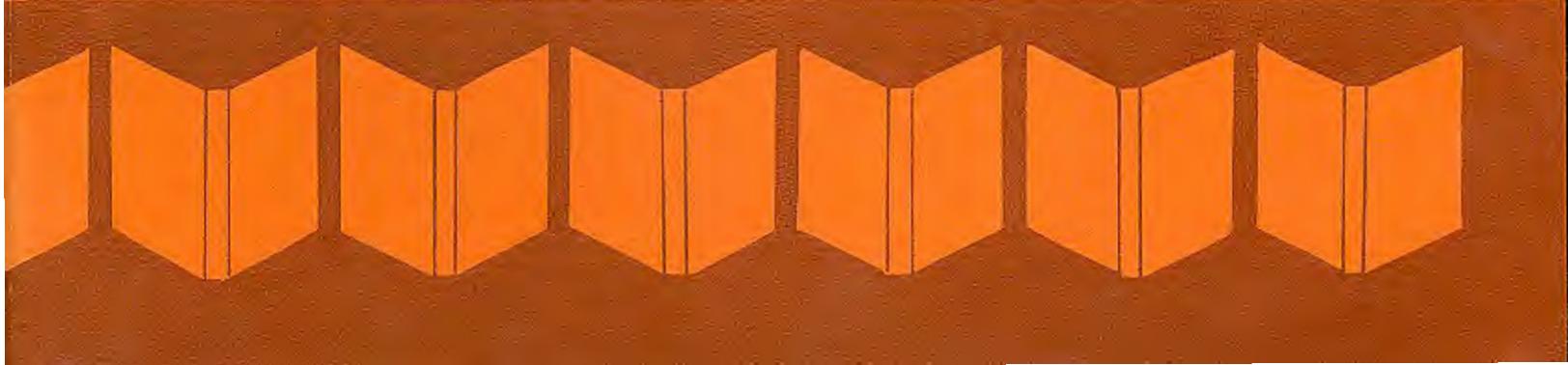# educational
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Review

Curriculum for the middle school

The middle school is an organizational unit designated to serve children as they grow into adolescents. Individuals undergoing this change are called transescents. This period of time in the human growth cycle abounds with growth and change. This text offers a viable curriculum paradigm to meet the needs of transescents while they complete the metamorphosis from elementary pupils to senior high students.

The authors initially develop the stage for their proposal by citing the teachers role in middle schools. Emphasis is given to the changing nature of teaching, the special importance of middle school teaching, and tools teachers can use for self improvement. The schools for the transitional years are then examined. A comparison is drawn from the junior high movement to the middle school phenomenon. The final preparatory dimension examined is curriculum foundations. An overview of the learner, his learning processes, social and cultural environments and organized knowledge are given.

The recommended curriculum organization for middle schools consists of three components: core, continuous progress, and variable exploration. The plan attempts to coordinate an assortment of factors such as time, personnel, materials, and content in order to achieve the objectives of education for a particular school.

The core component suggests that much, however not all, of the content and skills traditionally taught in the academic areas of English, social studies and science classes may be included in core. Additionally subjects such as art and music which have unfortunately in the past been so frequently relegated to auxiliary roles are included. The academic and fine arts skills and content become tools to be utilized in the process of inquiry.

A core curriculum may be structured or unstructured. The particular classification depends upon the degree of planning set in advance by the faculty. In a structured core program, the faculty determines in advance which problem areas or centers of experience the transescents will explore. The text suggests a variety of problem areas for exploration. The unstructured core model permits the teachers and transescents to choose and examine any problem they consider worthwhile. Theoretically trivial topics are minimized when transescents perceive teachers as sincere and realize they will have to make a serious study of their chosen topics.

The question of whether core classes are optimally taught by one teacher or by a team is given careful review. Emphasis is given to the goal of ensuring that all transescents have access to an adult who knows and cares for them personally, and who is responsible for facilitating them to deal with the problems of growing up. No unique instructional techniques are offered as part of the core component. Core teachers do however, tend to make greater use of teacher-student planning, small group work, value clarification, and other methods that tend to stress personal interaction. Finally, the authors recommend frequent use of interaction analysis processes as feedback tools to strengthen teacher-student interaction.

The continuous progress component of the curriculum offers a nongraded organization for learning experiences which consist of skills and concepts that have a genuine sequential order. It is believed that the continuous progress element attends to the individual differences and variable rates of growth in transescents while still being responsive to the demands for specialization of knowledge. Science, reading, mathematics and foreign language are classified as suggested subjects for the continuous progress nongraded design.

Instruction in any subject area would not be an exclusively continuous progress. Skills for such subjects as reading and math would be taught primarily in the nongraded programs, yet applied and practiced throughout the school curriculum.

The actual structure of the continuous progress component is broken down into three approaches. The first is the single sequence, variable-rate approach. In this method all students progress through the same prescribed sequence of learning experiences, but some take more time than others. The second approach is a multiple-sequence, variable rate method. The branching form of programmed instruction serves as an example of this style. The variable-sequence, variable-rate approach is offered as a third method. Niether the sequence nor the rate is fixed in advance by the teacher. Independent study is an example of this method.

The third major component is variable exploration. This area includes worthwhile learnings that are neither primarily problem focused nor highly sequentially ordered. These topics such as health, physical education, homemaking, industrial arts, and social-recreational skills embrace learning experiences that vary widely in structure, student grouping, and time allotment. This component places primary emphasis on exploration and the discovery of the transescents interests and capabilities. A variety of methods and techniques are used in this component such as electives, minicourses, clubs, activities, and independent study opportunities.

The authors include vital support information for their curriculum proposal. An overview of evaluating and reporting student progress is given. They recommend diversity in student evaluation and the reporting procedures used.

Implementing the proposed middle school curriculum is given consideration. Curriculum leadership is reviewed. The theory that teachers inherently desire to improve their effectiveness is extended and thus change efforts should become largely efforts to assist, support, and encourage teachers in their own professional growth and development. Administrators are viewed as establishing the climate needed for curriculum developed, while students input should be secured.

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educational considerations

EDPRESS

Educators must strive to see that basic changes in education do not make our students regress but rather progress.

Forward to the basics

by Carl S. Johnson

Attainments in 1957 by a competitive foreign power in the atomic and space sciences—with the Russian launching of Sputnik I—produced a threat to our national survival. This launching of Sputnik I on Oct. 4, 1957, ignited the smoldering embers of a changing curriculum (especially in mathematics and science) into a raging fire of academic revolution that swept across the entire country.

The immediate reaction of our people was a more serious national look at our schools. This was partly realistic and yet it was also done partly as a search for a scapegoat by a country's people who had a guilty conscience. Educators began to work harder to revise their instructional offerings in an attempt to meet society's changing needs and demands. A major thrust of curriculum reform in mathematics and other areas has been to improve course offerings by bringing the content up to date, stressing recognition and solution of problems rather than learning pat answers, and emphasizing principles rather than facts.[1]

In the last few years some of the findings of the National Assessment of Educational Progress Study[2] has been viewed by many as a signal that we should "return to the basics." This "return to the basics" is being heard more and more in meetings of the PTA, school boards and even among educators. But the real question is not a "return to the basics," but rather, "forward to the basics." What we considered to be some of the "basics" in mathematics a few years ago are no longer considered "basic" today. Some new concepts of the "basics" are considered here.

First "Basic"—The inexpensive pocket calculator will revolutionize the teaching of mathematics as much or more than any of the new teaching methods or materials produced in the "new math" era of the late 50s and early 60s. One of the "basics" in the past has been to develop a student's competency in working with fractions. While working with fractions is still important, the main idea in the past was to have a student perform the various operations mentally and then write his results on paper. Now, after a few simple examples illustrating what one is to do mentally in the calculation, most of the operations will be performed on the pocket calculator. The emphasis is changing from actually doing or performing the operations with pencil and paper, to determining what mathematical operations one should perform on the calculator and when to do so.

Second "Basic"—One of the tenets of the "new math" was that teachers should eliminate unnecessary drill. Many teachers went one step further and eliminated all drill completely. This is one of the main reasons for the poor achievement test scores of students in mathematics in the past ten years, especially in the area of computational skills. Drill or repetition is still very important in the teaching of mathematics today. However, drill only becomes important in mathematics when students are taught to think and analyze what they are doing and why they are performing certain tasks, as they go through the drills.

Third "Basic"—Another new "basic" in mathematics involves learning to work with our new system of measurement—the metric system. For reasons of uniformity in measurement with a large percentage of the earth's population, and to facilitate trade, industrial growth, etc., the United States is now in the process of changing to the metric system. Teachers of our youth must have special help not only to extend this knowledge in this area of mathematics, but also to learn the most logical order of teaching the metric system.

Fourth "Basic"—The developmental learning theories set forth by the Swiss psychologist, Jean Piaget, can be considered another "basic" to which we should move forward. Piaget holds to the belief that only when a child acquires a certain needed ability can he learn a particular concept.[3] He has sought to note a child's societal experiences and his maturational level, so that he can ascertain the order in which he acquires certain intellectual abilities. Educators must consider and put into everyday use the knowledge of psychologists such as Piaget, in order to provide optimum learning experiences for their students.

Thus, it is no longer "back to the basics," but rather, **"forward** to the basics." Although the new "basics" in mathematics and in education such as those which have been mentioned above are important, surely there will be other new "basics" in the future as we continue to live in a world of growing technology. The "basics" of mathematics will continue to change as our world changes. It behooves us as educators to strive to see that these basic changes do not make our students regress in their learning; but rather, that they progress **forward** to utilize their learning potential to its fullest capacity.

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[1] Carl S. Johnson, "An Analysis of the Required Mathematical Preparation for Secondary School Mathematics Teachers in the United States," Unpublished Doctor's Dissertation, Kansas State University, 1973, p. 8.

[2] Jeanine Bays (ed.), "Poor Math Skills Hurt Consumer," **National Assessment of Educational Progress Newsletter**, 8, No. 4 (August, 1975), pp. 1, 3.

[3] Jon L. Higgins, **Mathematics Teaching and Learning**, Worthington, Ohio, Charles A. Jones Publisher, 1973, p. 60.

It is as unrealistic to expect student journalists to function as public relations professionals as it is to expect Future Teachers of America members to assume professional classroom teaching duties.

Student publications versus the public relations concept

by Robert P. Knight

Those of us who have dealt with student publications in secondary schools know that among some school administrators, some faculty, some parents and even some students there exists some unclear connection between publications and "public relations." That vague connection can be fraught with misperceptions about public relations (See Item I). Some inappropriate assumptions are made about the purpose of publications and/or about the level of journalistic sophistication and the skills of student journalists and their advisers.

It can be argued correctly that student publications have public relations **implications**, whether staffs know it or not. (Bad grammar in the yearbook, for example, can create a bad image.) Student publications, however, do not and should not have public relations **goals**, in the view of public relations professionals (See Item II). **The student** newspaper and the **student** yearbook should be student-oriented publications with news and materials of interest and significance to students. They are not, nor should they be, "house organs" or "cheerleaders" for the school, even though they may be read by publics other than students; those publics must be considered secondary and sometimes must be reminded—gently or with good humor—that the publications are not intended for them, any more than are **Seventeen** or **Boys' Life.**

Public relations, in the professional sense, is defined as follows in the nation's most widely used public relations textbook (Cutlip and Center, 1978):

pects, making adjustments, and making sure the public knows their expectations are being met."

Public relations is the **planned effort** to **influence opinion** through good character and responsible performance based upon mutually satisfactory **two-way communication.**

Public Relations is a legitimate professional field, whose best practitioners have an accreditation system, through the Public Relations Society of America, to help guarantee professional competence and ethics. One of its branches, the school public relations field, has its own organization and its own code of high standards and ethics (See Item III).

Item II

What position do professionals in school communications take about school publications?

Until recently, in works on school public relations, only fleeting references were made to school newspapers and yearbooks. Grinnell (1937, pp. 168) noted that a "good school newspaper is as effective a means as can be found to interpret the school to the pupils" when it is done by students themselves, whereas he said it was "doubtful" if the yearbook or annual of that time "had much value as an interpreter of the school" (p. 184). Twenty years later, Kindred echoed those sentiments. (Yearbooks have improved greatly since then.)

Moehlman and van Zwoll (1957) placed their comments about student publications into a perspective which other communications professionals over the years seem to have shared:

It should be noted . . . that the primary function of these publications is instructional rather than interpretive.

Valuable though the **incidental interpretive value** publications is, there is no excuse for their abuse and exploitation as propaganda instruments for adult institutional interpretation or for the personal advancement of superintendent, principal or teacher.

In 1977, the man responsible for a strong NSPRA stand in support of students' First Amendment press rights and for a school board policy to back up those rights (Staver, 1976) had this to say:

I do not feel student publications should serve the public relations end of the school . . . I treat student journalists as I would journalists on the Chicago Tribune, the Bloomington Herald-Telephone, the Indianapolis Star, or the Louisville Courier-Journal: I provide accurate, timely news, as quickly, as possible; I expect honest, fair reporting from them.

If student journalists make mistakes—and they will because they are still in the learning process—he offers them help, from a teaching standpoint.

