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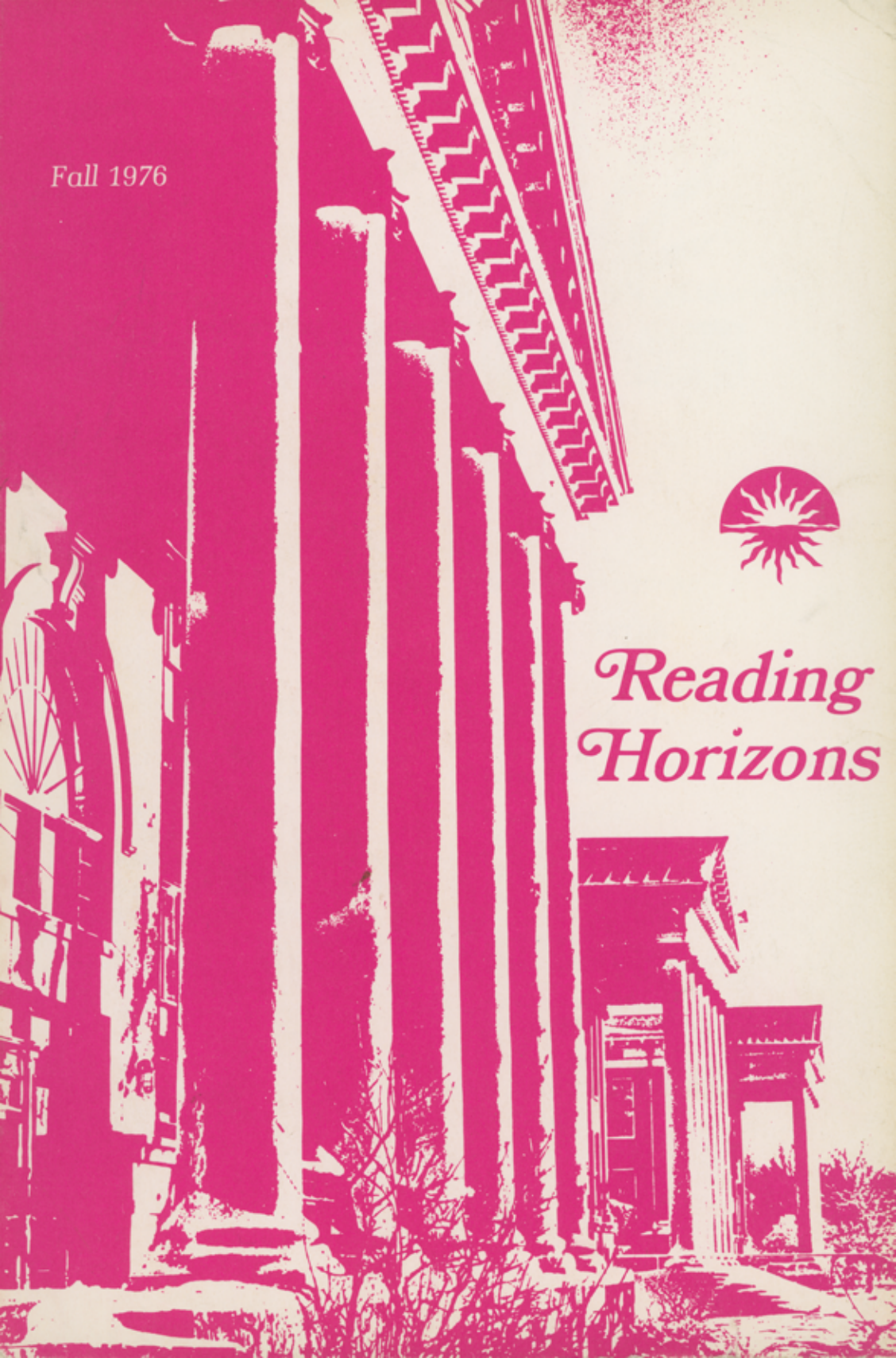
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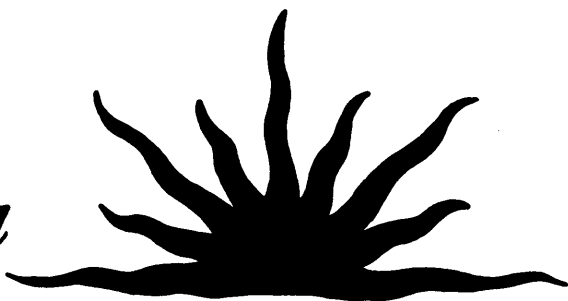


Reading Horizons



Reading

HORIZONS



VOLUME 17

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READING FOR LIFE

The fact that increased attention is being paid to ways of teaching reading in all the subject matter areas in middle and secondary schools is very gratifying. The evidence is now convincing that children are reading better today than in previous generations. And it is pleasant to note that more and more publishing companies are listening to teachers in reference to kinds of materials needed in the fields of developmental reading and reading therapy.

What is disturbing is the number of instances in which reading as a mental "life support system" is not being used by those who have been taught to read well. Regularly, we learn of surveys in which the respondents admit they haven't read a book in the past year. College students freely discuss courses they completed without having read a single text. Most wasteful of potential for continued growth is the number of people who are retiring each year, but who have not learned the art and efficacy of a life-long reading habit.

What we need to recognize is that reading is a set of skills that we must learn to demonstrate as satisfying and fulfilling. With such an emphasis, we can build the concept that reading is an essential part of consumerism, a basic skill for participation in a democracy, and an altogether reasonable form of entertainment.

At present, we struggle to bring our students to the point where we may regard them as reading and writing graduates, but because they never learned how to *like* reading, they drop it when they graduate. We can find our graduates at ages twenty, thirty, and forty, engaged in all forms of commercialized entertainment to use up the spare time they are blessed with. But reading is not chosen. Why not? Too time consuming. Too boring. A few, in a spasm of virtue, subscribe to Book-of-the-Month Club, Inc., but that may become an exercise in exhibiting the "right" books in the home, and knowing a few of the best quotes.

A book is the better part of an author, and the art of becoming well acquainted with a number of interesting authors through their works is a warming experience. Choose a writer and try to learn what he really thinks or believes about the experience of living. This is what raises reading to the level of a fine art.

In a few more years fifteen percent of our population will be over sixty-five years of age. Almost all will be expected to surrender their productive jobs to the younger people. Those who have been preparing for retirement by establishing satisfying and useful living patterns will not be traumatized by the sudden wrenching out of old routines. For this reason, it seems appropriate to suggest most emphatically that we all investigate a *personal reading program* for ourselves, at whatever age we are.

By program, we mean much more than a half-hearted resolution that we will soon begin reading regularly. A program calls for organization and sequence. Nancy Larrick guides elementary teachers in good book choices, and G. Robert Carlson's expertise helps junior and senior high school teachers. Just so, all of us adults need to set our individual goals and directions, and personal reading will be given a rebirth through regimen and its results. **READING IS GROWTH.**

Kenneth VanderMeulen
Editor

$$R > S_1 + S_2 + S_3 + \dots S_n$$

Richard T. Vacca

THE UNIVERSITY OF CONNECTICUT

Jerry L. Johns

NORTHERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY

Consider two ways of looking at reading which can influence the manner in which we plan and implement instruction. Expressed as a symbolic representation, the first view can be stated as:

$$R = S_1 + S_2 + S_3 + \dots S$$

In this equation, R (reading) is equal to $S_1 + S_2 + S_3 + \dots S$ (the sum of "teachable" skills generally believed to be operating while reading). A second representation, however, suggests:

$$R > S_1 + S_2 + S_3 + \dots S$$

In this formula, R (reading) is greater than $S_1 + S_2 + S_3 + \dots S$ (the sum of "teachable" skills generally believed to be operating while reading).

Teaching children to discover meaning has often been translated into scores of ditto-produced skill materials designed to build comprehension skills whose labels have been a source of mystery to teachers and students alike. Haven't we all wondered at one time or another what would happen if the ditto machine broke down? As reading teachers we should create a context in which children will develop a concept that $R > S_1 + S_2 + S_3 + \dots S$. This view is not a denunciation of skills instruction. Rather, it embodies an attitude that places instructional emphasis on the development of reading as an active, meaning-getting process and places skills development within that context.

The first representation reflects one facet of a *psychometric* view of reading—that reading is a mental activity composed of discrete, but interrelated, skills and processes. By reducing reading to its skill components, we have typically sought to intensify learning through emphatic teaching and practice. The second symbolic representation, that reading is greater than the sum of its skills, subtly arises out of a psycholinguistic view (Goodman, 1970; Smith, 1972) of the reading process—one that combines an understanding of how language works with how individuals learn. In short, the emphasis is on how learners process various kinds of information in an effort to make sense out of written language.

Proponents of a psychometric view of reading support the notion that there are identifiable "skills." These skills portray a compact picture of reading that underlies both its *measurement* and its *teaching*. The rock upon which most of reading instruction is built is a psychometric one! Tests,

materials, taxonomies, etc.—most all are ensconced in the belief that reading is measurable. By identifying the skills involved in reading and studying the relationships among them, appropriate instruction can be planned and executed.

The field of reading is replete with its own special terminology, especially its clusters of skills in each of the broad areas of instruction: word identification, comprehension, and study skills. In many instances, authorities have found it difficult to reach consensus on what the labels should be or what they even mean. Kerfoot (1965) has indicated that many problems in reading result from a confusion in terminology. In the instructional area of comprehension, he claims that reading experts have confused teachers by personalizing terms with their unique labels. Kerfoot recommends that we dispense with confusing, generalized labels and, instead, identify the specific tasks of reading.

Where attempts have been made to operationalize these specific tasks into instructional materials and strategies, they have tended to reinforce the questionable notion that reading equals the sum of the separate skills. As a result, reading instruction runs the risk of becoming quantified: teaching, practice, and reinforcement in X number of skills lead to more effective and efficient reading. Frequently, false dichotomies are established. Martin (1969), for example, points out the dilemma established by “code-breakers” vs. “meaning-pursuers”:

Discussions of reading sometimes assume a contradiction between decoding a passage and discovering its meaning. If decoding is interpreted as converting graphemes into phonemes, then there is indeed a fence on whose two sides partisans of two opposed points of view can range themselves: code-breakers vs. meaning-pursuers. The decoding advocate can argue that speech is common property, even among non-readers, and that writing is a set of clues designed to elicit in the reader's mind the spoken language; since native speakers already know the greater part of the spoken language before they come to school, the teaching of reading is simply a matter of clueing the student into the system for turning printed hieroglyphics into the already-familiar language of speech. The pursuer of meaning, on the other hand, can argue that the capacity to pronounce haltingly a page of prose is a far cry from understanding what one is pronouncing—that the principal problem in promoting literacy is not to teach the empty mouthing of sounds but to foster an intelligent approach to the significance of the passage, including a capacity for judgment, appreciation, and lively animated response. (p. 22)

The “code-breakers” and “meaning-pursuers” represent extremes on a continuum. Genuine readers, however, pursue meaning and use the

alphabetic code to help them process print. There should not be an unnecessary dichotomy among these readers—they realize that both code and meaning are necessary for comprehension to occur.

Rather than reinforce a restricted concept of reading as a collection of skills frequently taught in isolation from one another, we suggest that reading be viewed as a language-based process that is greater than the sum of its so-called “skills.” Goodman and Burke (1972) have recognized that all the skills of reading, no matter how they are identified, do not necessarily combine to produce effective reading performance. As they explain:

You cannot know a process by listing its ingredients or labeling its parts; you must observe the effect of the parts as they interact with each other. Acting together, the parts compose an entity which is uniquely different from the identity of any of the separate parts. Flour, sugar, baking soda, salt, eggs and water can all be listed as ingredients of a cake. Yet the texture, weight, flavor and moistness of a cake cannot be related directly to any one of the ingredients, but only to the quality and result of their interaction. (p. 95)

In recent years a number of teachers have been giving their students an opportunity to approach reading as a process that is greater than the sum of its individual skills. Their instruction has emphasized the “product” of each student’s reading as much, if not more, than the skills by which a student reads. Children are encouraged to engage in reading as a search for meaning without having to worry about whether X, Y, and/or Z skill has been mastered. Moffett (1973) has suggested that teachers create a framework in which a student must do something with what he has read. Thus, a teacher’s ability to deal with the result of a child’s search for meaning in written language will lead to productive reading in the long run. Moffett prescribes strategies for dealing with the results of reading through writing, discussion, and dramatic work.

Hunt (1970) has contended that “by emphasizing silent reading . . . ultimately better readers can be developed” (p. 150). He suggests a strategy that has become popularly known as USSR or SSR—(Uninterrupted) Sustained Silent Reading. This strategy permits the student to focus on the task of generating meaning from print. The teacher’s role is to develop the understanding in the reader’s mind that reading means getting as many important ideas out of print as he possibly can. Again, instructional emphasis is on the results of productive reading. According to Hunt (1970), the teacher helps students to sense reading as an entity in itself by asking questions such as:

1. How did you read today? Did you get a lot done?
2. Did you read better today than yesterday?
3. Were you able to concentrate today on your silent reading?
4. Did the ideas in the book hold your attention? Did you have the feeling of moving right along with them?

5. Did you have the feeling of wanting to go ahead faster to find out what happened? Were you constantly moving ahead to get to the next good part?
6. Was it hard for you to keep your mind on what you were reading?
7. Could you keep the ideas in your book straight in your mind?
8. Did you get mixed up in any place? Did you have to go back and straighten yourself out?

Recently, Evans and Towner (1975) have acknowledged the increasing numbers of teachers at all educational levels who have implemented SSR. They also have questioned the influence of SSR on skills achievement and, therefore, designed a preliminary study involving forty-eight students in fourth grade. Over a period of ten weeks, half of the students were involved in SSR, while the other half used selected commercial practice materials that commonly supplement basal reading programs. All students also were given daily reading instruction in a popular basal reading series. Pretest-posttest data using the Metropolitan Achievement Test revealed no significant treatment, classroom, or interaction effects between the SSR group and the supplemental skills practice group. Within the limitations of the study, the researchers have concluded that SSR is "neither more nor less effective than a multi-material form of practice" (p. 156) in which skills instruction is emphasized.

We interpret the finding of no significant differences in the Evans and Towner study to support an instructional environment beyond the basic program where the focus is directed toward reading as an entity in itself. Obviously, the added instructional time spent in supplemental skills practice did not have the potency on skills performance we might have assumed. Why, then, not have children practice reading by reading!

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ANALOGIES: WORD ATTACK & READING COMPREHENSION SKILLS IN A THINKING CONTEXT

Jerome Axelrod

Few cues give a teacher a more valid or quicker insight into her students' thinking abilities than analogies. The pupils' mental manipulations—or lack thereof—reveal to the aware and perceptive teacher a usually-accurate idea of the extent to which her pupils will be able to perform. Picture analogies for non-readers and word analogies for literate pupils can be used informally by the classroom teachers to approximate just how much pupils, individually, are capable of learning in an academic situation.

Yet, as important as being able to understand relationships is, there appears a dearth of literature on the subject either in classic texts in reading psychology and intellect or in recent journals indexed in *Education Index* and *Current Index To Journals In Education*. William James (1890), for example, admits to the importance of this subject but nonetheless dismisses it in a couple of lines: "A native talent for perceiving analogies . . . (is) the leading fact in genius of every order . . . people (who) are sensitive to resemblances, and far more ready to point out wherein they consist are . . . the writers, the poets, the inventors, the scientific men, the practical geniuses." Considering the apparent importance of analogies, it is hard to understand why so many scientific men and practical geniuses are mum on the subject.

