


—Reviewed by DON DUBOIS, Principal, Whitaker Junior High School, Salem, Oregon; and ROBERT S. GILCHRIST, Professor of Education, U.S. International University, San Diego, California.

These three books, all posting 1970 publication dates, discuss secondary education today and in the future, but otherwise are strikingly different.

Unruh and Alexander’s Innovations in Secondary Education is a comprehensive and well organized exploration of the innovative educational practices in American secondary education today. Chapter I is an overview of the need for innovation as “... the necessary ingredient...” for a “... reach toward the ideals of a democratic society...” The authors describe current innovations as they are related to the student, the curriculum, the organization of the school, the staff, the materials and media, the building, and finally, to the process of change itself.

The book is excellent not only in describing current innovations, but also in giving the rationale for their use and in providing an insight as to the probable direction of future innovative practices. It is amply referenced with the names of schools where specific innovations are currently being practiced and with sources for further information on research and the writings of educational leaders.

Alcorn, Kinder, and Schunert in their revision (the third) of their Better Teaching in Secondary Schools have done a reputable, workmanlike job of handling the problems of teaching in such diverse areas as: planning, methods and materials of instruction, providing classroom control, program evaluation, and becoming a professional person. It is written primarily for beginning teachers and is well researched and documented. The research is not only cited, but also discussed and summarized in terms of its usefulness. Without being a cookbook of successful recipes, the book treats the areas mentioned above by giving a philosophical background, suggesting problems to be solved, giving methods formerly or currently being practiced to solve these problems, and suggesting alternative solutions.

The final section on “Evaluation Principles and Appraisal Techniques” has particular relevance for today’s school staffs as
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Reading High School 1980: The Shape of the Future in American Secondary Education is analogous to the feeling the baseball pitchers of the 1920's must have had as they faced "Murderers' Row." Edgar Friedenberg hits the reader with some teethjarring introspections in the first section of the book and Eurich keeps sending in equally powerful swingers for 297 pages. The introduction suggests that the 23 essays include five themes: the changing student, curriculum, professional staff, managing educational resources, and education in the cities.

The book has four sections: conditions of change, challenge of change, the future curriculum, and special emerging problems and opportunities, with eminent authors such as James B. Conant for each of the 23 chapters. Every chapter is worth the reader's time. For example, Charles Weingartner caps his provocative contribution with this statement about the imperativeness of change for the future high schools: "The role of the student in 1980 must be modified into that of an active, responsible discoverer, capable of dealing fruitfully with rapid and continuing change; of thinking in nonpolarized ways; of suspending judgment...."

The reader of any one of these books will profit from reading the other two. Better Teaching in Secondary Schools could be classified as a textbook for education majors. Teacher education can well utilize Unruh and Alexander's book to help students become excited about the potential of the classroom. High School 1980 will provide sound sources for examining critical issues. For example, Frank Jenning says that the high school in 1980 "will not be a place, but rather a growth period and a social condition. The students designated as high school students will have the whole of the city for a classroom."

Unruh and Alexander's book centers on current innovations. High School 1980 reflects the thinking of a cross section of leaders in American education. The two books
together can help the reader bridge the chasms that now all too often separate theory and practice.

In the introduction to High School 1980, John Gardner is quoted: "I am convinced that 20 years from now we'll look back at our school system today and ask ourselves how we could have tolerated anything as primitive as education today. I think the pieces of an educational revolution are lying around unassembled, and I think we're going to put them together in the next few years."

Anthony Oettinger, however, states: "The American School System seems almost ideally designed to resist change... ten years or so from now, the schools will be pretty much as they are today."

Who is correct? The number of concerned and perceptive citizens and educators who want to improve secondary education and work hard to meet the challenge can influence the answer.


Reviewed by James E. Eisele, Associate Professor, College of Education, University of Georgia, Athens.

The editors of these three books are interested in clarifying the role of education in the future of America. Kroll attempts to address selected problems of education which are at the "cutting-edge" of things to come. Kinney views education as it should be—that is, the "Ideal School." Rippa would study education through a careful analysis of its history.

There is considerable similarity between two of the three books. All three have in common the fact that they are collections of writings. Beyond this, Rippa's book of readings must be considered as something apart from the other two. Kroll's "problem areas" and Kinney's "perspectives" can be described as issues to which the educational establishment needs to address itself.

Kroll focuses on 10 important issues, represented by an equal number of essays by noted experts. These essays served, initially, as major addresses at an institute held at Harvard University. The essays themselves are as noteworthy as their authors. Havighurst, Farnsworth, Bellack, Moskow, Schmandt, Cogswell, Pettigrew, Super, Halpin, and Ulich, writing about the topics of values, national assessment, negotiations, technology, educational systems design, urban integration, guidance, administration, and personal awareness, respectively, demand considerable attention, individually. The reviewer wonders about the value of such a collection of seemingly unrelated issues, however, and their subsequent lack of in-depth treatment. Nevertheless, the reader can be quite stimulated by each essay to give further attention to the various topics.

