the BC teacher

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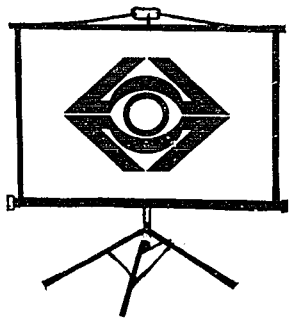

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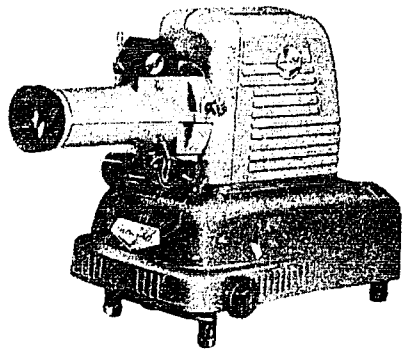

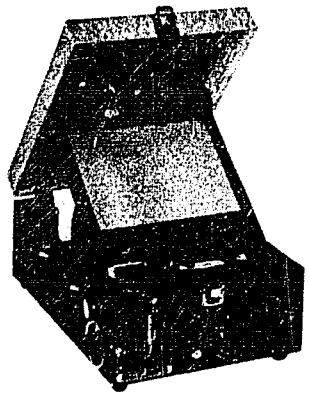

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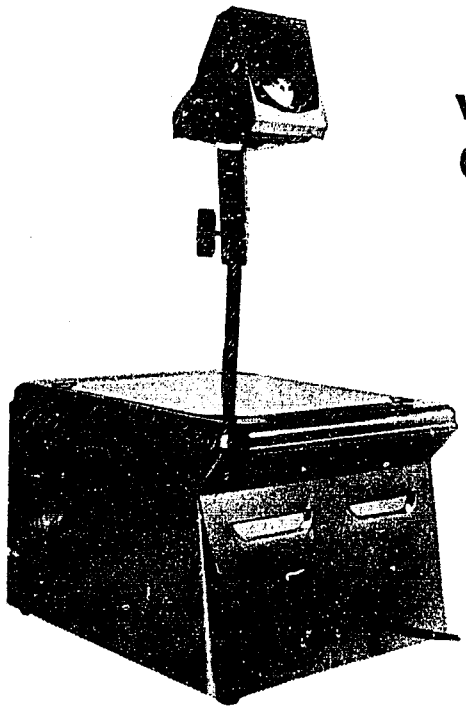

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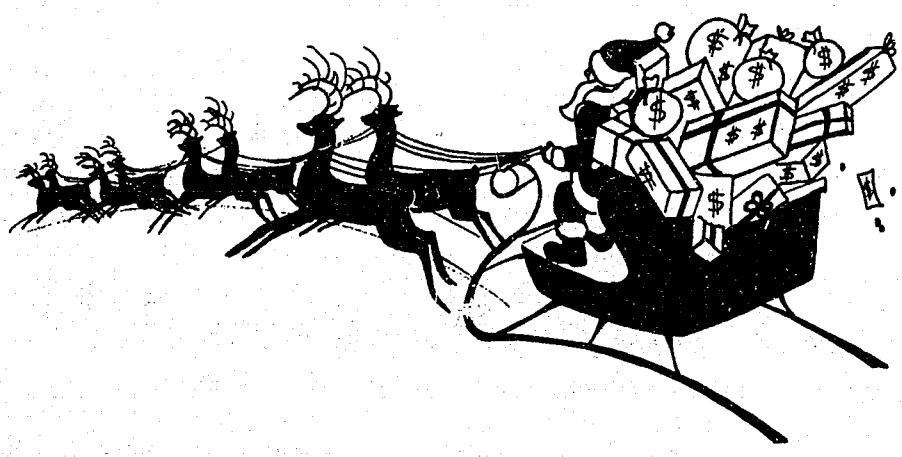
A Happy and Prosperous New Year



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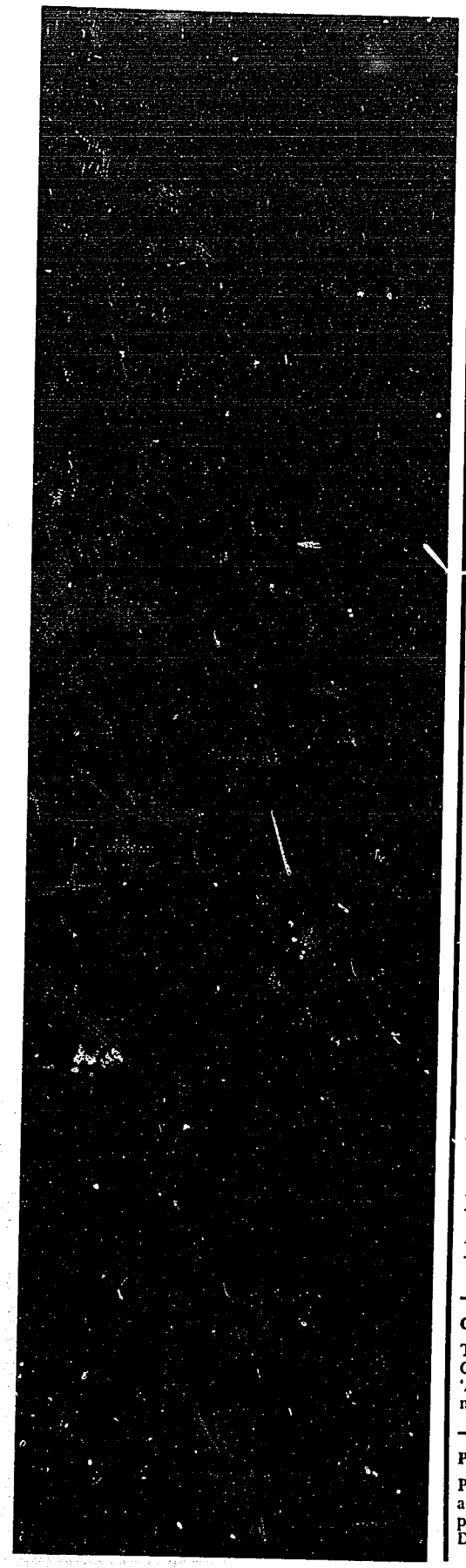

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COVER PICTURE

The cover picture for this month is the work of Robert Markle, a student of Clarence Fulton Senior Secondary School, Vernon. Of his work Robert says: 'Although the theme of the mosaic is the sun as the source of life, the subject matter was chosen for its structural and artistic possibilities.'

PHOTO CREDITS

Pp. 94, 97, 98, 120—from *Teach Me!*, National Education Association; pp. 103 and 104—Divn. of Visual Education; p. 105—British Information Services; pp. 107 and 108—supplied by author; p. 109—Esquire Sock Company; p. 113—Deni Eagland; pp. 115, 116 and 118—supplied by U.S. Information Service.

EDUCATION / NOT JUST TRAINING

'WITH MODERN TEACHING AIDS such as computers and other machines it will be quite feasible for one teacher to impart maximum knowledge to a class of 100 or more.'

So spoke a prominent MLA-prophet recently. Moreover, he contended that equipment is available now to permit effective instruction of classes of 50 or 60 students.

Such statements betray a tragic ignorance of what education is all about. They reveal a tenacious clinging to the obsolete concept that children's heads are vessels into which teachers are to pour knowledge. Education is, of course, much more than mere 'pot-filling.' Only if it were not would there be validity to the remarks.

Speaking to a conference last spring, Dr. Sidney M. Jourard, of the University of Florida, made some comments on the mechanization of education which are an effective rebuttal to the pour-in-more-and-pour-it-in-faster advocates. He said, in part:

'The institutions of education are becoming increasingly automated. "Teaching machines" are being incorporated into more schools, as a desperate response to overcrowding, and an insufficiency of instructors. Indeed, desperate instructors try to program themselves — their lectures and demonstrations — so that students will be able to blacken the correct spaces on an IBM sheet at the end of a term.

'Can you imagine the horror of five or ten thousand people all reading a book in the same way? This is invaluable, if training into pre-set moulds and roles is the aim; if individuality, originality and creativity are to be trained out, and uniformity in experience and action is desirable.

'But this is not education and it is not desirable. Automation will release human energy from the necessity to spend it making goods essential to life. But it will not thereby make life more liveable, challenging, and rich in experience. This latter aim calls for *education* — the liberation of human consciousness from the bonds imposed by training. The salvation of man, with the hope he will invent better forms of economic, social, political and interpersonal existence, is education, not training. And education requires teachers, not trainers. Teachers are hard to find. They are as scarce as dodo birds. Teachers illuminate what is; they are existential explorers, groping for new meanings as they challenge old ones. They are not solely repositories of a skill or corpus of information.'

There is a place in education for training, but the two processes are not the same. We welcome machines which will enable us to do the training—i.e., information giving and skill developing — more efficiently, but we need much smaller classes than we have now to let us develop each child as a person rather than as an anonymous member of a mass. We want machines, but with small classes, not large ones. We want and need mechanical and electronic aids to assist us to develop each child entrusted to us.

We cannot be content merely to train youngsters. We want to educate them, to develop their capabilities to the maximum, to make it possible for them to live as full adult lives as they are capable of living. These objectives require teachers to be organizers of learning experiences, not just imparters of knowledge skills. Any teacher can feed information to hundreds of youngsters at a time—to thousands, if the proper equipment is available — but no teacher can do an adequate job of developing the intellects of 40 or 50 pupils at the same time. Each child is different, and must therefore be dealt with as an individual.

Like so many other instant solutions to problems in education, that of the MLA ignored the key to effective education — the interaction between two human beings, the child and his teacher. □

MELVIN M. TUMIN

TEACHING

A NEW DIAGNOSIS

This month's article recommended by the BCTF Commission on Education.

IT SEEMS UNDENIABLE, if recent research findings are to be believed, that the schools are in urgent need of a fundamental reappraisal, and that an equally fundamental change in our modes of thought regarding students, curriculum and teachers is the first order of business. For these researches show, in a number of different ways and contexts, that the schools of the country have simply been inadequate to a number of the basic tasks they have assumed or been assigned.

Consider, for instance, the Coleman report's finding that almost nothing by way of school facilities, programs, teachers, libraries, laboratories or principals helps explain or predict differential achievement among the students. Or, think of the finding by the Michigan State group about the ineffectiveness of school counsellors and simulated experts in changing the self-concept of the child, a concept closely related to achievement; or, ponder the meaning of the findings by Max Wolff and others of the ephemerality of the effects of Headstart and other cultural enrichment programs. Or, take note of Donald Hoyt's findings that college grades bear little or no relationship to any measures of adult accomplishment. Consider, too, Martin Deutsch's discovery of the greater difference between achievement scores of advantaged Negro and white youths as compared with the difference between disadvantaged youths of both groups.

While there is almost nothing but unmitigated despair that friends of the public schools and ideologists of modern education can find in these researches, there is perhaps some meager comfort to be derived from the fact that these are research findings; that, as such, they are a welcome substitute for hunches, intuitions and self-congratulating self-evaluations by school officials; and they force us to take stock of what we are doing in the schools.

Some may try to take comfort in the belief that the research findings apply mainly to crowded urban schools and that their schools are relatively immune from the implied consequences of these researches; that they have achieved safety and security in their suburban fastnesses, whose property and income restrictions and requirements serve as unbridgeable moats to prevent the incursion of the rampant, urban, barbarian hordes. But this is delusional. In the first place, the findings apply to all kinds of schools, suburban and urban. Second, even if only urban schools were involved, it is crystal clear that Gresham's Law applies to school systems and to communities as forcibly as to money: namely, bad schools will drive out good schools and bad citizens will drive out good ones.

There is entirely too much interdependence—if not immediately at the level of school systems, then soon enough at the level of national institutions, into which the diverse school systems pour their diverse populations—to permit exclusive suburbs to relax in the mistaken belief that the momentary respite from the pressure of the urban problems is anything more than momentary respite.

Moreover, from the point of view of those concerned with all school children and all schools, it is only too apparent that the relative success, so-called, of certain schools and students, is as guaranteed by the structure of our school system as is the failure of another even larger portion of the schools and student body. The reason is simply that there is a clear-cut co-ordination of school curriculum, exams, college board tests, admissions criteria and college places available. A certain portion of the students will go to colleges, come what may, just as a certain portion will not go to college, come what may. In this light, and in view of the uncertain relevance of the criterion of college admission to anything to do with sound education, there is not much point in searching for models of effective education among the so-called successful schools.

Moreover, as the Coleman report shows, students at the so-called better schools are just as unaffected by differences in facilities, teachers and programs as students at other schools. Since one might have reasonably assumed that the most advantaged students would be better equipped to profit from enriched programs and personnel, the finding that these things are just as irrelevant for them, on the average, is surely testimony

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Dr. Tumin is professor of Sociology and Anthropology at Princeton University. *This article is reprinted with permission from* New York State Education, *the journal of the New York State Teachers Association.*

that we must be doing something wrong. But what could it be?

In searching for a proper approach to diagnosis and prescription for our troubles, this writer is guided by a number of simple yet crucial considerations.

First, schools are meant for children, for their development, for their growth, for their pleasure.

Second, the development of children takes place in a transaction or interaction between student and teacher, around certain materials and experiences that may collectively be called curriculum.

It follows from these two simple guides that the success or failure of education is to be measured by what happens to children in this transaction.

Third, if children fail to develop and grow as we reasonably expect they should, the shortcomings or errors are to be sought in the structure of the system and not in the innards of the children. The educational system is run by adults with power, resources and control.

As formulated by Dr. Harold Cohen, a brilliant researcher, who has had phenomenal success with young men defined as incorrigible and uneducable, children do not fail to learn; the schools fail to teach them. This is a sociological version of Fritz Redl's brilliant epigram to the effect that the children who hate are the children who are hated.

Fourth, there is no conceivable justification in the theory of moral obligations in a democratic society for preferring the education of some children over that of others. It follows that every child has a completely equal right and claim upon the full measure of facilities and rewards of the school.

Fifth, the devices that have been contrived to try to patch up chronically recurring problems, as well as that stupendous bundle of new problems generated by the belated recognition of the equal rights of all children, can't even mask the symptoms of the educational disorder, much less come to grips with its fundamental causes.

Reforms Can Take Place in Existing System

Just as there appears to be no way in which to patch the economy to deal with the chronic problem of occupational unemployment, so there appears to be no satisfactory way in which to patch the school system to deal with the equally pervasive problem of the unemployment of the minds and capacities for growth of our children. The Coleman report shows this perhaps more eloquently than any other research finding. None of the topical medicines — not laboratories, nor libraries, nor presumably more-qualified teachers, nor better buildings, nothing seems to matter. No, not even team teaching, today's universal panacea.

I think perhaps we all know why this is so. The suspicion is strong, very strong, that there is something fundamentally wrong about basic values and structures in education that these symptomatic repairs can't get at. I am not so simple-minded as to believe that the reforms that are needed can be implemented as easily as can they be formulated. But I do believe that formulating them is crucial.

Moreover, I believe that much of the necessary reform can take place within the outlines of the existing system as presently conceived, at least the most general outlines. In this regard, the educational system may be more easily overhauled than the economic system.

There are, I think, fundamental causes of the educational illness in at least three major areas: (1) the conception of what school is for; (2) the notion as to what constitutes curriculum; and (3) the prevailing ideas regarding what it takes to train a good teacher. Obviously, too, all three are intimately connected, so that, though I am nominally charged by the title to address myself to teaching, I cannot do so without also speaking of the conception of the educational process and of the curriculum.

First, then, some remarks on the educational process. What I have to say on this matter has been said before, dozens of times, by others and myself

It strikes me as glaringly obvious, and just as glaringly injurious to the educational development of children, that there is a fundamental misconception of the entire educational process. I mean simply that schools are structured and operate as though the primary intent were to process children through a set of preconceived drills and exercises which must be passed or failed.

What Is the Relevance of 'Pass' or 'Fail'?

It is the pass and fail concept I find most grievous. I confess to being unable to see what is the relevance of these words and the implied concepts behind them for the education of children. Pass what and fail what? Subjects or experiences or materials aren't to be passed or failed. They are to be felt and sensed and absorbed and reacted to — assuming they are worthwhile in the first place.

When one operates with a notion of passing or failing, there is the clear-cut implication that the school is a competitive race between different kinds of children, only some of whom will succeed. That guarantees that some, perhaps many, will fail. But what are children supposed to be competing for? Admission to the second grade, after the first? To the ninth, after the eighth? That seems to me utter nonsense. We pay tax money to provide education for all children for 12 or 13 years. Our obligation, clearly then, is to provide as much chance for development as we can in these 12 or 13 years. Whatever is achieved, is achieved. What, in this context, is the relevance of children passing or failing? Clearly, these terms have relevance only to the impact of the educational process and its agents. They pass or fail, but not the children. It seems to me as simple as all that.