It is as unrealistic to expect student journalists to function as public relations professionals as it is to expect Future Teachers of America members to assume professional classroom teaching duties. It also is unreal-

istic to expect that journalism teachers, as a group, would have the journalistic sophistication or know-how to help mount professional-type public relations campaigns for their schools. The sad fact is that journalism teachers are decidedly short on professional journalism training and that relatively few states have strong journalism teacher certification requirements that are really enforced (Windhauser and Click, 1971). This is not to say there are no good journalism **teachers.** There are thousands, a small group of whom have thoroughly adequate formal training or experience in journalism and a large, amazing group of whom have become excellent journalism teachers "the hard way," i.e. by trial and error, by attending "crash courses," and by personal study.

The point is that student journalists are not publicists but **journalists,** concerned with learning good journalism in a democratic context. Advisers are **teachers,** striving to teach good journalistic principles. They know well how to deal with news and with disseminating information and material of interest to their primary audience. They are not, however, schooled in public relations techniques, nor should they be.

Perhaps, then, it is not surprising that at a recent Kansas State University high school journalism conference, those of us in an adviser session entitled "Using Student Publications as a Public Relations Tool" began by rejecting the title. On the panel were a public relations professor, a school superintendent, a state high school press association director (also a long-time newswriting teacher in college), and the director of the state high school activities association (a former principal).

The panel was not saying, however, that student publications never **affect** a school's public image or its "public relations." In fact, student publications can have quite strong impact—either positively or negatively.

In trying to document the assumption that principals view "public relations" and scholastic journalism as synonymous, the evidence in the literature is not altogether convincing because of the lack of depth and because of the imprecision of the research. Sometimes circumstances of the times may cloud the issue, as Jackie Raymond Engel feels it did in her extensive survey of Kansas principals (Engel, 1977).

In 1931 Roop asked principals and teachers in Missouri, Kansas and Oklahoma to rank eight suggested purposes for the journalism class. "Give valuable publicity to the school" ranked third with principals and fourth with teachers; "production of a creditable school paper" ranked second and first, respectively. In 1959 Kleine sought the same rankings from Missouri principals: "Give valuable publicity to the school" had slipped to fifth place among principals in the same size schools as in the 1931 study but "production of a creditable school paper" remained in second place. (First, in the principals' opinion, in both 1931 and 1959, was "Vitalize the teaching of English composition".)

Horine (1966) found that only one adviser among 277 principals/advisers/editors in a Los Angeles County survey said that to "support and reflect the proper image of the school" is **not** a function of a student newspaper. He concluded, "This put the remaining 276 in the position of saying a student newspaper should be a public relations instrument of the school."

The man who has researched more aspects of scholastic journalism than anyone else, Dr. Laurence R. Campbell, director of Quill and Scroll Studies, surveyed

612 high school principals in Maine, Ohio, Virginia, Missouri, Texas and California in 1968 (**The High School Newspaper as a Medium of Good Will**). Based on how they rated coverage of curricular, co-curricular, and community-related news areas, Campbell concluded, "School newspapers are a significant factor in internal public relations and an important force in external public relations." In 1971 he analyzed the 1968 data again and viewed them against a 1970 study in which advisers reported principals' criticisms of the high school press, in what was then a time of student unrest. His conclusion: "The newspaper is an effective public relations medium in some high schools ... But it is also ineffective in some schools." However, Campbell never really defined what he meant by "effective public relations," except that he implied it meant doing an excellent job of covering various news areas. He said principals' "greatest failure in improving the school newspaper as an effective public relations medium" came in their failure to hire newspaper advisers who have studied journalism.

Item III

Has school district public relations, in a formal sense, come of age? One study in the state of Texas in 1964 showed that it was, although desired by both superintendents and news media, still in its infancy (Knight, 1964). A review of the research literature a few years later indicated the same was rather true for state-level educational PR (Chaffee and Ward, 1968) and that the field lacked theoretical underpinnings.

Dr. John Wherry, executive director of the 1100-member National School Public Relations Association, said (1977) an awareness of the need for professional-level public relations has emerged in the last 10 years and schools are increasingly seeking help in combatting the current problem of low public confidence in education.

"Public perceptions are out of phase with reality. This is a public relations job in a true sense," he said, explaining the job is not one of "publicity, 'flackery' ... It's being aware of what the public expects, making adjustments (in the educational program), and then making sure the public knows that expectations are being met."

More than 500 full-time or part-time school public relations people belong to NSPRA and Wherry estimated that there are as many as 1,500 formal school public relations positions in the U.S.

The job calls for social responsibility, Wherry said. NSPRA adopted a code of educational PR standards in 1968 and standards for educational public relations professionals in 1969 (NSPRA, 1969).

The National School Boards Association recommends establishment of such a position, with a well-trained professional (Bagin, 1975).

In 1973, in the wake of several years of underground papers in Kansas high schools, when Jackie Raymond Engel asked Kansas principals the purpose or objective of their school newspaper, 6.3 percent viewed it as an "educational facility" to create a greater awareness of the media and/or to lead to a possible career in journalism;

24.9 percent viewed it as a "voice box" for the school community; and 68.8 percent viewed it as a "public relations tool" (Raymond, 1973).

In the last decade, at least three questions or issues have put student publications into the limelight, creating situations which concerned administrators and caused many of them to re-think their attitudes toward high school newspapers and yearbooks. Quite apart from the fact that these matters involved publications, each of them clearly had public relations implications for schools, in the same way that any major change in the school has PR implications of a broad nature, e.g. when Title IX, guaranteeing quality for the sexes in sports, was introduced, it wrought major changes in high schools throughout the land.

The "Underground Papers" Question

In the 1950s, high school publications were encouraged, by the national judging services, to stay close to home, that is, to focus on classroom and extracurricular activities. Within a decade, Glessing (1970) was able to write: " ... youthful unrest has nurtured a network of some 3,000 regularly and irregularly published underground high school papers, many of which are simple one-page mimeographed sheets."

Journalism Chairman Richard G. Gray of Indiana University explained, in Glessing's introduction:

> ... youth have turned to the Underground Press because they found treatment by the professional and regular scholastic press inadequate. The underground movement has responded by editorializing on civil rights, social welfare, colonialism, flower children, international peace movements and the inhumanity of war.

In a Missouri study, Secora (1969) documented the fact that principals, advisers and even student editors were out of touch with what the "common" students wanted in their school papers. (The latter were far more interested in editorials on Vietnam—in whose conflict they might soon have to serve—than were the so-called "top" students, who were more interested in close-to-home editorials.)

At the high school level, underground papers found audiences because they dealt with the serious non-school issues of the times and because they also dealt with school issues which were not permitted in regular school newspapers, such as direct criticism of school or its policies. In retrospect, the high school topics and their handling in underground papers seem generally mild, especially compared to the topics and language of their college or adult counterparts.

Principals **did** notice underground papers, despite some persons' advice to ignore them. It has been said that principals "ran scared" (The National Association of Secondary School Principals even considered starting a countrywide high school press service to counteract the work of the then flourishing but, short-lived, underground high school press services). One positive effect of the underground press movement was that principals had to become more open, in dealing with the regular high school press, or face the threat of an underground paper, which for them usually represented a "bad scene" in terms of public relations.

Not all principals quickly saw this alternative of a freer scholastic press as their main defense against the unwelcome underground papers. One California high

school editor said, "There wouldn't be any underground papers if we were allowed to print the truth" (Glessing, p. 134). A Kansas adviser (Lowther, 1971) said, "Perhaps the main reason students go underground to publish a newspaper is to avoid the often unreasonable, rigid censoring the above ground high school publication must submit to." Rigid principals, who responded by trying to keep underground publications out of their schools, ironically helped pave the way for a freer student press because they forced students to take their cases to court.

The "Student Press Rights" Question

In a decade of ferment (racial upheavals in the cities, Vietnam, student unrest, drug problems and the like), students began to want to print materials about the troubles they were witnessing. The black armbands Supreme Court decision of 1969 (Tinker v. Des Moines Independent Community School District) and subsequent lower court decisions—many involving distribution rights of underground papers—affirmed that students do not leave their rights at "the schoolhouse door" (Trager, 1974; Student Press Law Center, 1976). The theory that developed is this: Because public schools are seen as an arm of the state, which is constitutionally prohibited from abridging press freedom, student journalists, therefore, are said to have unique First Amendment rights. Principals found that once-prevalent systems of censorship of student-written materials could no longer be tolerated (The Commission of Inquiry Into High School Journalism—in the most extensive study to date of the field charged in **Captive Voices**, 1974, that despite any legal advances, a pervasive atmosphere of censorship continued to exist in the nation's high schools).

An interesting extension of the legal points won by student journalists in the early 1970s is Fager's "forum theory" (1976). He argues that student First Amendment rights are defined by the nature of the publication and not by who pays the bills. If, in practice, a school newspaper has been a forum of ideas (as with letters to the editor, through coverage of a wide range of ideas, through freedom from censorship), then it is defined as a forum and, as a matter of equity, must so remain. On the other hand, if a school district were to establish a new publication, as in a new school, and to make it clear from the start that it was to be a "house organ" for the school, without editorial freedom for its writers, then that would define the nature of the publication as one in which authorities consciously, and from the beginning, made the choice of non-freedom.

The "Sensitive Issues" Question

From a public relations point of view, it soon became apparent that the unique First Amendment privileges accorded to student journalists in public schools provided little protection against community uproar in dealing with whatever the community might define as a "sensitive issue" (whether it be a criticism of deer hunting in a community which depended on that sport, a story of discipline problems in a particular class or the usual drug/sex stories that so often have caused problems in the hands of inexperienced journalists). Advisers learned, and their staffs with them, that applying the highest standards of journalistic excellence—procedure certainly not mandated by the First Amendment—would permit them to deal with any topic without stirring up unwanted trouble; that re-

porting, on sensitive issues, must be flawless and well balanced; and that writing must be precise, polling scientifically accurate and packaging well done (layout, headlines, etc., in good order) (Fotheringham and McGee, 1976). They also learned that establishing editorial boards can help support a strong journalism program.

Further, they learned not only that adviser, staff and administrator must be ready (i.e. journalistically equipped) for handling sensitive issues before doing so, but also that the administrator and the community must be prepared to expect such reporting (One Missouri yearbook, which, in trying to be honest in reporting, turned brutally frank about the poor record of its football team, soon found that the student body was not ready for such candor and that they began rejecting what on the surface was a well-done book).

The three questions discussed—underground papers, student press rights and sensitive issues—have, in the view of some, had bad public relations implications. At the same time, they have advanced the cause of an interesting, journalistically excellent high school press, which, when it deserves those adjectives, has some quite positive public relations implications for the school. Such a press helps make the point that schools are concerned with open inquiry in a democratic society.

What lies ahead in the late 1970s for scholastic publications?

With a changing mood among youth, the publications will be more concerned, than they have been in 20 years, with school-related issues (Brasler, 1977). They're more interested already in school news, social events, features on individuals. Brasler, one of the nation's most sought-after scholastic newspaper analysts, describes the trend as being like "a time warp to the 1950s."

One of the country's leading yearbook judges has noted that yearbooks, too, are looking inward to the school and becoming concerned again with human beings (Savedge, 1977), in what one adviser of a prize-winning book has called a "very humane, gentle" approach (Patterson, 1977).

What advice, then, can be given to a school interested in getting what it considers the best "public relations value" from its publications in the perhaps more calm times ahead?

1. Encourage students to do the best journalistic job possible on whatever they undertake. This includes being aware of their audience; seeking a balance of material (not all positive, not all negative); covering the full community, including minorities; and striving for journalistic excellence.

2. Most important, hire the best journalism teacher available.

3. Create a healthy rapport between publications staffs and administration, letting each know the others' goals or agenda for the year. Sometimes an editorial board structure serves this purpose well (so long as it is clearly understood it will not become a harassment or censorship instrument).

4. Recognize student publications for what they are, no more, or less. Be tolerant of learner's mistakes. Encourage improvement.

5. Enjoy the publications and the vibrancy of which they are capable: What better public relations than to have outstanding, interesting publications.

Note: Items available in microfiche form may be obtained from ERIC Microfiche Collection, Bethesda, MD. Their ERIC microfiche numbers are given in parentheses.

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We need opportunities to bridge the gap between the practical experience of the teacher in the classroom and the linguist's work on the mysteries of language learning.

The relationship between linguistics and education

by Robert E. Shafer

Over the years a few linguists have interested themselves in the teaching of reading and writing. Charles C. Fries of the University of Michigan, is perhaps the most well known of these since he wrote books both on the teaching of English and on linguistics and reading.[1][2] Fries was an exception as were Albert Markwardt, Carl LeFevre and Donald Lloyd. Most of the time linguists are at work attempting to be better linguists. They work on various research problems in linguistics, which is the science of the study of language. Most of these research problems have little to do with the immediate day to day concerns of classroom teachers. Some linguists are doing work which directly affects the teaching of reading and writing.

