a variety of presentations along with colored illustrations designed to attract student attention. The summary comments included as part of the presentation represent factual statements with no evaluative comments attached to them. Specific findings are presented

*The ideas for this format were presented to Lee W. Cochran, director, Audiovisual Instruction, University of Iowa. Specific designs were then formulated by members of the staff. Special acknowledgment is made to Mr. Donald Lacock and the graphic arts staff.
in terms of percentages rather than actual numbers of students so they can be more easily compared with the corresponding page from other student booklets. In the front of each booklet, readers are given data regarding the total number of students on whom these comparisons are based and directions for calculating the number of students represented in any particular portion of a chart or graph. In addition to black and white, three other colors are used in preparation of pages for these student booklets.

It is important to point out that exactly the same basic format is used in presenting data for any given question in each of the 40 booklets now ready for production. Question "7", for example, is always the same question and contains the same types of charts and graphs in each booklet; only the specific findings change. In this way, it is hoped that counselors and students using the booklets will find it easy to compare results from various schools for any particular questions in which interest is expressed. By using a common format for a given question in all booklets, it has been possible to introduce a number of different format arrangements in each booklet without becoming involved in excessive graphic arts costs.

It is equally important to point out that these booklets have been prepared in such a way as to be usable by high school students individually as well as in consultation with their parents and/or counselors. The same "Message to High School Students" appears in the front of each booklet containing suggestions for study of the booklet and appropriate cautions for students to observe. To further ensure wise use of these materials, a Counselor's Manual has been prepared containing specific suggestions for high school counselors in the use of these booklets with students in groups, with individual students, and with parents.

Continuing Problems

This article would be incomplete indeed if it left the reader with an impression that the problems raised in the beginning are now ready to be solved. We have no good idea whether or not use of these booklets can make a substantial positive contribution to the educational-vocational guidance of specialty oriented high school students. Experimental studies involving immediate, intermediate, and ultimate criteria of possible worth of this approach have been designed. They cannot be conducted, of course, until the materials have been prepared and are in use by high school counselors. No booklets have yet been introduced for use at the time this article is being written. Carefully conducted experimental studies of effectiveness cannot be launched until sufficient booklets are available to provide a reasonable number of alternatives from which students may want to choose. At this point, after nearly three years of active research effort, we are still not sufficiently far along to conduct these much needed experimental studies.

One problem which continues to delay experimental studies has been lack of research funds earmarked for publication of these kinds of research results. It appears to be extremely difficult to secure research funds for purposes of producing data needed in the guidance and counseling of "normal" youth. The students for whom these booklets are intended to be most helpful are not the "culturally deprived," "juvenile delinquents," "physically handicapped," "emotionally unstable," "poverty stricken," "creative," "intellectually able," or "slow learners" which, as individual groups, seem to appeal to those who give research grants. While some from each of these "special" groups are to be found in the over 5,000 cases accumulated to date, the most "special" thing about these students is that, as a group, they are pretty "normal." Until and unless some funds become available for publication purposes, none of these booklets can be produced.

A third problem stems from the specific nature of the data themselves. Because they are so specific, they are likely to be extremely susceptible to change in a period of a relatively few years. We do not know yet how stable these data can be expected to be. Plans are being formulated for testing their degree of stability next year by restesting in some of the same settings where original data were collected in 1962-63.

Summary

The educational-vocational guidance needs of a majority of today's high school students are changing constantly. A research program designed to produce data holding potential for meeting some of these needs has been described briefly and some specific illustrations have been presented of ways in which research data are being compiled for presentation to students. A number of continuing problems leading to a more pessimistic view of accomplishments have been discussed. It is hoped that this article will alert readers to the seriousness of the problem we face in meeting guidance needs of specialty oriented students, and that it may encourage others to make some research attempts to help meet the needs of these students.

References

Audiovisual Materials and the Dropout Problem

Schools in the United States are giving increasing attention to one of our major problems: the early school dropout. The rising shortage of competent manpower serves to underline the importance of the task facing our nation's schools, a two-fold task relating directly to our youth. First is that of reducing as far as possible the number of students—the culturally disadvantaged as well—who may otherwise leave school before graduation; second is that of encouraging our youth to stay and to succeed in school while making them aware of the vocational and economic opportunities that will be open to them as school graduates.

The San Diego Unified School District is attacking this problem in a number of ways. One approach is found in a strong and active committee composed of school administrators; teacher-advisors in areas of attendance, curriculum, and the mentally retarded; representatives from the guidance and junior employment services of the district, the Community Education Coordinator, and a representative of the Urban Education Coordinator, and a representative of the Urban League, as lay members; and others. The primary task of this committee is the preview and preparation of recommendations covering films, filmstrips, and soundstrips which may be used in probing three related areas: (a) the dropout, (b) school success and the importance of staying in school, and (c) information about vocational opportunities and the importance of adequate education and training.

The bibliography of materials following comprises titles, some of which are currently owned and used by the district, and others which are being screened and evaluated in regular meetings.

Films

Children Without, 29 min., 16mm, sound, b & w. National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036, 1964. Shows some of the aspects of the Detroit Great Cities Improvement program for underprivileged children. With the addition of three resource persons and creative, understanding teachers, the staff of the Franklin School attempts to provide an effective and meaningful educational program for them. The Dropout. 10 min., 16mm, sound, b & w. Sid Davis Productions, 1418 N. Highland Ave., Hollywood 28, Calif., 1962. Case history of the disintegration of a boy after he drops out of school. Told in relation to a boy's own peer group, the film emphasizes that loneliness and frustration that are inevitable for a boy who drops out of school and tries to find a job before he is qualified to compete in the highly competitive world of modern work. Produced by the Santa Monica Police Department and Santa Monica Unified School District.


If These Were Your Children, 50 min., 16mm, sound, b & w. Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., 600 Stockton St., San Francisco 20, Calif., n.d.

Mike. 11 min., 16mm, sound, b & w. University of Southern California, Department of Cinema, Film Distribution Division, University Park, Los Angeles 7, Calif., 1962. Habitual drop-out's feelings about school, and acceptance of authority. Case worker's efforts to help him understand the importance of school and his responsibilities.

Mike Makes His Mark. 27 min., 16mm, sound, color. National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036, 1955. Boy in trouble, and a school that helps him before he takes out his resentments and frustrations on society.

A Morning for Jimmy. 28 min., 16mm, sound, b & w. Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 515 Madison Ave., New York 22, N.Y., 1961. True story of Negro boy who encounters racial discrimination while seeking part-time employment. Due to wise counseling of his teacher, Jimmy begins to understand that with proper education and training, he can find his place.

Problem of Pupil Adjustment: The Drop-Out. 20 min., 16mm, sound, b & w. McGraw-Hill Text Films, 330 West 42nd St., New York, N.Y., 10036, 1951. Steve Martin left school as soon as the law permitted. The reasons why school failed to meet his needs are examined in this film. The type of curriculum which Steve found dull and monotonous is discussed. The film emphasizes the importance of a life-adjustment program in the school, including the relation of this program to the interests of the students. Correlated with the textbook Psychology in Education, by Sorensen.

Problem of Pupil Adjustment: The Stay-In. 19 min., 16mm, sound, b & w. McGraw-Hill Text Films, 330 West 42nd St., New York 10036, N.Y., 1951. This is a study of a school that reduced the number of students who drop out of school to a small percentage because its curriculum concentrates on meeting the needs of the students. The school program stresses learning in terms of actual everyday living. Correlated with the textbook Psychology in Education, by Sorensen.

Stay in School, 13 min., 16mm, sound, b & w. For loan only. USN Photographic Center, Film Distribution Section, USN Station, Washington, D.C. 20525, 1951. Explains that young people should stay in school if they can possibly do so and portrays, through two dramatized cases, some of the values of a high-school education. Prepared by the U.S. Navy Recruiting Service.

Therapeutic Camps. 30 min., 16mm, sound, b & w. Devereaux Foundation, Devon, Pa.; or, Box 1079, Santa Barbara, Calif.

When I'm Old Enough—Goodbye! 28 min., 16mm, sound, b & w. AFL-CIO, Department of Education and Education of Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20006, 1962. Demonstrates what happens when a youngster drops out of school for luxury that money can buy. Shows his disillusionment with layoffs, and his inability to compete in job market because he lacks even the minimum of skills and education.

