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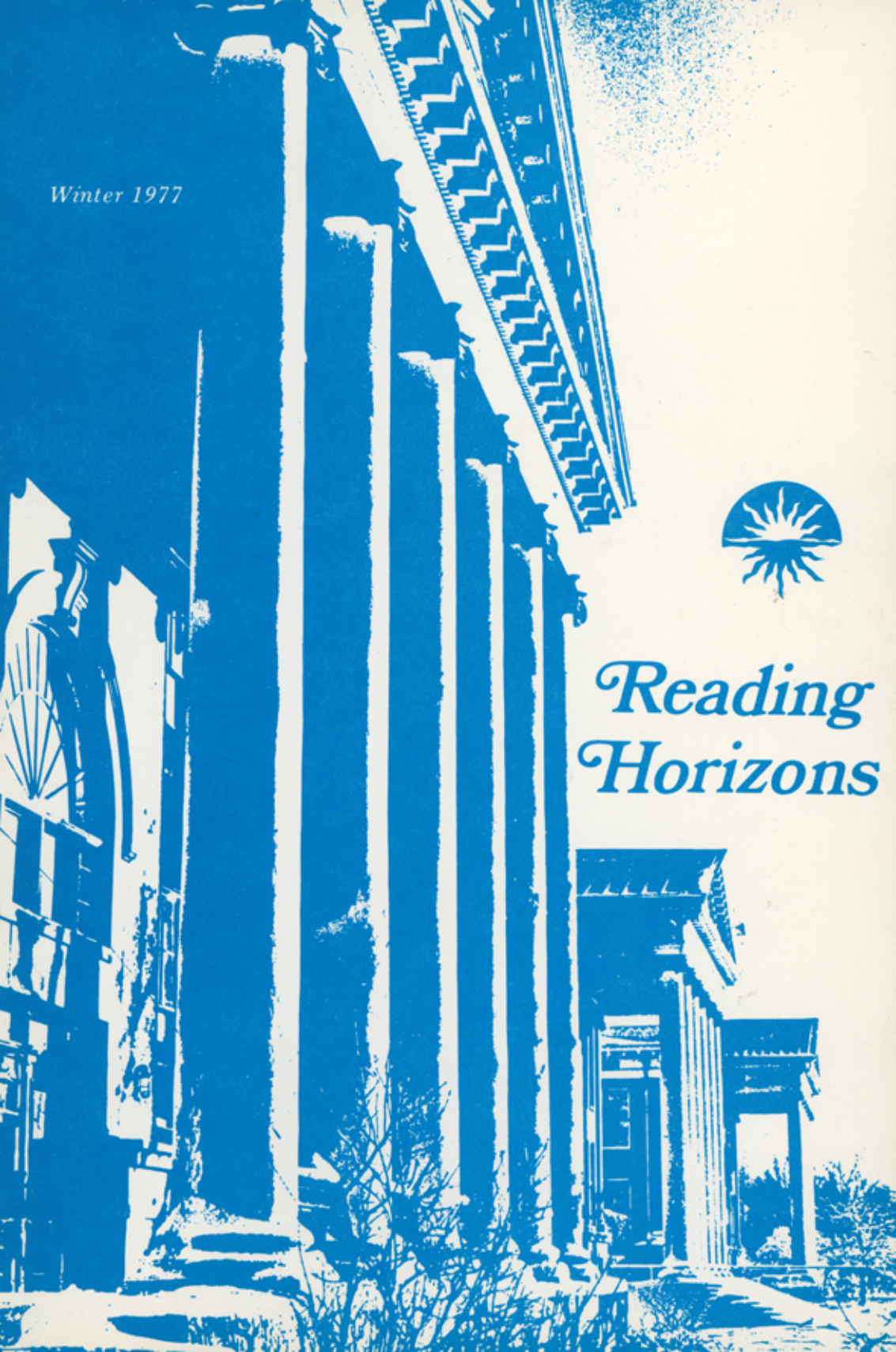
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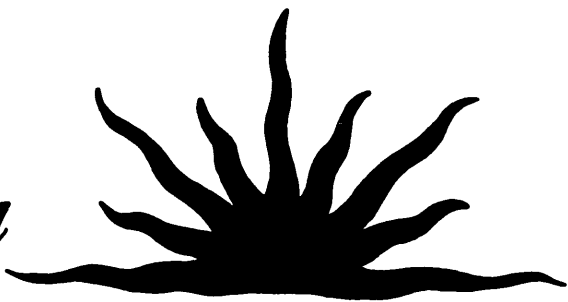