Through the history of linguistics there have been many "false starts" with respect to the application of linguistic insights to the problems of teaching and learning. In most cases, these "false starts" were the fault of educational publishers who attempted to take material from certain aspects of linguistic studies and present it in texts for students. One of the most notorious examples of this is the series of books authored by the late Paul Roberts, a noted linguist who was especially good at translating linguistic studies into texts. Roberts was asked by a major publisher in the 1960s to write a series of textbooks incorporating insights from transformational grammar and other linguistic studies, into texts for language and writing. A handsome series was produced which was adopted in a number of states. Many teachers are familiar with the difficulty of teaching from this series of books which attempted to teach children various kinds of technical terminology. Some of this terminology came from what was then the new transformational grammar, which was a new development in the early 60s, stemming from the work of Noam Chomsky and developed in his book **Syntactic Structures.**[3] Chomsky was concerned with language learning, but he did not advocate teaching "tree diagrams" or concepts related to "surface structure," "deep structure" and other elements of transformational-generative grammar to children. Such research as we have on the teaching of grammar continues to show that the teaching of grammatical terminology to children does not enhance their fluency in reading and writing.[4] Studying grammar directly is not the way that most adult fluent readers and writers learn to read and write even though many of them think that it is.[5]

Noam Chomsky in his various books, has been concerned with the goals of linguistic science. He proposes that the goal of linguistic science should be to construct a theory of the structure of human language, which will determine its universal and essential properties—in this regard, it is an essential part of science ultimately leading to an understanding of the workings of the human mind.[6] Since the workings of the human mind are a very essential matter to teachers and educators, we need to become informed about Chomsky's proposals as to how language learning takes place.

One of the goals of science is to be able to distinguish the way things are, from the way they appear to be. Such is the case with the science of language and such is the case with the science of learning. Theory is essential to science and lies behind all behavior, including that of the teacher in the classroom. All teaching practices exemplify a theory, whether or not teachers are aware that this is the case. Theories about learning a language are important to education since we do not know how it is that human beings learn a language—only that they do.

What Chomsky gave us, was a very intriguing theory of how language is acquired. Chomsky proposed that in the process of learning language, speakers have acquired a system of rules for relating sound meaning. They use these rules to make their own internal representations of the thoughts of other speakers, from the speech sounds through which such thoughts are expressed.[7] He further proposed that in order to understand another speaker's speech, the speaker must penetrate the phonetic disguise of another's thought, and that penetration is achieved by a system of rules that determines the thought from the phonetic shape. A knowledge of such a system, in the form of a **theory** that formulates these rules, will itself uncover the underlying logical form of the sentence.[8] Chomsky became concerned with the principle that our grammar is a theory about the system of linguistic rules that speakers have internalized in the process of acquiring a language. Post-Chomsky linguists accepted this principle and switched the focus of linguistic investigations away from the observable events of language to the structure of the speaker's internalized linguistic rules. Much of the linguistic world has become concerned with researching the internal reality of language and correspondingly with the principles of child language learning.

One focus of these new linguistic investigations has

been on the speaker's competence or knowledge which extends far beyond the corpus of sentences which any speaker has previously encountered. The concern is how the speaker is able to produce and understand new sentences and moreover ones that bear no direct physical similarity or analogy to those predicted by his past experience. We all know that children quickly acquire the ability to identify, understand and produce sentences that they have never heard before at an early age. Such ability on the part of children makes it necessary to assume that internalized knowledge which affords this predictive ability takes the form of a system of linguistic rules. Linguists have called these rules a grammar.

As linguists have attempted to describe the processes of rule learning in child language they have evoked renewed interest in the processes of learning to read and write. Ken and Yetta Goodman and Frank Smith have developed a psycholinguistic model of the reading process. The psycholinguistic model of reading and writing contrasts with the skills model—the prevailing model on which the publishers base their reading and writing series. Frank Smith has called the skills model the "outside-in model" because it comes from outside of the child and is meant to be internalized by the child in just the way that it is presented in publisher's textbooks. In reading, the skills model supposedly proceeds from sound to letter, from letter to letter combination, from letter combinations to words, from words to sentence and ultimately to meaning. The psycholinguistic model is essentially an "inside-out" model since it proposes that meaning comes first and that the reader is making a "personal construction of the world" as he or she continues to search for meaning and reduce uncertainty. In such a model, the reader or writer acts very much like a linguist, developing hypotheses about the language and proceeding in the same way that the child proceeds as he/she make hypotheses about adult language, digesting language data from adults and proceeding to build on his/her personally constructed child language.

As Courtney Cazden has written in her book, **Child Language and Education,** the child first builds cognitive structure through experience by interaction with the world of language "outside."[9] He/she acquires distinctive features and ultimately the rules for adult grammar. In the psycholinguistic model of reading, the reader proceeds in much the same way and through experience, acquires the distinctive features of print, using cueing systems based on the redundancies in the writing system, the grammar of the language, and his/her semantic system. Both continuously enriching experiences with language and with literature are crucial for building this cognitive structure or prior knowledge, which is so important in developing reading and writing fluency.

The psycholinguistic model of reading has much to say to the classroom teacher. In actuality, many classroom teachers have validated the psycholinguistic model through the years although they have not for the most part been aware of the existence of such a model, but have simply gone on the basis of what seems to work in the classroom for them. The problem is that since we are very much in the pervasive grip of the skills model and of the various reading schemes which support it, it is only the exceptional classroom teacher these days who will try other means. Accountability programs have put a premium on following the teachers' handbook for the reading series or teaching to the test.

The Bullock Report, **Language For Life,** recommends **language experience** as a method of teaching reading and writing and is well known in both the United States and the United Kingdom.[10] Teachers using this method may copy a story which the child composes and use the story as a reading or writing lesson. In later schooling, the child will construct his/her own language experience story and use it as both a reading and writing activity. Such a method is entirely consistent with psycholinguistic theory and research and in fact is is psycholinguistic theory which demonstrates **why** the language experience method has had good results. A companion or related method is the "key word method" developed by Sylvia Ashton Warner explained in her books **Spinster** and **Teacher.** Jeanette Veatch, of Arizona State University, became interested in Warner's work and has used it in her own research in Chandler, Arizona and in American Samoa. Her book, **Key Word Vocabulary,** published by the Charles Merrill Company explains both the method and describes her research.[11] In general, teachers who use this method find words which have particular specialized private and personal meanings to children, and extend these meanings into a larger units of language which they can then treat somewhat as in the language experience method. In the 1950s and '60s Jeanette Veatch and others developed a method of teaching reading called "individualized reading," in her books, **Individualizing Your Reading Program** and **Teaching Reading In The Elementary School.** Veatch proposed that it was possible to teach reading entirely through the use of children's books. She demonstrated clearly that in reading systems or schemes using basal readers, books were not necessary. Reserach was done in the 1950s on individualizing reading. This research demonstrated that when teachers use the method, children learned to read and develop their reading abilities successfully and also develop a permanent interest in reading.[12]

It is tragic that most teachers who currently come to my classes tell me that they have never heard of language experience or the key word vocabulary method nor have they heard of individually prescribed instruction, which is something quite different altogether.

In the near future perhaps we can look forward to more positive examples of linguistic applications to the teaching of reading and writing than we have had in the past. The new American Association of Applied Linguistics should bring forth good results in these areas. Teachers will need to look beyond the surface at the deeper implications of the work of linguists which will mean that they will need to be much more informed about what linguistic science is all about. We need more opportunities to bridge the gap between the practical experience of the teacher in the classroom and the linguist's work on the mysteries of language learning. As teachers, we must be patient, knowing that research and development come very slowly in these areas where we as yet know so little. We must be continuously suspicious of publishers' materials which offer us "the method of teaching reading and/or writing," and look very carefully at reports such as the Bullock Committee's **Language For Life** which is one of the few sustained investigations of teaching and writing done recently in an English speaking country. It is no accident that **Language for Life** recommends the language experience method and relies heavily on language experience as a basis for improvement in language arts and reading. Teachers need to find out why.

Footnotes

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[3]Chomsky, Noam, **Syntactic Structures.**

[4]Sherwin, J. Stephen, **Four Problems in Teaching English: A Critique of Research,** pp. 109-167.

[5]**Ibid.**

[6]Chomsky, Noam, **Language and Mind,** Harcoat Brace and World, Inc., N.Y., p. 12.

[7]**Ibid.** p.23

[8]**Ibid.** p. 24

[9]Cazden, Courtney, **Child Language and Education,** Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York, 1971, p. 112

[10]Department of Education and Science, **Language For Life,** Her Majesty's Stationery Office, London, 1974, p. 37.

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[12]Veatch, Jeanette, **Teaching Reading In The Elementary School,** (2nd ed.) N.Y. John Wiley and Sons, pub. 1978, Passim.

Further research must indicate whether advances in cognitive style prophesy a major change in ability measurement and the prediction of academic success.

Studies on cognitive style: What implications for teaching and advising?

by Diann M. Dees

In order to embrace a new theory it is often necessary to negate an old supposition. Fortunately, educators need not deny the assumption that student aptitude scores predict college performance; they need only expand the concept of "ability" to include a wider realm of skills. According to Ripple's (1977) discussion of what is needed in the student learning process, the beneficial affective characteristics involved in a maturing, well-adjusted personality (i.e. good self-esteem, motivation and socialization) are aspects of skill and should be "taught" and developed. These personality factors plus the various intellectual abilities can be summed up in the term cognitive style. When educators accord student cognitives styles the proper place of importance relative to ability, then the philosophy of educating the whole student can better be realized.

Several professors at Kansas State University have made a beginning toward this goal. Each has theorized that the student's ability to think logically, or his preferences regarding learning style or classroom environment, may be the most important factor determining success in any particular course. This hypotheses necessitates new criteria for judging whether an entering freshman would be likely to succeed at university work. In this time of retrenchment in higher education, when one wants to assure students of the best education during their years in college, one must consider what these other tests and measurements might be, and what implications they have for college teaching and advising. It would be wise for administrators and faculty at other institutions to follow the example of Duane Acker, President of Kansas State University, who continually expresses an interest in affective student differences, as in his 1978 commencement address:

> of women and men who have made lasting contributions to humanity, some were extremely bright, some had great courage and some possessed creative genius. But one characteristic was apparent in every life—uncommon persistence.

Researchers must continue to study the motivational forces which influence students to persist until they succeed. And new teaching and guidance processes suggested by a decade of study on cognitive styles must be implemented.

A major effort to study the influence of cognitive style on student success had been completed by Payne (1977). His aim has been to measure the pattern of intellectual development in architectural design students and make use of the resulting data to improve teaching and learning. In order to link this data about their intellectual development, which he terms "learning style," to better classroom teaching, Payne explains the concept to the students in a short unit of testing and classroom discussion. He introduces his faculty to the concept by measuring their learning styles, as well, and by presenting teaching suggestions which logically result from differences in faculty and student's abilities to think abstractly.

Payne's basis for study of these cognitive styles is the model of learning established by Jean Piaget (1958), the Swiss epistemologist and psychologist: all university students and faculty are progressing, or have progressed, through Piaget's four stages of intellectual development. Payne measures these developmental differences on instruments used by Suehr and Rose (undated) and Kolb, Rubin, and McIntyre (1971). These tests require the individual to rank four columns of words about learning—often with emotional connotations—according to how they represent his own intellectual functioning. A scoring key designates those words in each column which are descriptive of each of the four styles. Payne hypothesizes that the four resulting scores indicate the individual's preference for learning in one of Piaget's stages of development. This hypothesis assumes that all stages are at least verbal and at the level of concrete operations, with the first two learning styles only symbolic of Piaget's first two stages.

Several problems are inherent in Payne's hypothesis and in these learning style instruments. Some of the questions which come to mind are:

> Is the hypothesized relationshp between Piaget's model and the four Learning Styles supportable?
>
> Is there any construct validity in the Learning Style Assessment?
>
> What is the reliability of the instruments?
>
> Is it justifiable to plot these KSU freshmen scores on a graph based on norms established with Harvard and MIT graduate students in Business?

Research indicates that college freshmen, in particular, have difficulty with the vocabulary of this test, and that four distinct cognitive styles are not as clearly delineated as Payne's research might lead one to think. Also, faculty members differ from discipline to discipline in their classroom emphasis on one of the four intellectual processed of the Kolb, et al. (1971) test.

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But is the study of cognitive style and the perfection of measurement instruments the main issue in Payne's work? I think not. Nor is it the purpose of this paper to try to argue these technical and theoretical issues. Payne has stated that his purpose is not to interpret the learning styles of individual students, but to make clear both the differences in student cognitive structure from year to year, and the teaching implications which result. He uses Piaget's four stages to demonstrate that all students must progress through stages of reasoning skill. One of the main difficulties with Payne's hypothesis and instruments might be solved by considering his Learning Style concept a misnomer for ability to reason concretely or abstractly, without the affective bias. The redesigning of testing materials so that they better reflect Piaget's concepts might eliminate most of the confounding effect of affective vocabulary, and differentiate student attitude toward teaching for a separate study.

In his review of related research, Payne (1977) indicates that there is a correlation between teaching methods and student positive and negative attitudes (e.g. intellectual curiosity and anxiety). Although his paper discusses teaching in the architecture design studio, its importance to other disciplines is clear: college students who have not reached the level of intellectual development necessary for the course content and instructor's teaching style will not learn as much. In addition, those students may not even be curious, but instead develop only negative feelings.

This problem is compounded by the fact that students and faculty alike are generally unaware of the fact that many individuals have not developed the necessary intellectual abilities before coming to college. Many freshmen and sophomores probably do not recognize that they must and can systematically improve their skill in abstract conceptualizing and must accept a large part of the responsibility for this teaching and learning. And faculty often do not perceive the conflict which may arise when they prefer to learn and teach in one style (e.g. study and discussion of theory or philosophical concepts) and the students are prepared only to learn empirically, through concrete experiences.