Kinney's collection of papers includes a discussion of eight topics, also originally delivered as speeches at a conference. The authors of the essays are equally as impressive as those in Kroll's book. Broudy talks about philosophy, Gattegno about technology, Scriven about "Education for Survival," Suchman about inquiry teaching, Davis about mediocrity in the schools, Hastings about evaluation, Allen about teacher education, and Michael about community involvement in education. However, the papers are not connected in any meaningful way by the editor, and the concept of the "ideal school," in the opinion of the reviewer, does not appear to enhance the relationship between essays.

What common threads do appear to be implicit in both books are (a) an examination of the goals of education, and (b) how these goals might be achieved. As might be expected, the lead essay by Havighurst in the Kroll book is noteworthy as an indicator of the changing purposes of the school in a changing society. Equally important in this regard are the essays by Bellack and
Schmandt in the Kroll book, while the essay in this book by Pettigrew stands out in regard to proposing a viable means of attaining the goals which have been set before the educational institution. In the Kinney book, the reader can glean suggestions for both the goals and strategies of the school in all of the essays, although those by Gattegno, Davis, and Allen appear to the reviewer to be most important.

Both books can be useful tools for attaining the purposes they set forth. The reader can gain a perspective on some of the major issues facing education today. However, there are inevitable shortcomings when presentations made at a conference are simply reproduced in book form. Particularly significant, in the reviewer's opinion, is the lack of depth in treating each of the topics, and the fragmented treatment which results from presenting many diverse subjects under the same cover. These weaknesses could have been partially obviated by more editorial intervention than appears in either book.

Rippa's *Educational Ideas in America* is a scholarly study of education in America from its very early influences to the present. The editor has attempted to provide the reader with "a source book of materials that will help bring educational history to life." To one not trained in the discipline of the historian, Rippa succeeds remarkably well in his self-appointed task.

Professor Rippa has organized his selections into three major parts, with an excellent summary at the beginning of each one. Each part is divided into chapters, and each chapter consists of several subtopics. The order of topics presented is chronological, although the editor has selected the articles for their quality and relevancy to the topic rather than according to the period in which they were written. In general, however, primary source materials are used. The table of contents is detailed and well organized to provide maximum assistance to the reader.

Part One of Professor Rippa's book deals with the early formative period, up to the mid-19th century. This part begins with selections from the Bible, and contains generous samples from the writings of men with whom most students of education have had some previous acquaintance. Included in this part are some choice selections from Locke, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, and Mann.

Part Two is entitled "An Era of Transition" and covers the period from 1865 to 1919. In this section the editor provides some excellent source documents dealing with critical social issues of the times. Particularly interesting are two chapters in this part which treat the early movement toward a science of education and the beginnings of contemporary learning theory. Selections in this part include writings from James, Dewey, Hull, Thorndike, Skinner, and Piaget.

The final part includes selections written as recently as 1967. The reader will not be disappointed with the articles found in this part, either. The editor has culled articles which are interesting and provide a comprehensive view of American education in this age.


—Reviewed by Don Robinson, Acting Editor, Phi Delta Kappan.

In a book that should become recognized as a milestone report, John Goodlad and Frances Klein present the evidence for a devastating indictment of elementary education in America. But let the authors speak for themselves, in statements excerpted from this frightening report:

We became interested in finding out what actually goes on behind school and classroom doors, especially with respect to those most frequently recommended changes. We were particularly interested in the child's early school experience in the primary years, beginning with kindergarten. . . . (p. 6)

In the initial round, our teachers observed in 158 classrooms of 67 schools in 26 school districts. These were almost entirely in or around the major cities of 13 states and included a nationwide geographic spread. . . . (p. 33)

The staff made every possible effort to get
into three groups of schools: Schools considered by administration to be average, run of the mill, with respect to resources and programs; schools supposedly conducting some special or innovative activities; and schools enrolling a large proportion of environmentally disadvantaged children. . . . (p. 33)

Observers gathered data from three sources: interviews with teachers, interviews with principals, and observation of classroom activities. . . . (p. 34)

Enrollment in the schools visited ranged from 130 to 1,850, with an average of 669 pupils per school and 28 per classroom. The average number of teachers was 24, with a range of 4 to 65. Many of the schools enjoyed the services of special personnel, although in all but the largest this personnel was shared with other schools in the district. Music specialists constituted the largest group, with more than half of the schools (38) having access to such personnel, most of whom were itinerant. About half (33) were served by specialists in the personnel field: psychologists, social workers, or guidance counselors. Physical education specialists (31) also constituted a comparatively large group. About a third of our schools had access to librarians (23); medical, dental, or para medical services (21); speech pathologists (20); and specialists in remedial reading (19). Sixteen schools used art specialists and 10 used specialists in foreign languages, usually through their programs for bilingual students. A few schools employed or used, part time, specialists in mathematics, science, and the social studies, but the total of these was low (10). Five used teacher aides and 2 made use of teacher training specialists. . . . (p. 40)