The implications of this doctrine for existing school practices are, of course, enormous. If this view were really adopted, it would call for drastic revision in the entire concept of teachers' obligations; of the course of study; of the notion of examinations and grades; of the criteria by which a school is judged good or bad. I need not specify the further implications. They are simple, obvious and, in some meaningful sense, revolutionary.

Subjects or experiences are not materials to be passed or failed. They are to be felt and sensed and absorbed and reacted to. The concepts of pass and fail should be eliminated immediately.

Perhaps most important of all, they would make it possible for children, at all levels of capacity and interest, to go to school and to be reasonably glad to be there, since they would be free of the constant and unrelenting fear of failure—a fear that invests and infects literally all children, at every level of ability, except of course for those who 'cool' the whole process either by dropping out or withdrawing in spirit, though present in body.

And what a relief for teachers such a freedom from fear of failure of students would be! Think of the enormous differences this would make in the extent to which they could—if they knew how and cared to—concern themselves with what is happening with each child, instead of being concerned, as they are now, with how many can they get to finish the syllabus on time.

Think, too, what it would mean if they did not feel under constant pressure to give one unreliable and invalid test and exam after another, and then give one meaningless grade after another, and then add them all up into one meaningless score, at the end of a marking period, with the momentous requirement of deciding which side of the one-tenth of a point B falls as against B minus.

School Is Not a Competitive Race

Think, too, what it might mean of they knew that their adequacy as teachers was to be judged by the extent to which they could make a difference in the life of every child rather than by the number of students they could honestly or dishonestly squeeze onto the honor roll? Think of the implications of this for their self-respect as teachers.

And think, if you will, of what it might mean to children to know that each day in school they would be taking on enterprises at the level at which they are ready to move, and did not have to worry about how ashamed the teacher might make them feel for not being able to recite or perform as well as someone else. Think of what a blessed relief and relaxation might ensue if the whole term didn't climax in a terrifying final examination. The beauties and joys that might sneak into the educational process under such conditions are too numerous to specify, too rich almost to endure.

And all through a simple twist of the mind-set toward teaching and learning, one that simply does away with the notion of a competitive race in which some pass and some fail, and substitutes for it a simple and straightforward principle that asserts that education is for the development, the growth and the enjoyment of children—all children—at whatever their levels of interest and capacity, and that, accordingly, everyone concerned does the most that can be done, under conditions, for the years that the student is in school. As my grandmother often used to say, with biting folk wisdom, 'You can't do more than you can do.'

Some critics will, of course, immediately raise the hue and cry about standards. What will happen to standards if you don't have exams, and tests, and syllabi and prescribed curriculum and diplomas and honors and all of that?

One grows weary of reminding such people that norms and standards are two very different things. The rule here, too, is simple and straightforward. The highest standards are reached in the development of any group when the development process works to secure the maximum from every member of the group, whatever the diversity of capacities in the group. That is what maintaining high standards means.

Under the competitive system, you maintain high norms—maybe. And by definition, significant percentages of all schools in the country must fail by these criteria—since norms are based on actual performances of the schools whose averages set the norms. By definition, 50% must be below any median norm point. What conceivable kind of guideline to educational process can that be which guarantees that half the participants must automatically fail? And which, by the same token, says nothing substantive and theoretically justifiable about what schools ought to be accomplishing?

These are the evils—truly educational evils—that the concept of pass and fail introduces into our schools. Under these conditions, no rational consideration of goals is possible. Instead of goals we have hurdles that must be overcome; instead, therefore, of a sense of accomplishment, we have sighs of relief of having gotten by that hazard and the next one; instead of a growing identity of unique self, we have an ever narrowing focus on the performing role and only that; here, indeed, the medium is not merely message; nor even only massage; but a vicious chiropractic assault.

Under these circumstances, how can learning, development and growth ensue? If these are what we want, the total obliteration of the concept of pass and fail, immediately, is called for.

So much, then, for the concept of what school is for.

What Does Curriculum Do for Children?

The second focus is on the thing called the curriculum. This is, certainly, a hot topic in educational circles. We hear all kinds of talk about curriculum reform; about horizontal and vertical co-ordination; about the beauties of K-through-12 planning and integrating. All kinds of lovely sounding jingoes. Their only difficulty, and it's probably a mortal one, is that most often such talk tends to assume there are inherently beautiful, true and virtuous subject matters which any decent, self-respecting child had better learn, or else be judged bad, immoral, and unworthy.

In short, they tend to forget that the schools are for children; that curriculum, whatever it includes, is good or bad depending on what it does for the students; and that no amount of curriculum reform will have the slightest significance if it doesn't ask the right questions at the outset.

There is one major overall right question in choosing curriculum—simply put, that is: What do we want our children to become? With this question in mind, we can then proceed to select the kinds of experiences, materials, sensations, happenings, be-ins, do-ins, sit-ins, and joys and pleasures and pains we want our children to experience so that they can become what we think they ought to become.

If we try to translate the question—What do we

Schools are meant for children, for their development, for their growth, for their pleasure. The success or failure of education can be measured by what happens to children in the transaction between them and their teachers.

want our children to become? into somewhat more operational smaller questions, they would include: What do we want our children to come to value? What do we want them to be able to feel, see and hear and smell and touch? Out of what do we want them to learn to get pleasure? What do we want them to understand about themselves and the world of nature and man? How do we want them to behave regarding other human beings? To what do we want them to be inclined to commit themselves? What technical abilities do we wish to cultivate in them?

When we ask our curricular guiding questions in these terms, the entire discussion, it seems, is transformed and transplanted onto a meaningful level. For then we can ask, sensibly, what is it that has to be present, by way of teacher behavior, student behavior, materials, experiences, and supporting school factors that will enable that relationship to produce in the child the desired outcome? It is at this point and only at this point that we can begin to consider sensibly the question of co-ordinated approach to curriculum development.

Here is a concrete example from the field of social science. If anyone were to be foolish enough to ask me what I would like, as a social scientist, to see children come to understand—and some have been foolish enough to ask me—I would state it simply and rigorously in some such terms as these:

I want every child to come to understand the interdependence of people upon each other or the achievement of their respective humanities.

Second, I want every child to understand what it means that life is a continuing series of problems, the solution of any of which generates new problems in its wake.

Third, that what men value determines that value, namely, that man is the value-investing creature who gives value and meaning to his behavior by that act of valuing.

Fourth, what happens in any one aspect of society, such as in the economy, seriously affects what happens in all other aspects, and is, in turn, affected by those other aspects, namely, that society is interdependent.

That, fifth, the individual, being in some ways an analog of the society, is also a system of interdependent parts; so that what happens to the individual in any one aspect of his life, affects and is affected by what happens in other aspects.

That, sixth, man is the effective agent of his own destiny; that either by default or activity, man shapes his own history and makes himself.

There are other social science understandings I would want, but these will do. Now, there are no single best textbooks nor any best films nor anything of this sort to convey these understandings for any and all children. There are, however, dozens of different ways in which imaginative teachers and counsellors and professionals in the field and educational technologists can devise, with effort and time, what would help children at various levels of capability to come to understand these fundamental attributes and characteristics of human nature and organized human society within which man acquires his human nature.

Let me also indicate that these general guides are

useful throughout 12 or 15 or 18 years of formal school experiences. If curriculum is to be co-ordinated vertically as well as horizontally among the school agents, and if vertical co-ordination means anything, it must mean, as a minimum, that there is organic and integral continuity in what is being put into the child-teacher learning and teaching situation.

Now I have deliberately chosen to put the curricular question in terms of a very limited educational goal, namely, the kind of social science understandings, or intellectual orientations and knowledge, I would like each child to come to possess and command and be able to use. But please recognize that this is a very limited portion of the totality of the educational impact I would like to see our schools have.

For I have not asked yet, what is it we want our children to value; to be able to get pleasure from; to be able to perceive; to use as guides to conduct; to have by way of technical abilities? All these define other educational goals that can only be said to be as important as each other and to enjoy equal priority of demand on our time and attention.

The example I gave—from the realm of desired intellectual understandings—was meant to suggest the kinds of formulations that make co-ordinated curriculum (i.e., educational planning) possible. For, if we now turn and ask what kinds of things do we want our children to be able to value; and if we then specify a series of character traits, cultural achievements, governmental policies, and the like, that we feel it important to value, we are then in a position to ask, what combination of teacher, student and experience will make these achievements possible?

And, once again, our attention will be directed to a wide variety of possibilities, for a wide variety of children, at different tempos and at different levels of complexity and profundity. But, also again, for each case, vertical co-ordination becomes eminently possible since values, too, like understandings, have levels of complexity that can be approximated successively over time. That is to say, these character traits, these new sensibilities, these value orientations, these preferences for kinds of human relationships—all these, like the social science understandings referred to above, are available, in a developmental sense, to every child, of whatever age and inclination and capacity, at the level of simplicity or complexity appropriate to him. It is no exaggeration to say that in fact we begin to shape children in these regards from the moment of birth on, wittingly or unwittingly.

One last consideration is crucial here. If we develop this open approach to curriculum, if we learn to ask questions in these ways, we are led unavoidably to considering the likelihood that the same goals may require a variety of approaches for different children and teachers, and for the same children and teachers at different times; and if we get to that blessed condition, we shall in effect be experimenting with alternative ways to get at the same goals.

If, then, we take an experimental attitude, we will be provisional rather than rigid about our commitments to one or another of these approaches; and above all, if we are sane, and don't want wildly to spend money without knowing whether it is any good

What do we want our children to become? The answer to this question will determine the kinds of experiences they should have in school.

at all, we will insist on systematic *evaluation*. When we arrive at the divine condition of insisting on a systematic evaluation, we will then and only then begin to learn whether anything we do is right and why or why not. And only at that point will we begin to be able to make a difference in our children's lives.

We are led by these considerations to the third main ingredient in the educational transaction, namely, the teacher. It is one of the outstanding educational ironies that on this topic there is both the greatest nominal consensus and the greatest actual disagreement. Everyone is agreed that the nation needs the best possible teachers—everyone, that is, who isn't a member of the know-nothing clan that believes in such sparkling mottoes as, 'Those who can, do; the rest teach.' Or, 'Any fool can stand up in front of a classroom.' Or some such other piercing witticism. But once we get beyond this nominal level of consensus regarding the importance of good teachers, the disagreements enter, often with a loud bang.

What Makes a Good Teacher?

What makes a good teacher? This is what we fight about.

What everyone must agree on, whether he thinks it difficult to achieve or not, is that teachers must know how to teach. If there's nothing to it, as some claim, well, that's fine. Then there's no problem—even though, of course, there are millions of problems. But, if we agree that there may be something to teaching that takes a good deal of learning to acquire and understand and be able to practise, we are unavoidably committed to providing that kind of training for teacher aspirants that will make it possible for them to conduct their roles in the educational transaction to the maximum effectiveness.

There are three, perhaps four, major ingredients of this training.

The first is the development in teachers of a commitment to the equal worth of each child and hence of each child's development and growth, whatever his so-called native capacities.

There is, second, the urgent need for every teacher to learn everything and anything he possibly can about the general guides to relationships with children and those particular and special versions that may be codified around particular curricular goals. Such goals are to be stated, let it be remembered, not in terms of subject matters, but in terms of types of understanding, valuing and acting that we desire to build into our children.

There is, third, the requirement of the soundest possible grasp of the range of experiences and materials that might be relevant to these goals, differing, of course, in terms of kinds of children, schools, resources and communities. Differing, please understand, not in the kinds of understanding, valuing and acting that are sought, but rather in the kinds of experiences and materials that may help produce the commitments most effectively. In this way, we guarantee continuity and integration of curriculum, in all places, at all times and on all levels, at the same time that we permit the maximum diversity of means.

There is, fourth, the need for time, energy and interest in the continuous growth of the teacher. Time must be provided by the schools and with it the requisite energy. Interest must be stimulated and arise out of her own experiences in the classroom.

Teachers have no right to claim professional status if they do not commit themselves to the continuing investment in their own growth. But schools, in turn, have no right to expect professional conduct from teachers if they do not provide the time, the support, the encouragement and the facilities for such professional improvement and development.

Above all, surely, teachers need freedom to experiment and innovate; freedom to innovate on the spot without continuous reference to committees and higher authorities who are bound to their concept of neat, tight ships and don't like innovations for that reason, since they are almost always messy. But freedom, autonomy, innovation, experimentation—these are the essence of professional refreshment.

These four ingredients of teacher training and behavior are indispensable, as I see it: to be committed to caring for each child equally; to knowing how to relate to children around experiences and materials relevant to developmental objectives; to have the widest command over ranges of materials and experiences that might be relevant; and to be free to learn continuously, to innovate, to experiment, to deepen their understandings, in short, to grow with the children. These are, I think, what good teachers must have.

Restructuring of the Schools Is Needed

I have tried to say here that the patchwork approach to educational reform has apparently been spectacularly unsuccessful. Not even the most evident symptoms can effectively be disguised. Hence, some fundamental restructuring of the schools is called for. Primary and perhaps foremost is the elimination of the concept of student failure and success. Second, curriculum can no longer be conceived of in terms of the traditional fields of study. It must be viewed rather as a range of possible experiences and materials relevant to specified, desired outcomes in the development and growth of the children. Third, teachers must be trained to care about each child's development equally, and to be knowledgeable about the rhythms and sequences of child development and the range of possible experiences and materials that can be imaginatively brought to bear on those developmental goals.

These are simple to state; terribly difficult to implement. But I do not see any way in which to get at our educational illness if we do not adopt these as our guidelines.

We are inclined to deceive ourselves into believing there is a basic consensus about education and that it is only a question of a difference about means. It is now clear this is both false and dangerous.

There is no such consensus. I have no hesitation in stating that agreement on the three fundamental tasks stated above represents the minimum agreement required before it can be said that consensus exists, and that it is now of the highest order of urgency to see opposition to any or all of these three perspectives as opposition to quality and equality in education, and to act accordingly. □

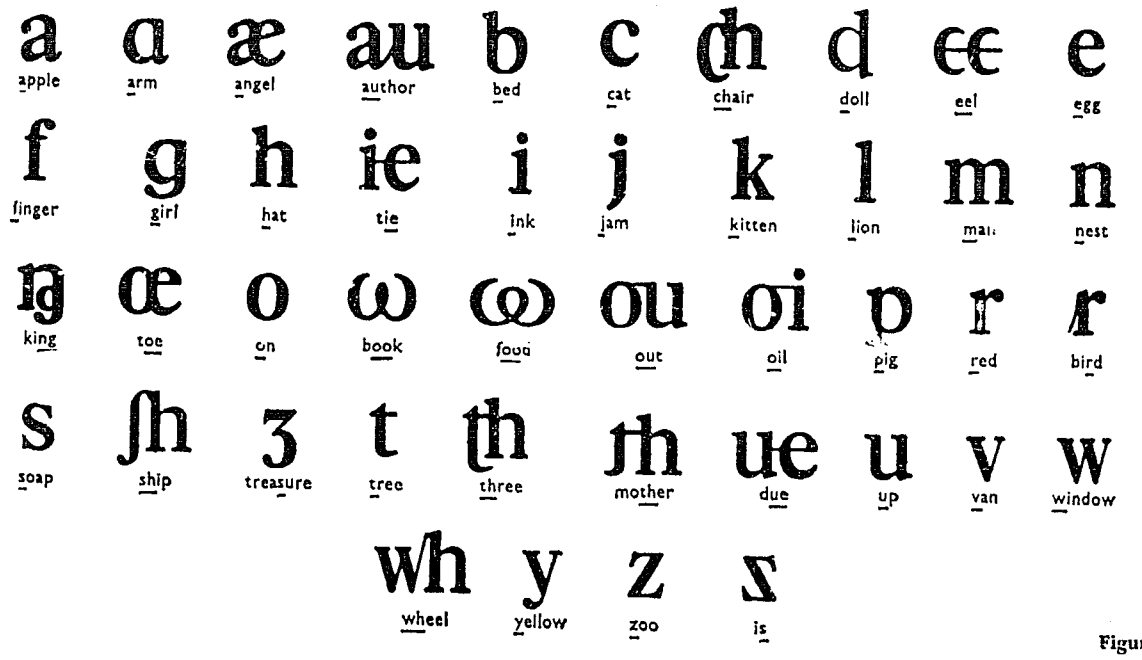

Figure 1.

'No one can read the preceding report without recognizing that we now know far more about the processes of reading and of learning to read than we did before the experiments were undertaken.'

Thus comments Sir Cyril Burt in his review of the British i.t.a. research in *The i.t.a. Symposium* published by the National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales on January 31, 1967. It is the results of this research that have caused many teachers to wish to find out more about i.t.a. This article is designed to answer the questions of teachers who may be taking their first look at i.t.a. as well as for those who have been following the progress of this approach since it was first launched some seven years ago.

What Is i.t.a.?

The i.t.a—Initial Teaching Alphabet—belongs to a group of approaches which in the science of linguistics would be termed *simplified and regularized writing-systems*. 'Writing-system' denotes a system of written or printed characters in the medium of ink which represents the system of sounds of the spoken language in the medium of air. The traditional orthography (t.o.) of English is, of course, a writing-system also, but it is complex and irregular in contrast to the simplified and regularized systems of the i.t.a. kind. Other systems like i.t.a. are, for example, Malone's UNIFON, Laubach's English the New Way, Wijk's Regularized English.