Turner (1973) lists and exemplifies fifteen kinds of relationships:

Purpose	glove: ball
Cause — Effect	race: fatigue
Part — Whole	snake: reptile
Part — Part	gill: fin
Action to Object	kick: football
Object to Action	
Synonym	
Antonym	
Place	Miami: Florida
Degree	Warm: Hot
Characteristic	Ignorance: Poverty
Sequence	Spring: Summer
Grammatical	Restore: climb

Numerical	4:12: 9:27
Association	devil: wrong
Maney (1961) lists and classifies relationships in much more specific ways:	
Association	Shoe: sock
Association — function	fork: spoon
Association — where worn	glove: wristwatch
Association — specialized containers	pliers: tool box
Association — organ and instrument	eye: camera shutter
Association — target and projectile	bowling pin: bowling balls
Association — degree	broom: vacuum cleaner
Apparel — wearer	bow tie: father
Article — holding device	shirt: hanger
Associated Ideas	laugh: funny
Associated Sense	Color: saw: call: heard
Classification	ladder: elevator
Classification as to Constituents	balloon: boot (rubber)
Classification as to Common Locale	helicopter: air
Characteristic — Sound	Snow: white
Characteristic — Sound	bell: peel
Color — associated meaning	red: stop
Cutting Tool — specific use	razor: father
Complete Reversals	1-2-3: 3-2-1
Clothing — Function	pajamas: bed
Container: Content	cash register: money
Caution Sign For Specific User	lighthouse beam: ship
Covering	corn: husk
Degree	warm: hot
Degree — Size	farm: garden
Description	cloud: white
Direction — Indicator	wind: vane
Effect — Cause	
Equipment — Accessory	TV: antenna
Function	purse: money
Food	cat: milk

16 — *rh*

Homonyms

Home

Insect — construction

Intensity

Indexing

Levels of Abstraction

Liquid — consumer

Meaning

Multimeaning of Label

Movement

Numerical Ratio

Number — person

Object Turned

Object — Specialized
Motion

Object — Use

Opposite

Object to Insert

Outside Inside

Product

Product Related to
Utensils

Purpose

Place

Packaging

Preferred Food

Part — Whole

Person — Equipment

Position

Referrent

Sequence — progression

Shelter

Sports Equipment

Synonym

Source — Product

Stages of Evaluation

Specific User

Subject — Verb Agreement

bow: bough

bird: nest

spider: web

may: must

shape: square

King: god

Pepsi: boy

under: where: never: when

(ice cream) cone: (pine) cone

wheel: turn

2:1: 3:2

they: I

screw: screwdriver

rabbit: hopping:

frog: jumping

train: ride

coin: parking meter

camera shutter: film

hen: egg

sweater: knitting utensils

starch: stiff

grass: ground

hay: bale

rat: cheese

soldier: rifle

hat: head:: lid: container

Mrs.: she

February 29: Leap Year Day

garage: car

football: helmet

mink: fur coat

tadpole: frog

saddle: horse

I: have: she: has

Singular – Plural	is: are
Time order	morning: midnight
Trap	fish: hook
Unit	ton: weight
Usage	pair: several
Used together	hammer: nail
Verb Tense	go: went
Where Runs	Train: tracks
Where Worn	shoulders: shawl
Young – old	Tot: mother

(Scrutiny reveals many of these classifications overlap, are identical, are subclassifications of other categories or just generally suffer from over-specificity.)

This article will not deal with analogies as a thinking skill. Rather it will concern itself with analogies as (1) word attack and (2) comprehension skills.

Analogies deal with words not in the context of a sentence and paragraph. Therefore, if it is assumed that learning words on sight should be made in sentence-context, then the use of analogies as a word analysis skill is limited. After all, pupils can hardly rely on context clues to aid them in figuring out a word if there is no sentence-context for that word. Nevertheless, there is another type of context for words in an analogy and this context can aid the pupil in recognizing that word. The context for a word in an analogy is its companion word, such as face: head; run: walk; hit: knock, etc. For example, many pupils confuse minimal-pair words like “horse” and “house” and between “month” and “mouth.” They confuse these pairs of words for a number of reasons: they fail to use context clues; their teachers have not taught phonics elements such as “ou-ow” and “or”; pupils come across contexts suitable for both minimal pairs like “The house is white” or “The horse is white.” But whatever the reasons are for their confusion, the use of analogies can help to alleviate the problem. One suggestion would be for the teacher to teach medial vowel and consonant-controlled vowel sounds and then place on the chalkboard:

h . . se: saddle
h . . se: home
m . . th: year
m . . th: cavity

Have pupils first guess at the appropriate words and then at the appropriate missing letters. Ask the learners to justify their answers (e.g. “a horse goes with a saddle”; there’s an “r” sound in “horse,” etc.). Then place on the board:

horse:	home
house:	saddle
mouth:	year
month:	cavity

Ask the pupils why these responses are not congruent (e.g. "A house and a saddle aren't related" or "A month is in a year and a mouth has nothing to do with a year," etc.) and have them correct the analogies by juggling around the letters in the four words causing phonic confusion. The purpose of this analogy activity is to have the pupils perceive two contexts for their responses—a correct and an incorrect one. In addition to spurring them to think logically, they will have engaged in a useful phonics and word attack lesson. (It should be added, however, that in teaching words out of sentence context, the teacher may not know whether the pupil will know these words *in* sentence-context. Thus, teaching words out of sentence-context is limited in usefulness and should be supplemented by using those words to be learned in a sentence-context situation).

Concerning analogy as a reading comprehension skill, consider the following example:

up: down West: _____

The pupil who is able to show a pattern of correct responses to analogies like the one above is engaging in one form of reading comprehension. Not all forms or even several forms, to be sure, but in one of them. For example, a student who figures out analogies easily and thereby shows high intellectual potential may not, nevertheless, be able to tell the main idea of a story he has just read or even to reveal some important details. But analogy is not *less* than one form of reading comprehension. For when a child shows his teacher that he understands analogies he is revealing that he comprehends the meanings of the words he is able to decode and that he comprehends the relationships between them. Some might interpret the phrase "understanding the meaning of words" as a synonym for "vocabulary," and right they would be because vocabulary is a form of comprehension. Vocabulary is comprehension on the building block level. When the blocks are put together, comprehension is the structure that stands. Comprehension is the anatomy of reading; vocabulary is its physiology. Analogy is a form of reading comprehension because it considers the meanings of words (infrastructure) and the relationships between words (interstructure).

SOME WORKBOOKS THAT INCLUDE ANALOGY EXERCISES

Continental Press, Elizabethtown, Pa.

Maney, Ethel. *Reading—Thinking Skills*—all levels pp. to 6, 1965.
Highest recommendation. All seven booklets excellent.

Scott, Foresman & Co., Glenview, Ill.

Gray, Williams and others. *Basic Reading Skills For Junior High School Use*, 1957. Page 127.

Monroe, Marion and others. *Basic Reading Skills For High School Use*, 1958. Page 101.

Monroe, Marion and others. *Basic Reading Skills*, 1970. Page 90.

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Maney, Ethel. *Teachers' Guide For Reading—Thinking Skills*. All fourteen guides. Elizabethtown, Pa. Continental Press, 1965.

Turner, David, *Miller Analogies Test—1400 Analogy Questions*. New York: Arco, 1973, pp XI-XII.

THE EFFECT OF MUSIC ON READING

Patrick Groff

SAN DIEGO STATE UNIVERSITY

It is apparent that music and language reading are both perceptual acts. To read either language or music one obviously must pay close attention to selective details of a graphic display. To listen to music or to words read aloud also involves some common perceptual abilities. Therefore, it is predictable that some have claimed that children's experiences with music will help them to learn to read language. There are several "parallels" in music and language reading, Monroe¹ contends.

Music Affects Reading

Music activities can create certain attitudes, moods or self-concepts in the child which will help him learn to read, it is asserted.^{2 3} Music listening moreover can develop a general capacity for listening which can profitably be transferred by the child to his reading lessons, some say.^{4 5 6} Even the child's auditory perception is believed to be enhanced through experiences with music.⁶ For example, it is felt that having the child match pitch in music will help him recognize words.⁵

Beyond this, the singing of songs is defended as a means to develop good diction, which in turn is maintained will assist in the development of language reading abilities.^{6 7} This leads to the conclusion that "most problems in children's reading comprehension are caused from reading with the wrong inflection."⁶ In this context, the lyrics of songs are recommended as the basic material for beginning reading lessons.² It is presumed appropriate that children learn sight vocabulary from written song lyrics, as they would from a basal reader. Music lyrics used in this way are also said to be useful in teaching the child to predict outcomes, to follow story sequences, to identify the speaker in dialogue, to recognize humor, and to understand inferences.² Song lyrics are especially recommended for use in reading lessons with retarded readers.⁸

Otherwise, it is held that music affects language reading since the two acts purportedly involve similar visual functions. That is, when reading language and when reading music the child is seen to use the same kinds of eye movements.⁵

As well, music is called a universal language.⁹ This universality of music extends to the listening of music, it is argued, since both the reading of language and the listening to music are done as total meaningful configurations.¹⁰ It is even judged that "music has a grammar, a syntax."¹¹

Finally, there are two empirical studies that support, to some extent, some of these testimonials to the interconnections between music and reading. First, Nicholson¹² found that beginning readers taught to match music pitch with letters and the alphabet scored significantly higher on

reading readiness and achievement tests than did pupils given no such instruction. In the second study, Movsesian¹³ had first and second graders taught the music reading skills of note reading, meter comprehension and tonality. He found these pupils made significantly greater gains in language reading than did pupils not taught these music skills.

Does Music Affect Reading?

Do these claims and research data settle the case in favor of the purported interrelatedness of music and language reading? Can we now accept without question the importance of music instruction in beginning reading development? I think not, for several reasons.

Virtually all the comments of a favorable nature about music's affect on language reading growth are testimonials by obviously enthusiastic observers of this relationship. However, without some kind of systematic verification it is impossible to say whether teachers in general could duplicate the exceptionally good results that these testimonials avow have occurred.

The notion that there is a general faculty for listening which can be developed through music activities and then be transferred, when needed, to language reading lessons, also appears without foundation. The existence of such separate mental faculties, as listening, has long been discredited, even though it is revived by some of those who stick to the idea that music will favorably affect children's language reading abilities.

Equally unacceptable is the proposal that improving a child's oral reading, by correcting his diction, inflections, rhythm and articulation through the singing of songs, will overcome his lack of reading comprehension. Oral reading, it is known, is a symptom of a child's reading comprehension, not a cause of it. The training of oral reading through the singing of songs is thus a remote and doubtless ineffective way to help a child overcome the true causes of any reading comprehension deficiencies he may have.

The idea that song lyrics are exceptionally good vocabulary for beginning reading instruction is also a doubtful matter. The suggestions for such use of song lyrics follow a look-say or whole-word model for reading methodology. This method would delay the use of phonics instruction until after a "sight" vocabulary supposedly has been learned by the child. It has been repeatedly demonstrated, however, that decoding or phonics methods are superior to the use of such whole-word methods in beginning reading.^{14 15} The successes of phonics methods suggest that the reading vocabulary for beginning readers should be carefully chosen as to the predictability of the spelling of these words; and, as to their length in syllables, since polysyllabic words can be shown to be more difficult for beginning readers to identify than are monosyllabic ones.¹⁶

Other psychological evidence can be marshalled that questions the supposed positive relationship between music and reading some claim exists. It is not true, for instance, that the eye-movements of music readers and those of language readers are very similar. In fact, the eye-movements used in music reading appear to be different in several respects to those used

in reading words.¹⁷ It has also been found that the relationship between music reading and language reading abilities as measured by tests is "too low to warrant an assumption that the skills involved in music reading are closely related to the language reading skills."¹⁸

The notion that music and language reading both involve language can also be negatively criticized. One expert in the psychology of music notes that there is "a fallacy in the thinking of those who would make music a language in the sense that English and French is a language."¹¹ This is because "the 'messages' of music are more in the affective than the cognitive realm. Music stimulates little detailed imagery of a sort that is universally shared," he explains. Words and music are also different in that words are in no sense direct visual representations of their sound, as are notes in music. Then, language seeks to represent things outside itself, while music has for its main concern the patterns or configurations of sound itself.¹⁹

Finally, the two pieces of research^{12 13} which have been noted as support for the contention that some sort of training in music skills will bring on exceptional reading growth for children are open to faultfinding. For one thing, both of these studies trained their experimental teachers to perform the empirical activities called for, but did not give equal kinds of training to the control group teachers involved. It has become widely accepted, however, that unless both the control and experimental teachers of an empirical research project are given equal attention by a researcher that these two groups of instructors are in fact rendered unequal. In this case, the well-known Hawthorne effect comes into play. This may explain the favorable results obtained by the experimental teachers in Nicholson's and Movsesian's studies.

Then, as stated, Nicholson's research¹² investigated only whether associating musical pitch with alphabet letters would help children perceive these letters. That it did is not surprising. What is still unknown, however, is whether this is the most effective means of achieving this end. As for Movsesian,¹³ he gives no explanation or hypothesis of how the teaching of music reading skills, which is a highly sounds-oriented activity, could have helped the pupils in his study read the basal readers they used. These were whole-word, look-say texts in which the sound-letter relationships, or "phonics is usually buried under masses of other material."¹⁴ In these texts "recognizing words as wholes remains the prime means of word recognition." Therefore, "scant attention" is given to the use of sounds as a cue to word recognition.¹⁴ Left unexplained is how pupils' abilities to discriminate sounds, taught in Movsesian's music skills lessons, could have any effect on their whole-word reading of basal reader vocabulary.

Conclusions

This discussion of the likelihood that music activities will teach children to learn to read suggests, it is fair to say at this point, that one cannot accept this hypothesis. The claim that music instruction has an especial capacity to teach children to read, one that surpasses that found in normal reading instruction, does not seem to be supported. The anecdotal accounts to this effect are not convincing. Neither are the two pieces of research which

uphold this contention.

It seems reasonable, therefore, to advise teachers of reading that they would be in error to suppose that the displacement of regular methods of reading instruction in their classes by music activities will bring on exceptional gains for their pupils in this skill. This is not to say that music activities should be banned from reading programs. They may be used to enliven parts of reading lessons. It does say that one should not credit music with extraordinary powers to teach reading. To say otherwise would be to set up false hopes for both music and reading teachers.

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LEARNING MODALITY: ANOTHER PEBBLE IN THE POND

Diana Scott

FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY

Introduction

Approaches for teaching reading, as found in the plethora of reading materials now available, have become increasingly diversified. Audio materials have been added to several major reading programs. Kinesthetic materials are now provided for some programs. Many authors of reading programs are now reluctant to rely on "visual only" cues for teaching the numerous reading skills.

The movement toward diversified reading approaches and materials has, in part, been precipitated by the clearly visible need to reduce the large number of reading casualties in the schools. In part, it has been brought about by the findings concerning the way children best learn. If diversified reading approaches and materials are to be maximally effective, it is paramount that research and implications for this research be thoroughly understood.

The purpose of this article is to examine some of the significant research in the area of learning modalities, analyze the findings of this research, and discuss the implications of reading research as it relates to reading instruction.

Review of Research

Research concerned with modality preference has been in existence since the latter part of the nineteenth century. Several summary reviews have been written on this topic. In a serial review summarizing most of the known research comparing oral and visual presentations, Witty and Sizemore (1958, 1959) reached the following conclusions, "learning was not always accelerated or reinforced by simultaneous presentation involving a combination of avenues such as seeing and hearing. Sometimes a particular approach rather than a combination proved more effective."

de Hirsch also reported results that strongly supported the need to identify modality preferences in young children. de Hirsch conducted a study in which a predictive index was developed that would identify first grade children who might encounter reading difficulties early in their school career. Based on the results of this study, de Hirsch strongly recommended that modality strengths and weaknesses in children be considered in determining teaching methods. She went on to say that children who do well in both auditory and visual modalities tend to do well with either a sight or phonic method while those who perform poorly in both modalities will need a multiple approach in order to activate as many learning pathways as possible.

Bateman (1968) conducted a study that attempted to determine the

effectiveness of reading instruction when first grade children were grouped and taught according to their preferred learning modality. The major conclusion reached by Bateman was that children with auditory preferences appear to be superior in both reading and spelling achievement when compared with the visual modality preference children. It was also noted by this researcher that children who prefer the visual modality may be handicapped relative to those who prefer the auditory modality during the initial stages of learning to read, and the auditory method of instruction may be superior regardless of the child's own pattern of learning.

Ringler designed a study to investigate the feasibility of identifying modality preferences of first-grade children. She also sought to determine the relationship between preferred learning modalities, differentiated presentation of reading tasks, and work recognition. The results of this study indicated that modality preferences can be identified in young children but in this particular case, no significant achievement differences appeared among the children studied when they were categorized by modality preference.

Robinson conducted an investigation in order to determine the progress in reading of children with differing visual and auditory abilities when taught by two approaches to beginning reading. Two conclusions reached by Robinson were that children who scored high in both modalities consistently achieved higher reading scores, and that the ability in the area of auditory discrimination appeared to make a significant contribution to reading achievement.

Conclusions

The research cited is typical of the studies and results reported in the area of learning modalities. Although these and other studies tend to strongly support the early identification of modality preferences in young children the research tends to produce somewhat conflicting results and the evidence continues to remain inconclusive. The general conclusions that can be drawn from the vast amount of research on learning modalities are as follows:

1. Modality strengths and weaknesses are discernible in young children.
2. Children identified as auditory learners appear to be higher achievers in reading than children identified as visual learners.
3. Children identified as high visual and high auditory learners achieve better than children identified as high in one modality and low in another or low in both visual and auditory modalities.
4. Utilization of a predictive index holds promise in the early identification of "high risk" children as a means of preventing reading casualties.
5. No one teaching method appears to be best for all children.
6. The kinesthetic approach appears to be a viable teaching method and seems to facilitate learning.