As Payne (1977) outlines in detail, there is also a problem of role-identification for many instructors. They may be expected on the one hand to teach the content of a syllabus to a group of students, while developing necessary skills and emphasizing the body of knowledge as they see fit, and, on the other, to encourage individual development in each student, leading him from his entrance level to the level of proficiency needed by the end of the course. These two tasks are often not easy to reconcile. Those instructors who have spent years of graduate study with a dissertation director and a limited number of professors, working at the highest level of abstract thought, may find it difficult to teach basic concepts to large classes of undergraduates, let alone understand the problems of freshmen.

In fact, McKinnon and Renner (1971), recognizing the circularity of the problem, cite college teacher-preparation as the cause of poor student preparation in the public schools. They write that many entering freshmen do not possess necessary intellectual abilities because their public school teachers did not receive the necessary type of inquiry-oriented instruction in college so that they, in turn, can bring about in their pupils the highest level of intellectual functioning, what Piaget calls "formal operations," or the ability to consider abstractly alternative solutions to a problem.

Payne's (1977) solution to this teaching and learning predicament is twofold: to begin by recognizing that the difficulty exists, and "to raise the awareness of both students and teachers to the implications of the relationship between learning styles and teaching methods" (p. 14). When the instructor and all of the students become aware of their learning preferences and abilities, there is a common ground from which to progress in teaching and learning.

Payne's conclusions parallel those of R. Stimson Wilcox, who has studied the learning behavior of biology students. By applying Piagetian theory to his curriculum design, Wilcox discovered that many students are not at the formal operations stage of reasoning needed to learn the course content. He became aware of this problem because of the students' demonstrated inability to think through the tasks he set for them in the laboratory. He published his findings with his associates Lawson, Carlson, Sullivan, and Wollman (1975), in the format of a faculty workshop, **Biology Teaching and the Development of Reasoning.** This workshop was "the first concerted attempt to apply Piagetian ideas specifically to biology instruction." The teaching objectives and methods used by Wilcox and his associates are an excellent response to the need for providing college students with necessary experiences for developing logical thought processes. However, the effect of student personality differences on academic performance must also be scientifically addressed. It has become clear after years of study that cognition does not wholly determine why some students are unsuccessful in class, although their aptitude tests indicate the same ability as others who do succeed.

In an effort to investigate the effect of personality factors on learning, Hanna, Newhause, Hudson and Kalb (1976) in their Educational Psychology classes conducted a study to determine whether students matched to instructors according to preferences for certain instructors' traits would have better final attitudes and course performance than those students who were poorly matched according to the same criteria. The authors concluded that because of the small number of instructors and students in their study, they were neither able to establish that the matching experiment was successful nor to generalize their findings. Although the authors termed these results "resoundingly unencouraging," their brief article may have contributed more by its skillfully documented lack of success than an auspicious piece of research that tells us little. For, significantly, they indicate in their final paragraph another aspect of learning which should be studied: "It is possible that some positive affective changes might be fostered (or hindered) by matching" (p. 370). It is unclear whether the authors would interpret "instructors' traits" in the sense of the affective learning style responses as defined by Mann (1971), and Grasha (1972), who maintain that students can be classified into styles by their subjective emotional attitudes toward learning and teaching; or according to those of Kolb, Rubin and McIntyre (1971), who, along with Suehr and Rose (undated), advocate identifying predominant learning styles by measuring a mixture of attitude and intellectual ability, and recommend balancing these abilities in four dimensions. The latter believe that once a balance of skill is reached in the four "styles" of their test, reasoning can proceed no matter what the level

of concreteness or abstractness in the problem to be solved.

According to this viewpoint, the instructor should seek to foster intellectual development either by modifying his own teaching style to suit student needs or by helping them improve their learning skills to meet the demands of his teaching methods. However, the matching of students to instructors causes some educators to fear that the result will be a conforming adaptation without creative growth. Depending upon the criteria selected for matching, it may create a static classroom situation in which the affective learning goals might be seriously hindered, as Hanna, et al. noted.

A belief in the importance of these affective learning goals led to an attempt by Jerome Dees to modify Payne's learning styles discussion in an English Composition I course. He sought to determine the learning styles of his typically diverse class and adapt his teaching so that more students would successfully complete the departmentally prescribed syllabus. He hoped that the learning styles discussion would lead students to understand better their strengths and weaknesses so that they would have an improved attitude toward themselves and this required course. The instructor's rejection of the concept of student and instructor matching was in part based on the philosophy of McKeachie (1978) who believes that such assigning is "possibly undesirable" because students would lose a variety of learning experiences, and that such decisions are generally based on data that are too unreliable. McKeachie further believes that teachers can be trained to teach effectively those students with different learning styles and interest levels, and that it should be a reciprocal learning experience (p. 204). Unfortunately, while in basic agreement with this philosophy that the instructor can modify his methods to meet the needs of various students, Dees found that following the departmental syllabus did not easily permit the needed individualization. Test results revealed many cognitive styles and skill levels among his students, a situation which suggested the need for a tutorial approach to teaching the course. However, the traditional teaching model of the didactic instructor and the passive student is implicit in many composition courses: the instructor demonstrates how to write and the students duplicate the method whether their cognitive style is verbally oriented, or not.

The problems involved in individualizing the teaching of a course structured like Composition I illustrate some of the many unfavorable teaching conditions which limit the instructor's ability to increase student achievement. These factors doomed the pilot study to limited success. Nevertheless, the research was useful in that it both suggested ways that cognitive style knowledge can be made of greater use to students and instructors, and tested whether a full-scale experiment would require the use of new testing materials. The Dees study also sought to test one of the main objectives which Payne (1977) described in his conclusion, that is, the value of "making conscious and explicit attitudes and assumptions that are normally implicit and often unclear and confusing" (p. 14). Although no definite conclusions can be drawn from the class discussion with the Comp I students, it seems likely that these attitudes and assumptions not specifically dealt with in the Hanna et al. (1976) experiment may be important factors in course success. Furthermore, the positive affective changes that can result from cognitive

style discussion, and resulting self-perception, might be looked upon as the "silent curriculum" described by Hosford (1976), who stated that there is seldom the same time given to its planning and evaluation as to that of the basic curriculum concerns. The goal of the silent curriculum is to foster a desire for learning, the development of a healthy self-concept and a respect for others.

Further research must indicate whether advances in cognitive style knowledge prophesy a major change in ability measurement and the prediction of academic success. The fact that instruction about pupil learning styles is being used to increase the adjustment of elementary and secondary school children, also, demonstrates that the importance of a favorable and realistic self-concept may be a counseling and teaching dimension too long neglected as an issue in academic measurement. It is hoped that future studies involving cognitive style and achievement will corroborate this belief, and point to the need for a new emphasis on the interaction of curricula, materials and teaching styles for the furtherance of student success.

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An article which reveals the verbi/vocal responses of students who participated in a recent video review doctoral study.

The games people play; the names people say—part of today's educational scenario

by Jane Dunlap, Isobel Pfeiffer
and Frederick Schultz

From September, 1977, till December, 1978, approximately 200 students of The University of Akron were involved in a doctoral study which investigated learning styles. Twenty-eight students were part of a preliminary Pilot Study; 129 other students ultimately provided data for the study by taking pretests, treatments and posttests. Research focused on a comparison of review techniques in Business English classes with registration primarily of two-year technical students. Traditional re-reading of assigned printed material was contrasted with students' attention to televised re-runs of their previous classroom structional periods. Results show that review by watching videotaped re-runs was "equal to or better than reading and re-reading" assigned printed material.

Several statistical consequences of the study may capture the attention of alert educators on the lookout for effective new modes of classroom instruction. The ages of students who learn well from videotaped review appear to be inconsequential. Sex, however, does make a difference. That is, women's scores were higher! But basic learning ability as evidenced by ACT scores is not an influential element in video review effect. The time of the year, the presence or absence of color TV for replay purposes—all were nonsignificant factors when the data was processed and analyzed.

Then what is the most conspicuous response of students who participated in the protracted study? Answer: **enthusiasm.** Or "affirmative effective response," as educators would be wont to describe it. The result is not surprising, considering experimental studies conducted earlier which indicated that students "enjoy learning when in the presence of media they understand" (Mager, 1975). And by myriad surveys, television is "a familiar tool of instruction to more than 15 million students" (**Today's Education,** 1978)

Documentation of their approval of the experimental process was gained by the administering of a four-question posttest at the close of the study. Students who completed all phases provided answers to the questions; most of them also took advantage of the opportunity to fill in a blank reserved for Comments About the Experiment. Some samples of their anonymously provided observations about video review, authentic and uncorrected, are as follows:

"It made English a game. I'm surprized I really learned."

"It was alright. At least better than reading."

"What I think is that it's a nice change from the everyday type of studying."

"I thought I probably learned more than if I would of used the paper because I used more senses in picking up the information."

"I think we have more 'participatience' in watching ourselves on the television."

"What I say is the audial-vidial result for memory purposes is fantastic!"

Not all statements were glowingly affirmative, but results showed a majority of **yes** answers to the following questions:

1) In reviewing material . . . did you find the (video) means of review to be helpful? (95% said **yes**)

2) Did you find the method of studying to be pleasant? (85% said **yes**)

3) Did you derive enjoyment from being televised? (57% said **yes**)

4) Do you enjoy your English classes? (63% said **yes**)

Making deductions about student reaction to the review technique, one notices that the highest percentage of approval was related to the actual review process. Can this deduction be extended to mean that students put valuable learning techniques ahead of ego trips which watching themselves might provide? Can it also be concluded that the participants in the study appear to be grateful that they could learn faster by turning to their old friend, "the tube"?

The video process which "made English a game" was in two sub-processes—one, with the TV camera's focus primarily on the instructor (called Teleteaching) and the other, with the TV camera's focus primarily on the students (called Telelearning). It appeared, after analysis of the study, that no matter which way the cameras were aimed, the Tele-additives provided an acceptable, useful form of enlightenment for Business English students. It should be pointed out here that most of the participants, with their strong technical orientation, were somewhat "language limited." They were enroute to careers in data processing,

food handling, middle management in transportation and industry or to supervision roles in a myriad of office systems. Very few showed signs of being either readers or writers, by preference. If there was a surprising (and pleasing) result, it was that they appeared to accept cognitive material presented on the screen with the same willingness that they'd have agreed to watch "The Dating Game" or "The Gong Show."

What impact does the study have on today's education, or, for that matter, on today's educator? First, it should increase the respect which administrators and teachers show to the "in" thing for kids. In other words, since American young people already have their ears and eyes tuned to television, don't fight it. Take advantage of it. And if they are attracted to watching themselves and their friends—either "live" or on the TV screen—move something worthwhile into the picture. Almost all teachers would have a substantial amount of material which they would immediately classify as "worthwhile."

Second, when a student is honest enough to write that "there is more participatience in watching ourselves on the screen," an alert instructor would get the double meaning of "participatience." The misspelling may have been a deeply significant Freudian slip. Can't we deduce that there might **not** be a gratifying feeling in students when they are force-fed too many classroom performances which star only the teacher? In essence, what the student comment substantiates is the lesson taught in the Erickson & Curl textbook which describes three "important factors of learning" (1973) as being: 1) repetition, 2) egocentricity gratification and 3) participation.

Third, and last, a perceptive observer should not overlook the statement submitted by the student who implied "audial-vidial" impact was a strongly affirmative force on memory. His/her opinions seem to concur with Gagne's observations that "high recallability of learning could best be achieved by orderly manipulation of repetition" (1977), and with Allen's equally relevant comment:

> The feedback dimensions (of television and videotape) are particularly helpful to students in helping them find a suitable style and language level ... They are activated to discover their own pacing and appropriate vocabulary. (Allen & Ryan, 1969, pp. 29, 63)

The study which dealt with the investigation of learning styles—particularly those which dealt with two methods of video replay—was conducted in 1978. By almost any standard of measurement, the study could be described as an honest reflection of today's life and learning. Additional validation of the underlying authenticity of the experiment could be gained from the words of Ralph Tyler, who said:

> Limitations in learning ... are not limitations in the students' intelligence, but are limitations in the inventiveness of those who devise learning experiences which stimulate and challenge. (**Change**, 1978)

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> "A Comparative Study of Cognitive and Affective Changes in Business English Students in Associate Degree Programs Using Printed or Videotaped Review Materials."

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How can we give due weight to the nonmeasurable aspects of the higher educational experience and due credit to those individuals who foster that experience?

Accountability in higher education

by Mary L. Keaton
and Alvin E. Keaton

Demands for accountability in higher education have produced a large number of books and articles on the subject and a large number of long-range planning committees on the campuses. With the demands have also come a number of statements of perspectives on accountability. The following paper is an attempt to accomplish three things. First, we sketch several perspectives which we believe serve jointly to exhaust the opinion field of accountability. Second, we focus upon what we believe to be the two central problems attending accountability in higher education: (a) criteria for faculty evaluation and (b) total systems on institutional accountability. Third, it is our opinion that a resolution of the problem of criteria will almost immediately lead to a solution to the problem of total system accountability.