What Are the Chief Features of i.t.a.?

i.t.a. has three main characteristics:

1. It is an augmented alphabet. Figure 1 shows i.t.a.'s 44 characters. This number is made up of 24 letters from the conventional Roman alphabet (q and x are omitted as redundant) and 20 new characters for those phonemes (sound units) of English which have no single letter of their own in t.o.

2. i.t.a. has regularized spelling. For instance, the words 'one' and 'done' are written 'wun' and 'dun' in i.t.a. to match the regularity of the spelling pattern in words like bun, fun, run, sun.

3. i.t.a. is a transitional writing-system. The i.t.a alphabet and its use in i.t.a. spellings are designed deliberately to facilitate the change from i.t.a. reading to t.o. reading.

What Is the Educational Aim of i.t.a.?

i.t.a.'s essential purpose is to clarify the structural relations between the visual stimuli of written or printed English and the auditory stimuli of spoken English. This clarification of structure is obtained by i.t.a. in three main ways:

1. By reducing the number of alternative visual signals for words and for phonemes. Each word has only one visual form in i.t.a., e.g., 'dab' only (not DAB, Dab, etc.). Also, most (though not all) phonemes are printed one way only in i.t.a. For example, the vowel sound common to tie, mine, mind, sigh, guy, by is always written ie , thus **tie, mien, miend, sie, gie, bie** in i.t.a. The structure then stands out clearly within normal English sentences because regular relationships between the visual and auditory stimuli occur much more frequently in a wider variety of words.

2. By removing most multiple-letter representations of single phonemes. A single phoneme is usually coded with a single i.t.a. character; e.g., the word 'through' has just exactly three i.t.a. characters (but seven t.o. letters) for this word's three phonemes, thrœ and this one-for-one relationship again clarifies the structure.

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JOHN DOWNING

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3. By abolishing gross irregularity from the code. In i.t.a. the spelling of a word does not conceal the structure, as t.o. spelling often does. For example, in the t.o. forms of gone, done, bone, one, the child's search for structure is frustrated by the ambiguous use of letter o. In i.t.a.'s gon, dun, bœn, wun , the different phonemes are clearly different in their visual representation.

What Educational Benefits Can Be Obtained with i.t.a.?

Four major educational benefits have been found in the British schools which have participated in the wide-scale trials of i.t.a.:

1. Children more rapidly perceive and understand the structural relations of written and spoken English. As a result, during the first year of school, they generally develop a much wider reading vocabulary in i.t.a. than can be attained in t.o.

2. Self-expression in creative writing can be much more satisfying to children and their teachers with the help of i.t.a.

3. Children have greater self-confidence in their own problem-solving abilities because their hunches are so much more certain to be right in i.t.a., with its more regular code.

4. Because all words in i.t.a. are equally 'phonetic' in their i.t.a. spelling, all the above advantages can be gained without artificial selection of vocabulary. This permits us to put i.t.a. to work to enrich children's experiences of their cultural heritage. For example, children's literature becomes accessible to first-hand experience by the young child at an earlier stage in the business of learning to read.

However, these benefits in i.t.a. are not automatic. It matters very much how i.t.a. is taught.

What Teaching Methods Are Best with i.t.a.?

As Sir James Pitman, the designer of the i.t.a. alphabet, has pointed out so modestly, i.t.a. itself is merely a set of characters—not a teaching method. It must also be admitted that i.t.a. is not inevitably associated with any particular method of teaching. As a matter of fact, quite a wide range of different teaching approaches are currently available in the different i.t.a. programs of various publishers. Teachers must apply their professional training and experience to choose the particular i.t.a. program they believe will help them to use their own special talents and professional skills in bringing out the fullest possible educational benefits from i.t.a.'s potential.

We should note that several of the well-established t.o. series have been transliterated into i.t.a., e.g., *Janet and John*, published by Nisbet in England, was the series put into i.t.a. for the original British i.t.a. experiments. Another well-known series now available in i.t.a. as well as t.o. is the *Beacon* series of Ginn in England. Mention should also be made of *The Griffin Readers* (publisher, E. J. Arnold) and the *Through the Rainbow* series (publisher, Schofield and Sims) which have i.t.a. and t.o. versions. In this category also is the American series, the *New Basic Readers* published by Scott, Foresman Company. Teachers who know the good points of such well-known series may find them equally valuable in their teaching methodology in their i.t.a. classrooms. They now have the additional value of being in the i.t.a. writing-system.

Several series of readers have been written especially for i.t.a. The first i.t.a. series written deliberately to exploit the benefits of i.t.a. was the *Downing Readers* (publisher Initial Teaching Publishing Co. London and Toronto. Also available from i.t.a. Publications Inc., New York). These books are based on the original British research on i.t.a. and were written only after several years of experience in the experimental i.t.a. classrooms. Thus they are geared to proven values in i.t.a. They have a carefully graded vocabulary chosen to permit young children to discover the structure of English within natural language as they experience it in listening to the everyday speech of their parents, brothers and sisters, friends, T.V., radio, etc.

The page from Book 1 of the *Downing Readers* shown as Figure 2 illustrates the educational approach associated with i.t.a. in this original series to emerge from the fundamental i.t.a. research. It emphasizes the need for meaningful reading of whole words and sentences from the start with guided discovery of the structure of English. In line with the findings of recent research on children's thinking the *Downing Readers* have deliberately excluded rote learning and the formal abstract drills of alphabetic or synthetic phonic

Figure 2.

methods. Instead, the beginning stage of i.t.a. reading is entirely in meaningful whole words and sentences, but they are planned to guide the young reader to discover for himself the structure of English. Note, for example, how the phoneme common to 'I', 'like,' 'my' looks as well as sounds the same in Figure 2. In this way, phonetic analysis and synthesis skills are developed naturally as the child is ready for them, and the child's motivation for further discovery and learning is fostered by the successful testing of his own hunches.

The i.t.a. teaching methodology of the *Downing Readers* also places much emphasis on children's self-expression in their own creative writing. Letter-formation, handwriting, or spelling are relegated to a secondary position, and creativity has priority in the free-writing period. In this the *Downing Readers* approach to i.t.a. is similar to that known in America as 'the language experience approach.' This series also stresses the need for individualized teaching in i.t.a.

The *Downing Readers* were designed not only specifically with i.t.a. in mind, but also as an international series for all the English-speaking world. The care taken to make them equally valid for other countries as well as Britain has led to their being used quite widely in Canada, Australia and the United States.

A second series published in i.t.a. only is the American *Early-to-Read* i.t.a. series by Mazurkiewicz and Tanyzer (publisher, i.t.a. Publications Inc., New York). This series was written before the American i.t.a. research and demonstration program began, so it was available for the large scale i.t.a. study in Bethlehem, Pennsylvania. Judging from the lengthy review by Ohanian in *Elementary English* (Vol. 43 pages 373-380; 1966), the *Early-to-Read* i.t.a. series has a very different educational approach from that used in the i.t.a. *Downing Readers*. Ohanian, referring to the *Early-to-Read* series, calls it 'a phonic approach' be cause 'learning phonic clues precedes the learning of word wholes.' Unlike the *Downing Readers*, in this other American series 'a basic sight word list is not an important consideration.'

This difference in methodology appears to arise from the contrasting educational theories on which the two different series are based. Whereas the *Downing Readers* have the guided discovery approach as their essential basis, Ohanian's review of i.t.a. as taught in the *Early-to-Read* series states that 'the mode of teaching and learning is largely through telling and being told respectively and much less through guided discovery.'

The writing aspect of teaching i.t.a. also appears to be somewhat different in the *Early-to-Read* series. According to Ohanian, there is a particular order for teaching children to write the i.t.a. characters when the *Early-to-Read* series is used. In the *Downing*

Readers approach, the only correct order for learning to write the i.t.a. characters is that determined by the words which the child wants to write in his own creative work.

Thus, already within i.t.a. teaching methods one can discern the two extremes of current educational theory represented in these two different series. Just recently, a third new series especially designed for i.t.a. teaching has been made available by the Educational Research Council of Greater Cleveland in Ohio, and doubtless in the next few years other alternative i.t.a. programs will be written and published as educators obtain more experience and research information on i.t.a.

Is Transition Really 'Easy'?

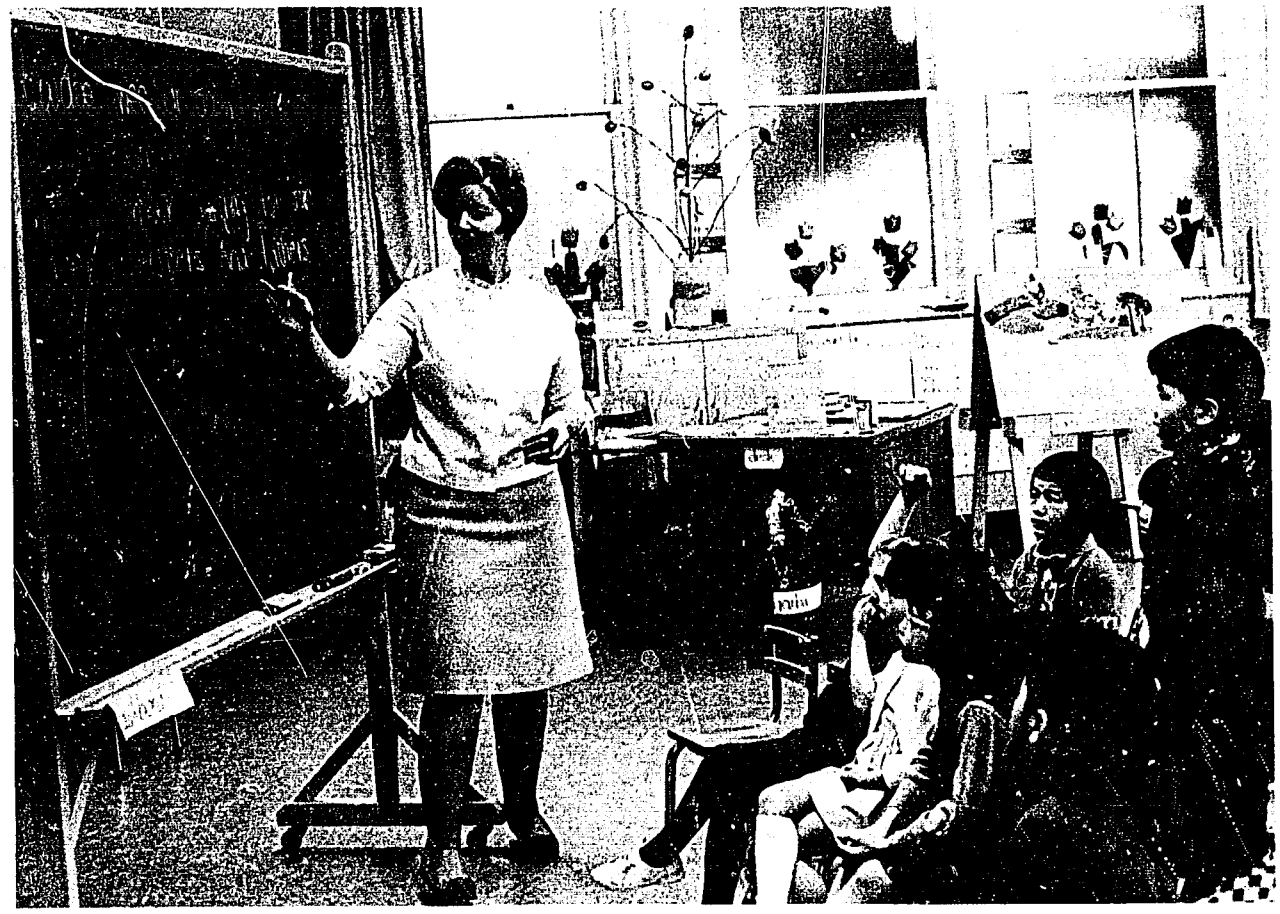
The transition from i.t.a. to t.o. has always been the first question in teachers' minds when considering whether or not to use i.t.a. Teachers in the British i.t.a. research frequently commented that there was 'no difficulty' in the transition stage. Nevertheless, the results of tests in the research did show some slowing down in the children's progress in this transition phase. But it must be remembered that the children tested were in the original i.t.a. experiment in Britain, in which no special teaching materials or methods were available for the transition stage, and the teachers were the pioneers who had never taught i.t.a. previously.

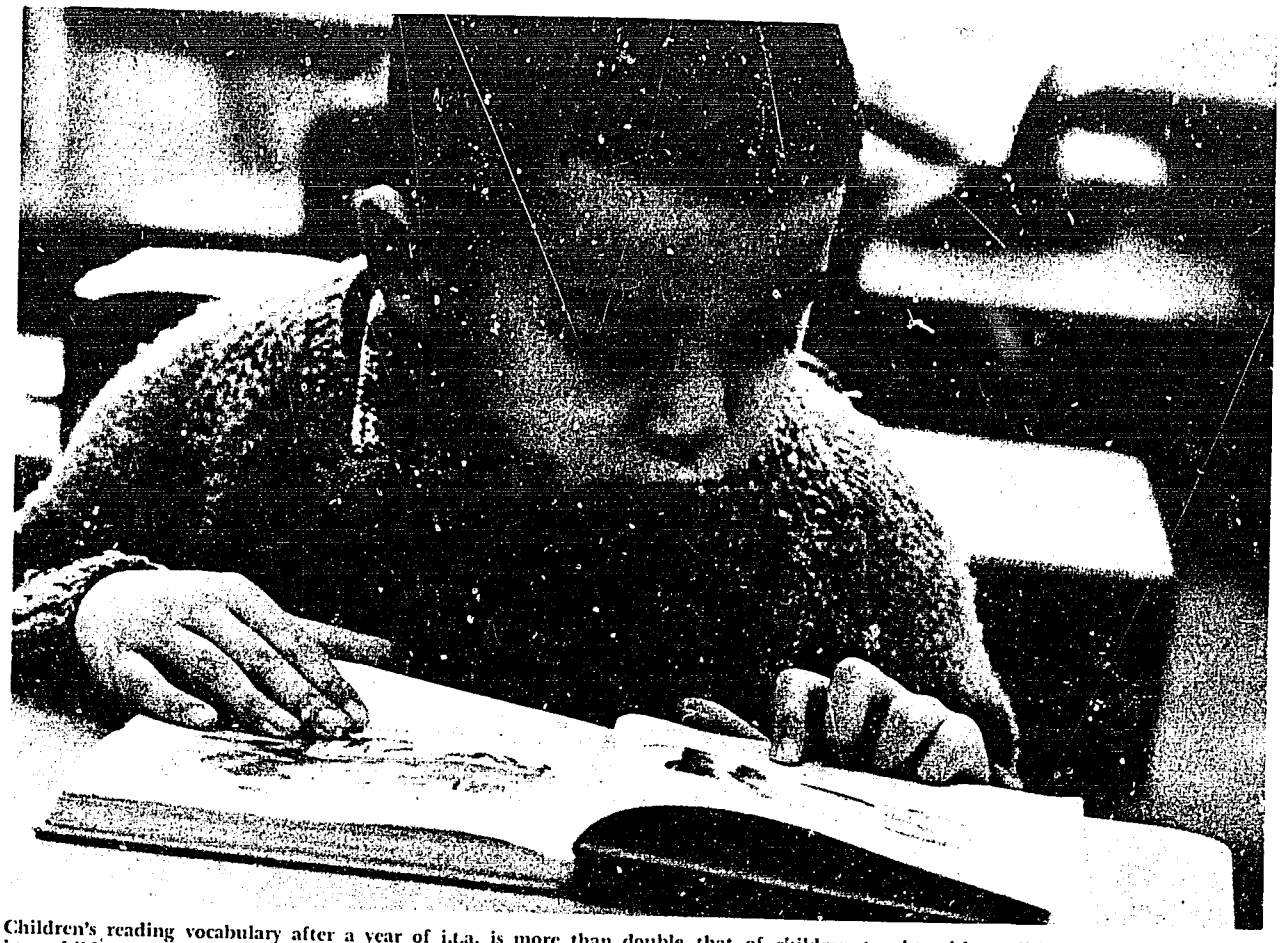
Now, the *Downing Readers*, the *Early-to-Read* series, and the materials of the Educational Research Council of Greater Cleveland all have special materials and methods for the transition stage. But, again, they do not agree in their methodology of the transfer process. After the final i.t.a. book in the *Downing Readers*, come two books, T1 and T2, printed entirely in t.o.—but with a graded introduction of t.o.'s complexities and irregularities. At this level, such grading can be achieved imperceptibly and informally without artificially stilted language. The *Early-to-Read* series uses a different method. This involves a kind of phasing out process in the actual spelling of words, so that some words have mixed i.t.a. and t.o. spellings, e.g., the word 'know' passes from i.t.a.'s nœ, through the mixed spelling 'now,' before becoming finally 'know.'