Implications

Learning modality must be considered a significant "pebble in the

pond” when we, as educators, examine the numerous factors that affect a child’s ability to learn. Just how significant learning modality may be still remains unknown. Some implications based on past research deserve serious consideration.

1. Development of additional instruments to identify modality preferences in young children is needed. Instruments currently available tend to identify children who manifest either multiple modality strengths or multiple weaknesses. A test that could successfully identify a child’s modal preference as well as modal deficit (if a deficit exists) is greatly needed.
2. Continued validation of instruments currently available to assess modality preferences is needed.
3. Longitudinal studies utilizing specific populations (e.g., ethnic groups, urban groups, disadvantaged groups, and others) is greatly needed. This could provide significant information about populations where minimal success with traditional methods has been found.
4. Continued development and usage of multi-modal instructional material is recommended. Research in this area supports the idea that children vary in their style of learning and that a flexible as well as a multi-modal instructional program should be offered in order to reach all children.

In summary, learning modality appears to be a significant factor that should be considered when developing beginning approaches to reading. The research strongly suggests that modality preferences can be identified in young children and that it might be wise for educators to capitalize on model preferences. Much more research is needed in this area, but as an educator, I am convinced that the area of learning modalities holds great promise for reducing the number of reading casualties in our schools.

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SELF CONCEPT OF ACADEMIC ABILITY AND READING PROFICIENCY*

John N. Mangieri

OHIO UNIVERSITY

Henry D. Olsen

MEDGAR EVANS COLLEGE
CITY UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK

Brookover and associates (1962, 1964, 1965) have investigated the nature of self-concept and its effects, and relationships, to the academic achievement. Results reported indicate that there is a direct relationship between self-concept and academic achievement.

When applying the findings of Brookover to the curricular area of reading, one must delve into the effects, and relationships, of reading proficiency and self-concept.

Wattenberg and Clifford (1964) indicate that one's self-concept upon entering kindergarten seems to be predictive of later accomplishments in beginning reading. The effect of comparative success or failure in reading did not, however, strongly influence one's self-concept. Lumpkin (1959) attempted to discover whether or not there were differences in self-concept of overachievers and underachievers in reading. Results indicate that overachieving readers had a more positive self-concept than underachievers.

Bodwin (1959) studied 100 third through sixth graders with reading disabilities and found a significant positive relationship between self-concept and reading disabilities.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The primary purpose of this study is to discern whether a relationship exists between reading ability (as determined by the Nelson-Denny Reading Test) and self-concept-of-academic ability (as measured by the Michigan State Self-Concept of Academic Ability Scale).

OBJECTIVES

Answers were sought to the following research questions:

1. Was there a significant difference in the mean self-concept-of-academic ability scores of college Ss categorized by reading achievement (above or below actual grade placement)?
2. Was there a significant difference in the mean self-concept-of-academic ability scores of college Ss categorized by sex (male or female)?
3. Was there a significant difference in the mean self-concept-of-academic ability scores of college Ss categorized by sex and reading above actual grade placement?

* Presented at the Twenty-Fourth National Reading Conference, Kansas City, Missouri, December, 1974.

4. Was there a significant difference in the mean self-concept-of-academic ability scores of college Ss categorized by sex and reading below grade placement?
5. Was there a significant difference in the mean self-concept-of-academic ability scores of male college Ss when categorized by reading achievement (above or below actual grade placement)?
6. Was there a significant difference in the mean self-concept-of-academic ability scores of female college Ss categorized by reading achievement (above or below actual grade placement)?

PROCEDURE

The Nelson-Denny Reading Test was administered to 253 freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior college Ss. The Examiner's Manual of the Nelson-Denny Reading Test was used to score the test. The scores attained by the Ss were then utilized to classify the Ss as reading "above actual grade placement" or "below actual grade placement," according to the norms for their respective groups.

Further stratification was done on the basis of sex (male or female). Thus, the 253 Ss were classified in one of the following four categories: (1) males reading above actual grade placement; (2) females reading above actual grade placement; (3) males reading below actual grade placement; and, (4) females reading below actual grade placement.

All Ss in each of the four categories were also given the Michigan State Self-Concept of Academic Ability Scale (MSCOAA). The MSCOAA is an 8-item Guttman Scale with total scores of 8.000-15.999 indicating that the S perceives himself as "POOR," a total score of 16.000-23.999 indicates an impression of being "BELOW AVERAGE," a total score of 24.000-31.999 indicates a perception of "AVERAGE," 32.000-39.999 indicates that the S perceives himself to be "ABOVE AVERAGE," and a total score of 40.000 indicates perception of "SUPERIOR" ability.

DATA ANALYSIS

All research questions were tested for significance by utilization of a two-tailed t-test. Classification factors were sex (male or female) and reading achievement (above actual grade placement or below actual grade placement). Rejection level was set at .05 for each research question.

RESULTS

Analysis of data indicated that the college Ss in this investigation who were classified as reading above actual grade level were found to have a more favorable mean self-concept-of-academic ability score (hereafter referred to as SCOAA) than the college Ss reading below actual grade level. Table I shows that the mean SCOAA for college Ss

TABLE I. MEAN SCOAA SCORES BY READING LEVEL
(ABOVE-BELOW GRADE LEVEL)

	READING LEVEL	
	ABOVE GRADE	BELOW GRADE
SCOAA	28.226*	25.450

*p = <.01

reading above grade level was 28.226, compared to a mean SCOAA of 25.450 for those college Ss who read below actual grade level. Thus, research question 1 in this investigation is answered in the affirmative.

Results, as shown in Table II, indicate that there was no difference

TABLE II. MEAN SCOAA SCORES BY SEX (MALE-FEMALE)

	SEX	
	MALE	FEMALE
SCOAA	26.649	26.538

in the mean SCOAA of college Ss when they were categorized by sex. The female college Ss had a mean SCOAA of 26.649 with the male college Ss having a mean SCOAA of 26.538. Therefore, research question 2 is answered in the negative.

When considering the sex of the college Ss who read above actual grade level, it was found that there were no differences in mean SCOAA of males and females. Table III points out that the mean SCOAA for female college Ss who read above actual grade level was 28.298 while the mean SCOAA for the male college Ss who read above actual grade level was 28.113. Hence, research question 3 is answered in the negative.

TABLE III. MEAN SCOAA SCORES BY SEX (MALE-FEMALE)
READING ABOVE GRADE LEVEL

	SEX	
	MALE	FEMALE
ABOVE GRADE	28.113	28.298

However, when considering the sex of the college Ss who read below actual grade level, it was found that there were differences in mean SCOAA. Table IV indicates that the mean SCOAA for female college Ss reading below actual grade level was 26.519, as compared to a mean SCOAA of 23.200 for the male college Ss reading below actual grade level. Thus, research question 4 is answered in the affirmative.

TABLE IV. MEAN SCOAA SCORES BY SEX (MALE-FEMALE)
READING BELOW GRADE LEVEL

	SEX	
	MALE	FEMALE
BELOW GRADE	23.200	26.519*

*p = < .01

When considering the mean SCOAA for all male college Ss reading above and below actual grade level, it was discovered that the male college Ss reading above actual grade level had a higher mean SCOAA than those male college Ss who read below actual grade level. Table V illustrates that the mean SCOAA for male college Ss reading above actual grade level was 28.113 while those male college Ss reading below actual grade level had a mean SCOAA of 23.200. Therefore, research question 5 is answered in the affirmative.

TABLE V. MEAN SCOAA SCORES OF MALE COLLEGE
STUDENTS BY READING LEVEL
(ABOVE-BELOW GRADE LEVEL)

	READING LEVEL	
	ABOVE GRADE	BELOW GRADE
SCOAA	28.113*	23.200

*p = < .01

Finally, when considering the mean SCOAA for all female college Ss reading above and below actual grade level, like the male college Ss, there was a difference in mean SCOAA. Table VI conveys that the mean SCOAA for female college Ss reading above actual grade level was 28.298, while the mean SCOAA for female college Ss reading below actual grade level was 26.519. Thus, research question 6 is also answered in the affirmative.

TABLE VI. MEAN SCOAA SCORES OF FEMALE COLLEGE STUDENTS BY READING LEVEL (ABOVE-BELOW GRADE LEVEL)

READING LEVEL		
	ABOVE GRADE	BELOW GRADE
SCOAA	28.298*	26.519

* $p = < .01$

DISCUSSION

From the previously cited results, this research investigation can arrive at a number of conclusions. For this population of college Ss reading above and below actual grade level, all persons, except males reading below actual grade level, had a mean SCOAA that was considered to be between average (24.000) and above average (32.000).

A difference was found to exist between the mean SCOAA of college Ss reading above (28.226) and below (25.450) actual grade level. This finding seems to corroborate the findings of Lumpkin (1959) and Bodwin (1959) in that those research findings also indicated a relationship between reading success and self-concept-of-academic ability. The findings would also be supportive of both the axiom "nothing succeeds like success itself," and the theory of positive reinforcement.

When considering the sex of the college Ss studied, the findings indicate that no difference exists between the mean SCOAA of males (26.649) and females (26.538). Since no attempt was made in this study to ascertain the Ss past reading experiences, and owing to the principle of the normative curve, it must be assumed that the Ss have had similar reading experiences. It can then be concluded that the sex of an individual has little or no effect upon one's self-concept-of-academic ability.

The aforementioned results also hold true for male and female college Ss who read above actual grade level; namely, that there was no difference in the mean SCOAA of male college Ss (28.113) and female college Ss (28.298) reading above actual grade level. Since the reading ability of the two groups was approximately equal (both reading above actual grade level) it must be assumed that the Ss in each group had similar "successes" in reading. Therefore, this finding indicates that one's reading proficiency is more closely related to self-concept-of-academic ability than to one's sex. It adds further credence to the findings, reported in prior sections of this investigation, to research questions 1 and 2.

The sex of college Ss, when they are reading below actual grade level, does have a bearing on their mean SCOAA. There was a difference in mean SCOAA between male college Ss (23.200) and female college Ss (26.519) reading below actual grade level. Since there was no difference between the

mean SCOAA of male (28.113) and female (28.298) college Ss reading above actual grade level, it would seem to indicate that when proficiency in a specific subject area (reading) is considered, no difference between the sexes exist. However, when lack of proficiency (low reading ability) is considered, then sex is a determining factor.

Finally, a difference does exist between the mean SCOAA of male college Ss reading above actual grade level (28.113) and those reading below actual grade level (23.200), and female college Ss reading above actual grade level (28.298) and those reading below actual grade level (26.519). Both these findings substantiate the results previously reported for answering research question 1. Namely, those college students, whether male or female, who are successful in reading, appear to have a more positive self-concept-of-academic ability; and, those college students who are not proficient in reading, whether male or female, appear to have a less positive self-concept-of-academic ability.

IMPLICATIONS

The Brookover (1962, 1964 and 1965) research contended that there was a positive correlation between self-concept and performance in the academic role of an individual. Further research has also corroborated the Brookover findings for black adolescents (Morse, 1963), for mentally retarded (Towne, 1966), for deaf (Joiner, 1966) and for compensatory education students (Olsen, 1971). The Brookover study also concluded that specific subject area self-concept-of-academic ability scores, in this case reading proficiency, was related to one's performance in this subject area.

The findings of this study seem to substantiate Brookover's prior research. However, to make the conclusion more generally usable, additional research must be conducted with populations differing in such factors as age, sex, socio-economic status, and academic level.

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VIABLE STRATEGIES FOR PROMOTING GROWTH AMONG READING PERSONNEL

Nicholas P. Criscuolo

NEW HAVEN (CONN.) PUBLIC SCHOOLS

"I've learned so much about the teaching of reading from our school's reading consultant. He's fantastic."

"Our reading consultant is so knowledgeable that it's an inspiration just talking to her. She's always available when you need her."

These comments are typical of those made daily concerning the valuable services performed by reading personnel. Effective reading consultants are constantly interacting with a variety of people both in the community and in the schools. They offer strong leadership for the reading program.

Reading personnel dispense knowledge and facilitate learning willingly. Yet, it's not a one-way street. Reading personnel have their own unique needs. They need to replenish their reservoirs of knowledge and constantly be aware of the latest trends and developments in the field. By so doing, they will be in a better position to help others.

Many school systems have hired specially trained and certified reading consultants. Such a group can accomplish much to upgrade their own skills and expertise so that they can operate with maximum effectiveness. Presently, there are 47 reading members which comprise the Reading Department of the New Haven, Connecticut public school system. Eleven members staff the secondary schools; the remainder staff the elementary schools. Of the 47, sixteen are line item positions on the city budget while 31 work in Title I and Title VII programs supported through Federal funds.

Staff meetings are held monthly. The size of the staff and diversity of the programs do not always permit meeting as an entire staff, although periodically meetings with the total staff occur in order to emphasize the importance of a well-articulated, balanced K-12 reading program. In addition to sharing and pooling ideas and experiences, staff meetings allow reading personnel to keep abreast of current materials and programs. Sales representatives and consultants are often invited to display and discuss their programs and products. Resource people from within the school system and surrounding colleges are also invited to meet with the staff.

Current books and articles in educational journals contain a wealth of useful information. It has been a practice by the writer to assign an individual reading consultant a recent, thought-provoking article for review at a staff meeting. This activity generates lively and interesting discussions. Most often these staff meetings take place at the Reading Center, although some are held at a host reading consultant's school who, as part of the

agenda, describes an effective technique or program he or she has been using.

One valuable service reading personnel perform is to orient and train the many volunteer tutors who work in the schools. Presently, there are approximately 110 reading tutors drawn from the community and area colleges, particularly Yale University and Southern Connecticut State College. Working with tutors requires time and effort on the part of the reading consultant.

In recognition of the time expended by reading personnel and in order to upgrade their own skills, an arrangement has been made between the school system and Southern Connecticut State College's Special Education Department to provide workshops on working with children with learning disabilities for the reading personnel involved in training these tutors. This promotes growth among reading personnel while they are helping others learn how to tutor reading effectively.

Providing options and alternatives for children with diverse learning styles is an important task for the reading consultant. Whether it is working with children or teachers, the reading consultant must be able to match the appropriate modality with the child. Therefore, it is crucial that the knowledgeable consultant is aware of different reading methods and strategies.

The New Haven public school system uses a flexibly structured basal reading program as its major vehicle for reading instruction. Area school systems use a variety of methods: I.G.E. (Individually Guided Education), Words in Color, programmed reading, etc. Recently, contact was made with reading personnel working in these area school systems for the purpose of sponsoring a Reading Methods Seminar at which personnel from each school system would demonstrate the method used.

Reading personnel in New Haven were assigned a particular method, contacted the reading consultant in the school system using that method and made an on-site visitation to become familiar with it and then drafted a short introduction for use at the Seminar. Later, at a staff meeting the different methods were discussed in depth. Not only did such a Seminar foster regional cooperation but it helped New Haven reading personnel become familiar with different reading methods.

As with other school personnel, reading consultants must clarify in their own minds goals and objectives for the reading program. This year, members of the Reading Department were asked to complete a Self Evaluation Record. The information requested on this form dealt with having the consultant list his or her major objectives for the year, a listing of strengths and weaknesses as perceived by them and an item relating to accomplishments. This form was extremely helpful for two reasons: (1) it brought into focus salient aspects of the reading consultant's work and (2) it served as a basis for discussion and review when, as the supervisor, I had to complete an evaluation required of all city personnel.

Another viable strategy for promoting in-service growth is sub-committee work to develop bulletins, pamphlets and booklets aimed at

helping teachers to use a variety of effective reading techniques. Reading personnel participate (sometimes on a release-time basis but often after school hours) on committees which produce important materials which are then distributed to city teachers. Such booklets as: *Independent Reading Activities*, *Enrichment Activities in Reading*, and *Guidebook to Tutorial Reading Programs* have been written by various members of the reading staff in committee. Such an activity helps the reading consultant sharpen research and writing skills and helps others as well.

Preparation of these booklets is timely too. Recently, New Haven's Superintendent of Schools George A. Barbarito stressed the importance of homework in his column in the bi-weekly Superintendent's Bulletin. A Reading Homework Committee was formed by six reading consultants. The result was a *Homework Resource Activities Booklet* which lists primary and intermediate grade homework activities which reinforce reading skills and lend themselves to reinforcement at home. This booklet has also been distributed to New Haven's 600 elementary teachers.

Connecticut's Right to Read program has provided funds, in the form of \$1,500 "mini-grants" for creative reading programs. Since the program's inception five years ago, New Haven has received a total of 54 grants, the largest number in the State. A majority of the recipients have been reading personnel, working on an interdisciplinary basis with teachers, librarians and other personnel. Awarded on a competitive basis, the reading consultant has taken the leadership in writing the necessary proposal for submission to the State Department of Education. Such an activity induces professional growth because it taps the reading consultant's creativity, sharpens his or her writing skills and fosters teamwork.

