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A Study of School Library Service to the Disadvantaged

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A STUDY OF SCHOOL LIBRARY SERVICE
TO THE DISADVANTAGED

A Thesis
Presented to
the Graduate Faculty
Central Washington State College

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Education

by
Judith E. Bell

July, 1969

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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

I. BACKGROUND

During the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries there was a trend toward Americanization of all subgroups within the United States. Since that time an explosion in population, the technological revolution, and an accompanying rapid development of automation occurred.

. . . The new subcultural groups of our cities are becoming stagnant pockets of permanently indigent families with very limited opportunities for working their way out into the mainstream of the economic and social life of the larger city (11:x).

Since the schools served as a means of diffusing culture to these subgroups, they have been accused of not doing an effective job. The students who came from these subcultures differed from those of the predominantly white, Anglo-Saxon, middle class society and were variously described as culturally deprived, educationally alienated, or, more recently, disadvantaged.

In the nineteen sixties concern was shown for the special problems faced by school personnel working with the disadvantaged. Due in part to the civil rights movement, attention focused on urban schools. The urban or inner-city school was criticized because the culturally

deprived were not being readily assimilated into the dominant American society. Many studies have been done on why traditional education failed them. Books were written both for the administrator and the teacher on how to improve methods and curriculum. However, little was written on how a librarian could assist either the teacher or student in this situation.

This thesis was written to provide an annotated bibliography of recent periodical material concerning the school librarian's role in serving both teacher and student in a school containing disadvantaged pupils. The newly trained school librarian or one already established needs a compilation of materials suited to his specific needs.

II. THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Administrators stressed the school librarian is a key person in the urban school (19:20). The librarian can assist in selecting both book and nonbook materials. One of the weakest areas for a deprived person was that of reading. He needed to be taught how to read and how to maintain an interest in reading. While reading specialists and English teachers were directly concerned with the actual teaching of reading, the school librarian

could help through the selection of high interest, low reading level materials. A second area of assistance by the librarian was that of selection of nonbook materials. Much has been published on how these materials could enrich a program for the disadvantaged. As urban schools were often understaffed, the librarian was the logical person to become an audio-visual expert. He needed not only to be aware of the special needs of his clientele, but also of recent articles on the techniques necessary to use these newer materials.

III. THE LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The bibliography that was annotated for the use of the librarian, as found in Chapter III of this paper, was limited to periodical articles. Little was found on the subject in book form and periodical material was more up-to-date. The bibliography was further limited to articles dealing strictly with the school librarian's role in working with the disadvantaged. An excellent two part bibliography in annotated form was published for the public librarian by Carla J. Stoffle in the January 15, and February 1, 1969 issues of Library Journal. This article was included in the bibliography of this thesis; therefore, none of the articles contained

in Miss Stoffle's list were included in this thesis. The two annotated lists should be used in conjunction as roughly the same period of time, January, 1964, to March, 1969, were covered. Since 1964 a wealth of materials has been written on the disadvantaged due in part to President Johnson's poverty programs.

The annotations in the bibliography which comprise Chapter III were descriptive rather than critical. Readers could quickly survey the contents of each article and then read fully only those suited to their particular needs. The articles were divided into the following areas of interest: General Information, Books and the Library, Audiovisual Materials, Controversial Aspects of Textbooks, Bibliographies, and Library Programs.

Articles on Title I and Title II of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act were excluded from the bibliography. Those articles on the subject which were reviewed varied in the amount of library involvement in each program. Articles on Title I often had little to do with the library program, while those on Title II often had little to do with the totally disadvantaged. Because of this infusion and confusion within the articles, information on ESEA was omitted.

IV. THE PROCEDURES OF THE STUDY

Three main sources of information were used in obtaining the bibliographic material: Library Literature, Education Index, and the Educators Complete ERIC Handbook. The articles were obtained from the periodical sections of Central Washington State College and the University of Washington. Articles not available from these two libraries were not reviewed. This thesis will be read mainly by librarians in the Pacific Northwest; therefore, only accessible articles were included.

V. DEFINITION OF DISADVANTAGED

The concern of this study was how a school librarian could best serve the educationally disadvantaged. The terms disadvantaged, culturally deprived or different, or educationally alienated, contained shaded meanings. For many in the middle class, these terms were equated with slums, abject poverty, or distinct ethnic groups. The Negro, Mexican-American, Puerto Rican, or American Indian were often identified with the term. Not everyone in these ethnic groups, of course, was disadvantaged; however, a large percentage were. For this reason much research on the subject dealt with either ethnic groups or people of lower

socio-economic circumstances. According to Harold Hansen (9:24), a broad educational definition of disadvantaged was stated as any child with an underdeveloped capacity to learn. In this paper all of the above descriptive terms were considered interchangeable. A disadvantaged child was any child not afforded opportunities believed to be conducive to success in the traditional school.

VI. ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

The remainder of this thesis fell into four distinct chapters. Chapter II, a review of the literature, gives an overview of what educators have learned in the area of the disadvantaged and how this applies to school curriculum and teachers. The third chapter contains an annotated bibliography for the school librarian. Information gained while compiling a review of the literature and the bibliography is discussed and evaluated in Chapter IV. The last chapter contains recommendations for further study and a final summation.

CHAPTER II

A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

As stated in Chapter I, the term "disadvantaged" did not refer to a single clear cut group. Children coming from homes where money was plentiful, but where love was lacking could have been considered deprived as could have children from broken homes. Chapter II, however, did not consider the emotionally, physically, or mentally handicapped from middle and upper class backgrounds. It dealt with urban, lower class persons who felt divorced from the main society due to ethnic or socio-economic circumstances. The material presented in this chapter did not necessarily represent the views of its writer, but of the various sources consulted.