You Can Go a Long Way. 22 min., 16mm, sound, b & w. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., 1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Ill. 60091, 1961. Explores the advantages of finishing high school, getting as much additional

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training as possible, in order to meet growing competition, changes in methods, and technological advances. Shows how staying in school may mean a lifetime of higher earning power and better living.

Filmstrips


Soundstrips

Dropping Out: Road to Nowhere. (In two parts) 26 min., color. Guidance Associates, P.O. Box No. 5, Pleasantville, N.Y., 1964. Tells in the words of real high-school dropouts, what they found on the 'outside'—a low end world—a world rigged against those without a high-school diploma.

High School Diploma. (2 records, 2 filmstrips) 24 min., color. Horizon Productions, 301 West 73rd St., Kansas City 14, Mo., 1964.

Importance of School Success

Films

Challenge of Change: The Case for Counseling. 30 min., 16mm, color, sound. Indiana University, Audiovisual Center, Bloomington, Ind., 47405, 1963. Provides counseling in school and the involvement of various individuals in the process. Shows how the school staff and specialists cooperate to estimate a student's potential, in turn him and his parents of opportunities available, and assist in providing education to assure the best development.


High School: Your Challenge. 13½ min., 16mm, sound, b & w. Coronet Films, Dept. A1-104, Coronet Building, 65 E. South Water St., Chicago, Ill. 60601, 1952. This film emphasizes the future importance of a good high-school education and the advantages of taking part in extracurricular activities. It is designed to help handle the dropout problem and to make high school more meaningful for all.

How To Investigate Vocations. 10 min., 16mm, sound, b & w. Coronet Films, Dept. A1-104, Coronet Building, 65 E. South Water St., Chicago, Ill. 60601, 1952. Shows students how to investigate vocations and how to determine which kinds of work they are best suited for.

How To Succeed in School. 10 min., 16mm, sound, b & w. Young America Films, 330 West 42nd St., New York 18, N.Y., 1956. Describes basic principles to be followed in making better use of time and resources in school, and points out that procedures are the same for any job.

Mechanical Aptitudes. 11 min., 16mm, sound. b & w. Coronet Films, Dept. A1-104, Coronet Building, 65 E. South Water St., Chicago, Ill. 60601, 1951. Based on interests, abilities, and future plans, school guidance counselor helps a boy choose his electives. Shows ways to test and increase mechanical abilities.


Planning Your Career. 16 min., 16mm, sound, b & w. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., 1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Ill. 60091, 1954. Shows how to evaluate yourself and how to compare your interests and abilities with the requirements of selected vocations.

Your Earning Power. 11 min., 16mm, sound, color. Coronet Films, Dept. A1-104, Coronet Building, 65 E. South Water St., Chicago, Ill. 60601, 1952. Explains some of the conditions which affect earning power—the kind of job selected, personal qualifications, education, and ability to produce.

Soundstrips

Discovering Your Real Interests. 52 frames, 8 minutes. Society for Visual Education, 1345 Diversey Parkway, Chicago 14, Ill., 1949. Compares interests and abilities. Shows how to discover your interests and how to use this knowledge in selecting school subjects, leisure activities, and a career.


Selecting Your Job, Work and Preparing for It, Part II. 48 frames, b & w. Society for Visual Education, 1345 Diversey Parkway, Chicago 14, Ill., 1952. Lists things to consider when selecting an occupation: goals, education and training, financial return, location, working conditions, promotion, and where to secure education or training.

What Are Job Families. 36 frames, color. Society for Visual Education, 1345 Diversey Parkway, Chicago 14, Ill., 1961. Groups jobs into families and shows how to match student abilities to related job families. (Earning ratio per amount of education mentioned.)

What Good Is School. 32 frames, color. Society for Visual Education, 1345 Diversey Parkway, Chicago 14, Ill., 1961. Shows that school work is related to future careers and that a student should prepare himself for a career by doing well in school.

You and Your Mental Abilities. 57 frames, color. Society for Visual Education, 1345 Diversey Parkway, Chicago 14, Ill., 1949. Describes differences in mental abilities, and how to make the most out of your abilities.
LOOKING AT NEW LITERATURE

Using Instructional Materials

"Individualizing" and "guiding" are terms frequently encountered in recent educational publications concerned with the better use of learning resources. Utilization of instructional materials is propelled more and more toward a "persistent search...to find the 'right' materials. Increasingly, the use of varied materials recognizes the fact that different individuals as well as different learnings require different learning resources." Writing in the ASCD's recent report on Using Current Curriculum Developments, Helfman and Alexander further stress technology's role which "makes possible appropriate curricular materials for both the accelerated and the slow learners in the same school situation."


In appraising new developments in many areas of the school curriculum, ASCD's survey report is centrally exploring the impact of new developments on existing programs. Tracing trends in the arts, English, foreign languages, health and physical education, mathematics, science, social studies, and vocational and technical education, the report culminates in a chapter on "Emerging Instructional Technology" by Philip Lewis, director of instructional materials, Chicago Public Schools. Lewis emphasizes the interaction which always takes place among methods, materials, and personnel. He points out that in the multimedia approach materials are selected not to enrich or to supplement but rather to "consolidate all materials and techniques into a design that insures the best use of the teacher and the media in instruction and meets the individual pupil's ways of learning." Among the latter are the 8mm motion picture, the overhead projector and transparencies, and the programmed learning-teaching machines developments, all of which hold great promise for individualizing instruction. The application of the principles of instructional systems to conventional school situations is visualized as a challenge—one of the greatest yet encountered by educational leadership.

Competent Use by Secondary Teachers

Applying this philosophy to the preparation of teachers for the classroom, Alcorn, Kinder, and Schunert of San Diego State College in their new text, Better Teaching in Secondary Schools, lay increasing emphasis on the role of using instructional materials. The authors have attempted to familiarize teachers with the tremendous potentialities and varieties of instructional materials by making the selection of the text dealing with the competent use of materials a major division of the book. By recognizing initially that materials sometimes have been used ineffectively, the authors highlight the need for becoming sophisticated in this field through an expert knowledge of criteria for selection and techniques for good utilization.


Starting with the familiar and ubiquitous textbook, the use of which nevertheless is frequently misunderstood, the authors describe, define, suggest, and illustrate sound principles of use. From this foundation they proceed to orient teachers with a knowledge of the school library and its resources, neglecting little that should be known by instructors regarding the range of library holdings and their incorporation in lessons. Conventional audiovisual materials are presented by types from flat pictures to motion pictures and auditory aids. Finally, television, the language laboratory, teaching machines, and new developments in room environment are presented. In each instance sufficient data is given to assist the novice in recognition of the material, its strengths, and techniques for classroom utilization. Despite its wide range of coverage, Better Teaching in the Secondary Schools cautions teachers not to become complacent since "materials used in today's schools are good, but they can become better. Continued research of instructional materials and their use is needed."

Case Studies of Programed Instruction

Individualizing instruction seems uniquely centered around the technique of the teaching machine. The Fund for the Advancement of Education has made possible the presentation of various approaches to programed learning in its current publication, Four Case Studies of Programed Instruction. Reports from Manhasset, Denver, Chicago, and Provo, Utah, are presented as evidence of what we actually can determine about the use of this method of instruction.


Among the various programs instituted in the Manhasset Junior High School, teachers apparently found satisfaction only with English 2600. Although disappointed with results, the school administration expects to see changes which may later alter this initial outcome. In Denver, efforts were centered on constructing local programs, making their experience an interesting and different one. While program building proved to be an onerous and difficult task, the project resulted in improved teacher understanding of principles and techniques. The Chicago research suggested that present materials were not likely to satisfy either teachers or students. In Provo, the findings seemed substantially the same, indicating the need for more and a greater variety of programs to fit individual needs.

The pamphlet concludes with the reprinting of Wilbur Schramm's earlier (1962) survey of "Programed Instruction Today and Tomorrow." Schramm's analysis of programed instruction parallels in large measure the experiences reported in the case studies. His projection of the future of programed instruction centers...
around the need for more effort at
making programs which must "be
placed on the growing edge of the art,
rather than the safe and conservative
commercial 'center,' and for more re-
search directed toward the larger im-
plications and theoretical problems
of programed instruction." As the evi-
dence of the cases presented in the
publication shows, schools must make
more imaginative applications of pro-
gramed instruction and teachers must
be trained to use these new methods
expertly. The whole impact of the
movement on teaching can be imple-
mented only as "other channels of in-
sertion such as television, textbooks,
films and other audiovisual means,
workbooks, class teaching, and group
study are examined to see where they
can beneficially apply some of the
principles of programed instruction."