Teamwork must be the byword of an effective reading consultant not only among school personnel but also among members of the community as well. Reading staff members are encouraged to work with business and industry in order to expand resources to children. For example, several staff members worked recently with employees of the Southern New England Telephone Company on Operation Bookworm, a drive among employees at S.N.E.T. which resulted in the collection of 7,000 usable, appealing books. These materials were sorted by a committee of reading consultants for distribution to the schools to stock interest corners and classroom libraries.

For the last two years, New Haven has served as a Right to Read site and its participation in this program has allowed many opportunities for growth. One reading consultant is the liaison person for the program, one member edits a Right to Read Newsletter, while several others have prepared spot announcements for the program aired free-of-charge by the local television station WTNH. Several other members of the Reading Department have written articles, aimed at parents of pre-school children, for the local newspaper, *The New Haven Register*. These activities have allowed the reading consultants to tap local resources while at the same time informing the general public of the importance of reading.

Reading consultants are asked constantly to share and impart information. They are the givers, but they must also be the receivers if their

knowledge is to remain fresh and up-to-date. Effective reading consultants must seize every opportunity to grow professionally. Attendance at conferences, seminars and institutes help, but there are many other activities — such as described in this article — which will achieve this goal. A high quality staff of reading consultants can shape a high quality reading program which will ultimately benefit children to an immeasurable degree.

BLACK DIALECT IN CHILDREN'S BOOKS

Melvin W. Wells

GRAND RAPIDS PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Black non-Standard English is different in grammar (syntax) from Standard English. The advent of the 60's produced authors who explored the full possibilities of language to deal with their themes. The increased use of dialect by black authors, particularly children's authors, was a sign that the nature of the black experience as they wanted to convey it did not have to rely on traditional forms, and literary devices; that they could treat familiar, realistic ideas and situations using a familiar dialect and relate that idea more effectively.

To black youngsters this had to be a welcome change. Before the 60's there had been little reading material that not only reflected black faces and situations but a familiar language as well. Basal readers (re: Alice and Jerry) were obviously alien to an urban experience, and there wasn't much else available to read in the black literature market that was written for children. The 60's and its pouring out of writers filled this void, and gave children material that was readable and believable. This trend has not stopped as these writers (Jordan, Keats, and Graham, among many others) are refining their skills and producing some very sophisticated forms of writing (*Who Look At Me*, Jordan, and Graham's Biblical transcriptions).

Literary critics judge the greatness of literature by its use of literary devices, plot and style. A book will have lasting value if it appeals to a wide audience, and is time-free. These criticisms might have some merit, particularly if one considers the descriptions in Steptoe's *Uptown*. He uses such phrases as: I be looking sweet then. All the girls will say "There goes a sweet looking man" when I walk by. I'll be John, the man who steady vines.¹

Because he uses slang in his writing, the book is time-bound, for slang is an ever changing form of expression. It is said that a book must "stand the tests of time," yet by this standard *Uptown* would not rank as great literature. The book was probably not intended for a wide audience as written. Black writers have written in dialect and have been successful in creating lasting literature. The most notable examples are Graham's Biblical transcriptions where he has blended Biblical stories with the English that retained some of its West African features. Linguistically, this is important because it shows that there is a consistency in syntax and tense, which are important features of Black English.

Dialect means the collective use of linguistic patterns of a sub-group of the speakers of a language. There are a number of writers who have used dialect in their writing. Harriet Beecher Stowe, author of *Uncle Tom's*

¹ John Steptoe. *Uptown*

Cabin, created an awareness of the slave's dialect, as did Joel Chandler Harris in his retelling of the *Uncle Remus Tales*. Kristin Hunter, John Steptoe, and Lorenz Graham use it as a literary device. We can only speculate that their use of it is to communicate more effectively with their reader than by using Standard English. What I am interested in finding out is the reaction of children to such books that use dialect. Do children find such books easier to read if they speak the same dialect themselves? How do they react to those books vs/ books they like written in Standard English? Do children feel the themes could have been related as effectively in Standard English?

Educational researchers have studied the problems of the dialect speaker learning to read, while linguists have sought to increase man's knowledge about language and how it is learned. Even though there exists no single theory on how the disadvantaged learn to read, a number of learning alternatives have been proposed by educators and linguists alike:

1) Plurality of usage; noting the *difference* not the superiority of one dialect over another. (Labov, 1964; Creswell, 1964)

2) Moving the reading material closer to the dialect of the reader. (Goodman, 1965)

3) Black English should not be corrected in the "grammatical overkill" sense, but meaning should be emphasized. (Smitherman, 1969)

Of my questions, I considered the second alternative in first finding out if children found the books easier to read because they used dialect. I should state as well that five black youngsters, all sixth graders, were given the following books over a two-week period. Their language pattern would more aptly be described as non-standard colloquial rather than Black English the way it is strictly defined in J. L. Dillard's *Black English*. At the end of the two weeks, we discussed the use of dialect and their reactions to it.

R. Blue.	<i>A Quiet Place</i>
L. Graham.	<i>A Road Down in the Sea</i>
J. C. Harris.	<i>Uncle Remus</i>
K. Hunter.	"You Rap, I'll Reap" from <i>Guests in the Promised Land</i>
J. Steptoe.	<i>Train Ride, Uptown, Stevie</i>
E. Rees.	<i>Brer Fox and His Tricks</i>
J. Wagner.	<i>J.T.</i>

How do children react to books that use dialect? Before asking any questions, we began with a discussion of dialect and how it contrasted with Standard English. Questions such as: What kind of audience do you think the author was writing for? How did you react to the way the characters spoke? Did you like the book more or less because of the way it was written? Did you find the book easier to read because of the way it was written? were asked, to focus their attention on the dialect and how it was used to convey meaning, not plot structure.

Name of book:

Steptoe: *Train Ride*
Uptown
Stevie

Comments:

Those guys seem real to me. People in my neighborhood talk like that. I liked *Uptown* the best, because if you live in the ghetto that's the way people talk. I don't think a white man could write it because it wouldn't sound right. He wouldn't know all the right things to say.

(Give examples)

Like when those guys were playing basketball and drinking Colt 45.

Unfavorable reactions:

It was sort of hard to read. Some of the words I didn't know.

K. Hunter: "You Rap, I'll Reap"
from *Guests in the Promised Land*

I know this story. My sister is just like them. I think the story was written for black people, because black people live in projects, and she tells you how she feels about it. I like the way it was written because black people talk like that. It wasn't hard to read at all.

R. Blue: *A Quiet Place*

There wasn't so much dialect in this book, but I liked it because the boy was different from the other boys. It was easy to read. It was more like regular English.

Name of book:

J. Wagner: *J. T.*

Comments:

The people in this book talk like the people I know. They talked in dialect. They didn't talk like the boy in *Train Ride*. The boy in *Train Ride* used more dialect.

Unfavorable reactions:

Some of the words I didn't know, but it wasn't hard to read. I understood it when the people were talking, but not when I have to read it.

J. C. Harris: *Uncle Remus*

I know some of the stories, but I couldn't read them. I like the stories but I still couldn't read this book.

I tried to read "Why Mister Possum Loves Peace" but I didn't understand any of the words. (Why?) They didn't sound like regular words to me.

E. Rees: *Brer Fox and His Tricks*

They were the same stories but I could read these. They were written in Standard English. They could be for anybody. I don't know who wrote them, but a black man, Uncle Remus, tells them to the people on their farm. That's probably where they came from. You could understand this book a whole lot better because it's written in Standard English.

L. Graham: *A Road Down in the Sea*

This is dialect because they (people now) don't talk like that. I understood it pretty well. (Give examples of dialect.) . . . Moses do so.

And Moses be they leader. It should be ". . . be *their* leader."

The reactions to these books seem to indicate these readers could:

- 1) Distinguish speech patterns in dialect and Standard English.
- 2) Identify the audience they feel the book was written for.
- 3) Express the difficulty they had in reading non-Standard English.
- 4) Generally distinguish the speech pattern in terms of urban/rural differences.

There also existed a difference in their ability to understand a dialect in spoken and written form. Expressed by one child, he could understand what was occurring if I were to read a passage of dialect from an Uncle Remus story, but that he tried to sound out the dialect and that it didn't "make sense" after repeated attempts. It has never been shown that if my moving the text closer to the dialect of the speaker results in great gains in reading, but one idea still holds clear; that the *phonic* principles of word attack are applied in both cases. This perhaps poses the question if dialect reading is indeed easier for the dialect speaker. The readers did express the idea that they felt the author communicated his idea more effectively by using dialect with their black characters, and this authenticity in language made the characters seem more believable. From this small sample of students, who were good readers, it seems that dialect reading was more difficult for them. Words and phrases that did not have the syntax or meaning of Standard English were more difficult to understand, and this detracted from its being enjoyed. The hypotheses, advanced by Goodman and Saville suggest that there is an interference of sound between the dialect and Standard English reader. Furthermore, they point out that because a child learns at home to ignore certain speech sounds, meaning may be distorted for him when these phonemes are the critical distinguishable elements of a word. In the spoken form there will be differences in what is pronounced.

Standard English

that
get
other
poem
help

Non-Standard

dat
get
udder
purm
hep

Whereas the dialect speaker might pronounce "help" as "hep," if he were to see "hep" in print, would he derive the same meaning from the word? What I have found in my small sample of students is that in its written form, black students had difficulty deriving meaning from words written in dialect. Words that were written in dialect posed a divergence problem for them, which does not agree with the hypotheses advanced by Goodman and Saville. In their oral form, they could auditorially discriminate its Standard English homonym. My findings also do not agree

with those of Melmed, who found that a black experimental group showed no inability to comprehend words written in dialect while reading silently.²

The variable that might cause some difference in the results is the degree to which the readers used context clues to unlock word meaning, or the kind of reading material used. If the material were totally written in dialect, then use of context clues would be more difficult.

To conclude, the idea that by moving the dialect closer to the speaker's dialect and improving comprehension is still open. Most children learn to read Standard English before they learn to read in dialect, although in the process they are translating that written form to a form they can understand. When asking a child to read and understand "hep," it still may be difficult for him when he has learned the Standard English form.

² Paul Jay Melmed. "Black English Phonology: The Question of Reading Interference," Monograph of the Language-Behavior Research Laboratory. (February, 1971)

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STUDY AS SELF INSTRUCTION: THE P.O.W.E.R COMPREHENSION MODEL

Richard Burke

BOWLING GREEN STATE UNIVERSITY

Most reading expected of secondary and college students is accomplished out of class even though that reading is usually for the purpose of school achievement. Usually it is instructional behavior we are after when we have students read for class, but most management of the learning process ends when the students leave the classroom. If out-of-class reading is for instructional purposes and if the teacher's function is to manage the learning process, then consideration of learning behavior in out-of-class instruction is worth our attention as teachers. Rothkopf (1965) has coined the term *mathemagenics* to refer to behaviors which give rise to learning, and much research suggests that reading behaviors can be controlled and manipulated to produce variations in learning outcomes even beyond the classroom (Ausubel, 1960; Bull, 1973; Duchastel & Merrill, 1973). The directions students receive, the evaluational expectations they carry, the orienting stimuli provided with texts all affect the ultimate consequences of reading.

Teachers, however, seldom use such information and students end up usually with a set to read the first work of a chapter or book, the last word, and all words in between. They run their eyes over the lines and look for information to memorize (Tyler, 1972). Anyone who has watched students studying in this way has surely noticed the clear inefficiency. Inattention soon habituates. Reading (not to mention learning) soon becomes interrupted by other more stimulating distractions.

Students have learned to read, but few have learned to read for self-instruction. The P.O.W.E.R. Comprehension Model (performance orientation with enriched reading) is a method for studying which is based upon the need for *learning* from text. Appropriately it is tied to learning theory as Glaser's Basic Teaching Model is hooked to the Instructional Systems Model. Our assumption is that if study behavior is to lead optimally to learning, it must be directed as much toward our knowledge of learning as to our knowledge of the reading process.

Learning, we know, can be thought of in many ways; but the question is, How shall we describe it for the student? One way to think of learning from an instructional perspective (or, self-instructional) is as a *change in behavior*, the acquisition of new performance capabilities. The literature on the use of behavioral objectives (Gagne, 1972) has been enthusiastic in its reports of greater efficiency and accountability resulting from the performance approach to instruction.

This emphasis on behavioral learning theory has led to at least two new approaches for instruction—the Keller Plan (Ryan, 1974) and Glaser's Basic Teaching Model (Glaser, 1964). If we look briefly at Glaser's model for teaching we will be able to more easily perceive a systematic application of the performance approach to study behavior. The Basic Teaching Model requires first the specification of objectives (performance expectations). These objectives are then defined in light of preassessment results. Next, the teacher arranges learning experiences to move students toward the goals; and finally, the instructor evaluates performance relative to the expectations. If Glaser's Basic Teaching Model is sensible and effective for class instruction, shouldn't the same model relate well to self-instructional attempts? The P.O.W.E.R. Comprehension approach is just such an attempt to relate a systematic model based upon sound learning theory to study behavior. Students first are encouraged to think of their reading assignments as learning assignments—tasks which give them new performance capabilities. Modifying the student's orientation in this way is usually difficult, but can be facilitated by helping them with their first attempts in class, by providing guide sheets explained below, and by providing performance suggestions appropriate to the content. Just as with the Basic Teaching Model the student is asked to specify his own performance expectations for the task at hand. Specific materials suggest specific behavioral possibilities, but general behaviors can also be encouraged. One can plan to teach the ideas or skills learned to an imaginary class, to a friend, or parent. Other general behavioral orientations would be to develop an outline with a closed book of what one has learned, to make a list of basic information, to formulate several questions for class, etc.

Once the student has specified performance plans, what follows is a slight modification of Robinson's SQ3R method (Robinson, 1946). A preview (skim) of the material provides a perceptual set, conveys the structure of the material, and creates anticipation. We encourage at this point inspection of all the extraneous matter in the text—graphs, charts, illustrations—to initiate immediate learning and to avoid later distractions. Reading with recitation in the P.O.W.E.R. Model, however, may require the student to recite at several levels (of Bloom's Taxonomy). After one has read a few paragraphs he turns away and recalls information gained—names, dates, and facts. Then, he puts the ideas into his own words and generates personal illustrations where possible. Then, as a further step, the student is encouraged to imagine possible applications, to note ways in which these ideas just learned might be used. This complex recitation provides more than just increased comprehension. It insures student involvement and provides a sense of intrinsic reinforcement. What was previously a study drag becomes active learning. Students almost always report that such learning seems to progress much faster and that studying seems more worthwhile.

Finally, the usual review stage is encouraged; but the last stage becomes *performance*: the student actually uses what he has learned according to his plan. Not until one has met performance expectations (listed as the initial

step) is study complete. Thus the P.O.W.E.R. Model, based upon a systematic approach to learning and Robinson's SQ3R method, brings into combination a more efficient and valid practice for self-instruction. We have suggested to our students that the method be reserved for material which must be mastered as opposed to more casual assignments, and that a study or learning guide be used. Such a guide sheet, which can be provided by teachers, has room for performance objectives to be written first, then three columns are headed (1) Information, (2) Interpretation, and (3) Application, for facilitating recitation levels. Students typically find the method a bit strange at first, but they soon become lost in the learning. That is the kind of predicament we all want our students to encounter.

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PROFESSIONAL CONCERNS: STANDING READING ON ITS HEAD

R. Baird Shuman

NORTH CAROLINA UNIVERSITY

Professional Concerns is a regular column devoted to the interchange of ideas among those interested in reading instruction. Send your comments and contributions to the editor. If you have questions about reading that you wish to have answered, the editor will find respondents to answer them. Address correspondence to R. Baird Shuman, Department of Education, Duke University, Durham, North Carolina 27708.

In his contribution to this column, Denny T. Wolfe, Jr., Director of the Division of Languages of the North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, calls for a more organic approach to the teaching of reading and suggests specific means of proceeding in this direction. What Dr. Wolfe writes is much in accord with the sentiments of James Moffett, who was quoted in the first appearance of this column (Spring, 1976).

Dr. Wolfe reminds his readers that they must take into account the significant differences between mechanical skills and thinking skills if they are to teach youngsters effectively. He also suggests that, while it might be easier to teach reading skills in isolation, this is not the way that human beings learn. He therefore calls for a holistic approach to the teaching of reading.