I. INFORMATION ON THE BACKGROUND OF THE DISADVANTAGED

The following eleven questions contained information helpful as an introduction to the background of the disadvantaged. These questions were asked of teachers and curriculum leaders by Rosemary Wilson, Assistant Director of the Curriculum Office in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

What is it like never to hear standard English spoken in your home or community?
What is it like never to have had a newspaper, book, or magazine in your home?
What is it like never to have seen anyone in your home write anything?
What is it like never to have had anyone tell you a story or read to you when you were little?
What is it like never to have had anyone speak to you except in tones of abuse?
What is it like never to have had anyone listen to you tell 'what you did in school today'?
What is it like never to have traveled more than a few blocks from your home?
What is it like to go to a different elementary school every few months as you move from one room or home to another a few blocks away?
What is it like to be hungry most of the time, to feel tired and sleepy in school and not know why?
What is it like to have no one to see that you get to school every day?
What is it like never to have known a kind adult (18:282)?

Not all of the above questions had to apply to each child for him to be considered disadvantaged. Each child had a different background and deprivation occurred in varying degrees. General information on the conditions surrounding disadvantaged children was helpful and revealing.

According to Emily Alman (4:Ch. I), the home environment of urban areas was shabby and overcrowded. Such homes contained few objects for handling or experimentation. Rooms and hallways were often dimly lit and crowded with extra objects. Garbage collection was poor; therefore rats were an everpresent threat. Two or more families often shared the same apartment or house,

or at times the same bedroom or bed. Authorities found many common factors in their studies of the disadvantaged. Families were often large; consequently, children did not always receive answers to their questions. The television went "full blast" most of the day, but authorities found that viewing was not selective. Children lacked adult supervision much of the day; however, many parent substitutes such as aunts, uncles, or grandparents were nearby. In some families where parents worked, older children stayed at home to watch younger brothers and/or sisters. Often one parent, usually the mother, had full responsibility for making the home. General sources stated that many mothers were unmarried, so their boys had no proper masculine role to emulate. A majority of these deprived families depended entirely on welfare allotments, allowing their children to see how to "get along" without having to work. According to many authorities unemployment was high in these communities, as was the crime rate. People preferred apartments facing the street because back apartments were too easily burglarized. Early in life urban children learned to avoid going alone on the streets or into dimly lit hallways after dark. Authorities also stated that cultural opportunities and recreational programs were

minimal. Helaine Dawson (6:42) expanded that idea by mentioning that centers such as the Young Men's Christian Association were scarce and too many closed by early evening. The street then provided most of the recreation for the young people.

Sidney Tiedt (22:7-8) stated that invisible physical problems interfered with academic success. Youngsters appeared simply overweight but, due to lack of proper knowledge of nutrition, were actually undernourished. Without proper parental supervision, improper sleeping habits developed according to Mr. Tiedt. Deprived children also seemed more susceptible to diseases. Because their illnesses were not promptly and properly treated, they took longer to recover and return to school. Vision, hearing, or dental problems went undetected or due to lack of money were untreated. It was also stated that rashes, bedbugs and lice were constant companions. Expectant mothers received little prenatal care, which caused a high incidence of mental retardation among the disadvantaged (22:7).

Television, present in the poorest of homes, allowed the deprived child to see how the American majority lived and how advertising pictured their living. Ideas of what the outside world was like were often garbled and hazy. Since their physical appearance and

background varied from the middle class majority, they began to feel inadequate. A child discriminated against often had a poor self-concept. Such a child found the ghetto familiar and comforting because, according to authorities, he was accepted there and not labeled a failure. In order to bolster self-esteem many compensative activities were tried. Some of the deprived young people dressed flamboyantly, while others became dependent on alcohol, drugs, or gambling (20:78).

The inner-city child had a different set of values than his middle class counterparts. Sidney Tiedt (22:12) pointed out that physical strength and cunning were admired as desirable traits. Fights were a common method of solving disagreements, while lying and stealing were accepted as long as one was not caught. Authority seemed designed to keep the child in line, rather than to help or protect him. Adults in the home avoided and feared the police, but did not respect them. Mr. Tiedt (22:12) pointed out that as a teacher stood for authority; the child who disobeyed him was admired. Because of the amount of energy expended on simply staying alive, inner-city children were preoccupied with the present. Planning and concern for the future seemed unrealistic to them. When money was plentiful, spending was explosive. Mr.

Tiedt (22:12) also stated that as their parents were on welfare with little formal education, deprived students saw no real need for schooling. Their family's poor economic condition could be blamed on discrimination because of race. Disadvantaged pupils often had negligible comprehension of implications or possible alternatives when making choices critical to their lives.

According to James Olsen (15:5-16), well meaning middle class teachers often tried to instill middle class values in disadvantaged students. As a result, the lower class had negative views of middle class life. They believed the middle class language lacked color and vitality. Teachers who allowed free expression found that inner-city children were adept in their choice and combination of words. The lower class accused middle class parents of extreme emphasis on academic achievement. Authorities have done studies on the adverse effects upon both parents and children when excessive pressure to attend college was evident. Material affluence, in the opinion of some lower class people, led to divorce, alcoholism, and neurosis. They felt these problems were caused by abnormal stress placed upon individuals to succeed. The lower class also accused the middle class of being more impressed with a person's title or social position than by the person.

Many sources stated that disadvantaged children lacked educational readiness experiences. Middle class teachers assumed these youngsters had experience with concrete objects, however, inner city school children needed opportunities for sensory learning experiences. Even when these children lived within walking distance of a city zoo, animals from different areas of the world were a mystery to them. Authorities mentioned that through lack of training, ghetto children did not listen or look at their immediate environment. Martin Deutsch found that many urban children had ". . . inferior auditory discrimination, inferior visual discrimination, inferior judgment concerning time, number and other basic concepts" (26:25). These were not due to physical defects, but to inferior habits of hearing, seeing, and thinking.