Timing of transition, too, seems to be different in the two series. In the *Downing Readers* the time for transfer from i.t.a. to t.o. is flexible and is determined by individual differences in the children, although, on average, one can generalize in stating that it usually takes place at about the end of two years. Ohanian's review of the *Early-to-Read* series states that these materials are designed to introduce transition 'usually about April and May' in the first year. Her use of the word 'usually' suggests that some flexibility may be intended with this series also.

Thus in the matter of the methods and timing of the

Mrs. J. E. Walchli, of Strathcona School in Vancouver, has found i.t.a. very effective for teaching reading and writing to children whose mother language is not English.





Children's reading vocabulary after a year of i.t.a. is more than double that of children taught with traditional orthography. The i.t.a. children's written composition is also better than that of the t.o. children.

transition stage, too, the teacher must use her professional knowledge of learning theories and her personal knowledge of her own pupils in making her choice between the quite different i.t.a. programs being offered by publishers.

What Does Research Say About i.t.a.?

Two books published in 1967 contain between them the full story of the seven years of i.t.a. research work in Britain:

1. *The i.t.a. Symposium*, published by the National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales, contains a report of the methods and results of the first British i.t.a. experiment. In addition it includes independent reviews of the research report from 11 experts on reading research in Britain, Australia, Canada, and the United States. The book concludes with an overall summing up by Dr. Wall, the Director of the National Foundation for Educational Research.

2. *Evaluating the Initial Teaching Alphabet*, published by Cassell of London in November 1967, is a much fuller account of the whole i.t.a. research project. It reports the second British i.t.a. experiment as well as the first. It provides a history of previous experiments with simplified alphabets, and it relates the i.t.a. approach to theories of the psychology of the reading process. The results of the two i.t.a. experiments are discussed fully and this leads to a number of important conclusions and recommendations.

Briefly, the conclusions reached are that:

(a) The traditional orthography of English is a serious cause of difficulty in the early stages of learning to read and write. In the research, the data showed conclusively that t.o. cuts reading vocabulary at the end of first year to less than half of what it can be with i.t.a.

(b) Transition is not quite as automatic as some people have suggested. While it is not traumatic, nevertheless tests in mid second year show that i.t.a. pupils read t.o. significantly less well than they read i.t.a.—though not less well than t.o. pupils.

(c) However, by the end of third year, the i.t.a. pupils are about six months ahead in t.o. reading as compared with children who have used only t.o. from the beginning.

Research on the writing of children in the British i.t.a. experiments shows that i.t.a. pupils are superior also in written composition, and that after the transition stage, their t.o. spelling attainments become superior to those of t.o.-only pupils by mid fourth year.

These findings represent the outcomes of the research I conducted. There have been some controversies regarding the methods I used in the research, and teachers who are specially interested in this aspect will find particularly useful two articles I have written in collaboration with some of my colleagues at the Reading Research Unit in London:

1. John Downing, 'Commentary: Methodological Problems in Research on Simplified Alphabets and Regularized Writing-Systems,' *Journal of Typographic Research*, Vol. 1, pages 191-197, April 1967.

2. John Downing, Daphne Cartwright, Barbara Jones, and William Latham, 'Methodological Problems in the British i.t.a. Research,' *Reading Research Quarterly*, Fall issue, 1967.

What Will Be i.t.a.'s Future?

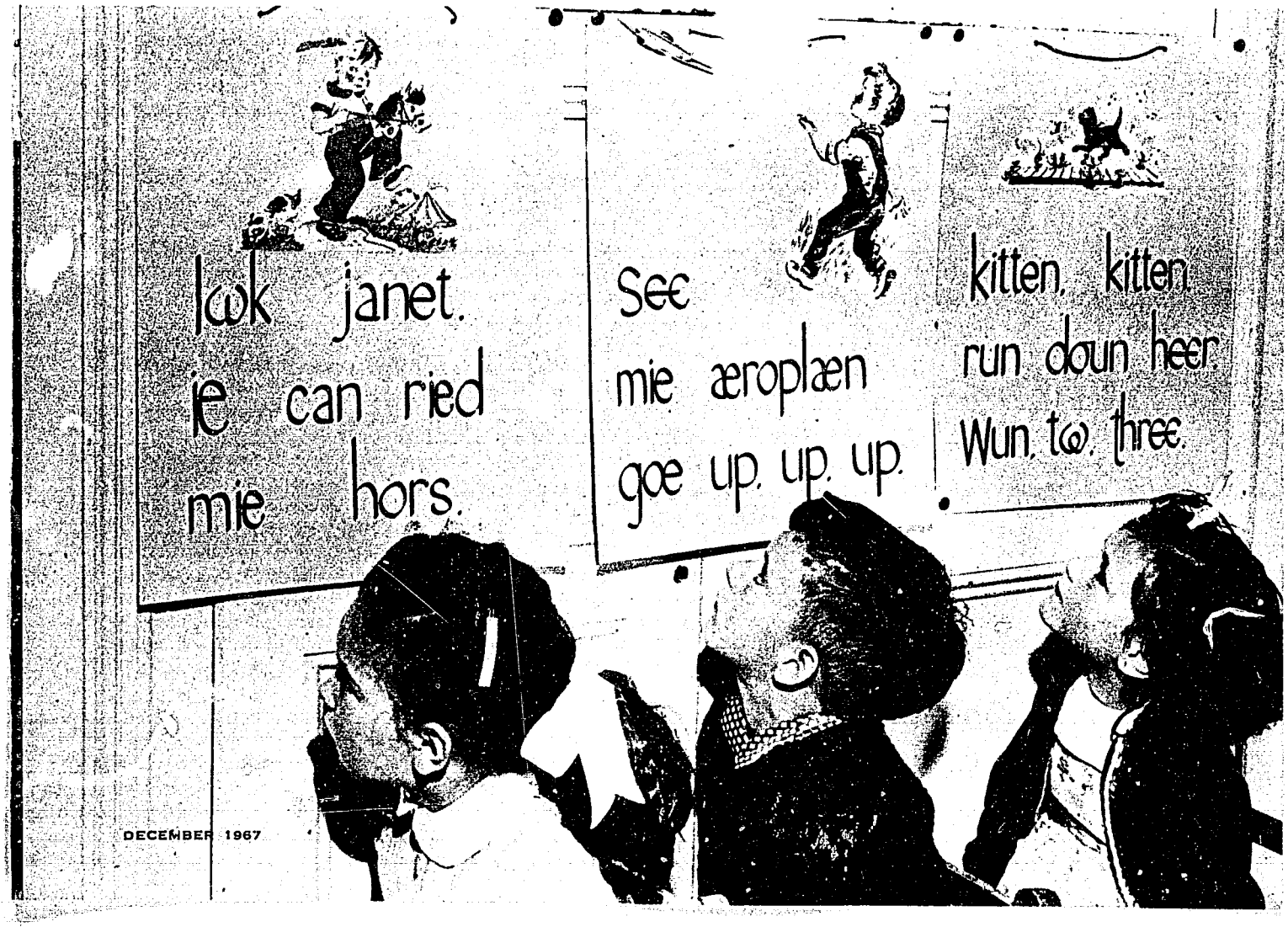
The use of i.t.a. for beginning reading and writing seems to be growing steadily. In Britain the number of i.t.a. schools has increased from 20 in 1961 to 2500 in 1967. In America there has been a considerable increase in the number of schools using i.t.a. since its original introduction at the Anita Metzger School in New Jersey. In Canada, there seems to be a growing interest in i.t.a., and its use seems to be growing also, especially in British Columbia. i.t.a. has been taken up by schools in Australia, Bermuda and other parts of the English-speaking world.

Thus the picture of i.t.a.'s progress is promising for such an unusual change in the curriculum, and, now that the research reports described in the previous section of this article have been published, it may be anticipated that i.t.a.'s use will increase even more rapidly, for the evidence of the damaging effects of t.o. is incontrovertible. It is inconceivable that we can continue to use beginning reading materials printed in t.o. now that it is known that t.o. is responsible for so much waste of effort by teachers and children. Therefore, a wider use of i.t.a. in the schools may be confidently expected as the appropriate next step in this avenue of progress toward improving standards of reading and writing through simplifying and regularizing the conventional English orthography.

However, this prediction must not be interpreted as signifying that the i.t.a. research is completed. This is far from the truth. The present version of i.t.a. is likely to be superseded by further modifications in the years ahead. We know that i.t.a. is much superior to t.o., but i.t.a. users must not become prematurely self-satisfied and create a new orthodoxy. The psycho-linguistic principles underlying i.t.a. should be pursued and developed to the full through further scientific research, and we must be ready for such further improvements as are likely to result.

The results of the seven years of the i.t.a. research project clearly justify the adoption of i.t.a. in its present form by the majority of schools, even though further research is likely to produce, at some time in the future, more improvements in the i.t.a. writing-system itself and in the methods by which it is taught. □

These are three of the thousands of British children taught with i.t.a. during the past seven years. The author directed extensive research studies in Britain which he says prove that i.t.a. is clearly superior to the present alphabet in the teaching of reading.



THE LID IS OFF AT REYNOLDS

GLEN R. POPE

The author is a counsellor at Reynolds Jr. Secondary School in Victoria.

REYNOLDS SECONDARY SCHOOL, Victoria's prize piece of school construction, opened its doors for the first time last September. Right from the early stages of construction there had been a growing conviction among board officials that Reynolds would hold its students gently. By opening day Principal Bob Hunter had worked out with his staff a philosophy for guiding students to maturity that was new to Lower Vancouver Island. The lid would be off.

Many freedoms, as they are often called, are in, and in to stay, if the first few months are any indication. Freedoms and changes in the administrative approach have been seen before throughout the province, but these have been confined mainly to senior secondary schools. Reynolds is a junior secondary school (to become a junior-senior secondary in three years), and freedoms are being given that have never been seen in most junior secondary schools before. The change has not been gradual, coming in drips and dabs; the staff has gone all out right from the start. It is total immersion, total commitment.

We did not want that reactionary lunge at the boundaries that so often occurs when a fence is moved out just a little bit. Students were not going to be able to find the boundaries when they were eased inside for their first look; they were going to have to set their own. Human decency in students would have a chance to show itself.

Why were we giving so much more freedom to junior secondary students? Perhaps it seemed important to us for humanistic reasons to think of our students as young adults with rights and feelings. Or it may have occurred to some of us that previously we had been expending valuable energy getting upset over something that really did not affect the learning situation.

Then, we all had had students ask us, "Why can't we wear jewelry, make-up, or long hair, if we still do our work? Why can't we go down to the shopping center at noon, if we don't cause trouble? Why can't we be in the halls and washrooms at noon? Why can't we go to our lockers between classes if we're not late getting to our next class?'

For these and many other questions, our usual answer, 'You can't because there is a rule against it,' was not good enough. We knew it and the students knew it. It seemed necessary to examine every rule against the criterion of its contribution to turning out educated and responsible citizens.

At Reynolds students find that modern modes of dress and hair styling are in. Bells signaling class starts and ends are out — we look at our watches or a wall clock. That rigid institutional 'ring in the air' is gone. Students enter the building in the morning at their leisure. The entire building is theirs. During opening exercises the 'public attention' system does not explode into life. It is seldom used — except for music at noon.

Students are totally unrestricted in their movement when classes are not in session. A few go to their lockers between classes. At noon they are on their own. Some go for a walk to a nearby park; many move to a shopping center to buy their lunches; most eat in a classroom or an unsupervised lunchroom. And I suspect a few spend the entire hour walking up and

Modern modes of dress and hairstyling are acceptable at Reynolds.

down the halls. The halls always have students in them.

Nobody at the office gives out detentions — there is no detention room — and the administration will not be doing any strapping. Lateness will be excused until it becomes chronic — and then a student will be spoken to, but not punished. Lockers are not locked. Students could arrange to put combination locks on their lockers if they wished, but fewer than a dozen took up the option.

Locks are gone, and so are the policing teachers (formerly called supervision teachers by some). One teacher is available at noon in a central location if students want any assistance. The staff members digest their lunches, now, in a staff lounge that would rival some living rooms with its attractive decor. A rested and renewed teacher enthusiasm is the indirect advantage to the students of this farsighted board generosity.

A student government has been given the closest thing possible to a free hand in bringing social activities to the school. For example, sock hops could be weekly if the students thought they were worth while. Again, staff policing is absent, but noise-making groups on stage are not.

Counselling is offered as a service. Students may ask for an appointment at any time and need not give any reason whatsoever for requesting an hour of the counsellor's time. Moreover, they need not give the counsellor any reasons for coming when they keep their appointments. Students can ask to see either the male or female counsellor. In practice, approximately one-quarter ask to see the counsellor of the opposite sex. In the first six weeks of school, about one-eighth of the students asked to see a counsellor. Counsellors were three days to a week ahead in their scheduling.

There is strong support in psychological theory for what we are doing at Reynolds. Responsible adults did not automatically acquire their maturity through a certain biological timing mechanism. There is no magic age (or even period) at which some transformation occurs in the neurological structures to eliminate juvenile behavior and substitute mature behavior. The behavior patterns of adults have been learned. The schematic structures must have been learned, for the infant appears to have only reflex responses. Thus, the notion of wanting to respect the rights of a fellow man is not present at birth, but is (we hope) at maturity. In the interim, principles of learning theory must have governed the acquisition of the new mental structures.

Whether it is the pronunciation of French vocabulary, the shooting of a basketball, the application of a mathematical formula or behavior at a shopping center, basic principles of learning theory apply. The new skill must be attempted; there must be knowledge of results; it must be practised; and there must be reward or reinforcement. A student learning to take responsibility for his own behavior will follow these principles.

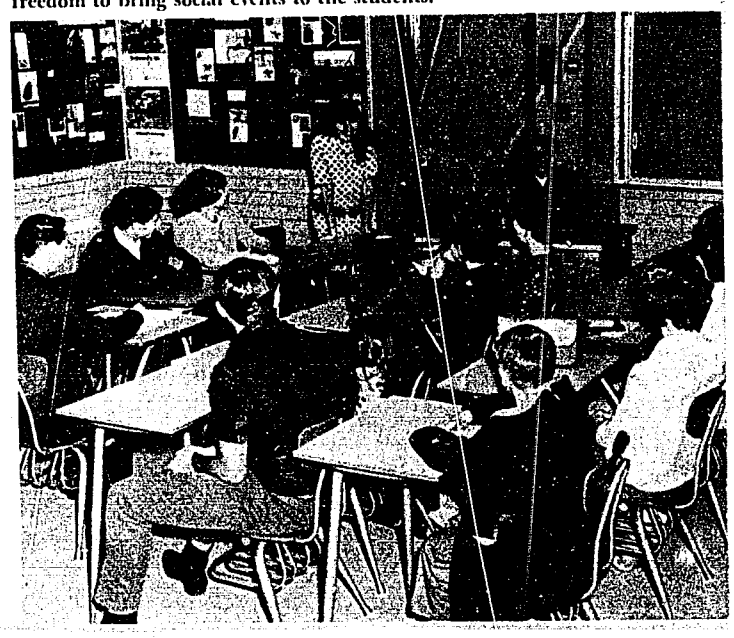
At Reynolds the student has been given the freedom to make a decision regarding his own behavior. Thus, he makes an attempt (the first step in the process). Conceivably, some students will shoot rather wide of the mark at first; the Reynolds staff therefore gives the student some knowledge about the accuracy of his 'shooting' behavior (the second step).

The student is given the freedom to shoot again (practice). If he shoots closer to the mark, he is rewarded. It is important to provide knowledge to the students about how they are doing. The reward does not always have to take the form of a staff member's being present to compliment good shooting. An intrinsic feeling of satisfaction from knowing they are on target will suffice for many students.

Other students will need many pats-on-the-back from the counsellor, the subject teacher, the homeroom teacher, the vice-principal and the principal. I believe that if we put the same amount of energy and emotion into complimenting good behavior when it has come spontaneously from the student as we used to spend punishing poor behavior, we shall achieve far better results. Psychological learning theory supports this view. In fact, many psychologists think it is impossible to drive a particular behavior pattern out of an individual's repertoire with punishment.

Behavior patterns are only temporarily suppressed by noxious stimulation. The best way to eliminate

The Student Parliament, here in session, has been given broad freedom to bring social events to the students.



undesirable behavior is to establish an alternative and socially acceptable type of behavior for the same set of cues. This desirable behavior must be reinforced and established more firmly than the behavior that is unacceptable It is not easy to establish these new behavior patterns, but we believe we have no other choice. Fortunately, students exhibiting undesirable behavior are a very small minority. However, it is often for this very small minority that rules and punishments are established in a school. The vast majority suffer.

The vast majority are *not* going to suffer at Reynolds. Everybody, including staff members, is going to grow in this unstructured and growth-conducive environment.

As painful as it might be initially for some of the staff members, it is essential that the student be given the *freedom* to attempt a type of behavior which seems reasonable for him. It is the first step in producing responsible citizens. Mathematics teachers tell us that math is not a spectator sport. One cannot master it by watching it being done. One must try it.