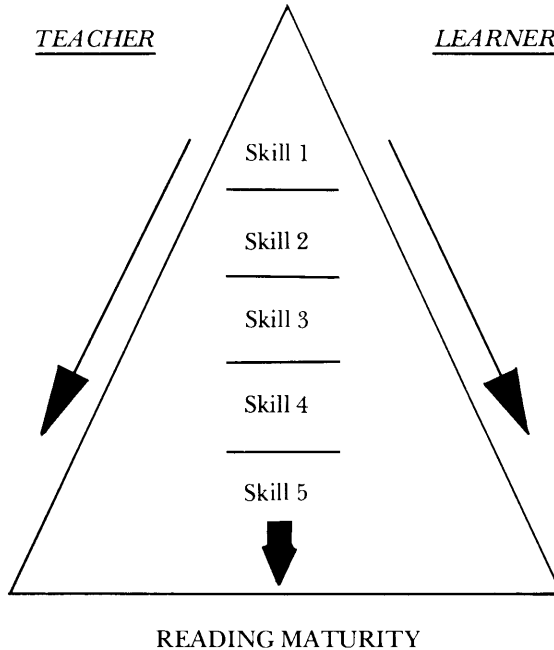
STANDING READING ON ITS HEAD

Learning how to read involves much more than developing isolated skills. To some, that is hardly a profound observation; to others, it is almost heretical. It is, however, an observation which is relevant to anyone who has faced, is facing, or may be about to face the task of developing a *skills continuum*, or an *objectives-based reading program*, or another similarly cold and high-sounding document that defines a sequential plan for teaching kids how to read.

A typical skills-centered reading program, sequentially developed, will include an arrangement of items such as word recognition, word meanings, phonics, context clues, study skills, flexibility, appreciation—the list can go on interminably. No one seriously questions the desirability of identifying the skills which students must master in order to read; therefore, a *continuum* which names the reading skills is in itself a harmless thing. Many

teachers even find it quite helpful and instructive. Certainly, supervisors and administrators revel in seeing a planned program written down in a linear fashion.

But trouble begins when the program “goes into action,” i.e. when the skills are isolated and taught as separate and distinct entities, with the assumption being that all the parts eventually will add up to a whole. Such an approach might be represented as a pyramid, with the teacher and the learner theoretically starting at the same point:



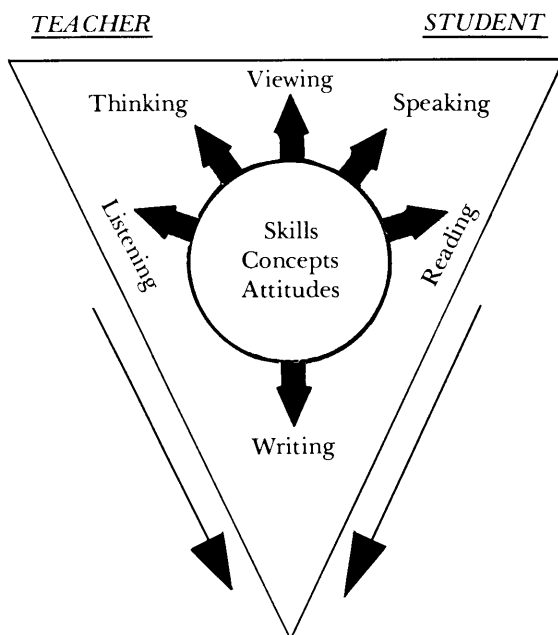
It is easy to see from the diagram, even assuming a common starting point, that the teacher moves in one direction and the students move in another. Realistically, the teacher and the students (or the students themselves, for that matter) are not only moving in different directions, but they are also moving at different rates according to varying degrees of concentration. Even though the skills are *listed* sequentially, they may not be *learned* in the same sequence. Supposedly, following the sequence will enable teachers to cause students to reach higher and higher levels of reading maturity, assuming that the parts add up to a whole. But such an assumption, in fact, does not completely hold.

Just as some teachers of writing feel that their first task is to teach vocabulary, spelling, punctuation, and capitalization, some reading teachers feel that their first task is to teach equally visible, concrete, and measurable skills. Such a conception of the teaching task is derived from the spurious notion that skills can be taught better apart than together. After

all, the argument goes, mechanical skills can be specifically identified and placed in a linear order to be learned; on the other hand, *thinking* skills are abstract and nebulous, and it is next to impossible to pin down the thinking processes that a given learner passes through. Therefore, many teachers settle for following concrete and comfortable lists of linear mechanical skills, presuming that *thinking* and overall language development will take care of themselves.

Neither the reading teacher nor the writing teacher can be successful by ignoring the holistic quality of total language development in their students. In fact, stimulating students to think, to speak, to view, to listen, and to *read* and *write* must occur simultaneously. Full language maturity can be achieved in no other way. It is not a matter of achieving one skill before, after, or without another. The teacher must attend to total language development as a whole.

Through inquiry and warm interaction with students, the teacher can provide learning experiences which make possible the development of thinking, speaking, listening, viewing, reading, and writing skills at once. These skills, indeed, are elements of language development, but they are not mutually exclusive and they cannot be isolated, taught, and learned separately. The development of any one of them depends upon the development of all the others. The following illustration more accurately reflects the actual process of language learning than does the pyramid we saw before:



LANGUAGE MATURITY

At the base of this inverted pyramid are teachers and students with widely different starting points. Obviously, each must proceed toward language maturity according to his/her own interests, rates, abilities, and aspirations. It is naive to think that one can directly and matter-of-factly teach *skills* as if students were not real people. Equally important are the *concepts* associated with the skills to be taught (thinking *about what?* viewing *what?* speaking to *whom?* listening *how?* reading *what?* and writing *what?*) and *attitudes* toward the various contexts (subject matter, time, space, learning atmosphere) within which the skills are to be learned.

The teacher can and must create an open and vital environment which promotes honest and frequent interaction among students. Through cooperative and stimulating learning experiences in *total* language development, students can acquire the thinking, listening, viewing, speaking, reading, and writing skills that produce full language maturity.

Teaching language must be done personally, eyeball to eyeball. As useful as the *skills continuum* is for defining a program, it must not be taught according to the linear structure which appears on paper. Language learning cannot be reduced to a series of sequential steps; too much of the *person* is involved, too much of the teacher and too much of the learner.

MAKING EFFECTIVE CLASSROOM ASSIGNMENTS

George M. Usova

THE CITADEL

Today, probably more than in any other time, teachers are giving their students less and less homework. This is happening not because teachers believe less in giving assignments, but rather because teachers are finding that many students are not completing them.

Nearly every teacher can recall “the way it used to be.” Teachers recall their own roles as students — times when not completing an assignment was inexcusable, often punishable by reprimand or additional work. Many teachers can also remember the students “a few years ago”; these students finished their homework. There was little trouble then.

Of course, teachers can reminisce the past and talk of the ways it used to be; however, students have gradually changed over the years to the present. They are often more critical, rebellious, and less fearful of the teacher’s wrath. New approaches are needed in making assignments. The teachers can no longer assume that simply by giving an assignment will guarantee its completion. The statement, “read the next ten pages for tomorrow,” as the bell rings to end class, will no longer insure success. It is really because the teacher has used this technique and because it has repeatedly met with failure that the teacher has thrown his hands up in despair and has discontinued giving assignments.

If teachers truly value giving assignments and realize the necessity in giving them, then they must alter their past techniques. By taking a few minutes of preparation and exercising more care in giving assignments, the teacher can greatly increase the probability of their being completed by the majority of the students.

The first step involves the teacher previewing the assignment. He must look for any difficult vocabulary words that may hinder a student’s comprehension or create stumbling blocks in reading. These words should then be placed on the chalkboard or in the students notebook and discussed briefly in terms of pronunciation and meaning.

The second step involves motivation. While this may not be possible with every assignment, it is important to show students, by questioning and discussing, how what they will read will benefit them, how it can be related in some way to their lives now, or how it is relevant. If this step is included, students will read with more enthusiasm and interest; they may even want to read the assignment more for personal involvement rather than for feelings of obligation in completing it.

The third step involves reviewing previously learned material. Either through questioning or discussions, the teacher needs to review briefly and “tie together” what is already known to what will be learned. This gives the

student a sense of structure — that there is a continuity, an interrelated whole and direction to what is being studied and learned. This creates in the students' minds that there is a unified wholeness to the subject rather than unrelated "bits and pieces."

The final step is direct guidance. In unison with the entire class, the teacher needs to "walk students through" the actual assignment. Leafing through the pages, the teacher highlights more important sections of the assignment while informing students to skim or even omit other sections. This shows students *how* to read. Certainly every word and sentence is not equally important; some areas need intensive slow reading while others may be read rapidly, skimmed, or even omitted.

While these four phases of giving an assignment may seem lengthy, they actually are not. Usually, the amount of time needed in class is 3-5 minutes. If the teacher feels that assignments are worthwhile, then their time is well worth being spent. Students are helped, guided, and directed in their reading; they are able to read with a clear purpose rather than in a haphazard fashion. The overall value: more assignments will be completed and more meaningful learning will take place.

ELIMINATE DISCIPLINE PROBLEMS THROUGH GROUPING

George M. Usova

THE CITADEL

A troublesome issue that many teachers face is getting their students to complete in-class discussions or writing assignments. When students work independently on a task, many are likely to be lost or uninterested in what they are doing and become frustrated. This frustration leads to despair, resignation or hostility, which in turn can cause discipline problems.

One technique that has met with great success is that of pupil-team grouping. While grouping within the classroom is not a new concept, it often fails because it isn't structured properly. Quite often teachers are afraid to try grouping for fear that chaos will result in the classroom; however, if done properly, it will not only create a better learning situation, but also will reduce discipline problems. Students will be actively involved in a task and less likely to become frustrated. This technique is successful for two principles: (1) peer pressure and (2) active student involvement.

The First Step involves preparation. Give all your students the following information about group functions. It is best to have students write the information. In this way, they will learn it better and will be able to refer to it later. It is as follows: (read to students)

There are three major roles in a group. The first role is that of a Leader. He has the following responsibilities:

1. He repeats the topic or assignment to the group.
2. He makes sure that everyone participates.
3. He welcomes all points of view.
4. He does not dominate the discussion.
5. He is responsible for the group's behavior.

The next role is that of the Recorder. The Recorder has the following responsibilities:

1. He records all points of view of answers from the group.
2. He participates somewhat.
3. He does not change or edit any of the member's "contributions."
4. He reports back to the group or the entire class at the end.

The final major role of the group are the Group Members. They have the following responsibilities:

1. Each member is responsible for contributing to the group.
2. Each member should tolerate the ideas or answers of the others.
3. Each member is responsible for his own behavior and that of others.

After these three roles have been discussed and written down, you are ready for the Second Step. Select a group of four or five of your more able students first to serve as models. Set them apart from the rest of the class

and have them work on some questions at the end of the chapter, for example, while the rest of the class work on the same task independently. This will give them the opportunity to observe the model group.

Since the Recorder is writing the contributions from the group, he is to turn in to the teacher the results of the contributions. Have all members of the group *sign* the recorder's paper. This gives them a sense of accomplishment and responsibility.

After the rest of the class has observed the model's behavior, have the entire class group the next day. This is the Final Step. Remind them to read over their notes and briefly tell them again of the various roles and their respective responsibilities.

To begin with it is better for the teacher to assign Leaders and Recorders. After students become more sophisticated with this process, they may select their own Leaders and Recorders. (This can also be an excellent way to allow the shy, withdrawn student to assume a leadership role.

Factors to Consider

Group Size: Usually groups of 4 or 5 work best. Be flexible.

Time Limit: Impose a realistic time limit upon groups relative to the nature of the task. This adds a slight pressure and eliminates waste of time. The Leader is responsible here.

Group Composition: This is a teacher judgment. Students should be grouped by compatibility or ability. Depending upon the task, the criteria might be "interest." Groups should be flexible in composition.

Now you are ready to try this technique. Begin slowly. Students will adjust rapidly. The results are more in-depth responses, active learning, and student involvement. Students work together, helping each other toward one goal. Peer pressure is involved, and students develop responsibility to each other.

Suggested Reasons for Grouping

1. Brainstorming on ideas on any subject.
2. Doing math problems.
3. Teacher questions.
4. Chapter questions.
5. Map, globe, dictionary skills.
6. Reviewing for tests.
7. Putting on a play.
8. Spelling practice.
9. Discussing relevant issues.

ASSESSMENT AND SUPERVISION OF THE FIELD EXPERIENCE OF A COMPETENCY BASED READING METHODS COURSE

Martha Dillner

UNIVERSITY OF HOUSTON AT CLEAR LAKE CITY

When the University of Houston committed itself to competency-based, field and campus-centered teacher education over eight years ago, the reading methods courses were primarily campus-centered and included lecture and discussion over assigned reading in a reading methods textbook. In an effort to be compatible with the field-centered focus of the College, a more intensive field-experience component was added to the reading methods course. This addition accentuated the need for a changed format which would be more consistent with a field-based program. The textbooks which had been used previously presented applications of the theory and practice of teaching reading, but did not provide enough guidance in applying them in a classroom situation. The preservice teachers were able to talk knowledgeably about providing for individual differences, yet when they were actually in the classroom they seemed to have difficulty translating the theory into practice.

Therefore, the reading methods course was reorganized on the premise that there were three different levels of learning involved. The first level of learning had to do with what had already been done well—the gaining of theoretical and practical knowledge about the subject of how to teach reading. The second level of learning required that the students demonstrate behaviors needed for effective teaching of reading in the classroom. The third level of learning assessed the pre-service teacher's ability to bring about change in the reading behavior of others. A competency-based, modularized textbook was written which was designed to facilitate transfer of learning from the knowledge to the application level. The text presented explanations of the principles and methods of teaching reading and then guided the students in changing the words into actions by stating needed skills in behavioral terms. The three levels of learning were categorized as the following kinds of behavioral objectives:

1. *Cognitive objectives* which require specified knowledge of key concepts in the teaching of reading. These are usually assessed through discussion and paper-pencil type tests.
2. *Performance objectives* which require the demonstration of certain teaching behaviors by the student. Guided practice is provided in applying the principles in a classroom-like situation.
3. *Consequence objectives* which require the demonstration of the

ability to bring about change in the reading behavior of others. Supervision of lessons taught to youngsters focus on the change in the youngster's reading behavior.

The first two levels of objectives were easy to measure through paper-pencil tests, classroom discussions, construction of activities designed to teach reading, and role-playing with peers. However, the third level of objectives, considered to be the most important, was difficult to assess. The public school provided an excellent laboratory for the pre-service teachers, but the responsibility of the classroom teacher was obviously with the public school pupil and not the University student. The classroom teacher was often already overburdened with work and therefore his commitment to the University was primarily in terms of allowing the University student to teach reading in his classroom. The classroom situations in which pre-service teachers were placed varied considerably. In some classrooms, the student was given a group of youngsters and told to use whatever techniques he wanted; in other classrooms the pre-service teacher was given a group of youngsters and specific instructions to teach the lesson *exactly* as outlined by the teacher's manual. There was a need for continuity in format between the campus and the laboratory. Besides the obvious desire to have a more specific purpose for being in the classroom other than just to "experience" what youngsters were like, there needed to be a means to define a classroom teacher's role in supervision in a manner which would be most useful to the pupils and the pre-service teacher. In order to have a consistency between learning behaviors which were explicitly delineated on campus, and the specified learning behaviors required while in the public school, flexible "laboratory objectives" needed to be developed.

The issue of supervision was thought to be basically the task of the University. As originally designed, one University instructor supervised a class of thirty-six undergraduates. Each University student worked with children for forty-five minutes a day, three days a week. Therefore, each undergraduate was supervised by University faculty, at the most, about three minutes a week. The validity of such a short supervision was questionable—particularly in light of the minimum type of supervisory role required of the classroom teacher. Even if there had been objectives delineated for the school setting, the system of supervision did not lend itself to giving the students the type of feedback they needed to assess their objectives and improve their teaching.

The solution was twofold: (1) devise a set of objectives consistent with the campus format and which would be flexible enough to fit any teaching of reading situation; and (2) devise a system where each student could be adequately supervised by the University and/or the classroom teacher on the designated laboratory objectives.

Development of Objectives

Thus two kinds of objectives were developed. The first category was "generic" in nature and could be used regardless of the reading skill the classroom teacher wanted his students to learn; the second category was "categorical" in nature and could be utilized when the participant had a

choice concerning the reading skills he would be teaching to the youngsters. Undergraduates were asked to construct and carry out a plan for each of a number of objectives. Components of both types of objectives are listed below:

increasing participation in reading discussion through questioning techniques

achieving one hundred percent participation through pupil-involving techniques

reducing behavioral incidences through preventive techniques

dealing with behavioral incidences through a variety of methods

motivating the child who is reluctant to read

motivating the child who is not reluctant to read

conducting a reading conference with a youngster

teaching a step of a directed reading lesson

administering the informal reading inventory

administering the word list test

diagnosing a small group of pupils on at least three different reading skills

designing and teaching the first lesson in a series of three lessons on one reading skill

designing and teaching the second lesson in a series of three lessons on one reading skill

designing and teaching the third lesson in a series of three lessons on one reading skill

selecting a book for a youngster

dealing with parents, report cards, and grading

conducting follow-up activities for a reading lesson

teaching a reading skill through one of the content areas

making a book with a youngster

The development of these laboratory objectives was founded on the premise that (1) learning is facilitated when it is reality based. In addition, the reading methods course was based on three more premises: (2) learning is facilitated when the instruction is personalized; (3) the role of an instructor in a personalized program should be a model of the methodology stressed; and (4) the instructional system should provide for the individual differences of the students using it. Therefore, the modularized text used in the course acted as a model of individualization of instruction in several ways:

1. each chapter contained a pre-assessment which determined whether the student already knew the data contained within. He was instructed to proceed through only as much data as he had to in order to meet the objectives;
2. each chapter contained a choice of learning alternatives which allowed the student to select a means of learning which was most comfortable to him. There was usually a choice of readings, audio-tapes, slide-tapes, and class sessions; and
3. each student received frequent feedback regarding performance at all levels. He was assessed each time he participated in a paper-pencil test, simulated teaching situation, or actual teaching situation.