Reading Horizons



Reading

HORIZONS



VOLUME 17

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READING AND NEW IDEAS

Why is it that when someone comes along with a new idea in reading that it seems to enjoy such sudden popularity and widespread utilization for a while? What eventuated from the idea is not of particular concern here—but why did the idea seem to have almost immediate success? A close look at the mercurial careers of a number of *new* approaches, methods, and strategies in the teaching of reading, prompts a few observations.

In the first place, we need to give proper credit to the innovator for the energy and original impetus he gave the idea. Whether an approach is the result of studies and statistical computation or is simply wrung out of experience, the person who presents it to the public always adds the strength and force of convincing personality. Second, a *new* method apparently has the aura of magic associated with it. The mere fact that it is new is often a major selling point with many teachers. Charles Dickens, characterizing the American personality during a brief visit to our nation in the last century, noted our impatience with existing things and our constant search for novelty.

Our pressing need in this decade is to examine this urge to try something different, and to reflect on what it may mean to us as professional teachers. We might stop to think about what *Reading Instruction in America* by Nila Banton Smith and *Teaching to Read, Historically Considered* by Diack, are trying to impress on our minds—that there are really no brand-new methods and approaches in this field. What works for one group of students in a given period of time in a certain place is not the answer for each classroom in all areas. We are making a mistake in judgment, therefore, when we attend conventions and conferences with the singleminded goal of finding out what is *new* in the field—it very well might not be for us at all—whether it's new or not really doesn't matter if it's not right for us.

Thus, if we wish to improve upon the world of reading for our students, we would do best by examining our own fitness to different concepts—We must realize that we, individually, are the *new* items in the field of reading each year; by looking for what works in given circumstances, and by attempting to use those parts of various ideas in our own classrooms that work for us, we can have a new and successful teaching experience every year.

Kenneth VanderMeulen
Editor

LET'S LEAVE NO STONE UNTURNED

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What does a good remedial reading teacher do? Everything the teacher of a regular classroom does, only more in depth. Consider, for example, all that happens during a three-step lesson for a remedial reading group of nine-year olds.

The lesson is sixty minutes long. The first step is word attack skills, including phonics, sight-word practice, structural analysis, and the use of context clues. The second step is reading, both silent and oral, with discussion. The teacher models for the students, and each student reads silently along with the teacher and then orally to the class. This is also a time for discussion of each section that is read. The third step is evaluation. There is a page of questions for the student to answer. This is the time for the student and teacher to discover if learning has taken place and a time to learn how to "put things down on paper."

For about two or three weeks before the three-step lessons are begun, the students go through a preparation period. The teacher and students discuss what a sentence is and what a paragraph is. The students practice (1) how to find a certain word, phrase, or sentence; (2) how to find the beginning of the sentence that contains the specific word or phrase; (3) how to answer questions that tell who, what, when, where, how; and (4) how to answer different types of questions such as fill in the blank, true or false and multiple choice.

The teacher reads a selection and writes a question on the board. All students work together at this time, reading in unison after the teacher, finding the sentence that has the answer, giving the answer in a word or phrase, stating the answer in a complete sentence, then writing the answer on their papers. In this way the procedures and skills needed for the three-step lesson are modeled and practiced before the students are asked to do their work independently. Any misunderstandings are corrected at this time.

This proves to be an excellent diagnostic procedure also, as the weaknesses of each student often become apparent. The teacher not only sees who misses what kind of question, but why. Perhaps the student can't form his letters correctly, can't follow directions, can't locate the answers. Much remediation is based on what the teacher learns during this period of preparation. Periodically these procedures are reviewed as remedial reading students need to review frequently.

Now let's consider what happens during each step of a typical three-step lesson.

Step 1: Word attack skills From a reading selection the teacher chooses words that are new to the student, are difficult, or need to be defined. To that list are added words that will illustrate specific sounds that are being studied. Single letters and letter combinations are sounded and words “put together,” never leaving elements of a word standing alone. Reference is made to key words for help in sounding words. Both an analytic and synthetic approach are used. As syllabication rules are studied (but not memorized), they are incorporated into the lesson at this point. Each word is then read in unison two or three times; occasionally one or more students will read selected words from the list. Word meaning is discussed. The teacher models for the students, giving synonyms, antonyms, using words in sentences and letting students tell of their experiences relating to the word.