Classroom Lab for Social Studies

As the trends in social studies have
influenced the teacher's methodology,
so have changes developed in learning
activities in the classroom. Suggestively
stated by a team of authors in Guid-
ing Children Through the Social
Studies, new light is shed on the social
studies in a way that this phase of the
curriculum "becomes for pupils and
teachers a sensible, feasible, and so-
cially useful area of the total school
curriculum."

Reynolds, Robert W., and others.
Guiding Children Through the Social
Studies. Washington, D.C.: Depart-
ment of Elementary-Kindergarten-
Nursery Education, a department of
the National Education Association,
1964. 35 pp. $1.

The concept of the classroom as a
laboratory is fully explored in social
studies as "an arranged environment."
This environment is described as one
"rich in authentic materials, pictures,
and artifacts" reflecting the people
studied. Here the multimedia approach
is crystallized as a purposeful and in-
separable approach to learning. In
this environment learning takes many
forms from many inspirations.

Individualizing Instruction

One evidence of variation required
in the utilization of instructional ma-
terials is found in the brief pamphlet
on individualizing instruction, edited
by Margaret Rasmussen, wherein the
marshaling of resources and tech-
niques is studied in relation to the
capacity of the pupil as a person. No
matter how intelligently we bring

groups together, "there is still the task
of reaching the individual."

Margaret Rasmussen, editor. Individ-
ualizing Education. Washington, D.C.: 
Association for Childhood Education

While the Rasmussen report does
not delve into instructional materials
minutely, the concepts developed in
this study as they relate to educational
experiences are vital reading for the
suppliers of instructional materials.

Re-Issued Montessori Manuals

The "individualizing" of instruction
recalls the techniques of Maria Mon-
tessori as revealed in her own writings.

Montessori, Maria. Spontaneous Ac-
tivity in Education. (The Advanced
Montessori Method, Vol. 1)—the edu-
cation of children from 7 to 11.)
Cambridge, Mass.: Robert Bentley,
1964. 384 pp. $6.50.

Montessori, Maria. The Montessori
Elementary Material. (The Advanced
Montessori Method, Vol. 2)—the edu-
cation of children from 7 to 11.)
Cambridge, Mass.: Robert Bentley,
1964. 512 pp. $8.50.

Robert Bentley, Inc., publishers and
importers of books, have re-issued two
of the Montessori manuals which have
been out of print for 47 years. These
are described as contributions to "An
American Montessori revival which
is in full swing."

Filmstrip on Oceanography

The National Academy of Sciences-
National Research Council is produc-
ing a series of eight narrated filmstrips
designed for use in high school class-
rooms. Four of the strips are now
ready for manufacture, and the re-
maining four will be available in the
near future. The NAS/NRC will sup-
ply color film negative masters for
each filmstrip (60 to 70 frames each),
the master magnetic tape recordings
of the narrations to be used to produce
the narration records (about 15 min-
utes), and film negatives for all printed
materials including two 12-page booklets
(narrations and bibliography), and
box covers.

Interested filmstrip manufacturers
and/or distributors are invited to con-
tact Mr. Richard C. Vetter, project
director, National Academy of Sci-
ences-National Research Council,
Committee on Oceanography, 2101
Constitution Avenue, Washington,
D.C. 20418.

Audiovisual Instruction—January 1965
INDEX OF AUDIOVISUAL REVIEWS

Betty Stoops, Indexer

A IS FOR ATOM (Revised edition), m.p., General Electric; Landers Film Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1562. Peaceful nuclear power

ADVENTURES IN SHARPS AND FLATS, m.p., Reid H. Ray Film Industries for H. and A. Selmer, Inc.; Business Screen, vol. 25, no. 3, p. 66. Recruitment of school musicians

AIR CARGO—A MODERN MARKETING TOOL, m.p., Coleman Productions for United Aircraft Corporation; Business Screen, vol. 25, no. 5, p. 40

ANCIENT EGYPTIAN, m.p., International Film Foundation; Film Review Digest, June 1964, p. 1

ANDREW JACKSON AT THE HERMITAGE, m.p., Coronet; Landers Film Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1538. Grades 7-12

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ATOMIC FINGERPRINT (MAGIC OF THE ATOM SERIES), m.p., Handel Film Corp.; Landers Film Reviews, May 1964, p. 1484. Neutron activation analysis

ATOMIC POWER PRODUCTION, m.p., Handel Film Corp.; Landers Film Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1539. All levels


AUTOMANIA 2000, m.p., Halas & Batchelor Cartoon Films, Ltd.; Contemporary Films; Landers Film Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1539. Traffic problems; satire

BACTERIA AND THEIR SENSITIVITY TO ANTIBIOTICS AND GERMICIDES, kit, Colab Laboratories, Inc.; Science Teacher, Sept 1964, p. 73

BETTER BREAKFASTS, U.S.A., m.p., Cereal Institute; Landers Film Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1562. Grades 4-9

BEYOND THREE DOORS, m.p., Henry Strauss Productions for Bell Telephone System; Business Screen, vol. 25, no. 5, p. 29. Citizen's role in good government

BLIND GARY DAVIS, m.p., Harold Becker; Contemporary Films; Landers Film Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1539. Folk music

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BRITISH COMMONWEALTH OF NATIONS, m.p., Coronet Films; Landers Film Reviews, May 1964, p. 1484

BUDDHIST WORLD, m.p., Coronet Films; Ed Screen and AV Guide, Sept 1964, p. 533. High school

CALLED TO SERVE, m.p., Family Films; Ed Screen and AV Guide, Sept 1964, p. 529. The ministry as a vocation

CAMOUFLAGE IN NATURE THROUGH FORM AND COLOR MATCHING (Second Edition), m.p., Coronet; Landers Film Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1540; Science Teacher, Sept 1964, p. 68

CAMOUFLAGE IN NATURE THROUGH PATTERN MATCHING (Second edition), m.p., Coronet; Landers Film Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1540; Science Teacher, Sept 1964, p. 68

CAMPING—A KEY TO CONSERVATION, m.p., Indiana University; Landers Film Reviews, June 1964, p. 1519. Grades 4-9

CARCASSONNE: A FRENCH FORTRESS, m.p., Ernest Kleinberg Films; Landers Film Reviews, May 1964, p. 1485. French language

CASE HISTORY OF A RUMOR, m.p., CBS-TV; Carousel Films; Film News, vol. 21, no. 3, p. 9; Landers Film Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1540

CENSORSHIP: A QUESTION OF JUDGMENT, m.p., Horizon Film Productions; International Film Bureau; Landers Film Reviews, May 1964, p. 1486. Jr high and up

CENTRAL CITY, COLORADO, m.p., New Era Production for Adolph Coors Company; Landers Film Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1563

CHARLEMAGNE: UNIFIER OF EUROPE, m.p., Tadie Cinema and Jean Hubert for Encyclopedia Britannica Films; Landers Film Reviews, June 1964, p. 1519

CHARM BY CHOICE, sd vs, Wilding Pictures for National Urban League; Association Films; Film News, vol. 21, no. 3, p. 27. Grooming for teenage girls

CHILDREN LEARN FROM FILMSTRIPS, m.p., National Film Board of Canada; McGraw-Hill; Film Review Digest, June 1964, p. 1. Audiovisual methods

CHRISTIANITY IN WORLD HISTORY (To 1000 A.D.), m.p., Coronet Films; Landers Film Reviews, May 1964, p. 1486

CITY OF THE FUTURE (City in History Series), m.p., National Film Board of Canada; Sterling Educational Films; Film News, vol. 21, no. 3, p. 9. Urban planning

CIVIL WAR: 1863-1865, m.p., Coronet Films; Landers Film Reviews, June 1964, p. 1520. Grades 7-12

CIVIL WAR: POSTWAR PERIOD, m.p., Coronet Films; Landers Film Reviews, June 1964, p. 1521. Grades 7-12

COLLEGE, m.p., Pyramid Productions; Film Review Digest, June 1964, p. 2. Impressionistic view of the inquiring mind; college and adult

COLORS OF ITALY, m.p., Wilding, Inc., for Alitalia Airlines; Association Films; Business Screen, vol. 25, no. 5, p. 41. Travelogue

COMPANY PROFILE, m.p., Jam Handy Organization for The Hoover Company; Business Screen, vol. 25, no. 4, p. 33. History and worldwide scope of The Hoover Company