For example, student W turned to the chapter on word recognition in the text and took the pre-assessment. He determined that he did not know anything about the phonics approach to teaching word attack skills. He looked through the list of learning alternatives and decided that he would rather listen to a discussion of phonics than read about it. After listening to an audio-tape of a previous lecture on the topic, he decided he still needed to know more. He looked at the schedule for class sessions and met with his instructor and peers on the day phonics was taught. A few days later, he role-played the teaching of the hard and soft sound of "g" in a peer-teaching situation. Both his peers and his instructor gave him feedback concerning the content and the techniques used. Much later in the semester, he was in the public school and diagnosed that several of the youngsters did not know the difference between the two sounds of "g."

He designed a lesson in which his students were taught both sounds and then practiced the skill through the use of a hopscotch board on which words containing the hard and soft of "g" were taped. In order for the child to hop into a space, he had to correctly pronounce the word which began with "g."

Student X worked with a classroom teacher who was very protective of his class. He requested that the undergraduate follow his prescribed lesson plan every day. The pre-service teacher followed the format, but used techniques for achieving 100% participation one day, and techniques for

more effective questioning the next. Therefore when his University supervisor came in to watch him teach, student X had a specific objective which met the requirements of the University and also was teaching a skill which the classroom teacher wanted him to.

Student Y worked with some students who needed to learn the comprehension skill of locating main ideas. He checked with his classroom teacher to see if he might develop a language experience lesson to teach the children this skill. This was considered acceptable and the student developed the lesson.

Student Z worked with a class that needed help with affixes. The student had not yet gotten to that part of his course where the instructor discussed structural analysis. He looked up the skill in his text and read about it. He then listened to one of the audio-visual alternatives which was available to him on the topic. He still felt a bit unsure of the skill, so he scheduled a time to meet with his instructor and discussed how the skill should be taught.

Development of the Supervision Process

However, as the feedback process was one of the key aspects of the methodology behind the reading course, before any of the above students taught their lessons, they worked with peers according to a specified set of guidelines.

Several of the role-playing situations which were used to assess some of the performance objectives on campus were also used to demonstrate techniques for assessing a peer. A series of small group seminars which occurred immediately following each role-playing situation, focused on developing "helping relationships" and techniques for giving effective feedback. Students were asked early in the semester to select a peer with whom they felt comfortable to be a partner for their laboratory experiences. The procedure practiced by the peers in the role-playing was the same procedure to be used in the school. The process required that each peer (1) hold a pre-conference with his partner before teaching to discuss the objective he intended to meet; (2) while he was teaching, the partner would watch to see that he had met the designated objective; (3) after the teaching, a post-conference between the two was held to assess the pre-service teacher's skill in meeting the objective as well as to give him suggestions for future teaching. Each student taught a portion of every day he was in the school, and every time he taught, his peer helped him assess his teaching.

In addition, an elaborate system of supervision utilizing teachers enrolled in the reading methods course for certification, graduate students, and the instructor was set up to assure each undergraduate of adequate supervision. Small group seminars held on campus by the instructor for "buddies," their student assistant, and their graduate assistant were designed to facilitate the feedback process.

A checklist format was developed so that the peer, graduate students, the instructor, or the classroom teacher could be provided with a uniform means for assessing the undergraduate. Though in most cases, classroom teachers left the supervision to the University personnel, the checklist

provided the teacher with a means to visualize the tasks expected of the students. This awareness enabled the classroom teacher to provide guidelines for students without forcing them to take time away from their pupils nor obligating them to revise their class to meet the needs of the University.

Various aspects within the field experience component have continued to be revised and adapted as new situations occur. However, the basic format described above has been successfully used in a diversity of classroom and university situations. Additionally, the format was transferred and used successfully in a second University in a completely different geographical setting during the Spring of 1975. In all situations, student feedback indicates that they liked the field experience component because it is reality based; the format lends itself to individualization of instruction; and there is emphasis on interaction with peers.

PHILOSOPHICAL AND CULTURAL PERSPECTIVES ON READING *

Nathan Kroman

WICHITA STATE UNIVERSITY

Introduction

Candor requires that I disclaim any real expertise in the educational speciality of reading instruction. This probably accounts for my writing about it with such sublime confidence. I do, however, believe that I know how to read. Moreover I have related to large numbers of people who are representative of many and diverse occupational and regional sub-cultures across the United States and Canada all of whom believe that they know how to read. These people typically exhibit a rather particular pattern of thinking styles. Since thinking is related to language and language is related to reading and since they all learned to read through processes and procedures that seem quite similar, it seems reasonable to wonder whether the way in which we learn to read partially influences the way in which we think.

Because part of this paper is a polemic against certain uses of definitions, I feel obligated to try to avoid them myself. I believe that through a series of true stories and anecdotes I can identify fallacies in thought which are supported by the way our language is culturally patterned and taught. Although I am personally convinced that the educational system generally serves these maladaptive latent functions, I encourage the reader to decide whether reading instruction *per se* plays a role in these processes.

Phenomena and Meaning

Before we get to the anecdotes, I shall attempt to make a distinction between *phenomena* and *meaning*. That thing, which in our language is commonly called the sun, is whatever it is regardless of the language or symbol by which we refer to it. It is whatever it is and has certain effects on people regardless of the meanings they attach to it. On the other hand, there are other effects that it has as a function of the many and widely varied meanings which are assigned to it by the various cultures of mankind. People create these meanings out of, or, if you prefer, in their experience and the meanings they assign to those experiences. The word *mean* or *meaning* can, in a real sense, be related to "understanding of" or "make sense of." Making sense of phenomena does not necessarily require language but communicating understanding does require language as does the achievement of higher and deeper meanings. There is, I believe, a tendency to confuse phenomena with the meanings we attach to it.

The word *mean* as in the question, often asked in school, "What does it

mean?" is hard to define. I can, however, illustrate some of the senses in which the word is used. First, we say "X means Y." In this usage we are saying that X and Y are the same. We can, and often do, simply say that X means Y without assigning any value or meaning to Y. Second, we can say that X means a *collection of words* which forms a phenomenal description of X if we are sure that the words we use have a common meaning. Thirdly, we can point to something which X represents. I tend to group these together because in spite of their variation they are all the same in that the word *mean* is used as an equal sign in mathematics. On the other hand we can answer the question, "What does it mean?" by interpreting *mean* in its implicative sense. That is, X means Y translates to X implies Y. "It is raining and that *means* that I will not take that long walk." Lastly, *mean* can be taken in its consequential sense. "It is raining and that means that the grass will get wet." Failure to distinguish between these three meanings assigned to *mean* is an example of the maladaptive function of our language style.

Some Stories From Life

On the first day of one of my courses I tell my students that I would like a male and a female to volunteer for a demonstration. Without warning I strike a firm but not severe blow on the upper arm or the male. I then put my arm gently but firmly around the shoulders of the female and hug her. When the volunteers are seated, I turn to the class and say, "Please tell me what you just saw." Generally, only about five percent of the class will do what I asked them to do. In one particular class of over thirty students none told me what they saw. Typically the replies consisted of such statements as "You don't like him," "Hostility," "Dirty Old Man" and on and on with a rather amazing variety of languaging all of which reflected the meanings which they ascribed to the actions. We often confuse events with the meanings we attach to them.

This distinction is further highlighted by the fact that many of us are emotionally affected by film sexuality or film violence. When this happens it is the faked and simulated behavior that affects us and certainly not the genuine feelings of the two dimensional patterns of light, shadow, and color that we see as people.

We also tend to confuse language and words with understanding or meanings. Much of education is concerned with the application and recognition of words whose assigned meanings are equated with other words in the sense of the *equal* sign discussed earlier. One fine summer day in Canada I was on a picnic with a friend, his wife, and his young son. The boy asked his father to tell him why the apples fell from the tree. My friend replied in a way that most of us would. "They fall because of gravity" or "gravity is what makes them fall." The young fellow's eyes lit up with the look of real insight and with a nod of sagacity responded with "Oh!!!" The boy accepted a word which he confused with understanding. We promulgate the use of words as a substitute for understanding. Often we feel that only *our* words can express not only our own understandings but common understandings.

Consider, for example, the following: I once caught three philosopher friends in conversation. I asked them for a definition of philosophy that I could pass on to my students. When I came back about an hour and a half later they were still arguing about what philosophy *really* was! They had no previous difficulty in agreeing about which human activities they would call philosophy and which they would not call philosophy. The argument arose only in relation to a definition. In spite of their common philosophical background, they couldn't shake loose of the culturally patterned and deeply embedded notion that there was a set of words which had a necessary connection to the thing which they understood to be philosophy and, further, each was sure that *his* words were *the* words. The predictable argument was not about philosophy at all but rather about the words which should refer to it.

The same assumption about a necessary relationship between a thing and the word for it was humorously pointed out on a Canadian television talk show. The guest said "You know, I really don't understand these people at all. The French call it *argent*, the Spanish call it *dinero*, the Germans call it *gelt*. Why the blazes don't they call it *money* for that is what it truly is!"

Another illustration of how the rigidity about words confuses thought is provided by another exercise I use in my classes. I ask students if, in their opinion, unicorns are real. Typically the reply is a resounding "no." The question as to the reality of love produces an equally resounding "yes." The students are then asked to write their own conception or definition of unicorns and of love. When confronted with the hard fact that they are completely agreed on the conception or definition of that which they affirm to be unreal and have almost total disagreement about that which they affirm to be real, they react with confusion, consternation, and, most interestingly, with the feeling that they have been tricked or duped. Their frustration increases when I point out that it was *their* answers, *their* meanings, *their* definitions and *their* failure to question my question that created the problem.

Our patterned language style also promotes polarized thinking. In school we are almost always asking either-or questions. My class is asked whether human faces are alike or different. Only a very, very small minority of the students either question the legitimacy of the question or answer with the single word "both." Typically they will all either emphatically assert that human faces are alike or that human faces are different. Their education and the way words have been used have blinded them to the obvious fact that, in some respects, human faces are alike and that in other equally significant respects, no two are alike.

Discussion

These anecdotes, although somewhat different, seem to illustrate an underlying tendency in our thinking which I believe is related to the way we typically use language in our culture and, more importantly, the way in which we unintentionally teach people to use language and to read. Critical thinking is defined differently by different people. I will not offer a definition for obvious reasons. However, whatever it is that people mean by

the concept, it is part of the processes of both the creation of knowledge as well as its application. It probably also is not merely the substitution of one set of words for another. For me it involves the process of seeing phenomena in novel ways. This involves a certain flexibility as well as precision in perception as well as in the use of language. We ought, I believe, to avoid language which suggests essences and absolutes and the notion that “we call the sun the sun because it *really is* the sun.”

The chronic disease called “Hardening of the Categories” is prevalent in the halls of academia. We organize knowledge into neat little administrative units called academic departments and we give them such labels as Philosophy, Biology, Political Science, Psychology and on and on. Although these are perspectives which are used to study aspects of human experience, we treat them as discrete things. It is quite easy to goad academicians into an argument as to whether a particular segment of human experience is really a psychological, economic or political event.

The intricacies involved in the generation of new knowledge and understandings necessitate the categorization and compartmentalization of methodologies and concepts of academia. What is maladaptive is to confuse them with things. I believe that the current disenchantment with education is partially due to our failure to make knowledge whole and thereby perceivable as part of life. I believe that what is taught is potentially relevant to life but we have so refined knowledge in our thinking and its organization that it is no longer seen as relevant. We confuse labels, meanings, definitions, and abstractions with experience and understanding.

Conclusion

I believe that the following rather common practices in education share responsibility for the kinds of maladaptive thinking I have been discussing.

1. Although large numbers of words in our language are given many meanings, we often teach and use them as though they had only one meaning.
2. We indicate a written or spoken word and “What does it mean?” instead of asking, “What does it refer to in this sentence?”
3. We ask questions and relate only to a right or wrong answer. Typically, we do not encourage the student to restructure or question the question.
4. We tend to separate the study of language and other communication skills from other areas of study.
5. We point to a thing or a picture of a thing and ask, “What is that?” We are then pleased when the student supplies its label.
6. When a student uses a word we ask, “What does it mean?” and accept another word for an answer.
7. We typically ask, “Is it this or is it that?”
8. We still, like my friend’s son, think we know what makes apples fall because we can use the word *gravity*.

READING IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL: TEACHING STUDENTS HOW TO ADD WORDS TO THEIR VOCABULARY: PART ONE *

Kenneth VanderMeulen

It is not difficult to collect a number of statements by the experts on why we must teach vocabulary growth. Words are the tools of communication, and, words are units out of which we build all thought and philosophy. Those are the truisms of yesterday, too old to attribute to a single person, and seldom thought about in today's world. Here is a thought by an expert today — "The substrata-factor research by Holmes and Singer indicates that vocabulary deserves predominant emphasis, since it contributes 51 percent to reading speed — far more than any other first-order factor." (James I. Brown, "Increasing Reading Rate," p. 159, *New Horizons in Reading*, International Reading Association, 1976.)

Teachers do not disagree on the importance of vocabulary growth, but they often oppose the suggestion that they are responsible for this growth. Using the same studies that show the urgent need for vocabulary work with students, these teachers cite the many approaches which do *not* work as reasons for avoiding the obligation. "The NCTE report shows teaching word lists is ineffective," "Vocabulary taught out of context is useless," and "Vocabulary growth results from wide reading, not from teaching." These statements may be true, but the need to build students' experience with concepts through vocabulary study of some kind remains, as pressing a problem as ever.

What is being done with vocabulary now is good, but not adequate. Teachers in each of the subject areas teach the words and ideas related to and necessary for understanding those content fields. Students are encouraged in most classes to use dictionaries, and to apply appropriate definitions as they read in unfamiliar materials. The skills needed for unlocking meanings through the use of context clues are part of most reading lessons. What is needed is more attention to vocabulary as a way of growing. Students need practice in expressing themselves lucidly, accurately, and coherently.

However, as former NCTE president Stephen Dunning put it, "We English teachers are not trained to teach reading and writing (nor did we

* This issue's "Reading in the Secondary School" column is the beginning of a unique four-part series dealing with practical ideas for teaching vocabulary. Further installments will be published consecutively during the '76-'77 year.

become English teachers in order to do that)." (EQUAL TIME, *The English Journal*, Page 9.) Other teachers of content subjects may feel the same way, and this sense of not knowing how may keep constructive experiences in vocabulary from taking place.

For these reasons, we are undertaking to describe here in a step-by-step fashion, a way to increase student enthusiasm for vocabulary growth. Our specific objective is not to teach words, but to help shape an attitude that is receptive to learning about denotation and connotation, semantics, and etymology. It might be called a readiness series in vocabulary building. We have chosen to use the approach of helping students become aware of the Latin and Greek word elements in our modern language. This is the area in which most teachers feel less than competent, according to surveys in current literature. It is the area in which students react with the greatest excitement of discovery. It is also the area of our modern language which is undergoing the most rapid change.

To make the lessons practical and adaptable, we have put the introductory ideas into four brief cassette tape scripts, quoted in their entirety in this series of articles. In the scripts for the tapes, students are requested to participate as they listen, to keep notes and match elements, so that a high level of involvement is sustained.

ADDING WORDS TO ONE'S VOCABULARY

Cassette 1, Side A

This is the first in a series of brief lectures about building one's vocabulary in reading. Your reading vocabulary should be the largest of your communication vocabularies—it is measured by your ability to think along with the writers of our textbooks and works of literary art. Our objective in this brief lecture is to show the important part that word power plays in our ability to think, reason, and communicate. You may say you agree, vocabulary is important, so this lecture is not necessary; but please think again. Listen and apply the facts to your own personal lives and careers.