The characteristics of the culturally deprived were not all negative. Frank Reissman (17:224-5), a prominent leader in the study of the disadvantaged, had listed some of the positive aspects of this group. In an extended family, one which included aunts, uncles, cousins, and grandparents, there was cooperativeness and mutual aid. There was often an avoidance of the strain which accompanied competitiveness and individualism. Mr. Reissman continued that the underprivileged child enjoyed freedom from self-blame and parental

overprotection. Although an urban child's vocabulary was described as restricted, he was free from being wordbound (11:225). The disadvantaged child had more experience with the seamy side of our economic and social institutions. According to Eugene McCreary (26:47), among the deprived there were usually strong group feelings. Recognition by school personnel needed to be made of the peer group loyalties present among students. Mr. Reissman (17:225) wrote that many disadvantaged children developed a high degree of self-reliance. This sense of independence and self-sufficiency gave these urban children maturity and a sense of responsibility.

Sources agreed that the disadvantaged students in general possessed inadequate language skills. Bernstein called their language restricted and characterized it as:

1. Short, grammatically simple, often unfinished sentences with a poor syntactical form stressing the active voice.
2. Simple, and repetitive use of conjunctions (so, then, because).
3. Little use of subordinate clauses to break down the initial categories of the dominant subject.
4. Inability to hold a formal subject through a speech sequence; thus a dislocated informational content is facilitated.
5. Rigid and limited use of adjectives and adverbs.
6. Constraint on the self-reference pronoun; frequent use of personal pronoun.
7. Frequent use of statements where the reason and conclusion are confounded to produce a categoric statement.

8. A large number of statements/phrases which signal a requirement for the previous speech sequence to be reinforced: "Wouldn't it? You see? You know?" etc. This process is termed "sympathetic circularity."
9. Individual selection from a group of idiomatic phrases or sequences will frequently occur.
10. The individual qualification is implicit in the sentence organization; it is a language of implicit meaning (26:24).

This substandard English or regional speech was often understood and adequate for the narrow world of the ghetto; however, this was unsuitable for communication with those outside of this small circle.

II. SCHOOL CURRICULUM AND THE DISADVANTAGED

Once educators gathered and assimilated information about the disadvantaged, their next step was to determine what effect this had or should have had on the school curriculum. They found many reasons why youngsters from impoverished backgrounds did not learn from traditional curriculums. To recapitulate briefly, the disadvantaged had inadequate experience for traditional education. They had health problems, poor self-concepts, and values differing from the norm. Inadequate language skills, poor work habits, and little motivation were all factors in initial school failure. Constant failure alienated the disadvantaged from school and finally from the mainstream of society.

Much research was done on how to formulate a curriculum that would meet the needs of this segment of our society. There were two areas in this curriculum most important to the school librarian, that of language and/or reading and the use of nonbook media.

The curriculum needed to be geared to help the students increase in their language arts skills. It was suggested by the National Council of Teachers of English (3:99-141) that English be taught to deprived students as a second language. English spoken in the home and community was adequate only for communication with others of similar backgrounds. Relying on methods and techniques used by linguists to teach foreign languages, teachers of English began programs geared to deprived youngsters. Much stress was put on oral communication. It was hoped that all students would understand and try to emulate poet Langston Hughes, when he said:

I play it cool and dig all jive.
That's the reason I stay alive.
My motto, as I live and learn,
Is: Dig and be Dug in Return (3:118).

Since a large percentage of children in depressed areas learned slowly, reinforcement materials were suggested by authorities. The disadvantaged learner operated at low aspiration levels; therefore, rewards were made immediate.

The National Council of Teachers of English also recommended nonbook media as a method to teach language and reading. Tape equipment allowed students the reward of hearing their own voices. Devices which lit up when correct responses were given, and games which provided opportunities to win were relied upon. In order to further oral communication, pupils were exposed to open-ended stories, films, and filmstrips to make them want to converse. Since these children had acquired poor habits of listening, a wide assortment of tapes and records were recommended to provide them the opportunity of hearing speech of good quality. The learning of standard English needed to be made germane to the interests and experiences of the individual students. In most programs for the deprived ". . . literature was being neglected for work on the development of reading skills, usually through some kind of mechanical equipment or grammar instruction drills" (3:138).

According to Sidney Tiedt (22:19-20) our traditional schools stress abstract thinking because most of the teachers come from a college curriculum built on verbalization and verbally oriented materials. Deprived pupils were not, however, usually verbally oriented. Theory without practical application was looked upon a waste of time by most urban children. "The culturally deprived

child by his very nature must be stimulated for learning through direct experience" (25:121). It was generally concluded by educators that much could be learned by such a child through concrete instructional materials. They reasoned that since objects were lacking in impoverished homes, these children could be motivated to learn through the use of things they could see, feel, and/or hear. The use of multisensory educational materials based on a reasonable set of learning principles found their way into teaching-learning situations (22:34).

The following wide range of materials were found useful in working with disadvantaged students. Sidney Tiedt (22:26-8) stated that non-projected pictorial materials, if carefully selected, prepared, and used, visually clarified concepts by concrete examples. Pictures brought from home or arranged by students allowed fuller involvement. Flat pictures were used to help students develop proper sequencing of events. Comparisons and contrasts were dramatically enhanced by pictures. Pictures relating to their culture were chosen to help students with identification.

Mr. Tiedt (22:28-32) also believed that display materials and devices were helpful, the most popular with teachers of the disadvantaged being the feltboard, magnetic board, the accordion fold table display and the plastic

surfaced chart holder. Bulletin board displays were effective, but too often became a catch-all for announcements.

Auditory media according to Mr. Tiedt (22:32-4), was useful as the disadvantaged student was oriented toward physical and motor activity. The manipulation of tapes and records was generally found interesting by students. Language laboratories, once used exclusively to teach foreign languages, were utilized by deprived students in learning English as a second language. Listening corners provided the student with areas where they worked undisturbed at remedial, make-up, or special work. Tape recorders were suggested for use in interviewing successful people who had come from impoverished backgrounds.