CRAYON, m.p., ACI Productions; Landers Film Reviews, June 1964, p. 1521. Elementary through college

CRISIS IN PRESIDENCY: SUCCESSION, m.p., Gene De Foris (for CBS-TV; Landers Film Reviews, June 1964, p. 1522

DEFENSIVE DRIVING TACTICS, m.p., Charles Cahill & Associates; Landers Film Reviews, May 1964, p. 1487

DEGAS: MASTER OF MOTION, m.p., University of Southern California; Landers Film Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1541. Ballet; painting

DISCOVERING LINE, m.p., Film Associates of California; Film News, vol. 21, no. 3, p. 7. Art

THE DOUGHNUTS, m.p., Weston Woods Studios; Landers Film Reviews, June 1964, p. 1522. Episode from Robert McCloskey's Homer Price; grades 4-9

DRESSING UP, m.p., Good Grooming Council of America; United World Films; Business Screen, vol. 25, no. 3, p. 74. Teenage grooming

ECLIPSE OF THE QUIET SUN, m.p., Douglas Aircraft with National Geographic Society; Douglas Aircraft; Business Screen, vol. 25, no. 3, p. 70. 1965. Solar eclipse

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AUDIO VISUAL INSTRUCTION—January 1965
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JAPAN—LAND OF THE KAMI, m.p., Horizon Films; Sterling Educational Films; Film News, vol. 21, no. 3, p. 26 Japanese religious sects


JOURNEY INTO THE PAST, m.p., Boulton-Hawker Film with D. C. Chipperfield; International Film Bureau; Landers Films Reviews, June 1964, p. 1527. Geography and history of Mediterranean area

JULIUS CAESAR—THE RISE OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE, m.p.; Encyclopaedia Britannica Films; Landers Films Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1548. Human relations; elementary

THE KREMLIN, m.p.; George A. Vicas for NBC News; McGraw-Hill; Landers Films Reviews, June 1964, p. 1528. Russian history

LANGUAGE OF MAPS, m.p., Encyclopaedia Britannica Films; Landers Films Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1548. All levels

LET'S KEEP FOOD SAFE TO EAT, m.p., Coronet Films; Landers Films Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1549. Grades 1-6

LETTER TO GRANDMOTHER (Second edition), m.p., Coronet Films; Landers Films Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1549. Postal service

LEWIS MUMFORD ON THE CITY SERIES, m.p., National Film Board of Canada; Sterling Educational Films; Landers Films Reviews, June 1964, p. 1528. Urban problems

LEXINGTON-CONCORD, m.p., NBC for American Landmark Series; McGraw-Hill; Landers Films Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1550. American history; all levels

LIFE STORY OF A MOTH—THE SILKWORM (Basic Life Science Series), m.p., Encyclopaedia Britannica Films; Landers Films Reviews, June 1964, p. 1529. Grades 4-9

LIFE STORY OF A SNAKE (Basic Life Science Series), m.p., Encyclopaedia Britannica Films; Landers Films Reviews, May 1964, p. 1492. Elementary


LITTLE ENGINE THAT COULD, m.p., Coronet Films; Landers Films Reviews, May 1964, p. 1493. Children's story

LOOKING AT BIRDS (Basic Life Science Series), m.p., Encyclopaedia Britannica Films; Landers Films Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1550. Elementary


MAGNETS AND HOW TO USE THEM, m.p., Peggy and Yoram Kahana; Film Associates of California; Landers Films Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1550. Grades 1-6

MAKING OF THE PRESIDENT 1960, m.p., David Wolper Productions; Xerox Corp.; Business Screen, vol. 25, no. 4, p. 6; Film News, vol. 21, no. 3, p. 9

MANOQUEX, RIVER LUMBERJACKS, m.p., National Film Board of Canada; Sterling Educational Films; Landers Films Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1551. Canadian lumber industry

MARSHALD IS NOT WASTELAND, m.p., Roy Wilcock Productions; Film Review Digest, June 1964, p. 3. Conservation

MARVELOUS MOUSETRAP, m.p., Norwood Studios for Bureau of National Affairs, Inc.; Business Screen, vol. 25, no. 4, p. 18; Film News, vol. 21, no. 3, p. 11. Importance of high standards in manufacture and distribution of goods

"MY I HELP YOU?" m.p., Parthenon Pictures for American Telephone & Telegraph; Landers Films Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1564. Telephone information operator training

MEASUREMENT IN PHYSICAL SCIENCE, m.p., Coronet Films; Science Teacher, May 1964, p. 73. Grades 7-12

MEKONG—THE STORY OF A RIVER, m.p., South East Asia Shell Film Unit for the Shell International Petroleum Company, Ltd.; Business Screen, vol. 25, no. 4, p. 17. Development of a river in southeast Asia

METALS AND NON-METALS (Second edition), m.p., Coronet Films; Landers Films Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1551. Senior high

METAMORPHOSIS—LIFE STORY OF THE WASP, m.p., Encyclopaedia Britannica Films; Science Teacher, May 1964, p. 73. Jr high science

MEXICO SERIES, fs, Encyclopaedia Britannica Films; Ed Screen and AV Guide, Sept 1964, p. 530. Middle and upper grades

MILLION CLUB, m.p., Film Counselors, Inc., for American Cancer Society; Business Screen, vol. 25, no. 3, p. 74. Cancer detection

MISSISSIPPI RIVER: ITS ROLE IN AMERICAN HISTORY, m.p., Justin and Geraldine Byers; Bailey Films; Landers Films Reviews, May 1964, p. 1493. Grades 4-9

MORNING ON THE LIEBRE, m.p., David Barstow for National Film Board of Canada; Encyclopaedia Britannica Films; Landers Films Reviews, June 1964, p. 1529. Visualization of Archibald Lampman's poem


NATION ON WHEELS, m.p., Leif Rise Productions; Landers Films Reviews, May 1964, p. 1494. Documentary on automobiles in American society

Audiovisual Instruction—January 1965

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National Parks: Our American Heritage, m.p., Guy Haselton; Bailey Films; Landers Film Reviews, May 1964, p. 1495

New Flag, sd fs, Methodist Board of Missions; Ed Screen and AV Guide, Sept 1964, p. 528. American boy's view of Indonesia; intermediate

New Formosa, m.p., Productions Unlimited; Landers Film Reviews, June 1964, p. 1530


No Hiding Place (East Side-West Side Series), m.p., Talent Associates for CBS-TV; Carousel Films; Film News, vol. 21, no. 3. Integrated housing

Northwoods Adventure, m.p., Roy Wilcox Productions; Landers Film Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1552. Conservation of wildlife

Oceanography: Teaching Kit, sd fs, Doug George Associates; Science Teacher, Sept 1964, p. 69. Jr high

An Occurrence at Owl Creek Bridge, m.p., Robert Enrico' Contemporary Films; EFLA Bulletin, Sept 1964, p. 2. Ambrose Bierce's Civil War Story

Of Men and Minds, m.p., American Heart Association with E. R. Squibb and Sons; Film News, vol. 21, no. 3, p. 11. Heart disease research

Of Stars and Men, m.p., John and Faith Hübly; Brandon Films; Landers Film Reviews, June 1964, p. 1530. Significance of man's position in the universe

Of Time, Work, and Leisure, m.p., Ralph J. Tangney for National Educational Television; Landers Film Reviews, May 1964, p. 1496. Americans use of leisure time

Official Baseball, m.p., National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations; Wilson Sporting Goods, Inc.; Wheaties Sports Foundation; Official Sports Film Service; Landers Film Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1565

On This Mountain, m.p., Avram S. Doryon; Doron Films, Landers Film Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1553. Three stories from Solomon's life; all levels

Our American Heritage of Folk Music Series, sd fs, Burton Munk and Society for Visual Education; Film News, vol. 21, no. 3, p. 27


Our Class Works Together, m.p., Coronet Films; Landers Film Reviews, June 1964, p. 1531. Primary

Our Wonderful Ears and Their Care, m.p., Coronet Films; Landers Film Reviews, June 1964, p. 1531. Primary

Panama: Danger Zone, m.p., Al Waserman for NBC; McGraw-Hill; Landers Film Reviews, June 1964, p. 1531

Pelican Island, m.p., Bob Davison with William H. Behle; Nature-Guide Films; Landers Film Reviews, May 1964, p. 1496