So it is with learning mature behavior. Students must try it and learn from their mistakes. □

The counselling service at Reynolds is popular. About one-quarter of the students request an interview with the counsellor of the opposite sex.

NO ONE BUT OLD SCROOGE denies that Christmastide is the season to be our jolliest! To help us in our merry-making we traditionally call on age-old Christmas symbols—the Christmas tree, yule log, mistletoe and holly, Christmas cards, presents under the tree, lights and tinsel, the wassail bowl, and, of course, the stockings hung by the chimney with care.

We've gathered this Christmas potpourri from centuries of folklore and legend around the world. For instance, the Christmas tree originally symbolized the Garden of Eden to Germans. The 'Paradeisbaum' (Tree of Paradise) was a central theme of their medieval mystery plays. When these plays were suppressed, the tree (usually a fir) was brought into the home and gradually it became the custom to decorate it with cookies and fruit at Christmas-time.

Many believe it was Martin Luther who first put candles on the Christmas tree. Supposedly, Luther, while walking through the countryside one Christmas Eve, was awed by the sight of the snow-tipped evergreens sparkling in the moonlight. At home, he tried to recreate this effect for his family by placing candles on their Christmas tree.

Mistletoe is another symbol of Christmas from the annals of legend. The ancient Druids thought it was sacred. Forests in which this precious plant grew were dedicated to their gods. Legend has it that Druids cut mistletoe sprigs with a golden knife and hung them over their doors. They believed this pacified the wood-

Material for this article was prepared for the Esquire Sock Company and distributed through Editor's Digest, *an editorial service.*

land spirits and that only happiness could enter while the mistletoe was in place.

Mythology reveals that Scandinavians, too, hung mistletoe over their doorways on the first day of winter to ward off the evil spirits. To the Romans, mistletoe was a symbol of peace and when enemies met under the 'supernatural' sprigs, they discarded arms and declared a truce. From all these myths and customs, mistletoe became a symbol of love and gradually, perhaps inevitably, the custom evolved of kissing under the mistletoe.

Holly, which has always been a popular Christmas decoration, was also thought to be endowed with unusual powers. In legend, Christ's crown of thorns was made of holly leaves. From this emerged the custom of making Christmas wreaths of holly.

British Saxons were the first to gather around the wassail bowl to toast a joyous season and a fruitful New Year. As early as the fifth century, they passed a golden cup of mead around the feast table with the salutation 'Waes Hael!' or 'Be Whole!' Wassail came to signify the special mixture of wine and other magic ingredients that every Christmas village wassailers carried in an immense bowl around town, toasting the season with their neighbors. The idea, though not the same practice, spread and the Christmas punch bowl today embodies the wassail spirit.

There are many different versions of the story of the Christmas stocking. The only fact that can clearly be established is that the first Christmas stocking was fashioned of woollen shreds. In the 1600's, St. Nick put his gifts in hose of pure silk.

Looking into legend once more, we find the first Christmas stocking was really hung by the chimney *to dry*—and St. Nick, making his round of chimneys on Christmas Eve, dropped a bag of gold into the stocking by accident!

This may have been the scene when the first Christmas tree was brought into the home centuries ago. The tradition probably had its origin in the Northern Europeans' celebration of the winter solstice.

Burning the yule log is an ancient pre-Christian custom originating with the Scandinavians. At their feast of Juul (from which we get our 'yuletide') on the first day of winter, they kindled huge bonfires in honor of the god Thor. This occasion was a rollicking and happy one for the people, and remained when Scandinavia became Christian. In feudal times, the bringing in of the great yule log to the wide hearth in the baronial hall was one of the most joyous ceremonies connected with the Christmas celebration. The men cut down the largest log they could find and sang merry yule songs as they dragged it to the waiting hearth. According to custom, the yule log was lit with a brand from the previous year's log. Burning the yule log is still a beloved and picturesque custom in many rural districts around the world.

During the early period of Christianity it was the custom in England for the poor to sing carols—joyful songs—in the streets at Christmas-time. As they sang from house to house, they were given food, clothing and money. This is one way that today's Christmas caroling might have begun.

Another story of Christmas carols claims that St. Francis of Assisi introduced the custom of community carol singing. One Christmas St. Francis staged a manger scene with real people and animals. The onlookers were so delighted with this pageant that they burst into joyous song. Those first carolers became as important to St. Francis' Christmas celebrations as modern carolers are to ours.

The giving of Christmas presents, according to many authorities, took the place of the pagan custom of exchanging gifts at the New Year. Early priests suggested Christmas gifts, because good will, generosity, and kindliness are part of the Christmas spirit. The first such gifts were called 'priests' boxes,' because the priests collected money and jewelry in them to distribute among the poor at Christmas-time. The gift-giving tradition grew and when the Christmas tree came along, it was only natural to put the presents under the tree.

The Christmas card is probably the most recent of our cherished and established customs. In 1846, Joseph Cundall, a London artist, sent the first Christmas card. It was printed in lithography, and colored by hand. Not until 1862, however, did the custom gain a foothold. Cards then were inscribed only with a simple message. Later robins, holly branches, embossed figures and landscapes were added.

The custom of saying 'Merry Christmas' to one's friends and neighbors originated with the English long ago. They shouted this greeting from their windows on Christmas morning.

In a way, every age-old symbol of Christmas we use during the holiday season—from trimming the tree and kissing under mistletoe, to caroling and hanging the Christmas stocking—has the same jolly ring to it: 'A Very Merry Christmas, and a Happy New Year to All!' □

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BCT '67

GYAN NATH

WHAT PRICE TECHNOLOGY?

Must We Lose Human Values?

MUST TECHNOLOGY BE ALIEN to human values? Of course not. For technology is the by-product of man's eternal quest to understand the forces of nature. As man increases his knowledge, he is able to use these forces to satisfy his material wants.

At the same time, human values are the by-products of man's quest to find his own identity. Why was I born? Why do I die? What is the purpose of this life? These fundamental questions, as well as man's instinct for self-preservation, have led to a formulation of rules of conduct and behavior which may be called human values. Human values thus represent the best of crystallized human thought. They are most vocally expressed in religious codes and beliefs. There is nothing fixed about them. They may vary from society to society. They are influenced by the prevailing socio-economic, cultural and moral standards of a society. Yet there is something eternal about them. Values which seem to have permanence, appear to be those which do not conflict with the basic instinct of self-preservation.

In this sense, technology and human values represent two sides of the same coin. Our principal concern, therefore, should be to seek a synthesis between the two. In this process the role of education in relation to society becomes very important.

The writer, a member of the BCTF Committee on Computers and Cybernation, is now at UBC on a doctoral program.

Education and Society

Yet education is society's scapegoat for many of its social ills. It is extremely vulnerable to criticism from many sides. For example, there is a tendency for society to blame the schools for not emphasizing human values. Society tends to look at education as a big shapeless monster gobbling up a fat slice of the tax-dollar. This 'monster' must be tamed and controlled, and at the same time, the schools must produce the 'ideal' man.

Society must realize that many influences, not just the five-hour day, 200-day year of school, determine each child's set of human values. Yet the school is held to be primarily responsible. Let it be noted that society criticizes education because it does not see (since there is no way of seeing) any 'visible output' of its investment. For education produces only 'invisible output' that becomes reflected over a period of years; for example, changing the base of our society from an industrial to a technological one.

Education—1967

We live in a technological society. Revolutionary developments of the past two decades have influenced every area of our life-experience. It is clear that the expanding influence of computer technology will be

Many influences determine each child's set of human values. Among these are their teachers who, consciously or unconsciously, communicate to pupils attitudes, beliefs and values.

even more pervasive than we can now imagine. Some trends are already apparent. For example, people will have a shorter work-week and more leisure. Jobs as we now know them may no longer exist. Adult education and vocational education to provide job retraining will become more important. There may be mass under-employment and fierce competition for fewer jobs.

The importance of education will increase. Teachers will be expected to provide a better quality and quantity of education, for societal ills will increase as a result of affluence and leisure unless checked by the process of education. Just as big business now influences government decisions, it will also influence education. Indeed, we are becoming aware that education is big business.

There is great pressure on teachers to produce *more* and *better*. More of what is not clear to educators or society. Parents demand that their children be better educated than they are or were. Some teachers, however, still hang on to the coat-tails of Plato. For these teachers the concept of education has not really changed over the centuries. The perennial controversy between sciences and humanities goes on asserting that little more of this and little less of that would bring about the perfect individual.

Just as in women's fashions, the hemline of education's skirt has been raised and lowered with the times. In the meantime educational objectives continue to defy and elude quantifiable measurements of educational achievements. Many continue to impart tradition-infested education, sitting contentedly in our little cubicles with a class of 30 or 40 pupils.

One serious consequence of our tradition-bound education and its failure to keep up with modern technology is an increasing attitude of indifference, almost lack of respect, on the part of the learner. A student sometimes feels he is in school because he has no other place to go. A teacher has to teach him because he is getting paid for it. (Lest my remarks be misunderstood, I make this charge with the reservation that not all students have this attitude. Yet an increasing majority—especially among pupils having average or somewhat below average intelligence, as a result of unsatisfactory home environment or *uninteresting* school work—is sharing this attitude.)

I am concerned about the social attitudes toward one another that pupils will inherit when they grow up and share the responsibilities of this society as participants. Learning takes place when there exists healthy and mutually respectful relationships between the learner and the teacher.

Another consequence is that we appear to be becoming an 'other-directed' society, with our decisions being made for us by the mass media manipulators. We ap-

Continued on page 126

PROSPECT FOR GEOGRAPHY

FRANK F. CUNNINGHAM

Mr. Cunningham represents Simon Fraser University on the Professional Committee on the Secondary School Curriculum. As a geographer, he offers in this article an analysis of the present state of his discipline.

A complete acquaintance with one thing, however small, would require a knowledge of the entire universe. — William James

UNTIL THE 17TH CENTURY the acquisition of knowledge and of technical skills was both slow and irregular. The best-informed Europeans living about 100 A.D. were much more knowledgeable concerning many physical facts and relationships in their environment than were the best-informed Europeans living 1,000 years later.

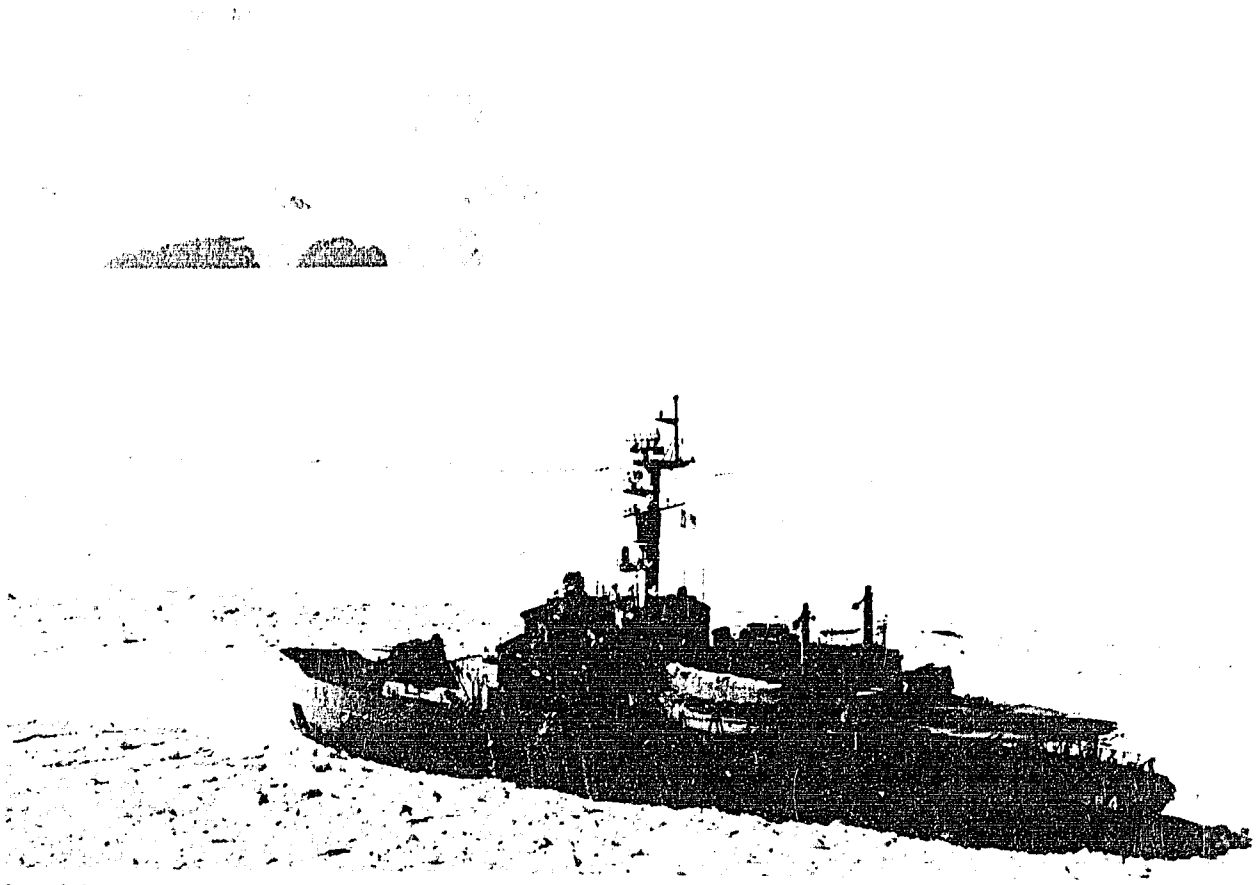
Between the 17th and the 20th centuries, however, there has been a more or less continuous advance in scientific knowledge, which has not only steadily accelerated but also has been increasingly widely diffused. Of course this advance still exhibited variations of rate, and one might single out such special propellants as the inquiries which culminated in Newton's Law or the promulgation of the Theory of Evolution.

That there has been an enormous acceleration in the 20th century is indisputable. It has been reliably estimated that in 1927 there were 1,263 journals of interest to chemists, but that in 1958 there were 7,000. It has been calculated that the amount of biological literature is doubling every 15 years. Appropriately enough, this modern progression has been called the knowledge explosion.

What factors might explain this knowledge explosion? The impact of outstanding individuals has continued, but the rate of development is so rapid and so diffuse that any selection of the most influential of these individuals is extremely subjective. Perhaps Clark Maxwell, Einstein, Freud, the Wright brothers, Edison, Baird, Watson and Crick might be on many people's lists.

Governmental support of research during and after the two world wars has been crucial in many fields, e.g., in atomic energy. Governmental promotions of other sorts, especially in expanding national facilities for education, must not be overlooked since, among other intentions, these supplied the expanding body of researchers who were needed. This is not to ignore the support of research by private enterprise which has continued to be vital.

After 1914 there was a considerable shift in the philosophic and moral foundations of societies, particularly of advanced societies. Previously-held sanctions or reservations against scientific inquiry have been either repudiated or proved ineffective. The de-



One of the major scientific efforts in Antarctica is oceanography. Scientists are plumbing the depths for information for mankind's vast catalog of knowledge. The American icebreaker Glacier, carrying a scientific party, is shown in McMurdo Sound, in full view of Antarctica's only active volcano, the 13,200-ft. Mount Erebus.

cline of commitment to organized religion, the spread of materialism and of the economic interpretation of history, the rationalization of both business and of national economies, those findings of psychologists which showed that the conscious responsibility of the individual for his actions was far from absolute—all these and others conspired toward an acceptance of untrammeled scientific inquiry or at least toward an apathy about the issue.

Indeed, a good case might be made that already we need a more critical attitude about unrestricted scientific inquiry. The behavior of Allied and German scientists over the development of atomic bombs in World War II pinpointed the crux, often evaded, that humanity will get the best from scientific advance only if judgment as well as enterprise is used. We are beginning to be wise enough to detect that absolute freedom is license and can be practised by minorities only at the expense of others. The indiscriminate pursuit of scientific inquiry is a form of license.

In the actual accumulation of the knowledge explosion, data-collecting instruments have increased enormously in range, in sophistication, and in number. At the 'macro' end of the physical universe the capabilities of satellites and radio-telescopes are outstanding examples. At the opposite end, where 'micro' is no longer applicable, increasingly powerful bevatrons are tracing the paths of sub-atomic particles and revolutionizing our notions about matter.

These vastly-accelerating means of collecting data would soon grind to a halt without simultaneous and equally spectacular advances in data processing, storage, and accessibility. It is already a truism that data-processing machinery can not only provide evidence in hours which previously took years, but also can make feasible the accomplishment of tasks which were previously impossible. Some data—some soundings of the sea floor, for example—are accumulating more quickly than they can be used.

Of the multifarious effects of the knowledge explosion the following seem appropriate to the topic. The boundaries of the conventional subjects or disciplines seem less and less satisfactorily defined or definable. As an example of the inadequacy of definition, the methodology of the 'earth sciences' appears admirably suited to investigating the moon. As an example of the blurring of inter-discipline margins, the experience of contemporary middle-aged people is that in their lifetimes they have seen the study of matter migrate from the province of chemistry to that of physics.