Most of the schools were graded and followed the modified, self-contained pattern of classroom organization: that is, one teacher assumed responsibility for the class most of the time, but occasionally was relieved or assisted by a special resource person. Ten schools claimed to be nongraded, at least in part, and 12 claimed to be using some form of team teaching. . . . (p. 40)

Two-thirds of our schools used one of three well-known standardized tests—Metropolitan, Iowa, or Otis—in testing the achievement of their pupils, with the Metropolitan accounting for as many schools as the other two tests combined. . . . It is clear that the schools in our sample stayed almost exclusively with measurement of the traditional areas, achievement and intelligence, and measured them with the well-known long-established instruments. . . . (p. 41)

Although there has been much talk about the value of dramatic play and dramatization for young children, we observed very little of either (one instance of the former and three of the latter); similarly, with perceptual motor activities, designed to develop coordination of brain, eye, and limbs, and with training in listening. We observed audio-visual equipment in some classrooms . . . but rarely saw tape recorders and movie projectors in use. . . . (p. 45)

One of the clearest sets of findings from this study stands out particularly sharply when the graph for children's involvement by grades is placed side by side with the graph for teachers' involvement: both fall off sharply after kindergarten and first grade. The frequency of average to low involvement is disproportionately high for both children and teachers. The greater frequency of high involvement for children is accounted for almost entirely by kindergarten and grade one. . . . (p. 50)

At all grade levels, the teacher-to-child pattern of interaction overwhelmingly prevailed. This was one of the most monotonously recurring pieces of data. The teachers asked questions and the children responded, usually in a few words and phrases and usually correctly—that is, with the response approved or acknowledged as correct by the teacher. It is fair to say that teacher-to-child interaction was the mode in all but about 5 percent of the classes. . . . (p. 51)

Even at kindergarten and first-grade levels, most of the instruction emphasized the ability to remember, to recognize from previous exposure, and to repeat. There was little exploring, hunching, guessing, supposing, at any grade level. The teacher-to-child pattern of interaction apparently was not conducive to this sort of inquiry. . . . (p. 53)

Several teachers reported team teaching, but we observed only one genuine instance of it in action, involving 3 teachers and 87 children in the second grade. . . . (p. 54)

The general picture is that of a play-like environment of the kindergarten, with considerable opportunity for freedom of movement and activity, giving way to a much more restricted and circumscribed academic environment thereafter. By the third grade, materials and seating arrangements suggest a passive,
immobile pattern characterized by seatwork and total group activity under teacher direction... (p. 63)

Most of the principals seemed unable to identify what the school needed most, plans under way to improve it, or problems viewed as first order of business in producing a better school. The principals, for the most part, were eager—hungry—to query our staff about what they saw as promising in various parts of the country but were inarticulate regarding the implications of these or any other ideas for their own schools... (p. 67)

We are forced to conclude that the vast majority of teachers in our sample was oriented more to a drive for coverage of certain materials than to a reasonably clear perception of behavior sought in their pupils... (p. 78)

It is our belief that, given admittedly complex situational conditions, the proper educational response is, "Given this community, these homes, language disabilities, and all the rest, how should the school respond? What are our educational priorities?" But, except for a few instances, we encountered neither this kind of thinking nor ongoing staff efforts or even embryonic plans to cope with what obviously were problems of great magnitude... (p. 78)

We conclude, then, that the teachers we observed, either by deliberate intent or a naturally positive attitude toward children, tended to support their pupils through encouragement and warmth in their overt behavior. But we must conclude, also, that most of them appeared to be unaware of the learning principles provided by psychologists, saw little use for them, or simply were unable to put them to use in teaching... (p. 84)

The tests being used in the schools were almost uniformly of the grade-worn variety and overwhelmingly in the tradition of group achievement and intelligence testing. Criterion-referenced tests—that is, tests designed to get at a child's actual status with respect to some criterion of performance—were virtually nonexistent. Some of the tests used, as in reading, might have been used to diagnose a child's competence in broad areas of performance but, usually, they were not employed in this way. Rather, scores were translated into grade equivalents and entered on class record sheets. Thus, the visible information available was that a child scored at grade 1.9 in this, 2.2 in something else, 2.9 in that, and 2.6 over-all. But the