Most authorities agreed that projected media such as motion pictures, slides, filmstrips, overhead transparencies, and opaque projects were making significant contributions to effective learning situations. Each medium because of its characteristics was suitable for different situations.

Mr. Tiedt (22:38-41) offered the following information on the importance of educational and commercial television. Educational television brought disadvantaged

children cultural enrichment not otherwise available and allowed the outside world to become a familiar place to them. Some commercial television was utilized by alert teachers. Through the use of magnetic tape or video tape, programs were replayed. Some of the materials replayed for discussion were speeches, plays, and athletic practices.

According to Mr. Tiedt (22:40) teaching machines were designed to present information in small steps or frames. Such machines allowed the deprived student to move at his own pace and provided immediate knowledge of his progress. The programs of these machines were structured to assure relatively high rates of correct responses. At Stanford University teaching machines and student response systems were connected to computers, allowing instruction to be completely geared to students' levels of knowledge; its flexibility was limited only by the ability of the programmer to anticipate student responses. The major drawback of computer-based instruction was its expense.

III. CHARACTERISTICS OF TEACHERS FOR THE DISADVANTAGED

One example of the personality necessary to teach or work with the disadvantaged was a teaching device used

by Helaine Dawson, who taught in a San Francisco program for the deprived. She offered the following mnemonic device to beginners working with culturally alienated students.

L Listen and Learn
A Accept
C Create and Communicate
E Experiment and Evaluate (6:15).

According to Mrs. Dawson, a teacher must be strong enough to look at the inner core of his own being and bring out his own fears and attitudes. He must look at both the children and community and at the same time examine his own reactions to what he sees. It was found that a successful teacher, according to August Kerbe and Barbara Bennarito (11:15-6), was one who respected his pupils. This type of teacher was aware of ethnic group membership and how this shaped a child's image of himself. He knew the history, traditions, and social structure of various ethnic groups and knew their language related to their lives. Sympathetic understanding was used to assess a child's abilities. Such a teacher met his students on equal terms. He accepted but did not condone. A routine was established and followed impersonally, undeviatingly, and strictly. The successful teacher had extensive knowledge of his subject matter, so that he did not have to follow a study guide, but developed a wide repertoire of teaching strategies.

All of these areas, understanding of students backgrounds, knowledge of curriculum, and teacher personality, were applicable to the librarian as well as the educator. Much of what was discussed by the educator was again stressed in articles for the school librarian. The next chapter is a compilation of articles on what was said about or for the school librarian serving the disadvantaged.

CHAPTER III

THE ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

I. GENERAL INFORMATION

Blatt, G. T. "Mexican-American in Children's Literature," Elementary English, 45:446-51, April, 1968.

The authors of children's writings about the Mexican-American were defended against accusations of bias. Included was a list of children's books about this ethnic group.

Crosby, Muriel. "Reading and Literacy in the Education of the Disadvantaged," Reading Teacher, 19:18-21, October, 1965.

An explanation was given of how individuals might help the disadvantaged child's reading difficulties.

Cuban, L. "Not Whether? But Why? and How? Instructional Materials on the Negro in the Public Schools," Journal of Negro Education, 36:434-6, Fall, 1967.

The broad, long reaching goals of multiracial materials were outlined.

Esser, G. H. "Widening the Horizons of the Culturally Deprived," American Library Association Bulletin, 60:175-8, February, 1966.

Librarians could help the disadvantaged either by playing a direct role by joining community action programs or modifying traditional library operations to meet the needs and capacities of the culturally different.

Gast, David K. "Minority Americans in Children's Literature," Elementary English, 44:12-23, January, 1967.

This material taken from a doctoral dissertation dealt with the treatment of American citizens of American Indian, Chinese, Japanese, African, and Spanish descent in recent (1945-1962) children's literature.

Gibson, J. S. "Learning Material and Minorities: What Medium and What Message?," Illinois Education, 56:284-7+, March, 1968.

A plea for competent teaching about democratic human relations by using instructional materials.

Hansen, Harold. "Light the Lamp for the Disadvantaged," Educational Screen and Audiovisual Guide, 45:24-7, April, 1966.

To aid teachers in gaining a better background on how disadvantaged children learn, school libraries were to contain professional materials and have media specialists to train teachers in the effective use of media.

Josey, E. J. "Reading and the Disadvantaged," Negro History Bulletin, 28:156-7+, April, 1965.

The importance of school libraries to the Negro disadvantaged youths was stressed and a plea to public librarians to help parents in the community was included.

Mims, A. Grace. "Nervous Nellies on Race Relations," Library Journal, 92:1291-3, March 15, 1967.

School librarians were hedging on race relations if they helped perpetuate a curriculum in which the Negro remained an invisible man.

Rogers, Howard F. "The Paper Filmstrip," Library Journal, 94:846-7, February 15, 1969.

A change in the format of books for non-readers was suggested by the use of photo books, slender paperbacks, and single sheets.

Rowell, John. "Pennsylvania--More Bears than Books," American Library Association Bulletin, 58:816-21, October, 1964.

Pennsylvania, with fifty-three of its sixty-seven counties considered Appalachia, started a program to supply libraries, librarians, and books for its one million needy school age children.

Simon, Mina Lewiston. "Who Will Speak for Them?," Horn Book, 44:451-3, August, 1968.

To prevent all books about ghetto life from being written by onlookers, teachers and librarians were requested to encourage minority group young adults to write about their experiences.

Smith, Richard W. and A. W. Vander Meer. "Media and Education of the Disadvantaged: A Rationale," Audiovisual Instructor, 10:8-9, January, 1965.

The role the advantaged and the disadvantaged should play in working with each other.

Stevens, Frank A. "The Disadvantaged and School Library Service," American School Board Journal, 151:20-1, November, 1965.

Consideration was given to the characteristics of a good school librarian, the physical aspects of a good library, and an effective library program.