It might be added parenthetically that much, and perhaps, even most, of the problem of accountability in higher education stems from a confusion of empirical with analytical considerations. For instance, when one raises the objection to student evaluation on the grounds that a charismatic teacher might mislead the students, the objection and its rebuttal are founded on largely analytical considerations. If education is defined as the passing on of tradition then the objection is well founded. If education is defined as a force for change, then the objection is not well founded.

Definitions of accountability usually attempt to answer the question, "Who is responsible to whom for what?" (Dennis, 1975; Dressel, 1976; **Outputs,** 1970). The answers to this question are legion, and the perspectives differ with the writer's profession. Some say accountability means evaluation of faculty output. Others say all aspects of the institution must be evaluated. In any event, teacher accountability can best be looked at as one aspect of a general demand by taxpayers, the federal government, state legislators, students and industry that institutions of higher education be held accountable for resources used and programs offered—for the output of the institution. Let us look first at what the literature has to offer and then consider some thoughts about that literature.

Paul Dressel (1976) suggests that evaluation of faculty is a necessary ingredient of accountability, but that accountability encompasses a wider perspective. "Evaluation has been concerned solely with impact or out-

come (effectiveness); accountability adds efficiency—the relation between outcomes and resource utilization" (p. 73).

In **Outputs of Higher Education,** as in Dressel, one encounters the same basic ingredients which are considered necessary for any accountability program. The ingredients are (1) determination of institutional goals and objectives, (2) implementation of one of several alternative programs which have been evaluated for cost effectiveness and (3) evaluation of programs. The big questions become "who sets the goals and objectives?" "Who evaluates?" "Who is evaluated?" and "Who evaluates whom?" If we could answer these questions, probably we would have answered the question of "How can accountability programs be implemented within an institution?"

The focus for evaluation inevitably narrows to the faculty. Let us repeat that for many writers on accountability, faculty evaluation and accountability were synonymous. The faculty are understandably nervous, if not hostile. Accountability means change, and the change may be beyond their control.

Dressel (1976) points out, too, that "those who evaluate may ultimately direct and control" (p. 332). In most of the articles reviewed, the administration assumed the role of evaluator. This assumption is indeed threatening to faculties. The administration has much greater access to the state agencies and legislative committees who ultimately decide the budgets of the institutions of higher education. And within individual institutions, administrators determine how resources will be allocated, although faculty members may have input about how the resources will be distributed. Furthermore, it is the administration of the school that the state legislature ultimately holds responsible.

Accountability can be thought of as an attempt to build in change through program review and development as a part of university planning. Accountability is a means, too, of responding to demands for change. With the appearance on the campus of the so-called new student, demands for relevancy and for more student services to aid minorities to enter and compete in the academic world have been heard more frequently. The response has been to provide new programs to meet those needs. Often, at first, the new programs were supported by federal funds, but eventually institutions are expected to pick up the bill. Accountability programs can facilitate the process of developing and funding new programs and thus of implementing change.

Many of the new programs have brought to the campus a new class of professionals who desire a voice in university governance. While at one time the faculties of institutions of higher education might have argued that they alone should decide issues on the campus, they are alone no more. Counselors and others on the campus, students especially, surely have a right to be included in the planning of institutional programs.

In some states, decisions about academic programs are now being made by state officials in the state education agencies. (Lindemann, 1974; Trow, in **Daedalus,** 1975). These people may have little or no knowledge on which to base specific educational program decisions.

A major problem in instituting accountability programs has centered around the question of what should be the goals and objectives of higher education. Should higher education concern itself only with

measurable objectives? Often listed among the benefits of higher education are a number of abstract concepts, generally labeled as social goals, which cannot be measured and which may not emerge until after the individual leaves the institution. For example, a college education is supposed to instill a greater tolerance of diversity and acceptance of social change. Institutions of higher education are also considered to be factories wherein new knowledge is produced and then applied for the public good.

There are no adequate measures for evaluating the quality and quantity of these outputs, especially for individual institutions and for individual faculty members. Two leading experts in systems analysis, C. West Churchman and Alain C. Enthoven, suggest that not all objectives can be measured and that it would be dangerous to disregard such goals as developing the inquiring mind (Churchman, **Outputs**, 1970) simply because the goals cannot be measured. However, Enthoven states that "a cost analysis may identify some bad choices even without being able to indicate the right ones. This point is clearly related to another equally important one about program analysis; that is, analysis should be conceived as the servant of judgment, not as a substitute for it" (**Outputs**, p. 54).

Enthoven suggest that in higher education, efforts should be made to obtain the best measures that are available in order to facilitate decisions:

> I would not waste much time trying to develop an index of total knowledge, discovered or transmitted, in the hope that I could then use it to evaluate alternative programs ... Rather, I would begin by trying to understand very well where we are now, and on what basis allocation decisions are now being made, and what might be done to improve that basis (p. 53).

While we have stated that faculties are threatened by accountability, we should also note that more is involved here than is encapsulated in any description of faculty members' subjective responses or hypotheses about causes of these subjective responses. **What is ultimately at issue is the question of criteria.** Faculty members of leading institutions are supposed to set the standard for excellence—and if this premise is accepted, by what standard are they to be evaluated? For example, a piece of sociological research is evaluated in terms of practices and canons of sociological research espoused by Merton, Parsons, Homans, Davis, Coleman, etc. **What these men practice is the standard,** and what they call sociology is sociology. Thus it might collectively be charged that a demand for evaluation is ultimately a demand for conformity—conformity to the practice of the leaders in the field.

On the part of faculties of less prestigious schools, the foregoing objection can, in large part, be met by posing the following argument:

At the introductory level, it is quite proper to expect conformity to the standards of the discipline. The teacher is expected to introduce his or her students to a certain body of concepts and practices which are called psychology, sociology, literary criticism, etc. In doing this, the teacher is simply instructing students in the use of certain words with no necessary commitment to the adequacy of the system of concepts embodied in the words.

At some higher level, admittedly vaguely defined, the teacher will be permitted to take issue with the ways of talking espoused by his colleagues. But two important considerations attend the above practice: (1) When the teacher takes issue with some established way of talking or doing, it is quite clear to his students, his peers, and himself, just what it is he is taking issue with. (2) The teacher will have demonstrated at least the minimal competence needed to be a carrier of culture, realizing that to be a carrier of culture is not to be a creator of culture. Thus we can verify that the public is getting something for its money.

However desirable faculty outputs are finally defined, and whatever criteria is finally employed to measure those outputs, it is the writers' opinion that educational institutions will eventually reach some more or less "fixed" solution. When a fixed solution is arrived at within any given university, it will then be possible to evaluate the total institution.

For when the twin questions of "What should the Faculty do?" and "What measure will count as determining that they have done what they are supposed to do?" are answered—then standard business optimization techniques can be employed. Ultimately, the market, i.e., student demand, will determine where adjustments will be made. Whether a new counselor for student services is hired or whether a new philosophy instructor is employed will be determined on the basis of "marginal utility," based upon some measure of quantity versus quality tradeoffs within the respective departments. In principle, the formula could and probably will be applied across the board to include maintenance men, public relations personnel, and indeed, the entire faculty and staff of the university.

Although "fixed solutions" (in two senses) are anticipated, the cautions of Churchman and Enthoven should not be ignored. We must not disregard such desirable nonmeasurable objectives as "developing the inquiring mind." But can these soft objectives be protected and maintained in the anticipated "university as a business" sketched above.

And thus the central problem for researchers in the area of accountability in higher education emerges: "How can we give due weight to the nonmeasurable aspects of the higher educational experience and due credit to those individuals who foster that experience?"

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Students help is needed in both planning and conducting workshops if the program is to provide meaningful training for the participants who will be working with students.

Education may be in deep trouble in drug education workshops without students

by Kent A. Laudeman

One of the most serious problems facing the youth of today and their administrators, counselors and teachers is the use and abuse of drugs and its impact upon present and future generations.

The Vietnam conflict was perhaps an epoch in itself in heightening our concern with youth and drug abuse. Eventually, the problem became so pronounced that by March of 1970, the President stated, "There is no priority higher in this administration than to see that children—and the public learn the facts about drugs in the right way for the right purpose, through education." (Faber, 1973, p. 11) Immediately, Congress, for the fiscal year 1970, appropriated nearly $16 million for drug education and training programs. During the fiscal years of 1975, 1976 and 1977 under the Amendments to the Drug Education Act, Congress authorized respective expenditures of $26, 30 and 34 million. If the additional funds

under other federal, state and local resources were added the expected expenditure for the current year could well exceed $100 million in drug and alcohol training programs and projects.

In practically every metropolitan community, the same spiralling series of events have been noted in the newspaper: the recent death or arrest of a young person addicted to drugs, the pleas of his/her parents, the newspaper stories depicting the life of a drug or alcohol abuser, the request for funds by a community drug abuse committee, the use of drugs by local high school, junior high school and elementary school students, and eventually the announcement of a school corporation's drug education workshop for their personnel. This does not include the additional incidents and experiences that could be added by numerous school officials, personnel of various community agencies, and law enforcement officers.

Student oriented programs

Initially it was stated that the problem involved both youth and personnel in educational institutions. Without question, the goal of schools and school personnel should be the deliberate education of youth. Educational institutions and community agencies must perceive learning as a resultant function of deliberate education. In achieving this goal, Carl Rogers, (1969) in his book **Freedom to Learn**, has described one kind of learning as experiential: where students discover something significant to them because of their personal involvement of feelings and thoughts. Robert Ebel, (1972) in an address to elementary school principals at a national conference, described the human side of learning, a concept that includes those things that make us truly human: human beliefs, attitudes, feelings, understandings and concerns. Program planning for drug abuse workshops and conferences concerning student learning cannot take place in an administrator or teacher vacuum.

Earl Keely once said, "We've got this marvelous school system with beautiful buildings and magnificent curriculum and these great teachers . . . marvelous administrators, and then, damn it all the parents sent us the wrong kids." (Combs, 1973, p. 39).

That which Earl Keely was saying about schools is a concern of many in regard to crisis oriented drug education workshops. A very fine program may be intended but in this case the "wrong kids" can be substituted with **NO KIDS.** Generally, when considering students in a complete series of workshop activities there must be student involvement in both planning and conducting of all workshop phases. Numerous drug education programs have failed because the content ignored the target audience, the student.

Drug education programs that failed

Generally speaking, most drug abuse workshops for teachers have been devoted to the presentation of a quagmire of different types of drug substances, their effects, statistics relating to drug use and abuse and legal issues concerning drug use. A number of fact and information oriented drug education programs have encouraged students to use drugs rather than prevent their use!

Robinson (1975) in reviewing three studies involving Penn State University students, high school students in Massachusetts, and high school students representing a

large metropolitan area indicated respectively: 1.) the more they know the more likely they are to try certain drugs, 2.) the more one knows the more pro-drug is their attitude, and 3.) most information comes not from school classes or drug programs but from friends and peers. In all three studies, drug education programs focused on drugs not students.

Hoffman (1971) analyzed attitude scale responses of students and discovered the more knowledge the student had the more favorable was his attitude toward drug use. Swisher, Crawford, Goldstein and Yura (1971) in a study of high school and college students indicated factual programs led to a desensitization of fears of drugs which could result in greater drug experimentation and use. Other writers (Goodstadt, 1975; Swisher and Harmon, 1970; Stuart, 1974; and Bard, 1975) have suggested that knowledge or information approaches may be counterproductive or may be related to increased drug use. The effects of most drug education programs have been so unclear that the National Commission on Marijuana and Drug Abuse eventually declared a moratorium until such time as the programs could be evaluated and become more realistic in orientation.

One approach to improve drug education programs would include the participation of students in planning and conducting drug abuse workshops or inservice programs prepared for and presented to personnel who implement a K-12 drug education program.

Student involvement

Students must be deeply involved in any proposed drug education workshop or conference. Several writers (Antonow, Eicke and Mathers, 1976; Fagerberg & Fagerberg, 1976) emphasized the importance of student involvement but failed to suggest how students might participate in planning and implementing a drug education workshop. Part of the current dilemma grows out of the problem of identifying students who will be open and straightforward regarding their perceptions of the proposed workshop or conference content. This has been an extension of the communication gap that exists between students and their teachers, counselors, administrators and parents. Dearden and Jekel (1971) have best described this gap in their statement, students ... "felt that teachers and school administrators were insensitive to students and regarded them as faces in the crowd instead of human beings, and they expressed fear of being themselves around parents and other adults, who condemned drug behavior but were unwilling to sit calmly and rationally and discuss the situation" (p. 120). Traditional approaches to identifying students have included representatives from the student council, from various clubs and organizations, from religious groups, from drug education classes and from nominations at large. The pitfalls apparent with the traditional approaches have resulted in identifying students who have values and attitudes similar to the school personnel being trained in the inservice programs or workshops. Students are identified who are not knowledgeable of the current drug scene and who do not have the perceptions of the target audience. Students who might make greater contributions include youth from peer influence programs, peer counselors and youth involved in rap room activities, youth from community hot line programs, youth leaders from community addiction agencies, young people from community youth agencies/centers and youth from com-

munity socio-medical-health agencies and organizations. If rehabilitated young people from the community drug program are selected, caution should be exercised relative to how they might be used in the program. Too much reliving of personal experiences as a drug addict permits listeners to infer that if he/she used all of those drugs at one time then they cannot be all that bad. Over the past three years, this writer has used students from a peer influence program when teaching a graduate course in alcohol and drug education. These students have been open, honest and sincere in sharing their perceptions concerning drug education programs and have helped the teachers, counselors and others in providing suggestions and feedback concerning proposed programs.