Step 2: Reading In this step the teacher reads aloud a sentence, a paragraph or a selection short enough for a particular student to handle. While reading, emphasis is put on stress, pitch, phrasing, pronunciation, accents, expression. Each student has an opportunity to read aloud. The names and meanings of punctuation marks are discussed. The teacher points out how the student should read them when he encounters them (stop, lower voice, pause, with expression). Questions are asked which are designed to improve the ability to recall details, locate the answer, make inferences, draw conclusions, decide main idea, predict outcomes and relate the story to one's own experience, as well as to think creatively.

Step 3: Evaluation A page of questions is given to each student. All of the students receive the same page. Questions are marked with symbols (★ Δ O) to designate (to the teacher) easy, average and difficult. The student answers only those questions with his symbol. In this way the questioning is individualized without each student's knowing which group he is in. Where applicable the student must answer the question in a complete sentence. Penmanship, spelling (which involves phonic principles), answering in a complete sentence, and punctuation are all checked when the student brings his paper to be approved. If he has made some errors, his answers are not just marked as incorrect; instead, the “why” is explained and the student is shown how to correct his errors. At this time of answering the questions on paper and seeking help from the teacher, each student gets individual attention with the concepts he has not learned. Consideration is made of the stage of development of each student, how much he can handle at one time and how much the teacher expects of him. For instance, some students are doing well to answer the question correctly and cannot yet do so in a complete sentence. Some get the answer, write it in a complete sentence but forget their punctuation. Also, in correcting an answer, the student again receives practice in how to locate an answer and how to phrase his answer so that it makes sense, so that it answers the question.

When seeking help from the teacher on how to spell a word, the student must show evidence of having at least attempted it on his own. This is one way to build independence in students who do not feel adequate enough to work on their own. Many times they know but are not sure of themselves. By

trying first, they begin to shoulder some of the responsibility for their own work.

There is great interest at present nationwide on students' inability to get things down on paper, to write a decent sentence, to fill out questionnaires, etc. This evaluation portion of the lesson forces the student to do these very activities.

Here is an actual lesson.

*A Present for George*¹

George is six years old today. His mother and father are giving George a birthday present.

“You may have one of these little white dogs,” said Father. “Pick the one you like the best.”

George looked at the three dogs. He decided to take the white dog that had the black spot. He liked that dog best.

The three paragraphs are studied one at a time. At the end of the story the third step, Evaluation, is done. This slow-motion approach is recommended for each paragraph.

Step 1: Word Attack (Words are written on the board one at a time, sometimes letter by letter.)

Write

George

George Why did I capitalize that? Yes, it is a name. You say it. *George*.

giving

We have the word give. (Write *give* on the board.) If I want to add *ING* to a word that ends in *E*, I take off the *E* and add *ING*. The new word is *giving*. You say it. *Giving*. They are *giving* George a present.
Present

present A present is something a person gives to someone else. What is a present? When could you get a present? Birthday? Christmas? Makes you feel all good and warm inside, doesn't it? Why do people give you a present? Yes, they love you. Let's all say the words together. Let's say them again. Good.

Step 2: Reading Listen while I read. (Read the first paragraph.) John, you read for us. Remember to stop at the periods, and remember that your

¹ Gates, Arthur I. and Celeste C. Peardon, *Reading Exercises, Introductory Level A*, Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1963, Story No. 1.

voice goes down when you stop. Like this: “George . . . today.” (Help the student with words where needed, sometimes telling him the word and other times helping him to pronounce the word. Other students may tell him the word if they wait to give the student a chance before they tell him.)

Discussion: How old is George? Who are giving him a present? Why are they giving him a present? Find the sentence that tells when George’s birthday is.

Paragraph 2: (The same procedure is used as for Paragraph 1.)

<i>Words</i>	<i>Concepts</i>
may	sound of <i>AY</i>
little	divide little lit-tle
best	sound of each letter, blend sounds into whole word.

Reading: Discuss quotation marks.

Questions: What may George have? Describe the dog. What is George supposed to do?