Persistent Seed, m.p., Christopher Chapman for National Film Board of Canada; Hank Newenhouse, Landers Film Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1553. Urban conservation; all levels

Photosynthesis: Chemistry of Foodmaking, m.p., Coronet Films; Landers Film Reviews, June 1964, p. 1532; Science Teacher, Sept 1964, p. 69

Physical Education in Elementary Schools, m.p., Stuart Finley Films; Landers Film Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1554. Teacher education

Pianissimo, m.p., Carmen D'Avino; Cinema 16; Film News, vol. 21, no. 3, p. 11. Musical entertainment

The Planets, m.p., Robert Edmonds; International Film Bureau; Landers Film Reviews, June 1964, p. 1533. Jr high and up

Plant-Animal Communities: Physical Environment, m.p., Coronet Films; Landers Film Reviews, June 1964, p. 1533; Science Teacher, Sept 1964, p. 69. Grades 7-12

Poetry of Christmas, m.p., Frank Grover; Grover Film Productions; Landers Film Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1554. Grades 4-9

Politics: The High Cost of Conviction, m.p., Horizon Film Productions; International Film Bureau; Landers Film Reviews, May 1964, p. 1497. Individual endorsement of political candidates

Pond and the City, m.p., Willard Van Dyke for Conservation Foundation; Landers Film Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1554. Conservation of rural areas

Population Ecology, m.p., Encyclopaedia Britannica Films; Landers Film Reviews, June 1964, p. 1534

Portraits of the East, m.p., Wilding, Inc., for Alitalia Airlines; Association Films; Business Screen, vol. 25, no. 5, p. 41. Glimpses of life in India, Japan, Australia, Hong Kong, and Thailand

Priceless Laboratory, m.p., Douglas Aircraft Company; Business Screen, vol. 25, no. 3, p. 70. Scientific study in Antarctica


Producing Phosphates for Agriculture, m.p., Tiesler Productions for the American Cyanamid Corp.; Business Screen, vol. 25, no. 4, p. 53


Pulse of Life, m.p., Pyramid Film Producers; Business Screen, vol. 25, no. 4, p. 18. Resuscitation in emergencies

Que Puerto Rico! m.p., THT Productions; Contemporary Films; Landers Film Reviews, June 1964, p. 1531
ANNOUNCEMENT

ART FILM SERIES

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RUMPSTILTSKIN, m.p., Sterling Educational Films; Landers Film Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1556. Pantomime by children.


SEARCH, m.p., Cinecraft Continental Productions for Youngstown Sheet and Tube Company; Business Screen, vol. 25, no. 3, p. 64. Steel research.

SECOND WORLD WAR: PRELUDE TO CONFLICT, m.p., Encyclopaedia Britannica Films; Landers Film Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1557.

SIMPLE MACHINES: WORK AND MECHANICAL ADVANTAGE, m.p., Coronet Films, Science Teacher, May 1964, p. 73. Science; grades 7-12

SKETCHBOOK No. 1: THREE AMERICANS, sd fs, Robert Snyder with editors of Time Magazine; Landers Film Reviews, May 1964, p. 1498. Creative work of R. Buckminster Fuller, Willem de Kooning, and Igor Stravinsky.

SKY SENSE, m.p., Aetna Life Affiliated Companies; Business Screen, vol. 25, no. 3, p. 64. Safety.

SLEEPY HEADS, m.p., Stanton Films; Landers Film Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1557. Value of sleep; primary.

SMOKING AND YOU, m.p., Derrick Knight and Partners, Ltd. for the Central Office of Information, Great Britain; Contemporary Films; Landers Film Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1558.

SPACE SCIENCE: AN INTRODUCTION, m.p., Coronet Films; Landers Film Reviews, May 1964, p. 1499; Science Teacher, Sept 1964, p. 68. Grades 4-9.

SPEECH CHAIN, teaching package, Bell Telephone Co.; Science Teacher, Sept 1964, p. 73. Physics and biology of spoken language; grades 7-12.

STAY IN SCHOOL, m.p., Bailey Films; Landers Film Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1558. School dropouts; grades 7-12.


STORY OF MEASURING TIME: HOURS, MINUTES, SECONDS, m.p., Coronet Films; Landers Film Reviews, May 1964, p. 1499. Elementary through high school.

STORY OF OLD CALIFORNIA, m.p., Thomas L. Schmidt; Le Mont Films; Landers Film Reviews, Sept 1964, p. 1559. Grades 4-12.


TAKE AN OPTION ON TOMORROW, m.p., Louis de Rochemont Associates for International Business Machines Corp., and New York State Division for Youth; Business Screen, vol. 25, no. 3, p. 75. Youth rehabilitation.


TEACHING: A QUESTION OF METHOD, m.p., Horizon Film Productions; International Film Bureau; Landers Film Reviews, May 1964, p. 1506. Teacher's responsibility for challenging beliefs.


AUDIOVISUAL INSTRUCTION—January 1965
Churchill films sold nearly 50% more last year than the year before. It's not because we made lots of films either. We just made them with loving care.
King Comments on Auto Load Filmstrip Projector

I wonder how far the age of automation is going to go with future audiovisual equipment. We have had for some time self-threading 8mm projectors; we have had the Instamatic Cameras from Kodak; and we have had the Auto Load 16mm Projector from Bell and Howell. Now Bell and Howell have released an Auto Load Filmstrip Projector. My Model 745C arrived recently, and I am very happy to be able to share with you some of my comments concerning this novel piece of equipment.

As you look at it you are immediately impressed with the fact that it looks different from the standard filmstrip projectors now on the market. Beauty is in the eye of the beholder, but, to me, this is a very neatly packaged filmstrip projector. It's compact, not too heavy, and very easy to use.

The projector is self-contained. It does not have to be carried in a separate case. To operate it, you simply have to unwind the cord which is coiled around the base of the machine, open the sliding door which protects the lens, turn on the switch, and you're in business.

Threading is automatic. While the projector is designed to use a cartridge, filmstrips may be used automatically without the cartridge if you so desire. However, the cartridges are going to sell for about 10 cents, and the convenience of the cartridge certainly justifies the additional expenditure. If you use the cartridge, you never have to handle the filmstrip. It is always rewound when you change filmstrips, and there is no danger of exchanging lids of filmstrip cans or putting the wrong filmstrip in the wrong can. You pick up the cartridge, insert it in the machine, and you are ready to project.

I have been very much impressed by the amount of light that the filmstrip projector puts on the screen. The Model 745C which I have tested is a 750-watt remote-controlled filmstrip projector. This unit uses the same lamp used in the Bell and Howell 16mm projectors. This, to me, is a very desirable feature. It saves maintaining an inventory of two different lamps.

There are a number of other pleasing features to this projector. The ventilation system to cool the filmstrip projector is more than adequate. There are no pressure plates to cause the filmstrip to stick or to scratch. Without pressure plates, there is less possibility of dust accumulation.

One novel feature is the method of tilting the projector. Rather than raising or lowering one or more legs to level the machine, the whole machine can easily be tilted to the right or to the left. I have never seen another machine with this feature. I have had the opportunity to demonstrate this projector to approximately 350 teachers and administrators since I received it. Without exception it has been enthusiastically received by all who have seen it. They have praised the auto load feature because it eliminates any problems or fears the classroom teacher might have about loading and operating a projector. They have been enthusiastic about the ways of changing projection lamps and/or cleaning the filter and condensing lens. They also agreed with me that the tilting feature was novel and yet practical.

The Auto Load Filmstrip Projector will also show 2x2 slides. Slides may be shown one at a time or, if the semimatic changer is purchased and used, they may be projected in tray form.

The three models presently avail-
able are the Models 745A, 745B, and 745C. Model 745A is a manually operated 500-watt projector costing $399.95. The 745B, which is priced at $129.95, is a 750-watt manually operated unit. The Model 745C, which sells for $149.95, has a remote control unit which permits filmstrips to be advanced or reversed remotely.

The prices of these units are competitive with other units now on the market. They are new; they are attractive; and I am sure that they will be enthusiastically received by teachers. May I suggest that you contact your nearest Bell and Howell representative and ask him to bring one to your school for a demonstration?

—W. H. K.

AERA Activities

New executive officer of the American Educational Research Association, a department of the NEA, is Richard A. Dershimer. He replaces Ray Gerberich, who resigned to devote full time to his work at Maryland University. Dr. Dershimer comes to the office with wide experience in teaching, research, and administration both in this country and abroad. His previous post was director of special research projects and special assistant to the superintendent, Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction and director of the preschool and primary education project. A native of Pennsylvania, he completed his undergraduate work at Cornell College, Iowa; received his master's degree from Teachers College, Columbia University; and his doctorate from Harvard University.