Some years ago Johnson O'Connor reported on a ten-year study he made in New York. Over a thousand young employees in businesses were interviewed and given vocabulary tests. Vocabulary background scores were correlated with each person's level or status within the business. Ten years later, O'Connor interviewed and gave similar tests to most of the same thousand persons, and the results are most persuasive. Those who had the highest 10% vocabulary results had made the most promotions and earning in the highest income levels of the entire thousand. Without exception, none of those in the lowest 10% in vocabulary scores at the beginning had made significant promotions or earning gains. And still more convincing of the power of vocabulary is the record that the few who improved their vocabulary during the ten-year study also showed improvement in their positions in the business.

Why be concerned with vocabulary? Nationwide tests are showing a decline in vocabulary scores—a decline that has been going in that trend for two decades. This fact should bring a question to your mind—what can I do

about my situation? In other words, make the larger picture a matter of your individual concern, and take a positive attitude.

What should *not* happen is that you feel threatened or resentful that your own scores in vocabulary are low. The good news is that a vocabulary test is only a measure of your opportunity to experience those words, not a measure of your intelligence. It is very important that you comprehend that idea fully. When you measure your own vocabulary on a standardized test, you should think in these terms—my score reflects my opportunity to see and live those words. It is not too late. This is my chance to build a reading vocabulary that is timely, effective, and rewarding.

Two small pieces of information which you should understand and make a part of your thinking, must precede your actual work in the area of vocabulary. One is how we learn. We attach what we want to learn to something we already know . . . The principle is that we learn by comparison and contrast. Thus, when one meets a new word, he should see it as resembling something already familiar. A word in print needs to be changed into an idea, then into an image, in order to be stored in the mind. Here's an example: the word *fervor* is defined as impassioned, earnestness, or zeal; however, you need to remember it as a picture of one who is in a fever, hot, sweating—something like that, so that a meaning will be aroused from the image when the word is seen again.

The other bit of information is how to work at remembering. Repeating a word or idea is never worth much unless you are conscious of what you are saying or writing. Thus definitions are not as effective as practical use of words. After hearing some words, try to make sentences *in writing*—make use of the words. Look for the words in your reading—see them in other contexts, and try to realize that you are growing with every word you learn.

Now, in this series of lectures, you will be given a number of words to learn, take tests on, and study. You cannot be expected to know everything. But, if you accept the idea that vocabulary growth is a matter of years—not weeks, you will accept the idea that these words are meant to grow on you through the coming months and years. Nobody wants a crash course in vocabulary. It would not accomplish much.

The plan for this vocabulary improvement unit is set up on the basis of three approaches. One is our Latin and Greek word element system, which has not been given enough attention. The second is a set of observations on the way the English language changes, accelerating as the century goes on. And the third is some study of connotation in the many short words we have in the language, little words we often neglect, and their value.

In order to derive the most out of this set of lessons, be sure to keep regular notes; reserve a section of your notebook for vocabulary study alone. Explanations on why some words are spelled oddly, how certain prefixes have different meanings in different setting places—all will become more valuable over the period of time.

This is the end of the cassette on Adding words to One's Vocabulary, Lecture One. To use number two next, press Fast Forward to reach the end of this side, and reverse the cassette in the tape recorder.

Cassette Tape II

ADDING WORDS TO ONE'S VOCABULARY

The purpose of this tape is to convince you the listener of two things. First, that it is worth your time and attention to work at vocabulary building, second, that everyone can increase the scope and breadth of his reading vocabulary by a sizable percentage.

My objective right now is to have you see the English language as the richest in the world, and the best way to accomplish this is to conduct a demonstration. You will get much more out of a demonstration if you participate in it yourself—so, please take out a sheet of paper and prepare to help me verify the statement I just made. Take this sheet of paper and draw a straight line across it, about two inches from the top. This is a time line, representing about fifteen hundred years.

A small vertical line should be put on the far left, at the left edge, which can be labeled THE YEAR ZERO. If this line represents fifteen hundred years of English language, a small vertical line about two thirds of the way across the page to the right will be labeled THE YEAR 1000. And at the far right edge, YEAR 1500. Now the next vertical line should be placed at the year 350; and while the position need not be exact, we'd locate it one-third of the way from the year zero to the year 1000. This is an important date, and you should keep notes on the following facts in the history of the language:

Around the year 350, two groups of northern European people moved from the continent to settle in England (at least they were the most important of the several different migrating tribes), and they were called Angles and Saxons. They spoke languages which became one single predominant language in England, resembling a form of German, and called Anglo-Saxon. Words are still referred to in dictionaries as A.S. or Old English. In the centuries, then, between 350 on your timeline, and 1000, the Anglo-Saxon language, basis for American English, was created, and flourished.

The next very important date we need to observe is the year 1066, the year of the Norman invasion. The invaders were successful, and conquered and occupied the land. We needn't go into the politics and other history, since we are only interested in the facts which influence the modern American English.

The conquerors spoke French, which is based almost entirely on old Latin for its root words. This is an important fact, because Anglo-Saxon was a language which was made up of simple brief words having to do with home, farm, family, and work. However, the official language of the conquerors in the church, the military, legal documents, and the king's court was French based on Latin.

So we see, beginning in the year 1000, two different languages existing side-by-side. On your note sheet, you might head one column A.S., for Anglo-Saxon, the language of the conquered people, and head another column Fr., based on Latin. Now we can see by comparison, how this

duality shows up today. Under Anglo-Saxon, write cow, the animals which were tended and raised by the farmers or peasants. In the opposite space under Latin, note that cow-meat, when it arrived in the conquerors' dining rooms, was called beef. Under Anglo Saxon, write sheep, the name of the animal according to the farmers. That meat, when it arrived in the kitchen, was—mutton. Write mutton on the line under Fr.-Latin. In the same way, pig, was the Anglo-Saxon name. That meat became pork when delivered dressed, to the Fr. masters.

Now let's notice how we have two words in our language for practically every concept. Take parts of the human body. The word *hand* is from the Anglo-Saxon. On the opposite side, under the Latin heading, spell *man*-o, or *man*-i, or *man*-a. Any final vowel will do—the root is the Latin equivalent, used with other letters, to give the same idea. Look at all the double words—handwork and manual labor; a handbook, and a manual; hand made, manufactured; hand care, manicure; handle as with a machine, manipulate; and hand steer as a boat, and maneuver.

Another dramatic example of our two languages between the years 1000 and 1500 is the word *heart*, which is Anglo-Saxon in origin. Under the French, or Latin column, you would write cord, cour, card. A hearty greeting is Anglo-Saxon, but we say *cordial*, too, right? When someone is brave, we can say one has a lot of heart, or is *courageous*. You and I say someone has heart trouble, the medical term is cardiac condition. To lose heart and to become discouraged are the same. We say the heart of a melon, but the what of an apple? A core.

How about the word foot? It has limited use as an Anglo-Saxon word of old times; the equivalent, however, ped pod. The Latin form is quite widely used in our everyday language. Where do you put your foot on a bicycle? The *pedal*. The base of a statue—is—a pedestal! Where do you put your feet when you give a speech—on the podium. Foot care—pedicure. A foot specialist—podiatry. And a person who is on foot in traffic. What is he? A pedestrian . . . right.

You may have run out of room for examples on your note sheet right now, but you should have a fairly convincing set of examples to show you that your command of English at present is made up of one of northern European origin, and another of Latin based origin. The two languages existed side-by-side, for almost five hundred years, until a certain writer by the name of Chaucer, wrote famous poems and essays and stories, using both languages in a combination that was accepted by most literate people of the day. You might put Geoffrey Chaucer's name up there, next to the fifteen hundred year marker, and explain in your notes that he helped to weld the two languages into one.

ECHOES FROM THE FIELD: PHILOSOPHY FOR SECONDARY REMEDIATION

Shirley Madsen, Chairman

MONTANA STATE READING COUNCIL

Almost all phases of remedial reading, from teacher training to practical application, are aimed at the early elementary levels (and rightly so), but reading problems do persist among students at the middle school, junior high and high school levels. Therefore, a committee of the Montana Reading Council has compiled this Philosophy for secondary remediation.

1. Probably the morale of the student is the most important item to consider in a secondary program. Many poor readers have developed very negative self-images. The teacher must convey to the student that he sees him, not as a poor reader, but as a capable, worthwhile individual with many fine skills and attributes who, incidentally, has a reading problem that can either be remediated or compensated for.

2. Too often there is a stigma attached to remedial reading and to the students who need this assistance. Care should be exercised to minimize this stigma. Students may be involved in an excellent program which they enjoy, and still be reluctant to attend because of teasing from their peers. If the remedial class is the only "reading" taught in the building, another name should be found for the class that sounds and looks like a class regularly scheduled for all students, such as "English-R."

It is also helpful if the reading area and staff can be utilized by all the students through extra-curricular or other activities, rather than being considered very "set apart" by most of the school population.

3. It is important that students are led to see reading as an enjoyable activity rather than a series of skills to be mastered.

4. An attractive, permanent setting for the class is important. Comfortable reading areas will enhance the student's tendency to see reading as a pleasurable activity. If the student is to feel that reading is important, physical evidence must be present that the school also sees reading as important.

5. Parent involvement is as necessary and as important at the secondary level as at the elementary, but is much less apt to happen spontaneously. Parents may be negative about a school system and anxious about their children if reading problems persist at the secondary level. Reassurance that the school has a good remedial program and a positive attitude toward their child can relieve tension and create an attitude-change that will be beneficial to the student.

Some parents need to be helped to put their children's reading problems in the proper perspective.

6. Secondary reading programs need a great variety of materials and techniques with a format suitable to the age level being served. Some material will be used exclusively in the remediation program so that it is new and different; it is wise to stagger the introduction of materials to renew lagging interest throughout the year.

7. TEACHERS

a. The teacher should be adequately trained in remedial techniques (this usually means certification in that area by the Department of Public Instruction or an educational institution) and have a working knowledge of adolescent psychology.

b. Teachers must genuinely care about their students, accepting them, the existence of their value systems, and their cultural differences.

c. It is important that remedial teachers have opportunities for contact with others in their discipline for support and continued growth.

d. Remedial teachers will serve as a liaison between the poor reader and content area teachers, who need to know both the strengths and the weaknesses of the students. Some content area teachers may need assistance in finding alternate methods and materials for teaching, and/or testing. The content area teacher may focus more attention on the remedial student if he knows another staff member is vitally interested in and willing to help with that student.

8. Guidelines for selection of remedial students are often dictated by the funding agency, but if left to the discretion of the school, the first-priority student is the one who shows the widest discrepancy between ability and performance.

When assessing ability, it is necessary to use criteria other than group tests which depend to some extent on reading ability.

9. Records and test scores should move with the students. These records should be available to the reading teachers who will be working with them.

WE SUGGEST

Eleanor Buelke

Boorstin, Daniel J.

The Exploring Spirit

New York: Random House, 1976. Pp. xii + 102.

In order to arrive at what you do not know

You must go by a way which is the way of ignorance.

In order to possess what you do not possess

You must go by the way of dispossession.

In order to arrive at what you are not

You must go through the way in which you are not.¹

Americans anywhere, at any time, might enjoy reading this small volume by a noted historian of our times, but it is most appropriate reading for this, our bicentennial year. Detailing the uniqueness of America, the author describes his concepts of what our special national contributions have meant to us—and to the world. He begins with the birth of exploration on this planet, drawing a fine distinction between *discovery* and *exploration*, as two substantially different kinds of human enterprise. He points out that discovery is the conclusion of a search, a search for something that is known, or presumed to be known; exploration is the initiation of a search, an enthusiastic reaching to the unknown. He characterizes Americans as communities of explorers, on Fertile Verges: boundaries between the known and the unknown, places where new ideas, new institutions, new opportunities, and new commerce in products and thought appear. The vastness of our continent itself, with the verve and vitality of its frontiers and innumerable resources, combined with variety of immigration from without, have created quickly multiplying verges with unlimited opportunities for surprising encounters.

In this setting, then, the American experience has popularized the idea that novelty in the world of human community is possible, and might even be good. Through an accident of misnavigation the Pilgrims had landed in territory outside their patent prerogatives, and had brought into being a government expressly to serve their convenience, their needs, and their ambitions. Later, the writers of the Constitution of the United States of America were to announce and to prove to the world, in the name of "We, the People," that a living generation could create a new nation.

Special features of this nation-making exploration have become so familiar that it is difficult to assess their innovative power at the time they were first employed: *controversy and debate*, to allow prudent and thoughtful men to marshal facts and answer objections; *compromise as an institution*, to remain a basic instrument of American political creativity;

¹ T. S. Eliot, "East Coker," *Complete Poems and Plays*, p. 127. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1962.

and *amendment as an institution*, to enable each generation to be sovereign over its own constitution. As Americans have spread west, and the continent has filled out, succeeding generations have proved that they, too, could new-fashion states and institutions. Not among the least of their creations had been the establishment of nine degree-granting institutions of higher education by the time of the American Revolution, compared with only two in England where ancient charters reached back into the Middle Ages. Significant remoteness from English and continental European monopolies of higher learning, religion, the military, and aristocrats of the medical and legal professions is discussed as "the therapy of distance." This separation also worked in positive ways to separate Americans from the "irrelevancies of a filigreed society."

In later years, as technology has tended to neutralize, or destroy, some unique American opportunities, the effects of this therapy of distance have diminished. With the abbreviation of distance, implemented through advanced progress in aeronautics and electronics, citizens may seize for themselves their share of a catholic "Power to Leap." While technology has tended to homogenize the variety of people all over the United States, and to centralize institutions, including the media networks, it has spawned a new, concomitant, personal isolation of individual Americans. Television has made it possible for people to join others in experiencing almost anything while, at the same time, remaining physically separated from other participants. While scientific progress has been influencing our orientation in space, it has also affected our sense of time. The development and use of instantaneous, ubiquitous communication through the invitation and intrusion of media into private and public vehicles and living places has enlarged our sense of the contemporary. Speed, immediacy, and vividness have become special virtues, giving rise to what Boorstin calls "corruption of obsolescence." The Exploring Spirit which led Americans in the early years to seize opportunities for new beginnings, for ways to start over, or to break with the past, must now be employed to solve a different, but just as urgent, problem. How do we keep in touch with our past; how can we kindle a consciousness of living in the whole stream of human kind, not just by ourselves among contemporaries?

True believers in the Exploring Spirit operate on the assumption that progress consists not only in enlarging positive knowledge, but also by increasing awareness of our ignorance. Freedom and courage to act imaginatively on this assumption flourish only within a free society, a society where a Viking and its trip to Mars can be conceived, given form, and put into action. The robot has been sent into the unknown to search for what is not known. It has been described as:

. . . . a dramatic example of the ability of the human species to do anything that is within its imagining. It is also symbolic of the insatiable thirst for answers that has characterized the human intelligence at its highest. . . . Perhaps the most insistent question of all being asked is

whether we are going to learn enough to justify the effort. The question is a waste of time. To insist upon absolute answers as a precondition for any great undertaking is to deprive the future of its main source of intellectual energy. . . . Civilization makes its advances far more from what it does not know and from unglamorous errors than from uncontested certainties.²

If the American experience is to continue to add to the World experience, "if it is to continue to stir mankind to the impossible," the Exploring Spirit must be kept alive. Democracy must remain as a protective device for alerting people to weakness, dishonesty, and pretentiousness in government. Freedom from state censorship must allow inquiry by the people to discover the ignorance of government officials, scientists, economists, religious leaders, or themselves. Passion for relevance in education must be tempered with some surprises through adventures into the remote past, or into the unknown of the present and future. Unwholesome, professional pomposity must be recognized and discouraged. Pangs of social conscience, mobilized to right past wrongs to minorities, must not be allowed to degenerate into intellectual timidity or more partisan passions. In a paradox of modern times, some of the most promising new sources of the Exploring Spirit are by-products of the "Dark Continent of Technology." The Exploring Press, alerting us constantly to the limits of our knowledge, is more than ever indispensable. The Exploring Congress, with its almost unlimited power to investigate all areas of individual citizen abuse, is the keeper of our public conscience. Finally, there is the Skeptical Layman, the nonexpert who is free to function as the ombudsman of the impossible. In this last group, every person may claim membership. In particular, those who teach and educate are obligated to become catalysts for the Exploring Spirit to keep "wide open our windows to the future, our vistas of the otherwise."

² Norman Cousins, "The New Vikings," *Saturday Review* (August 7, 1976), p. 4.

TEN-SECOND REVIEWS



Fall '76

Berger, Allen, and Rita Bean (editors), "School Reading Programs: Criteria for Excellence" *Proceedings of the 28th Language Communications Conference*, Nov. 7-8, 1975, University of Pittsburgh.

The five main presentations given in their entirety in this booklet are coordinated attempts to treat in detail the several facets of school reading programs. The discussions and summaries that follow the talks are included. From the "Instructional Outcomes" (delivered by William Eller, SUNY, Buffalo) to "Assessment of Effective Reading Programs" (delivered by Rita M. Bean of University of Pittsburgh), the depth of deliberation and the incisiveness of the authors are most impressive.