Paragraph 3

<i>Words</i>	<i>Concepts</i>
looked	meaning of <i>ED</i> .
three	sound of <i>THR</i> and <i>EE</i> , blend into whole word
decided	Meaning of work, meaning of <i>ED</i> . Student uses word in sentence.
white	Sound of digraph <i>WH</i> , sound of vowel <i>I</i> , rule of vowel, consonant, final <i>E</i> .

Reading: Review how to tell a paragraph and demonstrate on board.
Ask how many paragraphs in story.
Discuss meaning of apostrophe in *George’s dog*.

Discussion: How many dogs did George look at? Describe the dog that he chose. What do you suppose George did after he got his nice present? Have you ever received a nice present like that? How did you feel? What did you do? Tell how the story ends.

Step 3: Evaluation Students answer these questions, have their papers checked, correct the errors. Each student knows his symbol, and these can change as he progresses.

- ★ 1. How old is George today?
- ★ 2. How many dogs did George have to choose from?
- 3. Copy the sentence that tells who was giving George the present.
- 4. Describe the dog that George chose.
- △ 5. Why did George choose the dog that he did?
- ★ 6. What day is this?
- 7. Who is talking in paragraph two?
- △ 8. Find the word that means “made up his mind.”

- Δ 9. How many spots did the dog have?
 * Δ O T F 10. George chose a black dog with a white spot.
 Δ 11. What would be another good name for this story?

By the time this lesson is completed every student has 1) read silently and orally, 2) answered questions orally and graphically, 3) had a chance to recite (which remedial readers seldom have in other classes) and 4) practiced:

phonics	using punctuation rules
syllabication	thinking
meaning of endings	listening
how to add ING to E word	recalling facts
word meanings	reading with expression
how to locate an answer	spelling
penmanship	making answers fit the question
writing in complete sentence	writing a neat paper

The student has been an active participant throughout the lesson with very little chance for his mind to wander or for him to sit and stare out of the window. He has been a part of the group but has received individual instruction as well. He has been given success because there was a model which he copied immediately, and he was made to do his work correctly. He had often found his own errors and learned that as all errors must be corrected, it is better to try to do the best possible work and do it correctly the first time.

Many of the remedial students do not care how their papers look. In these lessons they are encouraged to erase well, to be neat, to remember that their teachers feel good inside when they see a nice paper, and “isn't it fun to make your teachers feel good inside?” If the teacher feels a student has been reminded sufficiently, a messy paper is returned with the comment that it will not be accepted the way it is. So often not enough is expected of the remedial student. If shown *how* to correct his work and given time, he can do much better than many people realize. He should not be allowed to get by with messy work. He begins to know the feeling of what it is like to do a job well, even though it takes a long time, and of being praised for his efforts and accomplishments.

In summary, then, the lesson includes as many facets of reading as can be squeezed in; help is given at every step; the work is sequenced and structured; certain demands and expectations are made of the students and they know what these are. Immediate feedback, modeling, *how* to do what is expected of them are all important aspects of the lesson. Progress and improvement are visible to the students and much mention of this is made to the entire class. Also, notes are sent back to the classroom teachers telling of this progress.

Remedial reading students have their own needs, and teaching them calls for special approaches. The key words connected with these approaches are easy to remember as they all begin with the letter S. The following list is not complete; perhaps you can add more.

Structure: Give concise, well-organized directions. Goals and procedures must be evident to the student. He must know what he is to do, what he is not to do, and how he is to do it.

Simplicity: Strip away all superfluous materials; keep the work on the most basic, most necessary concepts.

Slow: Do not move faster than the student can ingest (take in) or digest (process).

Sample: Model for the student; show him what you want him to do, what the paper should look like, etc.

Sameness: Do things the same way. This helps the student to be able to concentrate on the materials and on new ideas because the procedures are the same. Or use the same materials if you are trying to teach new procedures. The remedial student is not so lost if he has some "sameness" to hold on to.

Start: Remedial students do not always have self-starters, so they need help to begin their work.

Stay: Stay with a concept until the student has mastered it. Repeat, recyle, practice. In other words: overteach.

Speak: Get the student to express the concept in his own words, then it will be his own.

Smile: Keep your cool; keep your sense of humor; treat the student kindly; let him know you like him; build good rapport. These students are often a bundle of emotions to begin with and can use a good friend.