Townsend, Agatha. "Disadvantaged Reader," Reading Teacher, 19:447+, March, 1966.

Librarians and teachers were shown how to interpret and utilize findings made by research in the area of reading and the deprived.

Varia, P. D. and F. Whitaker. "Needed: Learning Tools for the Deprived Child," Peabody Journal of Education, 45:121-3, September, 1967.

Audiovisual learning tools were necessary to effectively teach the disadvantaged, however, time needed to be spent in training teachers to choose and utilize media.

II. BOOKS AND THE LIBRARY

Block, Alice. "Sight Imagery in Invisible Man," English Journal, 55:1019-21+, November, 1966.

Ralph Ellison's Invisible Man, written in 1947, was related to today's social problems.

Fasan, Walter R. and Helen F. Isbitz. "Reading Activities Using Newspapers," Instructor, 76:24-5, January, 1967.

Libraries serving the disadvantaged were not to be concerned completely with compensation and remediation, but also with satisfying the unique concerns of their students.

Granite, H. R. "Good Books for Lower Class Students," English Journal, 54:585-91, October, 1965.

A report of classic or "good" books believed suitable for lower class students because of the material covered or the style of writing.

Hadlock, Ruth. "Specially Good for Ethnic Groups," Instructor, 76:109-11, November, 1966.

Favorite books of the children of the Kashia Indian Reservation in California were mentioned with explanations as to why these books were preferred.

Hipple, T. "Through Literature to Freedom," English Journal, 55:189-91, February, 1966.

A list of books for incorporation into a reading program to aid students in all white schools to gain in understanding.

Hopkins, L. B. "Negro Poets: Through the Music of Their Words," Elementary English, 45:206-8, February, 1969.

Brief background material on the lives of three famous Negro poets, Paul Laurence Dunbar, Langston Hughes, and Gwendolyn Brooks.

Joki, Virginia. "Let My People Go: A Unit on the Negro for High School Classes," Journal of Education, 147:96-109, December, 1964.

This complete teaching unit on race relations included goals, activities, evaluation, and a bibliography of nonfiction, fiction, poetry, short stories, drama, films, and filmstrips.

Korey, R. A. "Childrens Literature for Integrated Classes," Elementary English, 43:39-42, January, 1966.

Books used by the beginning teacher to learn about appropriate literature for integrated classes.

Krueger, M. G. "Choosing Books for the Disadvantaged," Chicago School Journal, 46:246-55, March, 1965.

The importance of choosing appealing materials to help in changing attitudes and values of the disadvantaged child was stressed along with a list of professional references for the teacher and a list of children's materials.

Larrick, Nancy. "Life Ain't Been No Crystal Stair," Library Journal, 94:843-46, February 15, 1969.

Youngsters in two urban schools were asked to evaluate selected poems which were compiled to show the tastes of inner city children.

Levine, Isadore. "Reply to Good Books for Lower Class Students," English Journal, 55:476-7, April, 1966.

In reply to H. R. Granite's article, Isadore Levine emphasized the personality of the teacher as the important factor in selling "good" literature, not the worth of the literature.

Morris, Effie Lee. "Choosing Books for Culturally Deprived Children," Instructor, 76:105+, November, 1966.

Contained in this article were criteria for choosing books for the culturally deprived and a list of sources to write to for help in book selection.

O'Connor, Gertrude P. "Notable Negroes," Instructor, 77:85+, February, 1968.

This bibliography unit was organized to show chronologically the part the American Negro played in the development of our country from pre-revolutionary days to the present.

Shiefman, Emma. "Beatles? Yeah! Yeah! Yeah!," Reading Teacher, 19:31-4, October, 1965.

Fads such as the Beatles or Davy Crockett were suggested for the teaching of reading because such materials were low in vocabulary, but high in interest.

Shockley, Ann Allen. "Two Books with Soul: For Defiant Ones," English Journal, 58:396-8, March, 1969.

A thorough description was given of two autobiographies, Claude Brown's Manchild in the Promised Land and Pini Thomas' These Mean Streets.

Smith, L. "Literature for the Negro Student," High Points, 47:15-26, October, 1965.

A junior high teacher from New York City described how information on the minority groups was integrated into the school curriculum by using materials similar to those in the bibliography of biographies and autobiographies which were included.

Sterling, Dorothy. "Soul of Learning," English Journal, 57:166-80, February, 1968.

This noted author described many books on the Negro in America, while emphasizing the great need for more good books in this area.

Weinstein, Gerald and Mario Fantini. "'Phoney' Literature," English Journal, 54:259-64, April, 1965.

Disadvantaged students at Syracuse Junior High School told why much of the school literature was "phoney" to them.

III. AUDIOVISUAL MATERIALS

Anderson, Marjorie. "Self-Concept Books," Instructor, 76:29+, November, 1966.

A book making project in which students used their own photographs to build up their self image.

Bildersee, Max U. "Saturation, Total Involvement in Learning," Educational Screen and Audiovisual Guide, 45:69-70, February, 1966.

One training program in the poverty network which used isolation, plus saturation, participation, and reinforcement to help learning take place was described.

Brunson, F. Ward. "Creative Teaching of the Culturally Disadvantaged," Audiovisual Instruction, 10:30-1, January, 1965.

Two experiments conducted by the Omaha South High School in Omaha, Nebraska.

Buchmiller, A. A. "Tools to Aid the Disadvantaged: Educational Resourcefulness, Ingenuity," Wisconsin Journal of Education, 98:13-5, October, 1965.

Wisconsin schools were presented an outline of who were to be considered educationally disadvantaged.

Bumpass, Donald Eugene and Roger L. Gordon. "Bridging the Gulf for the Disadvantaged," Audiovisual Instruction, 12:442-5, May, 1967.

Briefly discussed were the Northwest Arkansas Supplementary Education center to aid the rural disadvantaged, and the many programs set up by the school district of Philadelphia to aid the urban deprived.