Results of the election late last spring for AERA divisional vice-presidents and secretaries have been announced. In the listings which follow, the first person named is the divisional vice-president and second is the secretary; the terms of the offices terminate at the end of the annual meeting in the years indicated.

Division A, Administration: Roald F. Campbell (1966), Luvern Cunningham (1967);
Division B, Curriculum and Objectives: John I. Goodlad (1965), B. Othanel Smith (1966);
Division C, Learning and Instruction: John B. Carroll (1966), T. L. Harris (1967);
Division D, Measurement and Research Methodology: Julian C. Stanley (1965), Donald M. Medley (1966);

Educational Media Council
Officers Elected

Representatives of the Educational Media Council's 14-member association elected officers for the coming year at their October meeting in Washington, D.C.

Reelected as Council president was James D. Finn, director of the NEA Instructional Technology and Media Project at the School of Education of the University of California, who serves on the Council as a representative of the Department of Audiovisual Instruction of the National Education Association. Also reelected were William G. Harley, president of the National Association of Educational Broadcasters, who is vice-president of the Council; and Ben Edelman, assistant manager for Government-Industry Relations of the Western Electric Company, serving as secretary of the Council, on which he represents the Electronic Industries Association.

The new Council treasurer is Emily S. Jones, administrative director of the Educational Film Library Association. Directors of the Council who will serve with the officers as members of its executive committee are Harold D. Drummond, chairman of the Department of Elementary Education at the University of New Mexico, a Council representative of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development; directors-at-large Charles F. Schuller, who is director of the Audio-Visual Center at Michigan State University; and Robert E. Slaughter, senior vice-president of McGraw-Hill, Inc., who serves on the Council as a representative of the American Textbook Publishers Institute.

Suggested Readings for Convention

A review of the following books and articles will be of interest to members planning to attend the DAVI Convention in Milwaukee, April 25-30, 1965:

NEW
MOTION PICTURE SERIES:

"Pathways to Modern Mathematics"

"Thinking in Sets" and "Relating Sets to Numbers" are the titles of two new motion pictures released by General Electric Educational Films. The films can be used to supplement and enrich classroom instruction in the new concepts of mathematics. Narrator of the films is Robert F. Williams, chairman of mathematics. Narrator of the films is Robert F. Williams, chairman of mathematics department and nationally known for his programs on educational television.

The Woman with the Car on Her Head

Illustrating school textbooks for most African children who have almost never seen a picture book at home can raise some special problems. When a child sees a drawing of an ordinary street scene with a woman in the foreground and a motorcar behind her, his immediate reaction is to inquire why she is carrying the car on her head. If the drawing shows a room with a man in the background and, say, a vase of flowers in the front of the picture, the child asks why the man is going to put his foot into the vase.

This was one of the problems met by Mr. Andreas Klitgaard, a Danish publisher from Rungsted Kyst, north of Copenhagen, who has just completed two and a half years as a specialist in graphic arts at the Unesco Regional Center for Educational Research and Information in Africa, at Accra, Ghana.

Visiting the Unesco headquarters recently on completion of his mission, Mr. Klitgaard said that visual instruction is a very important and helpful part of teaching in Africa, both in primary and secondary schools. "One of my jobs," he said, "was to find the African artists to provide the necessary illustrations. I found many, as there are a number of good artists now in Africa where most universities or institutions of higher education have an art school."

"But getting the point of the illustration across to the child is often a difficult matter," Mr. Klitgaard added. "African children are not taught to look at illustrations in the same way as European children. I found very often that the idea of perspective, of there being more than just the two dimensions represented, was difficult for them to grasp."

One of the primary purposes of Mr. Klitgaard's mission was to find out to what extent African countries could print their own school textbooks. In this connection, he gave courses in basic typography and layout in Ghana, Liberia, and Tanganyika, and visited many other countries in West, Central and East Africa, assessing possibilities and advising on the production of school textbooks. His verdict: "African countries, on the whole, have printing houses well enough equipped to produce textbooks for present needs."—Richard Greenough

The preceding article appeared in the July 15, 1964, issue of Teaching Aids News, and is reprinted with the permission of the editor. Additional information on the publication, which is published by Educational News Service, may be obtained by writing to Lawrence Lipsitz, editor, Teaching Aids News, P.O. Box 508, Saddle Brook, New Jersey 07663.

Walter A. Anderson

The membership of DAVI has lost a steadfast supporter of audiovisual activities in the death of Walter A. Anderson, president of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, last fall. Dr. Anderson collapsed on the New York University, University Heights campus in the Bronx, New York City, while preparing to participate in ceremonies at the Gould Memorial Library for the installation of Edward McDowell, the composer, into the Hall of Fame for Great Americans. He was known to the people in the AV field through the various cooperative activities which DAVI and AACTE have conducted over the past years.

Dr. Anderson's death culminated a distinguished career which ranged from classroom teaching to administrative posts in this country and abroad. A consultant to the New York State Board of Education at intervals between 1952 and 1960, he was the author of "A Design for Elementary Education in New York State."

Science Teachers Make Illustrations Available for Reproduction

The National Science Teachers Association, a department of the National Education Association, plans to have color separation repros made of all of their major journal illustrations and diagrams. These will be printed on white stock and made available to educators, who in turn can transfer them to a form suitable for overhead projection.

According to Mary E. Hawkins, editor, The Science Teacher, color transparencies of two rather elaborate diagrams from an article in their December issue also are now being offered. She plans to continue making such color transparencies available if sufficient interest is shown by the readers.

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Audiovisual Instruction—January 1965
ETV Standards Study

A call for higher and more appropriate technical standards for television has been made in a report released by the National Association of Educational Broadcasters. The report, Standards of Television Transmission, was completed as part of a study conducted by the NAEB under a grant from the U.S. Office of Education. Its essential theme is that "the television system with which we are most familiar uses but one cf many possible standards, and for particular needs appropriate technical standards should be identified and established."

The report summarizes the general state-of-the-art for television equipment, pointing out that education should demand higher than FCC broadcast standards, when the situation requires. Although equipment with such capabilities is not always easily available, it does exist; it is technically practical; and reasonable cost will result from increasing demands.

Of particular concern to the NAEB in conducting the study is the growing need to provide television facilities that are compatible with each other, and to provide in-systems that meet the maximum required standards. FCC rules do not now permit adequate channel bandwidths for private interconnection systems of high technical quality over several microwave relays.

A full chapter of the study categorizes the frequency bands available for microwave interconnection of educational television systems. In this regard the report said "that FCC Rules and Regulations follow a pattern that was established to handle problems existing long before educational television was a subject of concern." Consequently the FCC Rules are not well suited to handling educational television as a whole, because of the broadcast and non-broadcast distinction now made for educational television. FCC engineers are aware of this difficulty and are working with the NAEB and other groups to reduce the technical and administrative problems that have been encountered.

The NAEB study was supervised by Vernon Bronson and was conducted by the Jansky & Bailey Systems Engineering Division of Atlantic Research Corporation. The 90-page report is available from the NAEB, 1346 Connecticut Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20006.
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Have You Seen These?


Music Curriculum Guides, by Harold W. Arberg and Sarah P. Wood, is an annotated bibliography compiled for the U.S. Office of Education with the assistance of the state departments of education as well as of many counties and cities. The list of guides is current as of September 15, 1963. While there are undoubtedly many guides in use which were not obtained by the Office of Education, such a comprehensive bibliography of curriculum guides for music has never before been published, according to the Foreword. Part I, Music Curriculum Guides, lists the materials by grades, and items are presented alphabetically by state and title respectively. Part II, in a similar manner, lists general curriculum guides. An Appendix lists the previous items by subject. Under Audiovisual Resources may be found an extensive listing grouped as general, film, filmstrips, and disc or tape recording items. The booklet is available from Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. (USOE Bulletin 1964, No. 14. FS 5.233:3302. 25 cents.)

Foreign Language Review, a quarterly magazine to aid in the learning of French, Spanish, German, and Latin, is now entering its fourth year of publication under new management and staff. The new staff began publishing with the Fall 1964 issue. A typical issue features current news items presented in the student's native language and in the language being studied. Three levels of presentation are used, thus providing suitable material for use by elementary, intermediate, and advanced students. In addition, other features are included in the target language only.