Strengthen: Give the student opportunities to practice his new skill and knowledge in various mediums and to apply them often.

Support: Encourage, praise, appreciate, help him over the rough spots, work with him. Give recognition when he succeeds; ask how he did it.

Specific: Leave no doubt in the student's mind what it is you are speaking of. Specific terms are preferred over general terms.

Think of the S list as you plan your work with the remedial student, and you can be sure you're leaving no stone unturned in your efforts to help him learn to read.

THE LISTENING JOURNAL: AN INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGY FOR A LISTENING AWARENESS PROGRAM

Andrew D. Wolvin

UNIVERSITY OF MARYLAND

The need for training in listening is a problem which has baffled educators for years. Studies demonstrate the tremendous amount of time that we spend in listening within our communication time. Paul T. Rankin's classic study gave us some working percentages, percentages which have held up in other, more recent, research projects. Through his analysis, Rankin discovered that we spend 75% of our time in oral communication. Of that time, approximately 45% is spent in listening and 30% of our time in speaking.¹

Despite the evidence that we do so much listening, our educational system has not kept pace with training effective listeners. A study of the language arts curriculum of almost any school system would reveal a decided emphasis on training in writing and reading, the least used communication skills. If a student is fortunate, he will be required or encouraged to take a semester of speech training in senior high school. But the course undoubtedly will emphasize speaker skills. Much of our speech curriculum, it seems, *assumes* a transfer into listening skills. A person trained in speech organization, for example, is expected to recognize structural elements in messages to which he is listening. Listening training, as a result, is frequently bypassed.

The problem is not restricted to the sphere of elementary and secondary education. Communication programs in higher education offer little in the way of listening training as well. Some material may be included in the basic speech course, and the Reading and Study Skills Center frequently offers tips on note-taking. A few progressive departments may even offer a full course in listening, especially popular for future teachers and trainers in various communication fields.

Meanwhile, the need for listening training continues. A recent Conference on Career Education, for example, offered some eloquent pleas from representatives of business and industry careers for Speech Communication programs to build in listening competencies. Give us a person who can listen, they asserted, and we'll train him for the specific job skills.²

¹ Paul T. Rankin, "Measurement of the Ability to Understand Spoken Language," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Michigan, 1926), pp. 77-96. Other studies which support this position include Donald Bird, "Are You Listening?" OFFICE EXECUTIVE (April, 1955), pp. 18-19, and Lila Breiter, "Research in Listening and Its Importance to Literature," unpublished M.A. thesis, (Brooklyn College, 1957).

² See CAREER COMMUNICATION: DIRECTIONS FOR THE SEVENTIES (Speech Communication Association, 1972).

On the whole, however, despite the strong need for training listeners, we are not responding too readily to curriculum development in the area. This neglect of listening training may not be just an oversight. We really have not reached a level of maturity or sophistication in listening pedagogy.

One of the problems in listening training is that we have not developed a very definitive operational concept of the listening process. We can guess that listening goes beyond hearing into stages of meaning assignment, evaluation, retention, and response.³ But we have not developed tests which can isolate the process from the many variables which, of necessity, come into play. Back in 1948, Nichols identified some of those variables in the process which influence listening. His research pointed to such factors as age, sex, intelligence, reading comprehension, background, educational influences, etc., as operating on the listener during the listening process.⁴ Since Nichols' monumental research, we have come to regard the influences of selective perception and attention as very integral to the listening process.⁵

The process of listening, then, involves a wide range of factors which have not been isolated. These factors, of course, greatly hamper our ability to test listening abilities. When an individual's performance on a listening test is inextricably bound up with his vocabulary level, etc., it is difficult to place much reliance on the test data.⁶ Unfortunately, we seem to be at an impasse on test development. Since the variables are so overwhelming, potential researchers get discouraged and abandon efforts to build more reliable listening tests. This abandonment seems to be a phenomenon of the early 1960's. Not much test research has been undertaken since Lundsteen's efforts in 1963.⁷

The lack of reliable testing has scared off potential listening pedagogues. We voice the need for listening training, but we avoid curriculum development because listening, as a communication skill, is so difficult to pin down.

Such a position, however, will never get us anywhere! Where we con-

³ See, for example, Larry L. Barker, *LISTENING BEHAVIOR* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1971), chapter 2.