"Cultural Diversity: Library and Audio-Visual Materials for In-Service Education," Oakland, California, Oakland Public Schools, March, 1964.

A listing of materials of the Oakland Public Schools designed to help culturally disadvantaged students develop a sense of respect for their worth and the worth of others.

Edgerton, Wilbert D. "AV Services for Schools in an Economically Depressed Community," Educational Screen and Audiovisual Guide, 44:18-9, March, 1965.

The outstanding audiovisual program of the Prince Edward Free School Association was explained.

Everetts, Eldonna L. and Robert J. Lacompage. "Techniques and Media for Overcoming Handicaps," Audiovisual Instruction, 11:538-41, September, 1966.

Practical suggestions were given to improve techniques accompanying each type of media providing essential experiences with language for the disadvantaged child.

"Experience Approach to Language Arts--An Overview," San Diego, California, San Diego County Public Schools, October, 1964.

A method of teaching reading complete with a list of references using the language and thinking of the individual child.

"Instructional Materials to Meet the Needs of Urban Youth," Chicago, Illinois, Research Council of the Great Cities Program, 1965.

Illustrative guidelines were suggested for the selection of content of instructional materials for use in the elementary and secondary schools.

Lewis, Phyllis A. "Instructional Materials for Inner City Schools," National Elementary Principal, 46:21-4, January, 1967.

The types of materials necessary in an inner city school were described with hints on the best use of materials.

Metzner, Seymour. "Classroom Tested Learning Games for Use in Urban Elementary Education," Journal of Education, 149:3-58, December, 1966.

Sections covered in the article included: the learning game as an instructional strategy, learning game procedures, language arts--reading games, arithmetic games, and a source guide for learning games.

Niemeyer, J. H. "Reading Incentive Films," Educational Leadership, 23:483+, March, 1966.

The Educational Resources Center of the Bank Street College developed films to motivate children's reading by presenting in each film a children's book of high interest.

Personke, Carl. "The 35mm Reflex Camera and Language Learning," Audiovisual Instruction, 12:703-5, September, 1967.

When real experiences were not possible, 35mm slides provoked excellent vicarious experiences by presenting material children could not obtain through reading.

Philips, Robert E. "The Library Study Carrel: A Bilingual Study Program Uses Tutoring and Self-Pacing," Library Journal, 94:840-3, February 15, 1969.

This program of teaching English as a second language used study carrels in the school library.

Ross, J. "Relationship of Simple Audiovisual Techniques to the Arts and the Disadvantaged," Audiovisual Instruction, 13:44-5, January, 1968.

An institute sponsored by the National Foundation on the Arts and Humanities experimented with the use of simple audiovisual media in an art program for the disadvantaged.

Saez, Mercedes A. and Jose A. Irazarry. "Instructional Aids for the Teaching of English as a Second Language in the Elementary School," San Juan, Puerto Rico, Editorial Universitiana.

This manual was designed to provide the teacher of the disadvantaged with teaching devices, songs, and games.

IV. CONTROVERSIAL ASPECTS OF TEXTBOOKS

Brademas, John. "Don't Censor Textbooks: But Let's Keep Out Biased or Inaccurate Information," Nations Schools, 79:38-9, June, 1967.

Outlined were implications of the general findings of the Education and Labor Committee of the House of Representatives hearings on the treatment of minority groups in reading and other instructional materials used by the schools.

Collier, Marilyn. "An Evaluation of Multi-Ethnic Basal Readers," Elementary English, 44:152-7, February, 1967.

An evaluation of multi-ethnic basal readers which was based on the readers as instructional materials with which disadvantaged children identified.

Davis, Lucian. "Current Controversy: Minorities in American History Textbooks," Journal of Secondary Education, 41:291-4, November, 1966.

The controversies in Michigan and California over the contents of American history texts were briefly discussed.

"Minority Groups in Texts and Library Books," Wilson Library Bulletin, 41:235, October, 1966.

A report of what author Dorothy Sterling and library specialist Mrs. Alice Rusk said before the House Ad Hoc Subcommittee on De Facto school segregation on the final day of the hearings.

Montage, B. J. "Sinful Travesty in Our Textbooks," California Teachers Association Journal, 62:22-5, October, 1966.

Stressed were the necessity of material to fit the specific needs of the disadvantaged and better training of teachers for this special area.

Palos, N. C. "Textbooks and the Invisible Man," Educators Forum, 31:477-80, May, 1967.

Many textbooks were guilty of prejudice because they omitted minority group roles in American history.

"Trade Books Surpass Texts in Treatment of Minorities," Library Journal, 92:1284-5, March 15, 1967.

A report of two studies done on the treatment of minority groups in textbooks versus trade books.

Washington, B. B. "Books to Make Them Proud," National Education Association Journal, 55:20-2, May, 1966.

The importance of school books portraying the inherent worth of all people was emphasized.

V. BIBLIOGRAPHIES

Bernies, Regina F. "The Culturally Disadvantaged Child: An Annotated Bibliography," American Library Association Bulletin, 59:53-7, January, 1965.

An annotated bibliography of books, articles, and reports on the means of reaching a child through reading covering materials published from the years 1960 to 1964.

Braverman, M. "Favorite Books of Disadvantaged Youth," National Education Association Journal, 55:48-9+, December, 1966.

A bibliography of some of the varied books today's disadvantaged youth appeared to enjoy.

Condon, Rita. "Fifty Books for School Librarians on the Blacks," Wilson Library Bulletin, 43:657-64, March, 1969.

An annotated bibliography of fifty books presenting successful Negro leaders in various professions and occupations.

Fagan, S. and K. L. Donebon. "Selected Bibliography for Non-Middle Class Children: Grades 6-10," Elementary English, 44:856-61, December, 1967.

This annotated list presented books with non-WASP (White, Anglo-Saxon, Protestant) and non-middle class protagonists.