Research is moving from discipline-oriented inquiry

to problem-solving, usually by drawing evidence from as many aspects of a problem as possible and by using the variables technique. Although this is much more characteristic of higher education and of industrial research than teaching, it is a characteristic which is diffusing downward. Partly because of this problem-solving approach, but also because of the size of research operations, individual research is giving way to team research, human accumulation of data to computer accumulation.

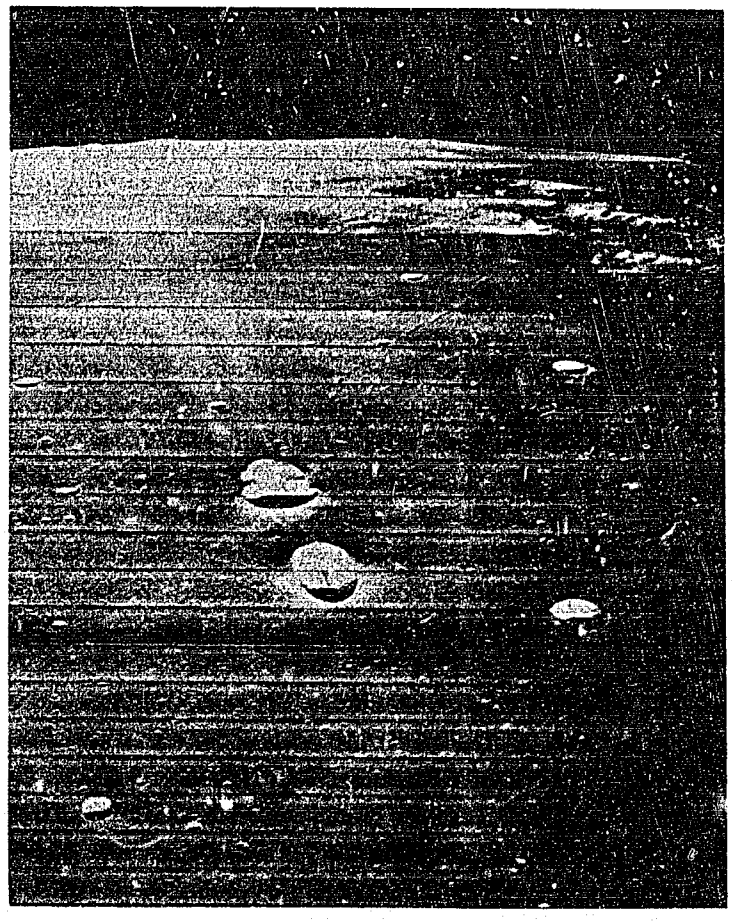
A fundamental dilemma arises from the explosion of knowledge in that, on one hand, the extension of knowledge clearly demonstrates the interdependence of material formulated from different disciplines, but, on the other, the individual researcher finds it possible only to know more and more about less and less. As far as can be forecast, and despite the newest additions to the learning process—increasing reading speed, new cataloguing of data, sleep-learning, subliminal learning, and the like—a modern Leonardo da Vinci seems an impossibility. Yet decisions have to be made and these are, perforce, increasingly based on ignorance in the decision-maker of what some specialist somewhere has already found out. We have learned remarkably well how to select, train and produce specialists. We have hardly begun to think how much we need generalists, much less how to select, train and produce them.

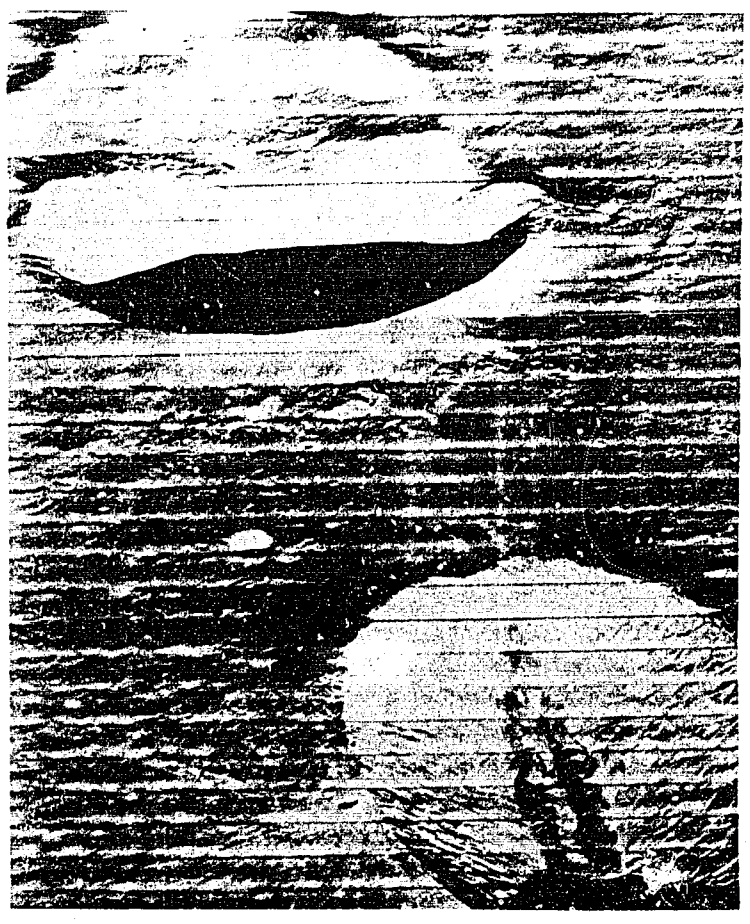
At least as conventionally conceived, geography is a notable casualty of this dilemma, perplexed both by the increasing specialization and by the increasing difficulties of synthesis. Let us first consider the effects of increasing specialization.

Geographers have generally claimed for their subject not so much a specific selection of data but rather a specific approach to data, though how this claim ever squared with systematic geography is difficult to comprehend. This approach has been to consider distributions, and more sophisticated studies have been thought to be concerned with syntheses derived from the interaction of several distributions. The most hoary of modern definitions (if such a paradox is permissible) of the subject is that geography is concerned with the spatial interactions between man and his environment. Not surprisingly, the map has been widely regarded as the distinctive tool of the geographer. Geographers have far too often and too long wrangled about definitions of the perimeter of their subject and not sufficiently about the structure of what lies inside the perimeter, and are now facing considerable confusion.

Geographers often overlook the fact that spatial interaction was never exclusively theirs. The ecological work of biologists long preceded the emergence of modern geography. While many of us claim Alexander von Humboldt as the father of our subject, we have to remind ourselves that he was essentially a biologist. In recent decades Planning has emerged as a largely separate discipline, although having essentially the conventional concepts and methodology of geography as its structure. The shortsightedness of professors of geography some 20 years ago, in not embracing Plan-

The boundaries of the conventional disciplines seem less and less satisfactorily defined or definable. The methodology of the 'earth sciences,' for example, seems admirably suited to investigating the moon. These Lunar Orbiter-5 wide-angle and telephoto views are of the craters Messier and Messier A on the floor of the moon's Mare Fecunditatis. Scientists say the shapes of the rays and craters indicate they may have resulted from a low-angle impact of a meteoroid on the lunar surface.





ning as a logical extension of their subject into the fields of public inquiry and action, has meant that much excellent work in geography is not done in that name—which is, perhaps, not too serious.

The concern of disciplines other than biology and geography with spatial considerations is comparatively recent, but there has been a formidable extension in this respect by economists, sociologists, anthropologists and others, including doctors. Increasingly the specialist within these disciplines undertakes work on the distributional aspects of his data without seeking the assistance of trained geographers, although he may use cartographers. Increasingly he resents geographers contributing in a discipline in which he considers them inadequately trained.

This extension of other disciplines into the spatial approach is a very serious development, and it is quite inadequate this time to counter that it is of no concern whether the work achieved is called geography or something else. The flaw in this is that while each individual discipline may use the geographical approach to some of its data, only the geographer has a proper concern for the interaction between the spatial distributions from several disciplines. Only the geographer is specifically trained to make such syntheses.

Geography Has Become Specialized

Partly in answer to the criticism that geographers are not sufficiently expert in the discipline which provides data for their systematic studies, specialization in geography has grown apace. It has already proceeded sufficiently far that specialists in different branches are now likely to be mutually unintelligible. Commonly, a 'physical' geographer and a 'cultural' geographer may be as remote from each other in their thinking as are workers in recognizedly different disciplines.

These developments vitiate the claim that geography is concerned with a distinctive approach rather than with distinctive materials. The specialist, systematic geographer is concerned with a limited and specific selection of data. In almost every case these data have been created within the province of another discipline—geology, sociology, anthropology, history, economics, to name a few. Such specialization is both desirable and inevitable, but it must be accompanied by much greater attention to syntheses and to informed generalization. That a proper training in geography can produce excellent generalists is seen in the high value which many governments put on geography-trained personnel. But if we are to continue so to produce, students must be exposed to more than a list of courses promoted by the narrow specialist. They must also be exposed to specific courses which deal with syntheses, models and generalizations based on advanced materials supplied from several fields.

Let us consider next how the knowledge explosion has increased the difficulty of making geographical syntheses. Synthesis derived from the study of many (and, I hope, the most important) distributions has always been the justification for regional geography. On this assumption, regional geography should be the apex of our subject, and most school curricula pretend that this is so. Sadly, however, it has to be conceded that first-rate, meaningful, regional geography written by one person and incorporating the advances made in the systematics has been impossible for some time.

The truth of this is seen in the decreased significance which universities give to regional work, both in the proportion of their time and in the esteem in which it is held. Some famous universities have given up regional geography altogether. Others, perhaps illogically, engage in 'area studies' in which the geographical aspects of an area are considered in parallel with other aspects. This agglomeration may provide an interesting education, but does little to advance geographical conceptions. Some geographers foresee as the only future for regional geography a cluster of courses given by a committee of experts, each one specializing in a particular systematic and able to exemplify it over the area in question. Presumably the students on such a course will arrive at a better synthesis than is possessed by any one of their professors. There is also, however, a clear need continually to go back with our more advanced, specialist knowledge to case studies of particular areas.

The suggestions I have posed above are: (1) the central core of common intention among geographers is decreasing vis-à-vis their advance into specialisms; (2) the remedy of synthesis is increasingly difficult to achieve; and (3) the schism between the school's and the university's curricula, though partly a reflection of the rapid advances in the higher levels of geography, is also an indication of a marked divergence from earlier thinking.

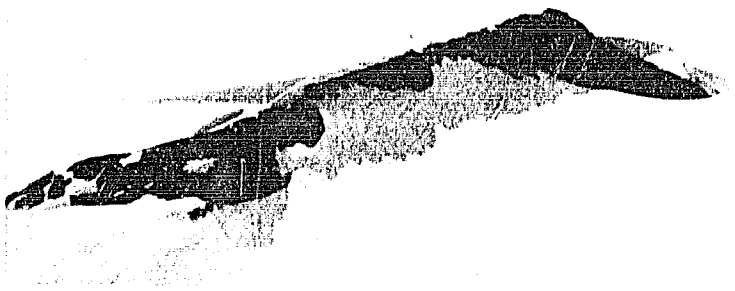
Geography Can Contribute to Philosophy

If this divergence is taking place in sound directions, it is overdue. From its nodal position overlapping the humanities and the sciences and by its tradition of attempting synthesis of total reality, geography seems admirably suited to contribute significantly to philosophy, but has done little in this field since the decline of environmental determinism. It might be considered symptomatic that very few books, even by the best of modern professional geographers, have at the same time commanded the acclaim of both their authors' peers and of intellectuals in other fields. Moreover, not one such book has become a new classic and commanded the attention of the general public.

The dialectic thinking of most geographers is probably responsible for their lack of a convincing, modern philosophy which is meaningful outside the discipline. They have been perversely schooled to see dichotomies between men and nature, between physical and human geographies, between regional and systematic geographies, between qualitative and quantitative values, between practical and intellectual approaches.

The most important of these hindrances is their continued allegiance to anthropocentricism. It is from this allegiance that they gravely consider 'The Earth as the Home of Man.' How much of British Columbia is the home of man—10%? How much of the Amazon Valley? How much of the world's desert lands? How much of the world beyond the 60th parallels? Does Antarctica have no geography because it is not the home of any men?

The devotion to anthropocentricism is the more



Does Antarctica have no geography because no men live there? This range of mountains in an uncharted area of Queen Maud Land was recently discovered by U.S. Navy fliers.

remarkable considering the many geographers who have been exposed to some geology. If there is a universal pattern, and if this pattern implies a universal purpose, was that purpose in abeyance until the Pliocene epoch arrived on a minute planet? Will that purpose cease to operate when mankind has disappeared from that minute planet?

The bumptiousness of anthropocentricism is not responsible for the division between the physical and organic worlds, but it does explain the extraordinarily illogical and unproductive division which geographers have chosen between the so-called physical and human aspects of their work. To many geographers, apparently, the word 'physical' includes plants as well as the animals, except man. 'Biogeography' omits consideration of the most interesting of all mammals. This false division prevents geographers taking proper advantage of the many similarities which exist between human and animal societies. Equally frustrating has been the man/environment schism, when it is only too obvious that the principal element in the environment of any man is other men.

We make an almost classic obstacle to the formulation of any sound philosophy by persisting with the supposed differences between areal differentiation and process, and by neatly, but unsatisfactorily, equating these with geography and history respectively. This situation has arisen because dynamic thinking in areal differentiation has lagged far behind that in process. Geographical work has too often stopped at the revelation of distributions, without proceeding to examine how such distributions work and in what directions they seem likely to develop. To formulate both working and predictive models we must consider how the material revealed by a particular distribution came to be as it is, i.e., we must be interested in origins. However, it seems reasonable that, if a particular scholar is much more interested in the origins of a distribution than in how it works and what its likely future is, he is more a historian than a geographer.

Because geography overlaps the sciences and the humanities, it is less committed than either to the decision between quantitative and qualitative values, but this is a dichotomy which, in practice at least, is rapidly disappearing. There has been a large advance in modern North American geography to carry over the quantitative approaches, which had long pervaded the physical aspects of the subject, to the human aspects. Of course, there is nothing very remarkable in this, for insurance companies have been quantifying human behavior successfully for several centuries.

The regional versus systematic issue I mentioned earlier is very real, inasmuch as the choice of field is concerned. The best geographers will continue to be interested in both, but it is clear that regional geography needs to be academically resuscitated on sounder bases. Two related issues should disappear more quickly. These are the disparagement of the one persuasion of geographers by the other, and the false association of 'regional' with elementary and empiricism on the one hand, and of 'systematic' with profundity and theoretical concepts on the other.

Few educational practices have been more mischievous than the pretence that a young child can more readily learn by hearing about or reading about some area entirely remote from his experience than he can by observing and measuring the characteristics of his local settlement or of his local creek. □

Humanity will get the best from scientific advancement only if judgment as well as enterprise is used.

ROBERT A. MARTIN

CONTINUOUS PROGRESS DOES WORK!

A CONTINUOUS PROGRESS PROGRAM does not involve any change in teaching objectives or procedures from those practised in the average classroom where modern methods are used and a differentiation of instruction is attempted. Any teacher who recognizes the need for and groups for instruction in the core subject areas is, in effect, recognizing a Continuous Progress plan.

There are, however, two myths that must be dispelled before we can incorporate a Continuous Progress program. First, we must do away with the graded system. This is an administrative device and can be replaced just as effectively with a division system. Second, we must dispel the idea that there are certain texts at a given grade level. The textbook is a tool used to reinforce taught skills, not a curriculum. A Grade 6 teacher is justified in using *Happy Highways, Under Canadian Skies* and *Broad Horizons* if these tools meet his group needs. If the teacher and administrator are prepared to accept these two suggestions, they are on the road to a Continuous Progress program.

The Continuous Progress plan is based on the spiral of learning process. This type of instruction is well illustrated in our level system. Each pupil is required to master a certain body of skills before proceeding to the next level. If the child has a fairly thorough knowledge of the previous level, he should progress to the next level commensurate with his ability. In other words, some youngsters will complete the program in three years while others may require four. In Prince Rupert, approximately 20 to 30% of our youngsters require a fourth year to complete the requirements of the primary program. In keeping with a program of Continuous Progress, the bulk of the pupils will complete the elementary school program in seven years, while others may require eight or nine years.

No rigid grade system ever fully satisfies the needs of all of the pupils in the average classroom. Through necessity the curriculum tends to favor the majority or the average pupils. As a result it imposes unrealistic demands on the slower pupils and it often fails to offer sufficient challenge to the superior ones.

—Leonard P. Sampson, Director of Instruction, West Vancouver.

The curriculum for a Continuous Progress program has been established for us. The level system, if used as outlined in the Program of Studies, is designed for continuous progress. The level system does not work when tied into the graded system. Some of our youngsters do not complete four levels in their first year at school; some complete only three.