In those situations where student resources are not available, it might behove the counselors and administrators to think about developing a peer influence/counseling program in conjunction with initiating drug education workshops and training programs. A concise presentation on the organization, implementation and evaluation of peer counseling programs has been presented by Crosson-Johnson (1976). Other peer types of programs exist in Indiana, Michigan, California, Illinois, Missouri, Florida, Texas, New York and other states.

Once the students have been identified, they should be used in the selection of the workshop participants, thus implementing the training of a participant who has already established intial rapport with students. The participant could be a teacher, counselor, administrator, school nurse or yes, even a custodian. Someone whom the students can identify with and talk to concerning student interests. Last but not least, the planning committee should identify student representatives who will participate in the workshop or training sessions. The student representatives will become the "core student members" following the training/workshop sessions.

Drug workshop program

Traditionally, at least one-half or all of the workshop periods has been devoted to the presentation of facts. The participant does not need to know all the parameters of the drug problem, i.e., number of addicts, age and economic groupings, police statistics on usage and arrest, drug categories, pharmacology, brand names, etc., to understand why students are using drugs. Students have indicated the paramount problem is the teenager's self-perception and the question of why he/she is experimenting with and turning to the use and abuse of drugs? The school's product, the student, must be involved in answering this question in the development of workshop tapes, booklets and learning experiences for use by other students and teachers.

The workshop or training program for the participants should focus upon elements of the profile of a drug user and the development of life skills. The profile of a drug user includes the following elements: the drug user 1.) has a poor self-concept, 2.) has been unable to relate to others, 3.) has been unable to resist peer pressure, and 4.) has been unable to cope with feelings, stress, and everyday problems. The development of life skills should include activities in value clarification and skills in problem solving and decision making, skills in communication, skills in coping with stress and conflict, (peer pressure) and activities to develop self-concept. A final element should include identifying alternatives to drug use and abuse. Students have repeatedly indicated that

too often the traditional drug education programs and classes have emphasized the facts and information aspects under the cognitive component and have failed to pursue concepts and activities under the affective component, the component most concerned with growing up and daily living!

Student representatives who attend and participate in a drug education workshop can serve as "reality barometers" to insure that the workshop activities and outcomes will be effective when applied to the general student population. As a result of the training, student representatives can become core members on teams to work with other school personnel in presenting drug education concepts in classroom and other group settings. Student core members can become the catalysts for motivating students to become involved in peer group activities or activities oriented toward various components of the school's drug education program. Trained student core members might be used in peer counseling activities, drug crisis management and rumor control, information dissemination, parent and community involvement and information, service to fellow students and community projects, group counseling sessions and as change agents for school system. The outcomes from selecting and involving students in drug education sessions and workshops relative to the proposed components of such a workshop can be profound in its effect upon the atmosphere of the school.

Some suggestions

With the help of teachers and students in the writer's drug education course, a number of suggestions for drug abuse workshops and training sessions have been identified. These are as follows:

1. Drug education workshops or inservice programs for school personnel should be objective or goal oriented and on-going rather than crash or crisis-oriented.

2. Drug education workshops used to train school personnel must include students in planning and implementing the education/training sessions.

3. Drug education workshops should emphasize a confluent education, both cognitive and affective elements, and give particular attention to skills, strategies and techniques used in developing affective components.

4. Affective elements of a drug education workshop should include skills, strategies and techniques in value clarification, decision making, effective communication and development of self-concept in daily living.

5. Life skills for daily living as a part of the drug education workshop should include goal setting, conflict resolution, alternatives to drug use, peer group pressure and critical thinking concerning any substance that has the potential to harm one's body.

6. Drug education workshops should encourage an atmosphere which promotes free, open and honest discussion of problems pertaining to students and staff members.

7. Since the literature indicates students obtain most of their information concerning drug substances from peers, peer counseling/facilitator programs should be included as a topic in drug education workshops.

Conclusions

The primary goal in teaching is the deliberate education of youth. Drug education workshops and training sessions provide an ideal opportunity to involve students in solving a problem of concern to both them and older generations. The proposed approach would prepare students to solve their own problems through the joint efforts of all concerned. Can parents and educators neglect to consider the needs and involvement of those from whom the program is to profoundly effect? If the answer is yes, then one must conclude that education may be in deep trouble.

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A planned stimulation program for infants with developmental problems utilizing individual program plans has greater beneficial effects than does traditional periodic follow-up care alone.

Effect of an infant stimulation program on children

by Grace E. Holmes, Richard L. Simpson and Lee Ann Britain

Inclusion of handicapped children in preschool programs has become increasingly common during the past decade. It has long been assumed that the most promising results in development might be expected in children who could be identified and remediated at a very early age. This assumption gave impetus to the designing of strategies for earlier diagnosis and intervention in children with developmental disabilities. Supported by state and federal monies and encouraged by a sense of ethical responsibility, numerous infant and preschool programs for exceptional children have been established recently in this country.

Many of these intervention programs were founded in the absence of a background of any established curricula or structure. Of necessity most have been innovative as reports by Gray & Klaus (1970), Berel, Diller & Orgel (1971) and Bradthe, Kirkapatrick & Rosenblatt (1972) indicate. Cornish (1970) suggested that even unsuccessful programs have provided worthwhile feedback regarding the efficacy of specific procedures. However, very few studies have been done to prove the long-term value of early intervention. Those studies that are reported generally have offered little objective evidence for the benefits of early intervention programs. Therefore, appropriate areas of investigation are two-fold; namely, establishment of the effectiveness of such programs in general, and the evaluation of the validity of specific intervention procedures.

The purpose of the present study was to compare the developmental progress of preschool handicapped children who were attending an infant stimulation center with a similar group of children not attending such a program, but who were receiving regular follow-up care as outpatients in a growth and development unit of a major university medical center.

Methods
Subjects and therapeutic environments

Children from two different therapy environments were compared in a retrospective study with regard to their developmental progress. Twenty-two children were seen regularly in a local infant stimulation program, the Infant Development Center (IDC), and 33 were followed through the Growth and Development Unit (GDU) of the University of Kansas Medical Center, College of Health Sciences and Hospital.

The Infant Development Center opened in 1972 as an early intervention and enrichment program designed to serve Kansas residents with delayed development between the ages of birth and three years. The purpose of the IDC program is to provide emotional support and development education and stimulation for both the infant and his family immediately upon identification of the child's problem. Individualized goals are set for each child by both his family and the staff and the child is encouraged to acquire optimum skills in all areas of development through a multi-disciplinary approach. The staff has training and experience in the fields of speech pathology, social work, nursing, early childhood education, occupational therapy, physical therapy and pediatrics. The center maintains close communication with the child's primary physician and referrals for additional services are made as indicated. Mothers accompany their children to the center and are taught developmental stimulation techniques in the areas of cognitive development, self-help skill, language stimulation and fine and gross motor skills. Children and mothers are seen either individually or in small groups often on a weekly basis. Parent counseling services and home visits are a part of the program. When the child reaches the age of 3, he and his family are guided toward placement in another program in the community.

The GDU is the service arm of the University Affiliated Facility (UAF) at the University of Kansas Medical Center, College of Health Sciences and Hospital, Kansas City, Kansas, and is the patient advocate for developmentally disabled children. The unit stresses liaison between patient, medical center and the community in both the states of Kansas and Missouri. Patients of the GDU receive services as a part of the UAF training vehicle. Students from various disciplines participate along with professional staff in the initial evaluation and in all facets of the care of the multiply handicapped child. This care includes integration into the community via day care centers, special education in the public schools, long-term follow-up by social and health agencies and participation in programs of voluntary agencies. The patients are recalled at intervals of 3 to 12 months for pediatric reevaluation or for return to another discipline, and are tracked through a pending file. Patient follow-up is facilitated by the participation of a nurse clinician who makes home visits and recommends reevaluation in appropriate areas.

It is readily apparent that these two treatment environments for developmentally disabled children differ in emphasis. Whereas the IDC is a service-oriented program, the GDU orientation is primarily that of a training setting for students in various professions in addition to offering services.

Children chosen for the study were born between 1968 and 1974 and were followed in one of these two treatment environments between 1970 and 1974. Three diagnostic categories represented in this study included Down's syndrome, mental retardation and cerebal palsy. The non-Down's syndrome mentally retarded group represented children functioning at a retarded level for which reason their parents were seeking help. Children with any of these diagnoses were chosen from the two environments and were selectively matched according to age and clinical condition. Attempts were made to exclude children who had multiple major problems complicating the basic diagnosis.

There were five children from IDC and 14 from GDU diagnosed with Down's syndrome. The mentally retarded group had 12 children from each of the two environments, while five of the cerebral palsied children were from the IDC and 7 from the GDU.

Of the 55 children 52 were white, the others were either Black or of Spanish-American background. The majority of the children in both groups came from homes in which the father was either a skilled laborer or a white collar worker. The fathers of a minority of both groups were professional people or unskilled laborers.

Twenty-nine of the 33 GDU children had been referred to the unit by physicians, while referrals of 16 of the 22 IDC children were usually the result of public news media, other agencies or were self-referrals.

The mean chronological age at both pre and post-testing of each group and sub-group with standard deviations are shown in Table 1. There were no significant pre or post-test mean chronological age differences between the children from the two environments or among the three diagnostic groups.

Procedure

The Denver Developmental Screening Test (DDST) was the instrument used to measure developmental progress. It should be noted that while the DDST may not be ideal in assessment of handicapped children, it currently serves as one of the most satisfactory means of gross assessment of children's development.

Children from the IDC were tested by an experienced examiner (LAB) shortly after their admission to the program and this initial evaluation constituted the pretest. Because the Denver Developmental Screening Test had not been administered to each GDU child, the children were scored on the DDST according to exhaustive developmental histories recorded in the hospital records. The pre-test information of these children was from the time of initial contact with the patient and this scoring was done by the same examiner as above.

An analysis of the differences in developmental age at pretesting between the IDC and GDU subjects was conducted for the various factors in the DDST. The results obtained were as follows: gross motor development yielded a T value of 0.60 with 17 degrees of freedom, fine motor category had a T value of 1.00 with 15 degrees of freedom, personal-social category had a T value of 0.53 with 15 degrees of freedom and the factor of language yielded a T value of 0.18 with 16 degrees of freedom. In all cases the values were not significant (P .05). Thus the initial differences that did exist between the subjects in the two treatments were not found to be crucial by these tests.

Post-test scores were obtained at varying intervals, those of the older IDC children usually being at or close to their termination at the center or at two to three years of age. The post-test scores of the GDU children were obtained from the most recent comprehensive developmental history and physical examination available in the hospital record. Again, the DDST was administered to the IDC children by an experienced examiner (LAB), who also scored the DDST for the GDU children.

Table 1

Mean Chronological Age in Months of Children in Each Group and Subgroup at Time of Pre- and Post-Test Scoring

| Diagnosis | N | Pre-test | | Post-test | |
		Mean chronological age (months)	Standard Deviation	Mean chronological age (months)	Standard Deviation
Down's					
IDC	5	13.4	6.80	30.0	5.34
GDU	14	12.1	13.12	32.1	25.03
M.R.					
IDC	12	13.7	9.08	22.0	10.52
GDU	12	15.0	8.97	22.4	9.78
C.P.					
IDC	5	17.2	5.07	32.4	2.88
GDU	7	15.7	3.55	25.9	1.95
Total					
IDC	22	14.4	7.07	26.2	9.36
GDU	33	13.9	10.13	27.2	17.54
TOTAL	55	14.1	9.16	26.8	14.72

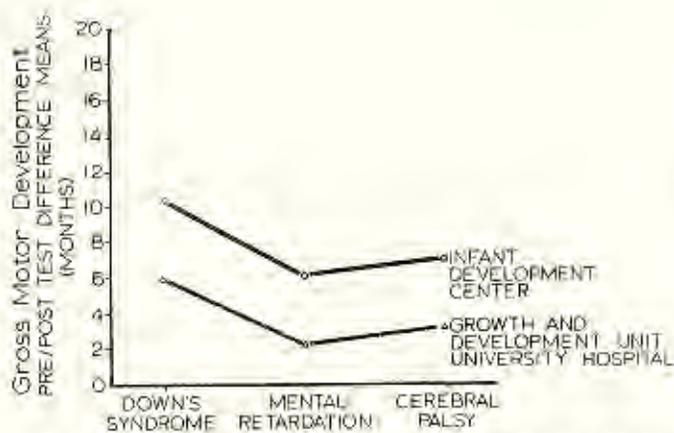**Figure 1. Mean gain in gross motor development measured by the Denver Developmental Screening Test.**
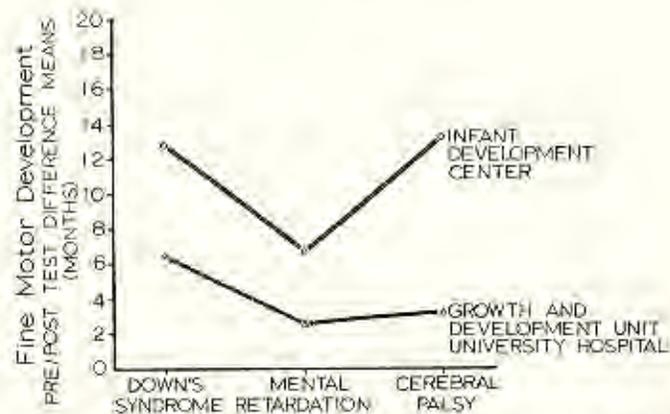