Perkes, D. N. "Paperbacks Preferred: The Negro in White America," High Points, 46:64-5, May, 1964.

A bibliography of books in paperback gave a many sided picture of the Negro in the United States in fact and fiction, past and present.

Stoffle, Carla J. "Public Library Service to the Disadvantaged: A Comprehensive Annotated Bibliography, 1964-1968," Library Journal, January 15, 1969, pp. 141-52; February 1, 1969, pp. 507-15.

This annotated bibliography presented articles, books, and bibliographies dealing with the subject of the role of the public library in serving the disadvantaged.

IV. LIBRARY PROGRAMS

Brown, Harriett B. and Elinor D. Sinnette. "The School Library Program for Children in a Depressed Area," American Library Association Bulletin, 58:643-7, July, 1964.

An explanation of how the libraries of two school districts including parts of Central and East Harlem provided service to the predominantly Negro and Puerto Rican populations.

Evarts, P. "Suburbia, the Target Area: A Paucity of Books Dealing with Social Problems," Wilson Library Bulletin, 41:173-6+, October, 1966.

A report of the findings of a study done in Oakland County, Michigan on how their suburban schools and school libraries had supplied their students with books dealing with social change.

Jones, Milbrey L. "Socio-Economic Factors in Library Service in Students," American Library Association Bulletin, 58:1003-6, December, 1964.

A study describing the differences in library service to four urban and four suburban school districts.

Lowerie, Jean. "Fitting the Program to the Problem," American Library Association Bulletin, 59:49-53, January, 1965.

Brief descriptions were given of the following school library programs: Wichita, Kansas; Fulton County, Georgia; Miami, Florida; Houston, Texas; Detroit, Michigan; and Oakland, California.

Norris, Mrs. L. "McAllen's School Library Program for Migrant Worker's Children," Texas Library Journal, 44:62-4, Summer, 1968.

The librarian's opinion of a three year, ultra-modern, federal library program at Central Elementary School in McAllen, Texas.

"Paperbacks in a School Library Serving Negro Students," Publishers Weekly, 192:23-4, September, 1967.

A Detroit High School displayed five hundred and fifty paperbacks in a library unit called "Library O."

Smith, Virginia. "Seattle--When Nonachievers Shun the Library," American Library Association Bulletin, 58:817-9, October, 1964.

A presentation of what Garfield High School in Seattle, Washington, did to overcome the problem of nonachievers ignoring the library.

Sullivan, Peggy. "Materials Problems for Teachers of the Disadvantaged," Educational Screen and Audiovisual Guide, 44:24-6, 1965.

An explanation was given of the Knapp School Libraries Project in an inner core school library in Baltimore, Maryland.

Stern, V. "Story Reader as a Teacher," Young Children,
22:30-43, October, 1966.

Story reading was used as a technique in a child
care center with children of mixed groups in terms
of ethnic backgrounds or national origin.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION AND EVALUATION

In the two preceding chapters, much information was compiled about the disadvantaged. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss and evaluate what was learned from the points of view of both the librarian and the educator. Librarians saw the disadvantaged in a more limited perspective as users of the library. According to E. L. Morris, "When referring to the world of children's literature, any child who does not have access to and knowledge of good books is culturally deprived" (14:105).

As was stated in Chapter I, the librarian is most helpful in his role as selector of materials in both book and nonbook form. Sidney Truboiwitz stated that in general "The literature needs of the disadvantaged child do not differ substantively from those of any other elementary school pupil" (23:109). This statement would apply to students of all ages. To provide good service a librarian must know basic facts of selection. Since books are often judged by format as well as by contents, it was suggested by many sources that the format of books for the deprived be attractive. A book with the following format, an attractive cover, excellent illustrations adding to the content, and good spacing of the

printed text, is to be desired. Content most appealing to the disadvantaged was found by many to contain simple vocabulary, plenty of action and dialogue, an intriguing beginning, an interesting situation, familiar topics, and shortness of length (22:135).

Most sources stressed that for the disadvantaged the content of books needed to relate to the children's own problems and lives. It was found by Robert D. Strom (21:25) that pupils liked any topics dealing with personal relationships. Deprived students were often curious about their bodies. Books on health were suggested as answers to many of their questions. How-to-do books could be found to apply directly to their lives. Any books dealing with the problems of race or of living in an urban society were enjoyed by these youngsters.

Stories of mystery or adventure were found to have a universal appeal among the disadvantaged. Due in part to their emotional immaturity, stories of fantasy and fairy tales were favorites. A wide variety of materials were considered necessary because, as stated by Robert Strom, "The assumption that intellectual homogeneity among peoples exists simply because of a similarity in their economic backgrounds is erroneous" (21:25).

Many sources advised that some books on minority groups be included. Charlamae Rollins (14:106) in 1948, suggested a criteria for evaluating literature about Negroes and other minority groups which included the following: the characters had to seem real; the attitudes had to be ones society would want Negroes to have; dialects were not to be overdrawn; modern stories were not to have nostalgia for the past; the book was to be free of derisive names; and the books were to have some literary merit. No specific updating of this criteria was found.

As more hastily prepared literature for the deprived is published the need for careful selection becomes important. General selection aids such as those published by American Library Association or the National Council of Teachers of English were listed in both articles for librarians and books for educators. In the area of non-book materials, however, little was found to aid a librarian for the disadvantaged in the selection of media. In general, the criteria for selection of books was, apparently, to be applied to and modified for the selection of nonbook materials. Authorities, while giving no selection guides, endorsed nonbook materials as important aids when dealing with the education of the deprived.