The level system aligned with the graded system:
Examples:

Year	*Levels*
One	1,2,3,4
Two	5,6,7
Three	8,9,10

Mr. Martin is supervising principal of Roosevelt Park School, Prince Rupert.

The level system aligned with a plan of Continuous Progress:

Examples:

Pupil A—faster

Year	*Levels*
One	1,2,3,4,
Two	5,6,7,
Three	8,9,10.

Pupil B—slower

Year	*Levels*
One	1,2+
Two	2+,3,4+
Three	4+,5,6,7+
Four	7+,8,9,10.

It is interesting to note that approximately 20 to 30% of our pupils will require four or even five years to complete the primary division. We have not mentioned the word 'grade' in the primary sections of our schools during the past three years, and our parental community is oriented toward the idea that their children are proceeding through the primary program at their own rate of progress.

We have, however, found some very effective 'do's':

1. Do encourage flexibility in grouping. A level is not a reader, but a body of skills and concepts. A reader is a 'tool'; encourage the use of a variety of readers.

2. Do not feel obligated to push a child through four levels, but be aware of the skills and concepts to be mastered.

3. Do use a variety of approaches with a particular emphasis on the Language Experience approach.

4. Do not confuse skills with concepts. Concepts are deepened or enlarged with experience.

5. Do adapt needs to the group. Try interest grouping.

6. Do encourage discussion.

7. Do spark ideas for composition. Spend less time on filling in blanks.

We use the same philosophy in the intermediate division. When we group Grade 4's or Level 11's, we have adopted a variety of plans. For example:

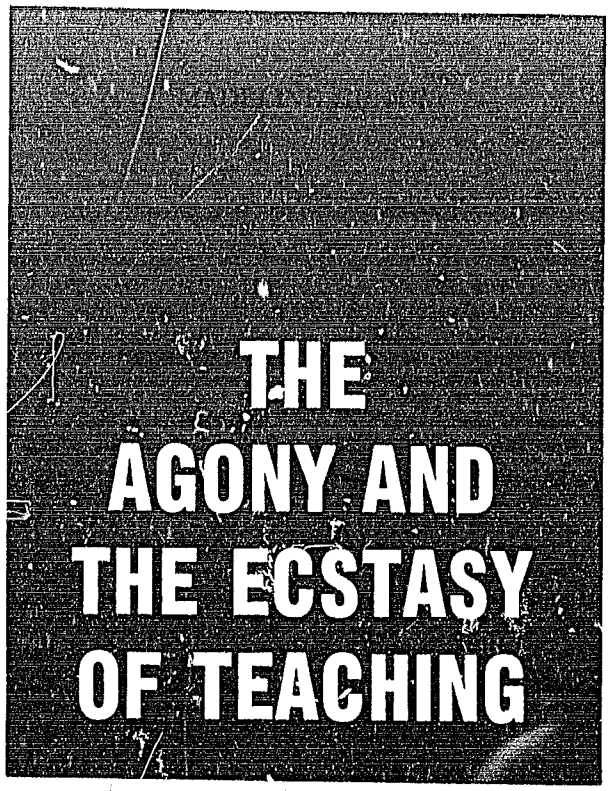
Level 11 — (Grade 4)

Group	*Tools*
A fast group	*Happy Highways* and enrichment readers.
B	*Happy Highways* or a reader of equal difficulty
C	*Developing Comprehension in Reading* (Dent) or skill texts
D	SRA and a reader
E	Macmillan Reading Spectrum
F	Ginn -3, 3 and 3+ readers

Approximately 70% of the Year 4 youngsters will read the basic text, *Happy Highways*, while the remaining 30% may use this tool at the Year 5 or 6 level.

You, too, can establish a Continuous Progress program in your school if you: (1) recognize the need for groups in the core subject areas; (2) recognize the fact that each child progresses at his own rate; (3) recognize the need to teach concepts in the cultural activities—social studies and science. Concepts are not 'mastered' but deepened or enlarged with experience.□

In a continuous progress system, each pupil proceeds at his own rate. He is not forced to speed up or slow down to the average speed of a class.



DO YOU WANT to belong to a profession where people think you are the most wonderful person in the world? Do you want to know the secret of eternal intellectual youth by always learning something new and fascinating? Do you want to have what you do really make a difference? Do you want to have a future—a hand in the future of all mankind? These are the ecstasies of teaching.

Can you stand a workday that's never over—no matter what you finish there's always something else to do? Can you stand never really knowing all of the answers? Can you tolerate the fact that only when you are no longer needed have you achieved your professional aim? These are the agonies of teaching. And this sensitive balance between agony and ecstasy is determined by the kind of person you are and the quality of your teaching. Because the agony and the ecstasy aren't separate rewards and punishments—they're opposite ends of the same continuum—and your ability to perform in this oh-so-important profession, will determine whether you move to the agony end or the ecstasy end.

What Is the Real You?

Let's look at some of the things that might move you into the ecstasy end. First of all there's you. What kind of a person are you? Now, you don't have to be one certain kind; you don't have to be tall or short or thin or fat or blonde or brunette, but there are certain qualities you must possess. And the most important is ego-strength, because you have to meet the barrage of thousands of personalities and yours must be able to withstand it. You must be able to stand the fact that

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Dr. Hunter is principal of the University Elementary School, UCLA. The article is reprinted with permission from September-October 1966 issue of Utah Educational Review.

when Jimmy is put out in the ball game he takes out his frustration on you in your math class. You must be able to tolerate Mrs. Smith who wants flibbertigibbet, butterfly Jane to be a straight-A student and says it's your fault when she isn't. You must be able to stand up under the erosion of your nervous system as Jimmy—whose parents never put him to bed on time—jiggles and twitches his way through your day. And you must be able to survive when a tired, overworked, overcriticized principal scolds because your class isn't quiet.

Ego-strength Works for You

If you don't possess ego-strength, you'll retaliate. You'll pick up the opposite end of this tug-of-war and Jimmy will be frustrated in the ball game *and* in your math class. Your tart report to Mrs. Smith about the quality of Jane's intellectual ability will only increase anxiety; your pressure on an overtired boy to sit still in school will compound his frustration to the explosion point; and your sarcastic suggestion that the principal take your class and show you how to do it will only increase his conviction of his own incompetency and your inability to be worked with.

As a teacher you have to remember that these things occur not because you're you, but because people are what they are; and because you're a teacher, you're going to have to provide special success in mathematics to bathe the wounds inflicted in physical education. You're going to have to do everything to make Jane achieve to the maximum and help Mrs. Smith be happy and satisfied with that achievement; you're going to have to make the school a better place for that principal.

Well, this sounds very good, you say, but when does somebody start taking care of your needs? They don't; and they don't need to because success in teaching satisfies a much more fundamental need.

The Other's Point of View

There is a second quality that will go a long way toward moving you to the ecstasy end of this continuum and that's the ability to move from your own perceptions, with all their built-in bias, to the very strange territory of another person's point of view. Then look around and things look *very*, *very* different. If you leave your own point of view, you win a tremendous objective—that of always being fair and objective.

If you see Bill slug Jane, you'll find out what she did to cause him to want to hit her. You will probably be surprised he didn't hit her harder. You'll look at some of the things that are going on around you and you'll appreciate that your perception is not always the perception of another boy or girl. You'll realize that much of what we look on as misbehavior is really only having fun.

Not long ago two little boys were sent to me because they had been having a water-bomb war in the bathroom. You'll recognize this—all the platitudes of the work for the janitors and wasting the paper towels and all this other stuff, and I was really very, very annoyed because one of them had just stepped on my brand new alligator shoes and I wondered if the scuff was ever going to come off. So when I got finished with

my lecture, one of them said to me, 'But, gee, it was fun.'

You know, it never occurred to me that they were doing it just to have fun and not to make work for me and the custodian and everybody else and I was so taken aback I said to the other boy, 'What are you thinking about?' and he looked at me and said, 'Did those shoes come from a real crocodile?' Looking at something from the other person's point of view can open brand new territory for you.

A third factor that will go far toward moving you to the ecstasy end of the continuum is your genuine interest in and concern for people. Following the tedious labyrinth of cause and effect of a child's behavior can be a fascinating journey or a tedious chore, depending on your point of view. But oh, the dividends are great, as you understand why Johnny acts the way he does and as you begin to manipulate his environment so it will be easier for him to act in a different way. Now, I've said ego-strength. Ability to look from another's perspective and genuine interest in and concern for people will move you toward the ecstasy end of the continuum.

Intangible Quality

There's another quality, but it's much less tangible, and that is knowledge of self. This knowledge is the most difficult to secure and comes from an area where it is most painful to probe. What kind of a person are you? Not the *you* you want other people to think about, or the *you* you'd like to be, but the real *you*. Is your anger at that boy righteous indignation over his inappropriate behavior, or anger because he's exposed the fact that you can't make him behave? Are you comfortable with the fact that you're very adequate in mathematics but in music you're really only bluffing? Teachers often ask me how I know when they're teaching off the cuff—when they're completely unprepared. And I answer, 'I ought to recognize it, I've done it a million times myself.'

Knowing yourself for what you are will help you sort out your strengths and your not-so-strong points. Enhancing your strengths and working on some of your liabilities, changing those that you can and accepting those that you can't change; then indeed, you become a comfortable person to live with.

Quality of Teaching

I have talked about the things that are the *you* in education; now I'd like to talk about the things which are related to the quality of your teaching—your pursuit of excellence. First is the 'what you teach' and we think of this as the subject matter. And this is the easier of the two because the other one is the 'how you teach it,' which is much more difficult. But even the 'what' is getting harder. With the explosion of knowledge, no longer are we able just to memorize a bunch of facts and have our children memorize them too; no longer are we able to stay one page ahead in the math book or in the social studies book. Now we must filter out all of the important key concepts and generalizations and use them as place holders for all those facts that won't be remembered a minute without them. We're moving rapidly in this area. Mathematicians,

geographers, scientists are distilling out of all the content, the key concepts, which we should be teaching. As we learn these concepts and feel comfortable with them, we've moved far toward the ecstasy end of the continuum.

'How' is Most Difficult

The other part of the 'what' is the 'how.' How in the world are you ever going to get this across to Johnny? Fifty years ago people were depending on divine revelation, or extrasensory perception, or the ouija board to figure out what to do about Johnny tomorrow. Now we have a great mass of research in learning theory, so that we don't have to 'guesstimate,' but can work with high probability of success by using research. As this research is fed into us, and it must be fed in (you and I don't have the time to spend the hours in the library distilling out this research), then, indeed, we become competent teachers. And as you're competent in the 'who' and the 'what' and the 'how' of teaching you will, indeed, become a master teacher.

This sounds like a big order—it is a big order. Teaching is not for the people who can't tolerate ambiguity; teaching is not for the people who need to know all the right answers; teaching is not for the person who wants a nine-to-five day. But for those of us who choose teaching in spite of all this, the rewards are great.

Dangerous Pitfalls

But there are two *very dangerous pitfalls.* The first one is that teaching is such a fascinating profession that you're soon apt to think of nothing else. Consequently, in order to maintain your equilibrium in teaching, you need to have other hobbies, other pursuits. A lesson gone awry can't attain catastrophic proportions if you have a hungry family to go to; if you have a fascinating hobby; or an interesting new activity. So by all means don't dedicate your complete self to education. Have other things that will act, if nothing else, as counter-irritants.

People often ask me why I don't get excited about the maelstrom we are running at University Elementary School, and I say, 'Who has time—I've got to get home and feed the kids.' And then people ask me why I don't get excited about that. I can't; I am due some place else to a meeting. So you see the two work very well.

Now the other pitfall in education is even more insidious. The adulation you receive from children can become a narcotic on which you get hooked. The fact that somebody thinks you are the most wonderful person in the world is great if you use it to propel that person's learning. It's not great at all if you use it as a Band-Aid on your own ego. So when all this adulation pours onto you, know whether you are using it professionally to promote learning, or personally for self-maintenance.

Do you want the whole world to think you're wonderful? Do you want to have a hand in the future of all mankind? Do you want what you do really to make a difference? Do you want to possess eternal intellectual youth by always learning something new and fascinating? These are the ecstasies of teaching. May your ecstasies increase. □

"Now when did you first get this urge to give things away?"

G. A. Fergusson Memorial Award

Nominations for the G.A. Fergusson Award are called for by the British Columbia Teachers' Federation

The conditions provide that the award shall be made annually to the Federation member (or ex-member who is no longer eligible for membership), or to a member-Association, who or which has made, in the judgment of the Trustees, an outstanding contribution to education.

Nominations of candidates for the Award may be made by any Federation member or by any Local Association of the Federation. Each nomination should be accompanied by a description of the work for which the award is claimed and supporting evidence should also be sent. Meritorious work on behalf of the Federation or any Local Association may rightly be included.

Nominations must be received by the General Secretary at the Federation Office, #105 - 2235 Burrard St., Vancouver 9, B.C., not later than February 20, 1968.

A MATTER OF OPINION

WANTED: AN ART CO-ORDINATOR

R. N. MacGREGOR

IN NOVEMBER 1966 the B.C. Art Teachers' Association presented a brief to the BCTF Executive Committee requesting its assistance in the establishment of a position for a general secretary who would also act as an art co-ordinator for the province. The thinking was that the provincial co-ordinator would provide the association (and indirectly all teachers of art in B.C.) with whatever information he might collect from attending national and international seminars and conventions on art education. At the same time he would be charged with the more immediate task of aiding and advising art teachers within the various school districts of British Columbia.

The request was turned down. Among the reasons given was 'that such an appointment would lead to requests for similar appointments from several—perhaps most—of the other 21 specialist associations.' Also, reservations were entertained on the measure of the success such a co-ordinator would have in 'breaking into' local school districts which must, perforce, be visited fairly infrequently. Furthermore, it was argued that it was hardly justifiable to appoint a subject specialist 'at a time when less emphasis (was) being put on subjects.'

Few of these objections appear to have much validity. If other specialist associations should request similar appointments and should put forward a persuasive case for their initiation, one would hope that the criterion for their adoption would be the ultimate worth of the appointment to the teaching profession rather than whether or not a precedent existed for them. The argument against subject specialists ignores the point that while the various disciplines may have features in common, this communion can in no way be a substitute for the specialized knowledge that experts in specific subject areas have. And finally, there are at present no data collected to permit assumptions being made on the problems which the co-ordinator might meet within the various school districts.

Mr. MacGregor has taught art at both elementary and secondary schools in the Cariboo and Victoria.

There is, however, a certain amount of documented evidence to suggest that teachers of art would be grateful for skilled advice in the handling of art programs. Two surveys have recently been conducted in this field, one by the Burnaby Art Teachers' Association and the other by the Greater Victoria Art Teachers' Association. Both were completed in 1967; both employed questionnaires, which were circulated, in Burnaby, among all the teachers of art and, in Victoria, among the teachers of art in the elementary schools. The Burnaby survey noted that '160 teachers (out of 216 reporting) requested the help and guidance of an Art Consultant to aid them in program planning and to give demonstrations in the classroom. . .' The Victoria survey, having mentioned 'deficiencies in the technical qualifications of many of the teachers who administer the (art) program,' pointed out that one of the most frequent requests in the returned questionnaires was for advice from persons properly qualified to administer an art program.

It is not too much to believe that what is true in Burnaby and Victoria is quite possibly the case elsewhere in British Columbia. To find out what current practices are within a few school districts throughout the province I contacted six randomly selected district superintendents. That only two of the six replied suggests a certain reticence on the part of superintendents to commit themselves on this question. One of the two who did reply said that at present within his school district supervising principals included art supervision in their responsibilities. In the other instance a theoretical structure was outlined by which an art specialist in a secondary school would be responsible for giving advice to teachers in the elementary schools which fed that secondary school.

These superintendents were also asked to comment on their concept of the role of the art co-ordinator. In one case it was felt to be primarily administrative; ideally, a fine arts co-ordinator was visualized. In the other case, the co-ordinator was seen as a resource person. The definitions given by a cross-section of teachers I questioned are similarly lacking in uniformity, and few school districts have attempted to pin down the duties of co-ordinators and of the related positions of supervisor and consultant.

According to one school board, the supervisor looks after classroom organization and methods, assists in interviewing prospective art teachers, organizes in-service education and the ordering of equipment, and reports orally at the request of the assistant superintendent on the

work of art teachers within the district. The co-ordinator performs the same duties without, however, being required to report on teachers. The consultant is employed for a two-year period to assist teachers, at the end of which term he returns to the classroom.

There seems to be definite evidence, therefore, for the desirability of utilizing the services of art supervisors / co-ordinators / consultants. Moreover, there is sufficient flexibility in the definitions of these roles to permit the employment of suitable individuals in a variety of art situations. But the demand for such specialists must begin within the school district if it is to carry sufficient weight for eventual success. The Department of Education holds that the creation of supervisorships is a matter for negotiation between a school board and its teachers.

Those who have the advancement and enrichment of the B.C. school art program at heart should regard the B.C. Art Teachers' Association's proposal, not as a forlorn hope now destined for oblivion, but as a pioneer attempt to provide guidance for and establish communication with the teaching body in a vital area of education.□

What Price Technology?