Figure 2. Mean gain in fine motor development measured by the Denver Developmental Screening Test.
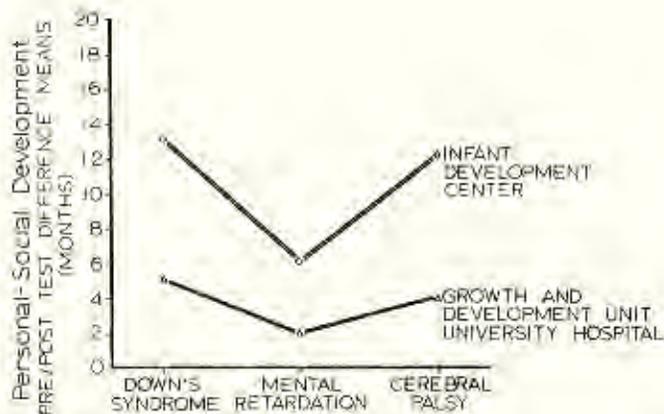

Figure 3. Mean gain in personal-social development measured by the Denver Developmental Screening Test.
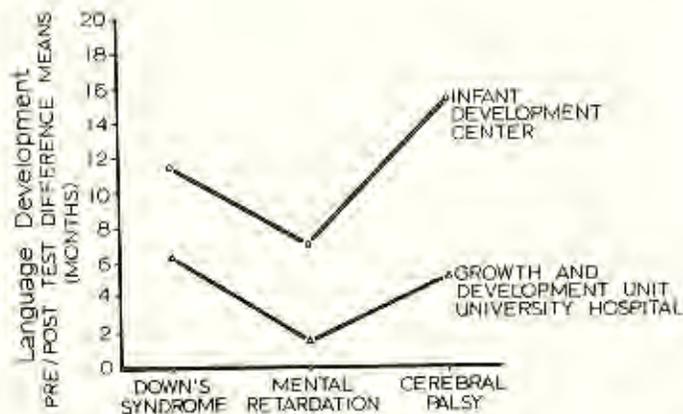

Figure 4. Mean gain in language development measured by the Denver Developmental Screening Test.

All DDST scores were determined by the same examiner, consequently providing uniformity in scoring. Scoring of IDC children was by observation, whereas information on the GDU children was from the parents' report and the GDU physician's observation. Although there is no precedent for scoring DDST items from historical reports and although the examiner recognized the intent of the study, the content and amount of data available from the GDU physicians were felt to be sufficient to give a valid picture of each child's developmental level.

Results

Data were analyzed using a 2 x 3 factorial analysis of variance design for unequal cell frequencies (Winer, 1962). Denver Developmental Screening Test (DDST) pre-test/post-test difference scores for the four developmental categories (gross motor, fine motor, personal-social and language) served as the major dependent variables.

The analysis of the DDST gross motor development difference scores revealed significant differences for the educational placement variable, $F(1,49) = <7.25$, $p < .01$. Children attending the Infant Development Center made significantly greater progress than did those followed in the Growth and Development Unit of the hospital setting. There were no significant gross motor development differences on the DDST for the three diagnostic categories, $F(2,49) = 2.54$, $p > .05$ and the interaction between the variables of educational environment and diagnostic category was not significant, $F(2,49) = .74$, $p > .05$. See Figure 1.

An analysis of the DDST fine motor development scores also revealed that children assigned to the IDC made significantly greater progress than did those not involved in the program, $F(1,47) = 22.93$, $p < .01$. In addition, this analysis also revealed significant differences within the diagnostic category variable, $F(2,47) = 4.77$, $p < .05$. This finding prompted further analysis using the Scheffe multiple comparison procedure for testing differences between means (Winer, 1962). This procedure revealed significant differences ($P < .05$) in fine motor development between the mentally retarded children and either the Down's syndrome group or the cerebral palsied group. In both comparisons, those subjects diagnosed as cerebral palsied or Down's syndrome made significantly greater progress in both treatment environments than did those children diagnosed as mentally retarded. The interaction of these two aforementioned variables was not significant, $F(2,47) = 1.34$, $p > .05$. See Figure 2.

Results of the analysis for change scores on the factor of personal-social development indicated significant main effects for both the intervention strategy variable, $F(1,47) = 31.08$, $p < .01$ and the diagnostic category variable, $F(2,47) = 6.56$, $p < .01$. In the case of the intervention strategy variable, those children participating in the IDC program again made significantly greater personal-social developmental progress than did those in the GDU group. The significant main effect finding for the diagnostic category variable led to an analysis of the mean change scores of the children of the three diagnostic groups by means of the Scheffe Multiple Comparisons Procedure. Those children having a diagnosis of cerebral palsy or Down's syndrome made significantly greater personal-social developmental progress ($P .05$) than did children

diagnosed as mentally retarded. The interaction of the environment and diagnostic category variables was not statistically significant, $F(2,47) = 1.25$, $p > .05$. See Figure 3.

An analysis of pre-test/post-test DDST language differences by means of a 2 x 3 factorial analysis of variance also indicated significant main effect differences for both the variable of educational placement, $F(1,48) = 14.73$, $p < .01$, and the diagnostic category variable, $F(2,48) = 3.90$, $p < .05$. Thus, in the area of language development the children who attended the IDC made significantly greater progress in that setting than did the GDU children. As in other developmental areas, the children diagnosed as mentally retarded made significantly smaller gains ($p .05$) in language development as revealed by the Scheffe Multiple Comparison Test than did either the cerebral palsied or Down's syndrome subjects. The interaction of the educational environment variable and the diagnostic category variable was not significant, $F(2,48) = .75$, $p < .05$. See Figure 4.

Thus, in all four categories of the DDST the children from the Infant Development Center showed a significantly greater rate of developmental growth than did those not attending the IDC, but receiving treatment at the Growth and Development Unit.

Discussion

The development of normal children as well as those with some form of disability, has received a great amount of attention in recent years in medical, paramedical and educational circles. The growing interest of when and how best to stimulate learning in children has been translated into action for many normal children of varying socio-economic backgrounds.

These attempts to provide early stimulation have been the impetus for early intervention programs also for children with developmental disabilities. Very few studies to date, however, have substantiated the improved rate of development which was anticipated in these children.

This study has attempted to measure the rate of development in two populations of handicapped children. All of the children were receiving some form of therapy because of their disabilities. Adequate developmental information was available on all children in both groups studied, because of the thoroughness of the follow-up evaluations and the nature of the clinical settings. The children enrolled in the IDC lived in the Greater Kansas City area and as Kansas residents were eligible to attend the infant center. They had access to necessary pediatric, orthopedic and other appropriate specialty care, but, in addition, received individualized programs designed to meet their specific needs. Weekly sessions at the center included involvement with the parent who observed and then demonstrated the home stimulation techniques in the presence of professional therapists. The individualized and repeated contacts with both child and parents were considered the vital aspect of this program. Children attending the GDU received periodic pediatric evaluations and attended appropriate specialty clinics at the university hospital. Although many of these children lived in a geographic area lacking special enrichment programs, they were in a traditional treatment environment which has been considered to be adequate, if not optimum. Although both treatment programs were conceptually ap-

propriate for the needs of the children, the strong parental involvement component of the IDC group, the opportunity of shared parent contact and repeated individual attention to child, parent and family may have been the determining factors for the observed differences between the two environments.

The development of these groups of children as measured by the DDST indicated a statistically significant increased rate of development among the children attending the IDC as compared to those followed by the GDU. It is of interest to note that this improved developmental rate pertained to all four categories of the Denver Developmental Screening Test.

Although the DDST is primarily a screening procedure to measure development, it has been assessed empirically to be a reliable and valid instrument both with normal and developmentally delayed children. In addition, the DDST has been shown by Frankenburg, Goldstein & Camp (1971) to be capable of accurately evaluating several salient areas rather than simply providing a nondefinitive global score.

In addition, it was noted that generally the groups of mentally retarded children of both environments progressed at a slower rate than did their environmental counterparts with Down's syndrome or cerebral palsy. Though the differences in developmental rate were statistically significant, they may be merely a reflection of the shorter time interval between pre- and post-testing for the mentally retarded group. This does not detract from the primary finding of the benefits of an appropriate early intervention environment to all three diagnostic groups. This study has not attempted to determine the stability of gains by the children in the two treatment environments.

It appears that the program of early intervention as described in this study, and presumably other similar enrichment programs, has a definite and significant beneficial effect on the development of handicapped children. Since such a program appears to constitute another form of therapy for developmental disability, it is imperative that medical and paramedical personnel working with infants be aware of community facilities which offer such early intervention programs. In addition, it is the responsibility of medical personnel to recognize developmental delays early and to make appropriate referrals.

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The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship of students' attitude toward evaluation of a modular program in Foundations of Education sponsored by the College of Education of the University of Maine at Orono, Maine.

Student evaluation of faculty performance

by Robert V. Supple

Student evaluation of faculty performance and, in truth, any type of evaluation in any area of endeavor has been an item of great controversy. In a great majority of the situations, if not in all of the situations, evaluation has been considered to be an impossible and undesired activity. However, on the collegiate level, student evaluation of both program and faculty increasingly is becoming an integral part of college and university policy (Zuckerman et al. 1978). These evaluations are employed not only to aid faculty improve their teaching and to evaluate programs but also to provide the bases upon which administrators may make decisions on promotion and tenure.

Previous studies have located and identified a number of variables which should be considered when assessing student ratings of instruction. The more salient variables to be assessed are grade point average (Levin 1978), gender (Marini and Greenberger 1978), college class (Cohen and Berger 1970) and time of evaluation (Hyman 1974). In surveying specific programs offered by the faculty of the College of Education, University of Maine, Drummond (1977) also demonstrated that there are differences in ratings by level of preparation. College students preparing for teaching in primary grades, middle grades, junior high school or high school tend to rate the same course experiences differently and by different standards.

A very limited number of studies have been completed on how students feel about the concept of evaluation. Costin, Greenough and Menges (1971) employed a nine item scale to assess attitudes toward evaluation. Their study found no significant correlation between the student's responses to items and grade point average nor between their responses and college year. They concluded that students do not equate teaching with entertainment, are not deliberately easy on teachers, rate independently of gossip, tended not to think ratings were a waste of time and were willing to spend time outside of class to make such ratings. Costin, et al, suggests that additional research be undertaken employing the variable of students' attitude toward evaluation. The purpose of the cited study was to determine the relationship of students' attitude toward evaluation of a modular program in Foundations of Education sponsored by the College of Education of the University of Maine at Orono, Maine.

Method

A 71-item questionnaire eliciting attitudes toward the modular program, attitudes toward student evaluation of faculty, methods of instruction, and evaluation of their current modular instructor was administered at the end of the third modular period in the spring session of 1977. A random sample of 85 or one-third of the students enrolled in a module identified as relating to the teaching process were selected for the study and completed the questionnaire anonymously (Fox et al. 1966). Thirty-six percent were male and 64 percent were female. Thirty-nine percent were enrolled in the College of Education, 36 percent from the College of Arts and Sciences, and 22 percent from the College of Life Sciences and Agriculture. Forty-nine percent intended to teach in the elementary school; and, 51 percent intended to teach in the secondary school. Forty-seven percent were seniors, 29 percent juniors, 19 percent sophomores, and 5 percent unclassified. The scores on the attitude items toward evaluation were summed and the groups were divided into three groups (Flanagan 1969). The groups were the upper quartile, the middle range and the lower quartile, and crosstabs ran on the item responses of the attitude toward evaluation scale.

Results

Table 1 shows the distribution of responses for the items dealing with attitudes toward evaluation. Only slightly over a quarter of the students felt their ratings would affect the professors' future teaching performance (Thurston 1978). Approximately 12 percent agreed that their ratings would affect the professors' departmental status or advancement. A quarter of the students viewed ratings as a waste of time although two-fifths of them would be willing to spend time outside of class to rate courses. Fifteen percent reported they rated a professor higher than he deserved since there are so few professors who excel at teaching. Approximately 50 percent of the group agreed to some extent that they rated the modular approach higher since they would desire to see more experimentation and innovation taking place in the College of Education. About a third thought their ratings corresponded with those of the rest of the class.

Analysis of the crosstabs by attitude toward evaluation identified three of the items other than those dealing with the evaluating scale as having significant chi squares. There were differences in the group according to reported grade point averages of the respondents (x^2

13.65, p < .05 6 d.f.). The students who tended to be more positive toward evaluation tended to have higher grade point averages than those in the middle or lower range. A x^2 of 17.30 (p < .05, 8d.f.) was computed for the item: The modules required less work and effort from the student than the standard semester course. Students who had more positive attitudes toward evaluation tended to disagree while students with less positive attitudes agreed. The same pattern was true on the item: The traditional course approach would allow the student to accomplish his objectives as well as the modular approach (x^2 = 22.60, p ⪜8d.f.). Students with less positive attitudes toward student evaluations were more supportive of the standard course structure. Students with more positive attitudes were more supportive to the idea that other colleges on the Orono campus ought to adopt the modular approach (x^2 = 22.60, p < .05, 8d.f.). Seventy-three percent of the high group agreed to 50 percent for the middle group and 38 percent of the lower group.