Correlated news records are prepared for each issue of the magazine. A separate record for each language contains a spoken version of the news items from the magazine. Magazine or records may be subscribed to separately. For further information write to Foreign Language Review, Inc., 200 Park Avenue South, New York, N.Y. 10003.

NBC Teacher's Guide. For the third season the NBC network offers free study guides to be used with their educational broadcasts. Programs covered in the 1964-65 season are "Exploring," for the 5-11 year groups, and "Profiles in Courage," based on the book by President John F. Kennedy which was premiered last November. The study guide for "Profiles" has been sent to every high school in the nation. Teachers and administrators who wish to receive the NBC Teacher's Guide should address their requests, with grade level and number of guides specified, to NBC Teacher's Guide, Room 788 J, NBC, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, N.Y. 10020.

WAVY Handbook, for Audio-Visual Operators, is an unusual guide published by Wisconsin Audio-Visual Youth, 1964. Organized for assistance to student AV operators and their advisors, the 71-page mimeographed handbook contains personal standards for AV operators, tips on the operation of AV clubs, and chapters on the operation of various types of equipment. The major portion of the book is devoted to the setting up and operation of commonly used commercial machines. It is illustrated with line drawings of the machines and contains a list of parts for each piece of equipment. Included are 16mm projectors, filmstrip projectors, and opaque and overhead projectors. Other chapters cover transparency making, how to use screens, tape recorders, miscellaneous AV materials, and a basic glossary of AV terms. Available from WAVY (Wisconsin Audio-Visual Youth), 5225 West Vliet Street, Milwaukee, Wisconsin 53208.

Listening, by Stanford E. Taylor, (What Research Says to the Teacher, Pamphlet No. 29). Material for this 33-page pamphlet by the president of the Educational Developmental Laboratories, Inc., Huntington, New York, was drawn from educational research materials that offer possibilities of being helpful to classroom teachers. The pamphlet is not a complete sum-
mary of research on the subject. In some instances, expert opinion and systematic observations are given where technical research does not exist. The interpretations and recommendations are those of the author. Among the topics discussed are: The Important Role of Listening; Factors Which Influence Hearing, Listening, and Auding; Can Listening Be Taught; and The Need for Flexible Listeners. A Program To Improve Listening is presented and two tables of selected references are included. Order from the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036. Single copy, 25 cents; quantity discounts.

National Aeronautics and Space Administration provides films and audio tapes for school use on a free loan basis. A desk copy of any of their publications will be furnished for individual educational personnel, teachers, or school libraries. Additional AV production aids are loaned on a limited basis for educational television stations or closed-circuit facilities. Following are three listings by title: 16mm Film List, including motion picture film library location map and service areas, November 1964; NASA Educational Publications, September 1964; and Radio-Television Production Aids. If you would like to receive any of these materials, or to inquire about other NASA audio-visual services, write National Aeronautics and Space Administration, Code AFEE-4, Washington, D.C. 20546.

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FEEDBACK

Convention Coverage

Dear Editor:

Aside from the fact that the 1964 DAVI Convention was held in Rochester (which certainly prejudices me slightly), I think that the September issue of AUDIOVISUAL INSTRUCTION is one of the finest summaries of a major convention which I have ever seen. Please extend to all who helped put it together the thanks of us at Kodak.

Incidentally, one note of discord was a reference on page 458 in regard to the international luncheon. On the picture caption for the head table photo, it lists "an unidentified representative of Eastman Kodak." It happens that the individual who was not identified is Dr. Louis K. Eilers, executive vice president of Kodak!—Thomas W. Hope, assistant advisor on nontheatrical films, Eastman Kodak Company, Rochester, New York.

Dear Editor:

In general I must say that I enjoyed the September 1964 issue of AVI. However, in the coverage of the closed-circuit television operation in which I work, there were two errors which misrepresent the operation.

1. The statement which I feel is incorrect is, "He said that TV teachers received no release time..." I did not say this. When I did say, which I am sure was misconstrued, was that the teachers who regularly teach on television do have a period a day (five periods a week) to prepare two programs per week. The misunderstanding probably occurred when I stated that the teachers doing "specials" did so on their own time.

The other statement which is definitely in error is in the conclusion. It reads, "There was, however, a marked absence on the program of those who utilize the system. Many of the seminar participants would have liked to know, for instance, how the students feel about this innovation, how the classroom teachers utilize it, and what their problems are." Three teachers, namely Nancy Pline, Walter Beecher, and Burt Towne (the "art teacher" in the article), all took part in the presentation as participating teachers discussing the very points which the article claims were omitted.

As a matter of fact, in planning the program, we intended that a major portion of it be devoted to the area we are accused of omitting.

Please do not take these remarks to imply that I am dissatisfied with the coverage in general. The purpose of this letter is to clarify any misconceptions which may reflect on our system.—Thomas L. Russell, producer director, EHTV, East High School, Rochester, New York.

DAVI Joins All-NEA Project

With District of Columbia Schools

The Department of Audiovisual Instruction has made a contribution to an All-NEA Project to develop educational programs in a culturally deprived "inner city" area of the District of Columbia.

The Project, which is still in the planning stage, will call on the skills, interests, and resources of as many as possible of the agencies and associations within the NEA family.

Contact has been made with the superintendent of schools and his staff and with the D.C. Education Association regarding the Project. The possibility of help has been welcomed. The Project would tie in with other efforts being made to improve school conditions in the nation's capital.

Preliminary proposals have been submitted by DAVI to the Project spokesmen concerning the role audiovisual instruction can play in the total program. These proposals include television learning opportunities for preschool children; the use of television for in-service teacher education; the use of programmed instruction in the teaching of the adult illiterate; and remedial and enrichment opportunities in the schools within the target area, i.e., adequate library facilities, audio and visual work centers, and appropriate audiovisual materials and equipment.

As the Project develops further, details will be carried in AUDIOVISUAL INSTRUCTION.
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About the Authors

David P. Ausubel is professor of education, College of Education, University of Illinois at Urbana.

Lester F. Beck is professor of psychology, Oregon State System of Higher Education.

Daniel W. Behnke is assistant director, Research and Statistics, Cook County Department of Public Aid, Illinois.

Robert A. Bennett is specialist in language arts, San Diego City Schools, California.

Edward G. Bernard is director, Bureau of Audio-Visual Instruction, Board of Education of the City of New York.

Helen P. Bradley is principal, D. R. Cameron Elementary School, Chicago, and director of special summer schools.

Ward Brunson is social studies teacher, South High School, Omaha, Nebraska.

Samuel Cohen is assistant superintendent of instruction, Union Free School District No. 14, Hewlett, New York.

Wilbert D. Edgerton is instructor in audiovisual education, Virginia State College, Petersburg, Virginia.

Gerard P. Farley is coordinator of state and federal programs, Milwaukee Public Schools, Wisconsin.

Peter Golej is supervisor, Department of Audio-Visual Education, Detroit Public Schools Center, Michigan.

Lassar G. Gotkin and Fay Fondiller are with the Institute for Developmental Studies, Department of Psychiatry, New York Medical College, New York, New York.

Kenneth B. Hoyt is professor of education and Lee Cochran is director of the Bureau of Audiovisual Instruction at the State University of Iowa, Iowa City.

Tom McLernon is director, East Coast Regional Office, National Education Association.

James E. Moore is principal, Keavy Elementary School, Keavy, Kentucky, and Estill Davidson is supervisor, Laurel County Schools, Laurel County Department of Education, Kentucky.

Iris Mulvaney is coordinator of language arts, Tucson Public Schools, Arizona.

Mildred H. Nixon is audiovisual cataloger in the San Diego City Schools, California, and Raymond J. Blake is assistant director of audiovisual instruction in the same district.

Alfred M. Potts, II, is professor of education and chairman, The Center for Cultural Studies, Adams State College of Colorado, Alamosa.

Henry Ray is director, Learning and Teaching Resources, Centennial Joint Schools, Johnsville, Bucks County, Pennsylvania.

Audiovisual Instruction—January 1965
Richard W. Smith is editor, McGraw-Hill, Text-Film Division, New York, and A. W. Vander Meer is dean, College of Education, Pennsylvania State University, University Park.

Robert D. Smith is director, Program Development, WETA/Channel 26, Washington, D. C.

Cassandra Stockburger is director, National Committee on the Education of Migrant Children, New York, New York.