Continued from page 113

pear to be in the process of losing our abilities to reason and make independent decisions. Consequently, we are producing a society of semi-illiterates.

Traditionally, education has lagged behind social change. Since our society is in a state of flux, it has not yet found its bearings. Established values, mores, beliefs, and attitudes are being questioned and no one seems to know to whom to turn for guidance and answers.

One of the first tasks of our democratic society was to recognize the principle of equality of opportunity and the right of an individual to education. Two mistakes were made in the implementation of this principle. First, importance of the teachers' role was not recognized. Society did not realize that, to provide equality of education for all, its best talents should be in the business of education. Accordingly, teachers should have social and economic status, and there must be adequate numbers of well-educated teachers. Second, we identify the same education for all as good education. We have only paid lip-service to the recognition of the fact that people have varying abilities, aptitudes and interests. Perhaps the coming of technology into the classroom will make it possible to provide individualized education for all.

Education—1970's

Let us recognize one fact; computers are here to stay. Technology will be more and more involved in the business of education. Big business has discovered education and educators are beginning to discover the role and value of technology in the science and art of education.

The concept of team-teaching, master teachers, teaching assistants, the importance of audio-visual equipment, educational television, computer-assisted instruction and modern research in education seems to point to one direction—that schools will change fundamentally. Schools will become learning centers to provide education round-the-clock to pupils and adults.

Education and Human Values

From the educational point of view, several questions arise as soon as we discuss human values. How does an individual develop a set of human values? Can they be taught? If so, how? Should a certain number of human values be incorporated as part of curriculum? Who is to decide upon what values are to be included? What happens if my set of values does not correspond with yours? Should we leave this to religion or family?

These questions cannot be answered in this article because there is no one answer. An individual develops his sets of values from any or all of the sources with whom he has contact. The role of education becomes important once it is realized that no one person or group of persons can possibly compile a list of human values that will be acceptable to everyone. What education can and must do is to develop in pupils the bases for systematized inquiry that will help them to discriminate among different sets of values. And consciously or unconsciously, we teachers share and communicate with pupils our attitudes, beliefs and values.

Two things, however, appear to be lacking in our approach. First, we do not generally like to take a conscious stand on moral issues in the belief that they are not our area of concern, since the question of values should be resolved either by the family, or the individual's own religious convictions. Second, there exists a serious gap in communication among parents, religious authorities, and teachers on the subject of human values.

What is needed, then, is a more conscious effort on the part of teachers and society to transform this present problem into a co-operative enterprise.□

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VITO CIANCI

BOOK REVIEW NUMBER ONE

OF THE MAKING OF BOOKS there is truly no end, and this goes for books on education. It is too bad that most of these tend to follow predictable patterns. There are the books by members of the Establishment—the professional educators—which appear to be little more than a re-hashing of old ideas or the re-working of old material. There are the books by the non-professionals—the Lynds, Bells, Mayers, Goodmans, etc.—who tend to condemn the existing practices from a narrowly observed personal point of view. And there are the fortunately few sentimental pieces of nonsense like *Up the Down Staircase* and *To Sir With Love*.

In nearly all such books, the same old words go round and round, and the same old sound comes out here.

Occasionally, and usually by pure chance, I find a book which offers new and stimulating ideas, not merely another look at old ones; a book which jolts me right out of the particular rut I happen to be in at the time, and makes it impossible to look at my problems in the same way ever again.

Such a book is Albert Jay Nock's *Memoirs of a Superfluous Man*. Here is an examination of the forces, economic, social and educational, which shaped one truly civilized American individual. In a polished and scholarly style he reflects on his life and times, and in the important section dealing with his education he comes to the melancholy conclusion that he is superfluous.

Happy in the realization that his liberal education had been a civilizing one, he feels that it unfitted him for a place in 'a system of economism, a system given over to the production, distribution and acquisition of material goods.'

He does not attack any part of the system, but merely regrets that it does not offer him much of a place in it.

Something of the flavor of the man and his ideas can be better gathered from quotations, and here

is a random sampling:

'Economism—the world of railroads, steel mills and foundries—was not enough . . . it could build a rich society, one through which there was a wide diffusion of material things, but it could never create a lovely world, a world of depth and savor and the attraction loveliness wields.'

'A society based on economism was almost a complete failure in its social aspects, and in really grand religious, moral, literary and aesthetic results.'

In the section of the book dealing with education, Nock takes a look at Jefferson's idea that universal elementary education would make the citizenry more intelligent, and finds it a doubtful proposition.

'Education is a process contemplating intelligence and wisdom and employing formative knowledge for its purposes; training is a process contemplating sagacity and cleverness and employing instrumental knowledge for its purposes. Suitable material for education is extremely scarce; material for training abounds everywhere.'

'If you go in for educating, you must first make sure of having something educable to educate; and second, you must have someone with a clear and competent idea of what he is about to do the educating. With the average intelligence standing at about the 13 year old level, the first cannot be met. . .'

'One has no trouble about seeing that a State-controlled system of popular instruction is bound to lean heavily on the side of training . . . the coercive collectivist state is distinctly uninterested in the cultivation of intelligence and wisdom —it has no uses to which persons of intelligence and wisdom can be put.'

This could go on indefinitely, but it is really not fair to quote piecemeal. The only thing to do is read the book, and I have no hesitation in saying that *Memoirs of a Superfluous Man* is required reading for every teacher. □

We Shall Miss Them

Active Teachers	Last Taught In	Died
George E. Heather	Surrey	June 23
Austin George McTaggart	Cowichan	October 24
Clement Orton Tuck	Quesnel	August 20
Retired Teachers	**Last Taught In**	**Died**
Mrs. Vera A. Baxter	North Vancouver	October 7
Mrs. Marion Burke	Burnaby	September 5
Harry E. Harvey	Vancouver	October 18
Frederick V. Holyoke	Lillooet	October 5
Reginald A. Philps	Victoria	October 24
Mrs. Agnes C. Russell	Vancouver	October 22
Robert R. Smith	Vancouver and Keremeos	October 25
Lewis E. Wells	Howe Sound	September 23

Pension Funding Is Dead

Port Alberni, B.C.

Sir,

In the pension field, funding is dead. There is a very good reason for this. The salaries paid to teachers now are three times as much as they were 20 years ago.

Six percent increases in salary result in a doubling of salary in 12 years. Over the 36-year period of a person's teaching career, therefore, salaries will double three times, and the maximum salary he can expect will be eight times that which he receives now.

Thus, we come to a rather startling conclusion. A teacher starting to teach now on a salary scale where the maximum is $10,000 for P.B. qualifications can expect, if the trend of the last 20 years continues, to receive a salary of $80,000 at time of retirement.

It is acknowledged that pensions should approximate 70% of salary; we are therefore looking for a pension of something in excess of $50,000 a year for those people who were beginning teachers at the present time. What proportion of their salaries should be set aside and matched by their employers so that the dollars will accumulate to the amount required?

We must start thinking about pensions in terms of inter-generation transfer. Pensions based on recent earnings can easily be financed by contributions of those currently earning. It is manifestly impossible to finance one's own pension by setting aside dollars which accumulate by earning interest.

It is quite understandable that the BCTF at one time found funding to be a reasonable position. The old-timers will recall that in 1940 the pension fund 'went broke.' This happened because there were not enough dollars in the fund. We therefore sought sanctity in dollars and bought the idea that if we put enough dollars into the fund the dollars would be there when we retired. Little did we know that we were entering a period when salary increases of five and six percent would be described as a not too successful negotiation year.

We must make plain to all concerned — including the Pensions Committee, the Executive Committee, the Representative Assembly, and delegates to this year's Annual General Meeting, that we have completely abandoned the policy of funding.

D. J. S. SMITH

Was the Committee Right?

Vancouver, B.C.

Sir,

The English Revision Committee members were a bit hasty in resigning over a smutty word in a text authorized for Grade 12 English. Unless they wished to sanction its use, it would seem that the Minister of Education did a very kindly thing in relieving them of the responsibility of making such a decision. The final authority, whether we like it or not, rests with the Minister.

Their hasty action looks like a case of 'I don't want to play in your yard.' A little more maturity should have been shown; when the smoke clears away, the members of the committee will likely come to that conclusion.

It has been a long uphill fight to gain teacher recognition, a steady growth since the time of Dr. Willis. Do they wish to forgo this recognition and revert to former conditions? They are asking for it.

The teacher interviewed by Doug Collins on TV did more harm than good as he will come to realize when he takes time to think calmly.

I hope the BCTF will tread softly, and apply the ice-pack where it will do the most good.

C. F. CONNOR

Two Compliments

Chilliwack, B.C.

Sir,

Congratulations on the changes instituted in the latest issue of *The B. C. Teacher.*

If your first issue is a representative preview of the forthcoming year, a big 'hurrah.' The results are great.

May we look forward to further use of color and photographs to liven a potentially 'heavy' field.

AL BERRY
Editor,
Chilliwack District Teachers' Newsletter "33"

Vancouver, B.C.

Sir,

The cover of the November issue is excellent. My colleagues and I wish to pass on our congratulations to the talented young artist, her teachers and the editors who are encouraging her. We think it's great that young people are given this chance to see their work in print. Let's see more!

GORDON MONRO,
Art Director,
McCann-Erickson of Canada Ltd.

C. D. NELSON
Book Review Editor

BOOK TALK . . .

Of the making of books there seems to be no end, and this is perhaps as it should be. The gift of a book makes an ideal present any time, but what better time than Christmas? Give books—to your children, your friends, yourself!

Last month I rambled on about a few books I thought teachers should know about. Herewith, assuming your permission, is a further installment of ideas you just might tie in with your holiday shopping. . . . *Understanding Art* (people, things and ideas from ancient Egypt to Chagall and Picasso), by Kainz and Riley (Abrams, c1966) is a beautiful work by any standards for information and enjoyment, at $8.25. . . . Jan de Hartog has written a stirring new novel, *The Captain* (Atheneum, 1966, $7.25), about the terrible days of the Murmansk Run during World War II . . . New books about Canada continue to pour off the presses. One I like, put out by the University of Oklahoma Press, and sold in Canada by Burns and McEachern at $5.95, is *Exploring the Northwest Territory*, a selection from the journals of Sir Alexander Mackenzie, describing his journey from Lake Athabasca to Whale Island, at the mouth of the Mackenzie River, edited by T. H. McDonald. Two good junior stories from the same Canadian publisher are *Lost Mine of Bella Coola*, by Mary Whitely ($3.95), and *Windigo Wings*, by E. C. Cosgrove ($3.95). Two books dealing with migratory birds, published by Clarke, Irwin and Co., are *Black Duck Spring*, a novel by Bruce White ($4.95), and *The Whooping Crane*, a factual account, by Faith McNulty ($5.95). Both of these came out in 1967.

. . . Four Winds Press has a recent title, *My Favorite Funny Story*, compiled by Bill Adler, and featuring amusing anecdotes by famous names from Billy Graham to Groucho Marx ($3.70) . . . . Another 1967 book that is selling well is *I'll Trade You an Elk*, the often hilarious record of the precarious growth of the Municipal Zoo in Wichita, Kansas, by Charles A. Goodrun, the son of the original zookeeper, and at the time of the tale, a spirited teenager. It sells for $6.50. . . . John Gunther has been *Inside South America* in 1967 also. This is essentially a new work, superseding his previous *Inside Latin America* (1941). It is published by Harper and costs $9.95. . . . Finally, for a chilling little exercise in will power we defy you to put down unfinished *Hush, It's a Game*, by Patricia Carlin (Hodder and Stoughton, 1967, $3.50). This jolly exercise concerns the murder of a woman by her vengeful ex-lover in her apartment on Christmas Eve. What he doesn't know is that there is a little girl locked in the kitchen, she having been taken in for the holidays while her parents were away. The suspense mounts as the murderer, and other people across the courtyard, begin to realize that someone up there is becoming very tired of the kitchen. . . .

Again, may I wish one and all an enjoyable Christmas season, and may you give and receive lots of good *books!*—C. D. NELSON

COUNSELLING

The Troubled Generation — Towards Understanding and Helping the Young Adult, by Rudolph Wittenberg. Association Press, New York, c1967. (Can. Agt. G. R. Welch Co.) $5.50

This book deals with the problems of the young person—late teens or early twenties—and discusses the question of why he so often lacks values, direction, involvement and balanced relationships.

The book is divided into three parts, Part One setting out the problems of six young people, Part Two dealing with 'Some Causes' and Part Three with 'Some Solutions' of these problems.

The author, a psychotherapist, discusses the difficulties of these post-adolescents under the headings: (1) the end of role playing, (2) the self-image dilemma, (3) the struggle for identity, (4) the cognition of time continuity, and (5) escape into marriage. He devotes one chapter to the effect on young persons of the present-day social and political climate in which they live.

In the last part of the book, the author points out the conditions of being helped. These are the 3 R's of 'Recognition, Readiness and Relationship'—that is, the young person must recognize he has a problem, be ready to do something about it, and be able to form a relationship with a helping adult.

A chapter on parents of troubled youth discusses their limitations in a helping role and gives them some insight into the young person's problems. The chapter on 'Working with Troubled Youth' is particularly good. Here, the author shows that the basic qualifications for helping troubled youth are not dependent upon the age, sex, race, religion, national origin, or achievement of the helper but rather upon not being afraid of young people, being willing to accept them as worthwhile persons apart from their behavior, believing in their possibilities and having a continuing interest in them.

There is a very useful discussion of the distinctive helping roles of the teacher, the counsellor and the therapist. The book ends with an interesting account of what did happen to the six young people whose problems form the core of the book.—S. R. Laycock.

ENGLISH

Writing and Literature in the Secondary School. Edward J. Gordon, ed. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Toronto, 1965. $4.35

For both senior and junior secondary English teachers this series of essays on the subject of the writing and reading of literature will prove rather interesting. The range allows ample scope for the reader and brings together various considerations for different levels not ordinarily presented.

A very strong point to be made in favor of this book is that it tackles the gargantuan problems of writing and literature from the university and college levels *downward* and is therefore not merely a blind restatement of grade school problems only. The essay by Benjamin C. Nangle should serve as an excellent example to jar the secondary school teacher into realizing that more than mere technology is required in the writing process, while the evaluation of creative writing is most ably described by James K. Folsom. For those firmly entrenched in the belief that creativity can never be assessed and must therefore be downgraded in impor-

tance, these essays will provide a healthy slap on the face, and an awakening. The delicate problem of the poem and the teacher's queasiness in handling it is attacked in a statement by W. K. Wimsatt, Jr. This article by itself would, in my opinion, be ample reason for the purchase of this text even if all the other articles dedicated themselves to trivia.

However, some very odd and questionable statements occur, such as Philip Burnham's strange theories concerning the necessary brevity of an essay, which suggest that any paper longer than one page is without value. Montaigne, perhaps, avoided this Procrustean situation by being born too early to study under Mr. Burnham.

The objection raised by the same writer concerning the uselessness of research papers in Grade 12 suggests a professional inadequacy rather than a literary problem, since no adequate explanation is offered.

This book is climaxed by some interesting studies which may be applied to works of common occurrence in English lit. courses. The treatment afforded Emily Dickinson is well worth reading and contemplating, while the consideration of Romeo and Juliet is both interesting and novel.

Despite its flaws, the solid scholarship and candid tone of this work recommend it as a reference for anyone involved in English, especially at the higher levels.—S. Nankivell

REFERENCE

Dictionary of Canadian English: the Senior Dictionary. W. S. Avis and others, eds. Gage, Toronto, 1967. $6.83

At last someone has provided a senior dictionary that is comprehensive, sensibly 'Canadian,' that is, it is not overpoweringly 'British,' nor is it infuriatingly 'American.' Granted, it is based on the long-established *Thorndike-Barnhart High School Dictionary*, published first in 1941 by Scott, Foresman and revised frequently. This, of course, is nothing new in the field of reference work. Most of our valuable encyclopedias, atlases, dictionaries and similar references have grown out of earlier works, having improved on them while still owing much to their former style and execution.

In the present instance we have a dictionary that is easy to use, is certainly current in its vocabulary, and is perhaps the first to recognize . . . 'that Canadian English, while different from both British and American English, is in large measure a blend of both varieties; and to this blend must be added many features which are typically Canadian.'

The hundreds of line drawings, many of which are labeled, are useful in making meanings clear. A feature I found fascinating was the generous supply of usage notes, indicated by little black hands that pointed to passages in smaller type. These notes are on a variety of topics, such as grammatical details, shades of meaning, levels of usage, spelling and pronunciation notes, and rhetorical and metaphorical questions.

The *Senior Dictionary* follows the *Beginning Dictionary* and the *Intermediate Dictionary*, both previously published, and well established. It is with pleasant anticipation we await the forthcoming *Dictionary of Canadianisms*, a work on historical principles, which will complete this vast undertaking. A review of this newest title will appear in these pages in due course.—C. D. Nelson

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