Discussion

The study tends to support some of the findings of Costin, Greenough and Menges (1971) relating to the students' attitude toward evaluation. Students in both cases felt that their ratings would have little affect on the teachers' departmental status or advancement (Randhawa et al. 1973). They both also indicate students belie the notion that they are "easy" in rating their instructors. About the same percentage of students in both studies reported they would be willing to spend time outside of class to rate instructors.

Fewer modular students feel that their ratings will affect the professors' future teaching performance than the University of Illinois group and were less positive in general toward rating.

There were indications that there was a relationship between grade point average and attitude toward ratings.

The results also indicate that in evaluating the attitude of students toward a new program in a department the Hawthorne effect might tend to inflate the positive response to the program (Slavin 1977). Students with more positive attitudes toward student evaluation of instruction tended to be more supportive of the modular approach, those less positive of the standard semester approach.

Partly the differences may reflect the type of institution, the program of studies, as well as the type of students.

Additional research should be conducted investigating attitude of student evaluation of faculty in other institutions and contexts. If a student evaluation of instruction is to be effective, however, students will have to feel that their ratings are meaningful and not a waste of time. time.

Table 1
Students' Opinions Concerning Student Rating of Instructors

Item	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Student rating of teachers' performance will affect their future teaching performance.	4.76	22.61	36.90	25.00	10.71
2. Student ratings will affect most teachers' departmental status or advancement.	2.35	9.41	38.82	27.05	22.35
3. Ratings are a waste of time.	11.76	14.11	27.05	35.29	11.76
4. I would like to be able to rate each module.	25.88	36.47	12.94	16.47	8.23
5. I would be willing to spend time outside of class to rate courses.	10.71	30.95	20.23	17.85	20.23
6. My ratings usually agree with those of the rest of the class.	4.70	31.76	55.29	5.88	2.35
7. I generally rate a professor higher than he deserves, since there are so few good professors.	4.81	10.84	26.50	36.14	21.68
8. I tend to rate the modular approach higher since I would like to see more experimentation and innovation taking place in the College of Education.	14.28	34.52	22.61	22.61	5.95

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Review

Another chapter in the textbook controversy

Conflicts over the content of school textbooks have been and continue to be part and parcel of American educational history. Examples abound. Roman Catholics objected to the Protestant tinge of many nineteenth century textbooks, in the late 1930s and early 1940s several business organizations claimed that Harold Rugg's social studies books listed to port, and today the struggle continues over the place of "creationism" in science texts dominated by evolutionary assumptions. Since textbooks serve not only as "tools of the trade" but also as powerful cultural symbols, it is not surprising that such controversies arise, particularly when the social and cultural consensus is strained severely.

In **Textbooks on Trial**, James C. Hefley, a free-lance writer and frequent contributor to **Christianity Today** and other religious periodicals, chronicles another episode in the history of textbook controversies. He describes sympathetically, and in a distractingly melodramatic fashion, the "campaign" of a Texas couple, Mel and Norma Gabler, to "oust objectionable textbooks from public schools—and to urge publishers to produce better ones."

The bulk of the book is devoted to reporting the almost yearly confrontations between the Gablers and representatives of publishing houses before the Texas State Textbook Committee. This committee, which is appointed annually by the State Board of Education on recommendation of the Texas Education Agency, reviews publishers' offerings, holds public hearings and recommends for Board adoption from two to five titles for each grade subject. Local textbook committees then choose from the state approved list.

According to Hefley, since their first appearance before the Committee in 1962 until the present, the Gablers have demanded, with some success, that school texts adopted by the state "not indoctrinate children in irreligion, lawbreaking, sexual perversion, doctored history and the benevolence of Big Brother government." Although their charges of "doctored history" are dubious and reflect the failure of many conservative Protestants to realize that history cannot be consistently laudatory, the

Gabler's complaints concerning the relativist bias of many sociology and psychology texts, the prying questions contained in several social studies textbooks, and the disparagement of Christian beliefs in several texts have some merit. In many cases the Committee agreed with them and either required changes in the disputed texts or voted against adoption, much to the chagrin of several major publishing houses.

While Hefley's primary purpose in writing this book was to describe the "heroic" efforts of a conservative, Protestant middle-class couple to check what they perceive to be a gradual undermining of their values and beliefs in school textbooks, his commentary affords an insight into the problem of providing textbooks which are acceptable to all constituents of the public schools, including blacks, orientals, fundamentalists and other increasingly self-conscious groups. The difficulty involved in producing texts which are palatable to all reflects the dissolution of consensus in this country. In a very real sense the textbook controversy described by the author is symbolic of the problems inherent in the "common school ideology" which still influences the public school enterprise. How can the public schools teach common values and a common curriculum when there is no agreement on what constitutes either? More than describing the activities of a concerned Texas couple, **Textbooks on Trial** illustrates the excruciating problems facing the public schools in serving a multi-ethnic, multi-cultural and religiously plural society.

Not all who read this short book will sympathize, as the author did, with the activities and goals of the Gablers. Many educators will wave the "bloody shirt" of censorship. Others will praise the Gablers for pointing out the secular humanistic bias of many texts. Regardless of one's disposition toward the activities of this nationally known couple, educators and laymen interested in the grassroots controversy over textbook content, the politics of education, and how individuals can influence the public school system would profit by spending a few hours with this informative, though not profound, book.

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Review

Adults get more attention from educators

Adult Development & Learning by Allan B. Knox, Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1977, pp. 679, $25.00

A welcomed sign of our times is the increasing attention being paid to adults in the ways that they continually adapt, change, learn and grow. Knox's handbook synthesizes the results of over 1000 studies in adult learning and development. From his current position as professor of education at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, he has assembled research from such diverse fields as education, physiology, psychology, sociology and the biological sciences which focus upon the mature adult. The text provides a selective but yet highly comprehensive overview of tested knowledge that is useful for educators and many other helping professions such as social workers, ministers, nurses, counselors and librarians. Practitioners will find the volume to be useful in many ways such as: (1) to help adults identify and cope with the problems and opportunities, (2) to estimate the duration and intensity of adjustments that need to be made, and (3) to obtain a general overview of trends regarding stability and change during adulthood.

Adult development is complex because it is influenced by so many variables, such as environment, occupation, heredity, health, social and economic factors, education and exposure to stress. The term development refers to the orderly and sequential changes in characteristics and attitudes that one experiences over time. The context for development is usually affected by community differences. Whether the adult lives in an urban or rural community affects his life-style and opportunities available for education, cultural resources, social influences and recreational opportunities.

Adult performance on the other hand is continually being modified as the individual interacts with social or physical environment. Some influences affecting adult performance are: occupational requirements and stresses, desire for increased income, or for increased prestige, increasing excellence in performance and specialization.

Change can be beneficial and increase the individual's potential, thus providing impetus for growth. Adults can be encouraged to revise old dreams and create new ones to provide a sense of direction. For some adults, personality development includes an increasingly mature capacity for growth. Knox states that personality is made up of tendencies that influence the adult in dealing with people, feelings of self-actualization, uses of defense mechanisms. As people grow older, they become increasingly individualized with their own special talents and resources. Their development centers around their career, family and community.

Societal attitudes toward adulthood vary. The stereotype attitude toward young adulthood is one of being active, energetic, and outgoing. We live in a youth-oriented culture as evidenced by the advertising media. Middle age is thought to be more mature, understanding and controlled. Old age is perceived as energyless, socially inefficient, rejected and retrospective. Inaccurate stereotypes can be changed by practicing open-mindedness and tolerance and understanding for individual differences. When the various ages work together for a common cause, then age loses its boundaries and each benefits from the talents and resources of all participants. An example of an active organization is the Grey Panthers. This organization is a group of older adults working for increasing the image and benefits of the "senior citizen." They are also attracting young college students who believe in the goal and wish to help out their cause.

The text also deals with family role performance. The way adults understand and deal with family role changes influences happiness, self-concept and performance in job and community. The role of marriage encounters many problems such as finances, sex, living conditions, parental interference, and general incompatibility. A crucial ingredient for successful marriage is the partners' willingness and ability to learn and grow regarding important family goals and ways to achieve them.

Parenthood is often an early problem in marriage. Statistics indicate that one female in five is pregnant when she marries for this first time. As a consequence, problems arise with negative feelings toward parenthood, inadequacy and unwillingness to accept role changes. Divorce creates a variation in the functioning of the family. Statistics show one-third of marriages in the United States end in divorce! The major causes are unhappy, depressed, hypercritical people.

Retirement creates new adjustment to change of activity and interests. It can bring increased companionship and enjoyment of leisure activities and travel. A libertine individual can also experience problems and dissatisfaction if there is not a hobby or new interest to help the individual feel active and useful.

One's occupation is a major factor in shaping self-concept and setting life-style and prestige. The occupational activity has a powerful influence on family structure and community life. Factors that contribute to satisfactory choice of occupation are: (1) familiarity with the occupation (2) similarity between occupation and personal interests, (3) availability of role models, (4) job requirements and expectations, (5) congruity of work values, (6) socialization that occurs in the education and work setting. Young adults seem to do better at high speed manual skills whereas older adults show more steadiness, experience, conscientiousness, patience and better work attendance.

Women in the work force face discrimination and competition with men in various ways such as tasks, salary and prestige. Many women work for necessity to maintain an average living, but also work for prestige

reasons, social contact, independence and achievement. Many females have combined homemaking with an occupation or career and seem to find self-actualization through ability to do both. Those with families have added problems and responsibilities but the author repeats many times that children do not suffer when the mother works and they grow and develop in a normal pattern.

The elements of physical condition within adults are well covered in the book. Heredity affects height, appearance and initial endowment of good health. Life expectancy has increased for men to approximately 68 years and for women 75 years due to improved nutrition, better preventive medical care, and increased technology in medical expertise.

The emphasis appears to be on exercise which gives benefits of increased vitality, strength and endurance. The older person who increases his exercise has increased heart rate and blood pressure and circulation, but due to the occurrence of arteriosclerosis and atherosclerosis, his muscular performance is decreased. Osteoporosis develops with advanced age and causes a decrease in height and brittleness of bones due to lack of absorption of calcium.

As one grows older, the physical senses are decreased. Diminished visual acuity and peripheral vision, hearing, tolerance for noise is decreased, and taste buds atrophy with age. Malnutrition frequently occurs due to reduced income, anorexia, depression, loss of family to eat with and irregular eating habits. There is an increase in the incidence of diabetes mellitus and chronic illnesses such as arthritis and diverticulitis. The older adult learns to compensate for inadequacies by increased accuracy, decreased speed and extra care and attentiveness. Practitioners can help older adults increase their self-confidence by making sure the learner succeeds in initial learning tasks. Preventive health measures which slow the gradual deterioration of the adult are good nutrition, proper exercise and maintain good health habits. The human body has the capacity that exceeds the limits reached by performance of most adults in the United States.

The chapter on adult learning is excellent and possibly the best unit in the text. Adults usually learn for immediate application and want to learn to increase competence. Advanced new learning should occur throughout life. The process of life-long learning is essential if adults are to make their life purposeful and satisfying. This concept is becoming more and more popular as evidenced by the trend of increasing numbers of adults in formal learning settings.

Most adults approach learning with specific expectations of what they will gain so the education climate is very important. Preparatory experience influences feelings of achievement or failure. The expectation of learning has multiple goals of enjoyment, increased competence, and interest in the material. Practitioners can assist learning by emphasizing abilities, clarifying structure, memorable encounters, personal pacing, varied resources and positive feedback. They should encourage the adult to set educational objectives that challenge them in a satisfactory manner.

Adults tend to learn and recall better when the information is related to previous learning experiences. Errors made by older adults are more in omission, forgetting, rather than by commission. Older adults tend to problem solve by searching past experience rather than generating new solutions. Older adults learn less effectively as more increased complex tasks are presented. Individuals with low efficacy appear to believe in the old adage, "you can't teach an old dog new tricks." They need encouragement with successful experiences. Practitioners should slow down presentations and build on relevant areas, diagnosing understand and competence. It is a fact, that "almost any adult can learn anything he wants to given time, persistence and assistance."

Three additional chapters are entitled Women's Roles, Adjusting to Change Event and Perspectives on Adulthood. Collectively they indicate that each stage of life has its own values and age-related stereotypes. Developing a perspective can enable adults to grasp essential features of their lives and recognize similarities and differences of others.

Rapid social change leads to "future shock" which makes it difficult for individual adults to develop a comprehensive perspective on adult life cycle. Practitioners can help with adaptations and should work to increase adult access to opportunity systems, should enhance developmental perspective through professional associations, preparatory and continuing education, and collaborative efforts.

The book seems to be well-written and has much practical application for those interested in adult education. It incorporates various educational philosophies with constructive implications for use. Much current research is cited to make the content relevant and meaningful. This text should be included in the professional library as an excellent resource reference for those individuals concerned with the total adult being.

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