Breslauer, Ann H., Jay D. Mack, and W. Keith Wilson, "A Visual-Perceptual Training Program," *Academic Therapy*, (Spring, 1976) 11:3, p. 321.

This article is a detailed description of an innovative program of remediation for children experiencing learning difficulties related to perceptual deficiencies. In addition to evidence of success for the program, the authors offer lists and sources of tests used in measurement and evaluation.

Burgett, Russell Edward, and Roger W. Dodge, "Is There a Difference Between Learning Disability and Reading Personnel?", *The Journal of Reading*, (Apr., 1976) 19:7, p. 540.

This is a discussion comparing the roles of reading teachers and learning disabilities teachers. In the light of the responses the authors received to their study, it would seem persons designated as learning disabilities teachers are doing more for less remuneration. This matter needs further investigation, if teacher preparation programs are to have significance for hiring agents.

Carrillo, Lawrence W., *Teaching Reading: A Handbook*, 1976, St. Martin's Press, 175 Fifth Avenue, N.Y., New York, 148 pp.

In the space of less than 150 pages, the author takes the uninitiated reader through the main ideas that are important to the teaching of reading. In addition to explaining the latest basic methods and strategies being presented by experts, Carrillo informs his readers where they may obtain further materials on each of the many aspects of this field. The book has an excellent chapter on "Improvement of Specific Reading Skills" which includes symptoms, objectives, procedures, references, and materials. The section on tests and testing is up-to-date and comprehensive. Finally, the author has included a valuable glossary of terms related to the teaching of reading. From this reader's standpoint, the handbook would be a most useful aid to beginning teachers, and to secondary teachers who have little background in improving reading techniques.

Ching, Doris C., "Reading and the Bilingual Child," 1976, International Reading Association, Newark, Delaware, 41 pp.

In this monograph of the Reading Aids Series, the author uses upwards of thirty sources, plus her own expertise and experience, to make the challenge of teaching children of other cultural settings more a likelihood than a possibility. It is a practical booklet. The ideas will help the teacher avoid the error of insulting the child of another culture through misunderstanding or ignorance.

Dwyer, Carol A., "Test Content and Sex Differences in Reading," *The Reading Teacher*, (May, 1976) 29:8, p. 753.

Working for the Educational Testing Service, Princeton, the author examined tests on elementary and secondary levels to learn about the extent of sex-role stereotyping. Dwyer gives a comprehensive report on the progress that has been made in "balancing the content" since the problem was first recognized. The article pays special attention to the Scholastic Aptitude Test.

Earle, Richard A., *Teaching Reading and Mathematics*, A Monograph in the Reading Aids Series, International Reading Association, Newark, Delaware, 1976, 88 pp.

This brief work is written by a person who has a rich background of experience in reading, and has here woven that reading knowledge into the techniques and approaches used by math teachers. The monograph will be extremely useful to teachers who wish to help prevent reading difficulties in their particular content areas; that is, it helps one teach reading in the language of math.

Fretz, Sada, "Why Nonfiction Books Are So Dull and What You Can Do About It" *Learning* (May/June, 1976) 4:9, p. 68.

Being angry, plus having a great deal of comprehensive data on the matter at hand, add up to an article approaching an expose. Sada Fretz accuses the authors and publishers of selling "low quality juvenile nonfiction" to libraries in the schools, and tells us bluntly that the "condition will continue until teachers themselves go into the libraries to discover for themselves which books are inaccurate and useless and which deserve to be read and used."

Fry, Edward B., and Lillian R. Putnam, "Should All Teachers Take More Reading Courses?" *Journal of Reading*, (May, 1976) 19:8, p. 615.

In this cogent open letter to the state board of education of New Jersey, the authors support the proposal that all teachers certified in the state should have at least six hours of teaching reading on their transcript for a Bachelor's degree. An editor's note indicates the letter was effective, as the requirement will be enforced in 1977.

Graves, Michael F., and Judythe P. Patberg, "A Tutoring Program for Adolescents Seriously Deficient in Reading," *Journal of Reading Behavior*, (Spring, 1976) 8:1, p. 27.

The authors describe a one year project in tutoring ten students who were five and six years retarded. While the approach and the methods are well delineated, meriting the attention of professionals in the field, it was not difficult to predict success for the project. Statistics do not hide the fact that deficient readers are helped by enthusiasm and warmth, unlimited time and patience, and trained personnel.

Hansell, T. Stevenson, "Readability, Syntactic Transformations, and Generative Semantics," *Journal of Reading*, (April, 1976) 19:7, p. 557.

In addition to an excellent review of readability development since its beginning, the reader is treated to a discussion of the deeper and more technical factors that make written communication difficult.

Kaplan, Don, "Getting Into Shapes: Exploring Abstract Form in the Classroom," *Learning*, (April, 1976) 4:8, p. 68.

Teachers of elementary children who discuss the need for more experience with concepts as a means for preparing to read should look at this article. The author is most creative and imaginative in his descriptions of ways to develop experiential background for learning

concepts. His ideas may not be immediately adopted, but his methods will stretch the thinking of all readers.

Kaufman, Maurice, "Measuring Oral Reading Accuracy," *Reading World*, (May, 1976) 15:4, p. 216.

The article points out the need for some standards or norming procedures in the oral reading part of diagnosis. Clinicians have measured oral reading ability for two generations, and have now stopped to look at the several standards being used.

Lang, Janell Baker, "Self-Concept and Reading Achievement—an Annotated Bibliography," *The Reading Teacher*, (May, 1976) 29:8, p. 787.

Here are listed almost sixty sources of materials about a most important and timely topic. The sources range from dissertations to popular articles, each described briefly as to scope and depth.

Laurita, Raymond, "Anxiety Behaviors: Cause or Effect of Faulty Reading?," *Reading Improvement*, (Summer, 1976) 13:2, p. 118.

This is a major article with considerable documentation. The author reviews the literature to establish some agreement of concepts, then makes a series of observations concerning the logic of treating the disable reader before adequate treatment of faulty reading can be undertaken. Effective means of avoiding further anxiety (expecting responses which are too sophisticated) are described.

Marzano, Robert J., Norma Case, Anne Debooy, and Kathy Prochoruk, "Are Syllabication and Reading Ability Related?," *Journal of Reading*, (April, 1976) 19:7, p. 545.

The authors attempt to answer a question which plagues conscientious secondary teachers: Is it necessary to spend time teaching syllabication for better reading comprehension? Their study results indicate some correlation between syllabication ability and word recognition; however, the gain in reading comprehension is very slight.

Mazurkiewicz, Albert J., and Jane Gould, "Spelling Preferences and Instructional Considerations," *Reading World*, (May, 1976) 15:4, p. 203.

Continuing his interest in the problems connected with spelling (see March '76, *Reading World*), the author asks the question "Do teachers teach *both* spellings of words which have variant spellings?"

Jane Gould, reading specialist in Madison, New Jersey, helped the author find some interesting answers in this study. We as teachers are found wanting in *awareness* of equivalent spellings.

Muehl, Siegmar, and Mario C. Di Nello, "Early First Grade Skills Related to Subsequent Reading Performance: A Seven Year Followup Study," *Journal of Reading Behavior*, (Spring, 1976) 8:1, p. 67.

In their research to find the skills which best predict success in reading, the authors uncover some answers to long-standing mysteries. While there were significant short-term predictors, the indication of future reading success which most consistently contributed to reading performance at each grade level was the ability to name letters.

Neilsen, Allan R., and Carl Braun, "Teaching the Drop-Out to Read—A Case Report," *Academic Therapy*, (Spring, 1976) 9:3, p. 275.

If a reading specialist wished to use a clinical case to point out the pitfalls that line the way from identification to recommendation, one might be well advised to cite this case of an eighteen-year-old illiterate. For instance, the tendency to evaluate students according to a single test of potential and interpreting without considering individual limitations, may be *creating* causative factors in severe retardation cases. Lorne's case is typical of the many students who spend ten years in formal schooling, yet are only taught to believe themselves total failures.

Phillips, Charles M., "Illiteracy: A Shortcut to Crime," *Spelling Progress Bulletin*, (Summer, 1976) 16:2, p. 1.

The author of this brief article pleads with educators and legislators to do *something* to help young people become successful in reading. His one statement, "Eighty percent of the new criminals I see would not be (in court) if they had graduated from high school and could read and write adequately" should be sufficient. The need for action is most urgent.

Rosen, Ellen, "Readability Analysis of SRA Power Builders," *Journal of Reading*, (April, 1976) 19:7, p. 548.

The author applied the Dale-Chall Readability Formula to one graduated set of folders in the individualized reading kit. Her findings may be taken as advice to teachers: regard all grade level pronouncements as being *in that range*. The article is a clear call to publishers to begin using accurate scales.

Ross, Stephanie S., "Bibliotherapy," *The Florida Reading Quarterly*, (April, 1976), 12:3, p. 23.

This is an article containing basic concepts and definitions in a field that is growing as a body of scientific knowledge. Here, the rationale and the processes are related in some detail by an author who is herself deeply concerned and involved in the area of endeavor.

Stewart, William J., "Teaching Children and not Subjects in the Language Arts," *Reading Improvement*, (Summer, 1976) 13:2, p. 71.

A specific description is given in this article of an individualized approach to the teaching of language arts. The way to avoid the pitfall of teaching subject matter, says the author, is to adjust programs of work in the communication skills to each student.

Thelen, Judith, "Improving Reading in Science," an IRA Service Bulletin, International Reading Association, Newark, Delaware, 1976, 54 pp.

Here is a monograph which attempts to give practical help and ideas to science teachers who are willing to incorporate reading instruction into their work. As Harold Herber says in the foreword, reading and the reasoning process should closely accompany the content of science courses. This six chapter booklet helps the teacher keep the process and the content in simultaneous progress.

Vaughan, Joseph L., Jr., "Interpreting Readability Assessments," *Journal of Reading*, (May, 1976) 19:8, p. 635.

Before the advent of the "easy to do" readability formulas, there was little comparison or comment as to what degree of accuracy was involved. Now, with four or more to choose from, we are taking closer looks at the old and the new, placed side-by-side. In his article, Vaughan raises some interesting questions about expected levels of comprehension in reading.

Welker, William A., "Reading and the High School Student: An Attitudinal Approach to Reading," *Reading Improvement*, (Summer, 1976) 13:2, p. 98.

The reader is treated in this article to a step-by-step way to develop a successful reading program that will *appeal* to high schoolers instead of reinforcing resistance. There is real merit in an approach that considers and treats the attitudes of students who need help in reading.

Zimet, Sara Goodman, "Reader Context and Sex Differences in Achievement," *The Reading Teacher*, (May, 1976) 29:8, p. 758.

This psychiatrist author cites the content of elementary reading materials as one probable cause for the fact that boys make up 75-80% of all disabled readers. Her request that new content be written which "breaks away from old patterns of stereotyping" will not be easy to fulfill.

NEW MATERIALS

Sandy Ahern

READING CONSULTANT, COMSTOCK, MICHIGAN

A BUTTON IN HER EAR, by Ada B. Litchfield, 32 pages/Grades 2-4.

The story is an informative, healthy approach to a child's hearing loss. For the child with a handicap, this book would be of special interest. But for others fortunate enough not to have a handicap, the story opens new doors of insight and learning.

ALL KINDS OF FAMILIES by Norma Simon, 40 pages/Grades K-2. This book illustrates through pictures and a simple text how families may differ from the traditional form, how they change over the years, and how they learn the importance of sharing and belonging to a family unit.

BENNY UNCOVERS A MYSTERY by Gertrude Chandler Warner, 128 pages/Grades 3-8. What young person doesn't enjoy reading for pure pleasure, especially a good mystery? This is an absorbing tale of two young brothers and their search for answers to some puzzling questions. Because of the interest level, and simple format, this book will interest older readers as well as the young reader who wants a "real" book.

CODES FOR KIDS by Burton Albert, Jr., 32 pages/Grades 3 and up. Very intriguing book for the child who likes codes and brainteasers. While the book amusingly explains and illustrates twenty-nine codes, it also has a practical reading aspect as children decipher and write those "secret" messages to friends.

CUANDO ME ENOJO . . . (I WAS SO MAD!) by Norma Simon, 40 pages/Grades K-3. Especially interesting book that would set the stage for an excellent sharing and discussion session on the subject of anger. The story reassures children that anger is a common emotion and once recognized can be dealt with in a healthy manner. The text is available in English and Spanish. An English text is given in a special section of the Spanish version.

GRANDMA IS SOMEBODY SPECIAL by Susan Goldman, 32 pages/Grades Preschool-1. A Charming story of a modern-day grandma who makes a grandchild feel every bit as loved as a granny of long ago. Although the concept and soft pictures will appeal to the preschoolers to first graders, the vocabulary makes the readability level difficult for those levels indicated.

SKATEBOARD FOUR by Eve Buntint, 64 pages/Grades 3-6. An entertaining and thought-provoking book focusing around the ever-growing popular sport of skateboard riding. The tense action-packed story should be exciting reading for girls and boys.

SOCCER HERO by Mike Heigoff, 128 pages/Grades 4-8. An easy-to-read sports story about a young boy who finds there is more to winning than the victory of the game. Another plus that should hold the attention of

your reader is the very real descriptions of soccer plays. A good selection for those mature but weak readers.

YOU GO AWAY by Dorothy Grey, 32 pages/Grades Preschool-1. With only a vocabulary of twelve words, the story shows when parents do have to go away they always come back. Warm colorful pictures and the story line sketch everyday happenings of separation that a young child must learn to accept in order to grow.

THE DIAGNOSTIC INVENTORY OF BASIC SKILLS by Albert Brignance. Published by Curriculum Associates, Inc., 94 Bridge Street, Newton, Mass. 02158, 1976, pp. 162.

READING SKILLS PRACTICE KIT by Stan Laird. Published by Curriculum Associates, Inc., 94 Bridge Street, Newton, Mass. 02158, 1976.

LANGUAGE EXPERIENCES IN COMMUNICATION, Text and Instructor's Manual, by Roach Van Allen.

LANGUAGE EXPERIENCES ACTIVITIES (250 language activities designed for individualized programs) by Roach and Claryce Van Allen. Published by Houghton-Mifflin Company, One Beacon Street, Boston, Mass. 02107, 1976. Text 505 pp., Activities Booklet 276 pp.

READING AIDS THROUGH THE GRADES—A Guide to Materials and 440 Activities for Individualizing Reading Activities, by David H. Russell and Etta E. Carp (2nd rev. ed. by Anne Marie Mueser). Published by Teachers College Press, Columbia University, N.Y., N.Y. 10027, pp 338, 1975.

TEACHING ALL CHILDREN TO READ, Text and Tutor's Manual, by Michael A. and Lise Wallach. Published by University of Chicago Press, 5801 Ellis Avenue, Chicago, Illinois 60637, 1976, pp. 332.

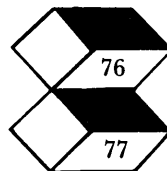
LITERACY FOR AMERICA'S SPANISH SPEAKING CHILDREN, Eleanor Wall Thonis, Oliverhurst, California. Reading Aids Series, International Reading Association, Newark, Delaware 19711, 1976, 69 pp.

THEORETICAL MODELS AND PROCESSES OF READING (2nd ed.), Editors Harry Singer and Robert B. Ruddell. International Reading Association, Newark, Delaware, 1976, 758 pp.

PERSONALIZING READING EFFICIENCY, Lyle L. Miller. Director Reading Research Center, University of Wyoming, 1976, Burgess Publishing Company, Minneapolis, Minnesota, \$5.50, 193 pp.

PROGRAM

HOMER L. J. CARTER READING COUNCIL
INTERNATIONAL READING ASSOCIATION



SATURDAY, SEPTEMBER 18, 1976

9:30 A.M., Kalamazoo Center: Kickoff breakfast featuring author Dr. Richard Boning from Barnell Loft Publishers.

THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 11, 1976

4:45-9:00 P.M., Comstock Northeast Middle School: Seventh Annual Drive-in Conference featuring sectional meetings and Dr. Zacharie J. Clements from the University of Vermont.

THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 17, 1977

7:00 P.M., WMU University Center: Panel discussion on current trends and issues in reading featuring IRA, MRA, and State Board of Education personnel (specific speakers to be announced in final Homer L. J. Carter Reading Council Program). Co-sponsored with Western Michigan University Reading Center and Clinic.

THURSDAY, APRIL 21, 1977

7:00 P.M. (place to be announced): Work session for members as well as election of officers and general business meeting.

SATURDAY, APRIL 30, 1977

10:00 A.M.-4:00 P.M., Maple Hill Mall: "Read-a-rama" featuring Council members from as many schools as possible presenting the good things happening in reading in our area.