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record sheet did not reveal whether this child had problems with the grapheme-phoneme translations, in composing sentences, or with the commutative law. So far as tests, records, and interpretations were concerned, individuality was washed out by the universality of grade standards. . . . (p. 85)

It was exceedingly unusual to find a classroom group that ventured, as a whole or in part, into the larger community surrounding the school or that brought a human learning resource (doctor, lawyer, artist, plumber, dancer, scientist) into the room. The children came into the building in the morning and stayed there throughout the school schedule. Likewise, they came into classrooms and, except for some movement to other classrooms, remained there. . . . (p. 87)

Independent activities, when provided, meant more of the same reading (but with different books), writing, and coloring. Is some stereotype of schooling so built into our culture that it virtually shapes the entire enterprise, discouraging or even destroying deviations from it? . . . (p. 91)

One conclusion stands out clearly: many of the changes we have believed to be taking place in schooling have not been getting into classrooms; changes widely recommended for the schools over the past 15 years were blunted on school and classroom door. Second, schools and classrooms were marked by a sameness regardless of location, student enrollment, and "typing" as provided initially to us by an administrator. . . . (p. 97)

Goodlad and Klein do not offer us this chilling picture without contributing suggestions. Half a dozen of the potentially useful, though not necessarily original, proposals are:

1. Create a unit of schooling for ages three to five with little concern for preparing the child for school.

2. Call upon the future teacher to make a full-time commitment and offer him active participation on a teaching team from the outset of his training.

3. Critiques of lessons should be an integral part of every teacher education program.

4. Developing pedagogical skills requires a mix of academic and clinical skills, so both should be included in the teacher trainer team.

5. Teachers should be apprenticed for a longer period of time: as aides, interns, and resident teachers, with stipends from the beginning.

6. Teachers should be employed on a twelve-month basis, with perhaps nine months of teaching, two months of appropriate training, and one month of vacation.


—Reviewed by James T. Kenney, Principal, Burtonsville Elementary School, Burtonsville, Maryland.

The administrative role becomes less of a paradigm when viewed through the perceptual world of the authors of these two well written, well organized volumes.

The theme of the administrator as the instructional leader has often been rhetorically proffered. These authors make a realistic presentation from the standpoint of what administration is really like at the firing line level.

Eye and Netzer definitively direct their volume toward the school superintendent. However, the job description inescapably encompasses that of the local school administrator with the possible exception of directly dealing with the school board. In most situations, it seems, the board of education is indirectly dealt with by the local administrative unit through the central administrative cadre.

In defining priorities, the authors point out that the primary responsibility of the school administrator is the improvement of the instructional program. They realistically index what constitutes administrative priorities in terms of expenditure of energies to meet today's external and internal exigencies which are imposed upon him. These
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exigencies can consume the unwary administrator’s time and keep him from exerting his efforts in the direction of what the real needs are in terms of his primary function.

The main thrust in facilitative administration is expertise in interpersonal relationships. The authors recognize this as a fundamental prerequisite for successful educational administrative leadership. They agree that any administrator who is the target of multiple role expectations must find help to meet commitments. Obviously the key to successful administrative endeavors is to unlock the resources which are available but which in many instances lie untapped within the framework of the school plant or the school community. He must identify and be able to delegate tasks to people who he feels are competent.

Facilitative school administrators will appreciate the authors’ plain language in depicting the dilemma faced by today’s school leadership. Little comfort can be found in the knowledge that school administrators face common problems. Knowing does not in itself amount to solution. An honest recognition, however, is needed before intelligent approaches toward solving problems and allocating time according to priorities can take place.

While recognizing the role of the administrator as decision maker, practical approaches to the process involved in sound decision making are modeled in Part III of School Administrators and Instruction. The intent of the authors appears to be to make the reader cognizant of the many avenues to be considered for exploration before the decision-making stage is reached.

The success of any school program lies squarely upon the shoulders of the person directly involved with the student. The quality of humaneness would appear to be the outstanding desirable characteristic of the applicant teacher. Jarvis and Pounds devote an important segment of their volume to the importance of the selection process and the role of the administrator in this process.

Adequate community relationship is also dealt with as an important and integral segment of the administrator’s role.

One word of caution, however, to the misguided administrator who makes a literal interpretation of Jarvis and Pounds’ proclamation concerning the principal’s “right to insist” on teacher affiliation with particular organizations. I would venture to speculate that in today’s public school administrative world, with multiple teacher organizations vying for negotiative representation, one would find a few scalded principals who had tried to use their office to “insist” on particular teacher affiliations.

The authors offer no placebo to placate distraught school administrators. The volumes do spell out the pitfalls that are daily confronted and which must be dealt with if on-the-job sanity is to be maintained in the real world of the school administrator.

Today’s public school administrator must have the wisdom and courage to order his energies in the direction which will be most productive in terms of a meaningful instructional program for his students.