Charles G. Spiegler gave the following description of a disadvantaged child's literary environment. "Culturally, he is bound on the north by comic books, on the south by the pool parlor, on the east by the racing form, on the west by neighborhood small talk" (26:524). Since deprived children lacked a good reading background, films, filmstrips, and records were often used to bring them to literature. The National Council of Teachers of English suggested that ". . . All forms of drama, from puppetry to formal acting, and the oral tradition of literature need to be given greater emphasis in schools" (3:273). Sidney Tiedt (22:134) believed that when a classroom library was used, books should be introduced orally and left invitingly open on tables. He also felt that time needed to be made for literature through the cooperation of the teacher and librarian. For example before school, records of short stories or poems might be played; during school a story might be read aloud while the children worked at their seats; and after school an older student might read stories.

Many sources suggested that all physical elements in the school library should be both colorful and pleasing to the eye. Books with bright jackets in good repair would help make the room more attractive. An abundance

of artwork (reproductions perhaps) or frequent exhibits and/or displays could be situated centrally and be easily accessible. A variety of materials attractively displayed might stimulate children's interest.

The librarian in some schools was expected to help implement the curriculum. Frank Stevens emphasized this idea when he stated that "The library should become a prominent part of the classroom teacher's planning, so that all reading and research activities center around it" (19:21). Librarians need to make faculty members aware of existing materials and information. Mr. Stevens (19:21) felt that the librarian should help teachers form a professional library suited especially for the needs of each school. The following considerations were suggested by librarians in selecting textbooks and instructional materials. P. Evarts (8:173) stressed the need for materials depicting realistically changes in our society. The pluralistic nature of society in cities needed to be represented. Urban young people could also benefit from materials emphasizing their identification with people and events in American history. The vital need for materials such as games, puzzles, and electronic devices which would help develop skills of communication was also reported by many sources.

Frank Stevens (19:20) stressed that a librarian in the urban school needed to be trained, talented, and dedicated. He expected the librarian to be genuinely interested in the problems of the disadvantaged, for children from deprived backgrounds were quick to sense any condescension or intolerance on the part of people working with them. Orderliness, consistency, personal warmth and understanding, as well as freedom from bias or prejudice were suggested by many sources as desirable characteristics for teachers in urban schools. It seems important that a librarian also possess these characteristics and attitudes.

Although little was written in book form specifically for the librarian serving the disadvantaged, the writer of this thesis felt that credit should be given to certain books which helped provide excellent information on the background of the disadvantaged, on the curriculum in the urban schools, and on the best characteristics for a ghetto teacher.

The Disadvantaged Learner: Knowing, Understanding, Educating edited by Staten W. Webster presented valuable materials for understanding more about the background of the disadvantaged. He included both general articles by known authorities such as Frank Reissman and more specific

articles such as Charles G. Spiegler's "Give Him a Book That Hits Him Where He Lives," which would interest any person concerned with the deprived child's reading.

Sidney W. Tiedt edited Teaching the Disadvantaged Child, which dealt more specifically with the disadvantaged child's educational background and how curriculum must suit his needs. The chapter on literature's place in the curriculum gave much information useable also for the librarian.

On The Outskirts of Hope: Educating Youth from Poverty Areas by Helaine Dawson gave the personal reflections of one person deeply involved in working with disadvantaged youths. The book was written about actual students and class occurrences from Mrs. Dawson's teaching experiences in the Hunters Point district of San Francisco. Much about the characteristics necessary to work effectively with the deprived can be learned by the example set by Helaine Dawson.

The articles in Chapter III must be used if information strictly for the librarian is desired, but the books mentioned above are a good starting point for a study of the disadvantaged.

CHAPTER V
RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUMMARY

I. RECOMMENDATIONS

Careful evaluation needs to be made of the often hastily prepared materials used in working with the disadvantaged. Textbooks, especially in the area of social studies, often used only token black faces in pictures or overemphasized the importance of the Negro. Thoughtful selection will be needed to keep a true perspective.

New materials need to be developed. Encouragement should be given to youngsters from impoverished backgrounds to write about their experiences. Studies have shown that these children have experiences, but that they are different than those of the average middle class white child. The deprived youngsters need materials on their levels of understanding to serve as practical aids in their daily lives.

Library schools and education departments need new emphasis. Working with the culturally deprived was found to be different than working with pupils from more advantageous backgrounds. Special training was found necessary to gain knowledge of the disadvantaged child's background and to cultivate personal characteristics found best in those working with the deprived.

Librarians and teachers need to be more selective in the choice of materials included in bibliographies. Lists as such are of some help, but when they are not annotated, it is difficult to judge the true value of the individual works.

II. SUMMATION

Much concern for the disadvantaged population in our cities has been shown in the nineteen sixties. Race riots, campus disorders, and demonstrations have focused attention on our country's poor and alienated. The schools have attempted to meet this challenge by analyzing traditional curriculums; however, it was discovered that not just modifications, but whole new approaches were necessary. Some school librarians have begun to adjust their roles to fit the specific needs of the deprived, as was shown by the articles in Chapter III. Although they have become aware of the problem, all librarians need to change their thinking, service, and attitudes before real committment to the disadvantaged becomes a reality.

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CENTRAL WASHINGTON STATE COLLEGE

Graduate Division

Final Examination of

Judith E. Bell

B. A., Central Washington State College

1969

for the degree of

Master of Education

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Dr. James M. Monasmith

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Tuesday, July 22, 1969

8:00 a.m.

Courses Included in Graduate Study

Required Courses

Education	507	Introduction to Graduate Study
Education	570	Education Foundations
Psychology	552	Human Growth and Development, Advanced
Education	600	Thesis

Courses in Field of Specialization

Library	460	Advanced Cataloging
Library	418	Reference in Subject Areas
Library	470	School Library Administration
Education	555	Curriculum Improvement
Education	450	Instructional Aids: Production
Education	577	In-Service Programs
Library	490	Historical Survey of Books and Libraries

Elective Courses

Library	307	School Library Profession and Its Literature
Library	318	Library Resources and Services
Library	360	Cataloging and Classification
Library	350	Selection of School Library Materials
Education	316	Instructional Aids: Utilization
Library	420	Reading Material for Adolescents

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