⁴ Ralph G. Nichols, "Factors Accounting for Differences in Comprehension of Materials Presented Orally in the Classroom," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Iowa State University, 1948), pp. 89-93.

⁵ See, for example, Carl H. Weaver, *HUMAN LISTENING* (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1972), chapter 2.

⁶ See, for example, E. F. Lindquist, "Listening Comprehension," and Irving Lorge, "Listening Comprehension," *THE FIFTH MENTAL MEASUREMENTS YEARBOOK*, ed. Oscar K. Buros (N.J.: Gryphon Press, 1959), pp. 650-655; and Harold M. Anderson and Robert J. Baldauf, "A Study of a Measure of Listening," *JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH* (December, 1963), pp. 197-200.

⁷ Sara W. Lundsteen, "Teaching Ability in Critical Listening in the Fifth and Sixth Grades," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of California, 1963).

tinue to work on testing designs and procedures, it makes sense to continue with some efforts at instructional strategies. At this point, the most viable objective of current listening training is the development of listening awareness. If a student can understand something about listening behavior and, then, something about his own responses within that construct, he can build toward greater effectiveness as a listener.

Essentially, we can teach students *about* listening behavior in an effort to heighten their awareness of the listening process.

One strategy for heightening listening awareness is for each student to develop a listening journal. The listening journal can be a log of listening experiences of various levels. Students are asked to record the experience, identifying it by type, and to analyze their behaviors as listeners during the experience. It is effective to stress a variety of listening experiences, giving the students exposure to disciplined listening in appreciative, discriminative, comprehensive, critical, and therapeutic levels.

It is important, however, to emphasize the need for concentrating on an analysis of the listening response rather than on a description of the situation. A description, of course, would provide the student only with a diary, a log, rather than a meaningful journal which constitutes a real learning experience.

Some excerpts from journals completed by some of my adult listening students can illustrate the kinds of recorded analyses students can make in their own listening awareness program. The first journal entry ought to be the personal goals or objectives which a student sets out for himself as the basis for his awareness program. One student developed these objectives for her personal listening improvement:

1. To fully analyze my listening disabilities.
2. To develop the ability to habitually assume a listening attitude.
3. To develop the ability to set goals and improve skills in different listening situations.
4. To develop the ability to organize what is being said (main ideas, important details, and sequences), in order to facilitate the recall of the message.
5. To develop the ability to keep an open mind (even though I dislike the speaker, and disagree with his philosophies or his position).
6. To develop the ability to stop what I am doing and give my full attention to others when they are speaking to me, particularly my family.
7. To develop the ability to concentrate fully on what others are saying, without letting my mind wander.
8. To develop the ability to reserve judgment of a speaker and his message until I have listened to what he has to say.
9. To develop the responsibility of providing appropriate feedback to the speaker, so that he will know if and how his message is being received.
10. To develop the ability to listen to a speaker even though his delivery is poor.
11. To develop the ability to listen to material that is dull and uninteresting to me.

12. To develop the ability to make inferences and draw conclusions.
13. To gain some understanding of the listening process.

These kinds of objectives, then, provide the basis for structuring the kinds of listening experiences.

One type of listening experience which students can analyze is appreciative listening, listening which emphasizes enjoyment or sensory impressions. In this level of listening, one can listen for such elements as the beauty or impact of a speaker's style, the impressions from music, or images from literature presented orally. One student described an appreciative listening experience as she listened to "sounds around us:"

"Living close to the park, my husband and I decided to take a walk through it. It was a beautiful autumn morning and, without really thinking about listening, I became aware of all the sounds around us. As we walked, we could hear a conglomeration of sounds. It reminded me of hundreds of birds flying over us. Dorothy Wordsworth in her journals would write of all the things she would see and hear as she walked with her brother through miles of woods and countryside. I wanted to take in everything I could so that later I, too, could remember that beautiful autumn day. I listened to the leaves and could almost hear the forsythia whispering to the trees. Perhaps it was the influence of an eighteenth century poetry course on Blake and Wordsworth which kept reminding me of a communion with nature and man. Whatever, the day was filled with sights and sounds that I can remember and feel now. Specifically, as we walked, I can remember the sounds of our footsteps as if we were intruding on this lovely setting. It was as if we dared to speak, the mood would be lost—nature couldn't be heard. Strangely, as more people entered the park, man seemed to become dominant over nature and the sounds changed. Children, dogs, and cars changed the entire experience into a beautiful Sunday *afternoon* in the park. The change wasn't annoying, but the difference between the sounds of nature and the sounds of civilization were evident. I left the park feeling that I *could* listen appreciatively."