Hildegard Thompson is chief, Branch of Education, Bureau of Indian Affairs, United States Department of the Interior, Washington, D.C.

John R. Winnie, who served as project director ETV, Peace Corps, Bogota, Columbia, is now back with the Division of Television, Radio, Film, State University of Iowa, Iowa City.

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Audiovisual Instruction—January 1965

81
Stephen Corey to Deliver Keynote Address

Stephen M. Corey, noted psychologist, former DAVI president, and professor of education and associate in the Institute of Educational Technology, Teachers College, Columbia University, will head the list of Convention speakers for Milwaukee. The keynote, scheduled for 7 P.M., April 26, will be held in Bruce Hall of the Milwaukee Auditorium.

Dr. Corey's rich and varied professional experience makes him an ideal choice for keynote speaker. As an educational psychologist he has served on the faculties of the University of Illinois, DePauw University, University of Nebraska, and as assistant dean of the Graduate School of Education, University of Wisconsin.

From 1940 to 1948 he was on the faculty of the University of Chicago as superintendent of the laboratory schools, dean of the Social Science Division, and director of the Center for the Study of Audiovisual Instructional Materials.

A three-year A.I.D. contract through Columbia University took Dr. Corey to New Delhi, India, as a technical consultant to the Ministry of Education. He has written several textbooks for use in that country.

His experience in the field of audiovisual education includes four years as an educational advisor to Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., 14 years as a member of the board of Teaching Film Custodians, and one memorable year as president of DAVI, NEA. Dr. Corey also has been a summer staff member with the National Training Laboratory.

Of the many articles and books that Dr. Corey has written for educators, his most recent contribution is both appropriate and timely in view of his Convention role. The preparation of Helping Other People Change, 1963, is precisely the kind of research needed for the Milwaukee Convention keynote, "The Media Specialist and Educational Change."

DAVI Features Its Own

Joining forces to make a presentation on "The Media Specialist—Object of Change" at the second general session will be Carlton W. H. Erickson and Donald P. Ely. It was noted in the program committee report (AVI, November 1964, p. 654) that the media specialist may fall into two categories when faced with educational change. This duality has prompted the team presentation.

Carlton W. H. Erickson, who received his doctorate from Boston University, has been professor of education and director of the Audiovisual Center of the University of Connecticut since 1947. His teaching background includes experience in several Eastern Colleges and eleven years in high school classrooms.

An active DAVI member since 1935, Dr. Erickson has served the Department as a member of the planning committee that inaugurated the national DAVI journal, as a board member, and on many working committees. As a member of the Board of Directors of the Connecticut Audiovisual Education Association since 1947, he has planned and conducted numerous state-wide audiovisual conferences which have contributed to the association's record as one of the most active DAVI affiliates in the country.

Dr. Erickson is well known to all DAVI members as the author of the first comprehensive textbook in the field of AV administration, Administering Audio-Visual Services (Macmillan Co., 1959). A second book, Fundamentals of Teaching with Audiovisual Technology,
at Milwaukee Convention

for Second General Session

is now available.

Teamed with Dr. Erickson is DAVI President-Elect Donald P. Ely, who will become president of the Department at the close of the Convention. A short history of outstanding service to the audiovisual field has led to Dr. Ely's present position as director of the Center for Instructional Communications, Syracuse University.

Top leadership activity in the audiovisual field during the past ten years has marked Dr. Ely's career. As a participant in the first Lake Okoboji Leadership Conference, he was recognized for potentialities which have now been fulfilled. Dr. Ely has served as chairman and a member of numerous DAVI committees and has been active in the NEA Association for Higher Education. He is a member of the Committee on Audiovisual and Broadcast Education of the Division of Christian Education, National Council of Churches. In addition to these committee activities, Dr. Ely, in 1963, served as a Fulbright lecturer in audiovisual communications, University of Chile.

Outstanding among Dr. Ely's contributions to literature in the audiovisual field is his work as editor of *The Changing Role of the Audiovisual Process in Education: A Definition and Glossary of Related Terms*.

Dr. Ely has asked the Planning Committee if Convention speakers have immunity from carry-over to posts they may later hold. It sounds as if he is planning on delving into controversial issues during the second general session, which should prove to be very interesting.

Vergis to Address the Third General Session

An Easterner who went West, John P. Vergis will speak on "The Media Specialist—Agent of Change" at the third general session. Dr. Vergis' undergraduate degree was earned at New York University and his doctorate at the University of Southern California, Los Angeles.

For the past ten years, Dr. Vergis has been on the staff of Arizona State University, where he presently serves as professor of education and coordinator of audiovisual education.

His teaching career has included positions at the University of Southern California, Whittier College, and Michigan State University. Dr. Vergis worked for 14 years in public elementary and secondary schools in New York State. He states that he has taught everything from kindergarten to driving classes—including six years of service in an all-grade country school.

Dr. Vergis is currently a member of the DAVI Board of Directors. He also has served on the DAVI executive committee, on the nonperiodical advisory committee, and has participated in the work of the graphics interest group. He is an active participant in the Arizona Association of Audiovisual Education and the Arizona PTA.

Evidently Dr. Vergis' audiovisual interests were founded in his photography background that included the Army Pictorial Service ("in North Africa and France during the argument in the '40's"), Warner Brothers Studios, and even in nightclubs. He has had many photographs, cartoons, and articles printed in both educational and popular magazines and holds several photography awards.

The qualities that make John Vergis a noted educator, skilled cartoonist, and masterful humorist indicate that he will be both an informative and entertaining speaker at the third general session.
Labels, or the names we give to people and things, have raised questions throughout history. The question of labels led Shakespeare to write, “What’s in a name? A rose by any other name would smell as sweet.” Three hundred years later Gertrude Stein was similarly prompted to write to the same question, and expressed herself in the often quoted line, “A rose is a rose is a rose.”

In the year 1965 we are still concerned with labels—contrasting labels: conservatives and radicals; the inner city and the suburbs; the college bound and the dropout; the culturally disadvantaged and the culturally privileged; the affluent society and the pockets of poverty.

In our affluent society we can produce more food, clothing, and luxuries than we can consume. We have more high school and college graduates than the world has ever known. Yet we are plagued with hunger, disease, ignorance, war, and poverty. In the United States, it is said, one fifth of the population lives in poverty. It is most fitting that we should begin a war on poverty and that schools and communities should awaken to the plight of the culturally disadvantaged.

There is one thing about this concentrated attack which worries me, however; the possible effect it might have on that segment of the population being labeled “poverty stricken” or “culturally deprived”—particularly on the young children.

It has been reported that some families, classified as poverty stricken, have resented the classification, proudly feeling that they are “the best off” they have ever been and much better off than their neighbors. I have been told of a conversation of a group of girls from impoverished homes. One girl said to the consternation of the others, “We have a gas stove in our house.” What will happen to this girl and to her friends if they should read that “most of the families in this area are heating and cooking with pot-bellied coal stoves and a few with old second-hand gas ranges” and sense they should have registered shame rather than pride.

As a child, I can remember being perfectly satisfied with my cotton stockings and my homemade gingham dress until I went to high school and heard that only the poor dressed that way. I was in college (scholarship and self-support) before I realized how desperately poor my family was and that the reason I couldn’t spell was because I mispronounced so many words, a carry-over from my cultural environment. If I had been labeled “culturally deprived” and had been conscious of this label, would I have had the initiative and perseverance necessary to move forward, or would I have been humiliated and defeated?

Don’t get me wrong. I am very much concerned about the poor and the culturally deprived. I think we should, through government, the schools, the churches, and all the other social agencies, do all we are doing and more. I know, too, that the hungry know they are hungry whether you tell them or not, and that I am biased by past personal experience.

I suppose we must have slogans and battle cries to focus public attention on the poverty, lack of opportunity, and deprivation that exists in our affluent society and to gain support for action programs. But I think we should consider the manner in which we treat the problem, for the words we use not only focus our attention but also affect our actions and reactions. I think it would make a difference if the Biblical parable were called “The Deprived Merchant” rather than “The Good Samaritan.” Would you rather attend a school for the culturally disadvantaged or one to equalize educational opportunities?

I walked behind a little Negro boy and overheard him singing cheerfully to himself, “I’m dreaming of a black Christmas.” I wouldn’t want to do anything to crush his spirit. Let him believe a little longer that he can remake his world. Perhaps he can, given a little educational opportunity.