Another student described a listening experience at a Readers Theatre production. The production was based on some old radio scripts, and it was staged as if the readers were in a studio—complete with sound effects!

"This production was very enjoyable and really activated the audience's listening ability. The stage was divided in half with one side having a radio listener and the other side having the radio broadcasters. The lighting emphasized the broadcasters more than the radio listener. I think this took away from the listening experience because of the visual contact.

"Their methods for sound effects were very interesting and added to the

realism. By watching the objects used for different sounds, the visual contact again took away from the listening experience, however.

“It was interesting to speculate on how dependent people were on listening for their entertainment in the past. Today, with more television than radio emphasis in the home, we don’t have the appreciative listening fitness required of people in the 1930’s and 1940’s.”

Listening for discrimination gets into the whole area of auditory discrimination, a very important first step in early childhood education. It is interesting to become aware, however, of how much discriminative listening we do as adults. One mother described her need to listen with discrimination:

“I did a great deal of discriminative listening today. My daughter is sick, and I find myself listening intently for her while screening out other unimportant sounds. I hadn’t realized how much discriminative listening I do as a mother.”

Comprehensive listening—listening for understanding—probably is the most “teachable,” because we can get at some measures through testing programs. Consequently, many listening programs, especially those prepared for the commercial market, are designed solely for comprehensive listening. Such factors as listening for main ideas, following directions, and sequencing are part of effective comprehensive listening. Typically, we emphasize public communication situations when dealing with comprehensive listening (how to take notes, etc.). One student discussed some of the problems in comprehensive listening in a lecture setting:

“This evening in my Marketing class, I did not think I could learn anything. I had stayed awake for thirty-four hours and thought I would fall asleep in class. I decided that, in order to gain anything from the class, I would have to focus my attention completely on the lecture and not let my mind wander. I concentrated on main ideas only. Prior to this, I had taken notes on key phrases and ideas. I found that my attention span was greater because I was actually listening to what the professor was saying. I wasn’t writing as much as usual, but I seemed to be understanding more. Usually (and unfortunately) the notes that I take in class depend upon the type of exam to be given at the end of the semester. In this particular class, exams are very general essays. It seems as though comprehensive listening is well suited to these kinds of tests. And my understanding of the subject is heightened.”

Comprehensive listening is just as difficult in an interpersonal communication situation, as this journal entry illustrates:

"I went to speak to the Budget Office chief today about presenting a basic course on the budget process in the agency. I was dealing with a subject about which I knew very little, and I probably don't care to know very much. I found the listening situation to be a difficult one. I kept catching myself wandering from the conversation. Several times I had to go back and make sure I had caught the gist of what was being said. I have a long-running battle to listen to anything that involves figures because I find the subject matter difficult to deal with. This only further added to my difficulties in listening accurately. I guess I wasn't too successful in listening, since I had to go back in and ask many of the questions I should have asked the first time."

Critical listening skills, of course, apply to interpersonal communication situations as well as to mass media. One recent student found house-hunting to be a real test of critical listening capabilities:

"We had the day off from work, so we went house-hunting. I was an extremely critical listener. I know Barker says you shouldn't only listen for facts, but that was all I wanted to hear in this situation. My estimation of the credibility of house salesmen is not very high, and I tend to question everything that they say. I was so busy thinking of all the questions that I wanted to ask, that I failed to listen very carefully to what the man's answers were.

"An additional problem arose when I reacted to an emotionally laden word. The salesman called me "the little woman of the house." I became so wrapped up in his use of that term to apply to me—a six foot tall woman who didn't even own a house—that I completely stopped listening for a few minutes.

"Even after I had cooled off a little, I found it difficult to listen to the man objectively. Near the end of the conversation, I began to lose interest in the whole thing, especially after he quoted a price of \$60,000. If I had kept a more open mind, I might have picked up some information that would have been useful in looking at other homes."

It is obvious that there is tremendous value in an awareness program in critical listening, particularly as we are bombarded with persuasive stimuli every day. Understanding the nature of the strategy can aid the listener in his decision about the persuasive message.

Another very real social need is for awareness in what might be termed "therapeutic" listening—listening to provide the speaker with a "sounding board" for his problems. Rather than practice amateur psychology, a good therapeutic listener operates to provide the kinds of responses that encourage the speaker to continue. Ideally, talking through a problem can enable the speaker to solve it himself.

The need for awareness in therapeutic listening is pervasive. A recent San Francisco organization has been established to provide listeners for people who have no one who will listen to them. The popularity of telephone "Hotlines" is further evidence of this need.

The need was demonstrated by one teacher who described how much she is called upon to function as a therapeutic listener during her daily routines:

"I find that one of my strong points is that of being a good sounding board for others. A day doesn't go by that someone hasn't come to me to talk about something that is preying on his mind or about a problem. It's not necessarily that they've come to me so that I might help them, but that I will listen.

"Each and every day of the week, I will have children either in my class this year or in classes from years before who will come up to 'talk.' Their 'talk' ranges from everything from family to friends to boy or girl friends to questions and concerns about sex. Many would gladly give up their recess time if they could come up and talk to me. For this reason, I set up a 'conference time' with each child during the week. During that time, we may not be disturbed by anyone, except in an emergency.

"In conference time, the children may tell me anything they wish. If they have a particular 'gripe,' this is the time to talk about it. Some are hesitant at first and must first build up a trust. Once this trust is established, they are very open and the 'conference time' is up before we know it. This is an excellent time to get to know children's reactions and feelings about things. It has helped my class to be a very unified group and has prevented many problems that could have come up in the course of the year.

"Children respond very favorably when they find that their ideas have been received. There is an inner pride that no one can take from them. It is surprising how good many children's ideas are, if we would just take the time to listen.

"Because my principal and I are friends, it is not uncommon for him to call me up to his office before or after school to discuss some school matter. As it usually turns out, I listen to what he has to say, and he figures out a solution while he is talking to me. I've even been known to go in and come out again without saying a word, and yet he said that he enjoyed having a little talk with me.

"Parents come in to discuss their children and to tell me something that may help me to know their child a little better. It is not uncommon for me to hear more information than they intended

to say, much of which does not even pertain to their child. Many are hungry for someone to listen to them.

"I have several close friends in whom I confide and who, in turn, confide in me. Sometimes, one of them will call to tell me of an especially good time he had doing something; other times, one of them may call to talk out a problem; other times, it is just to tell of the day's events.

"I have found that I should be expected to accept the responsibility of listening with an open mind and of giving positive feedback and reinforcement to the person who is talking only when I deem it is necessary. It is surprising to me how many of the people I listen to solve their own problems just by talking them out to a sounding board."

Recording listening experiences such as these provides an excellent basis for a complete self-improvement program through enhanced self-awareness. The success of the project, however, depends upon the student's determination of honest, thorough objectives for himself at the outset. Obviously, self-motivation must be built into the project. It is important, also, to establish the program for many levels of listening, to broaden the individual student's listening experiences. Otherwise, the student may well focus just on comprehensive listening in the classroom setting.

After the student has recorded these kinds of experiences for the semester, it is a useful concluding project to have him write a self-analysis of his listening behavior, identifying his strengths and weaknesses for his own future reference. Since he has set out his objectives initially, these objectives can serve as the basic criteria for the self-evaluation.

Students testify to the value of this type of self-awareness listening program. It gives them an excellent opportunity to understand their own listening responses and to apply their understanding to their actual listening situations. In concluding his journal, one student identified these benefits in his self-analysis:

"Recording listening experiences has been a great help to me. I find now that when faced with a difficult listening task, rather than turning away, I will try and apply a listening technique appropriate to that experience. I believe listening can be taught, for it has taught me, but more significant, perhaps, is that once listening *has* been taught, the frustration which follows is the realization that very few people do listen. It will take, I'm sure, a lifetime to perfect my listening skills, but each day I become more aware, as I listen, that the majority of people in everyday social situations aren't really listening at all and probably don't engage in other more diverse and difficult listening situations.

“As the source in a listening situation, I have realized the importance of sending direct, concise messages to make comprehension easier. I am, in short, more polite and considerate toward the receiver because it is often I who am in his situation. For example, when giving directions to an employee, I speak slowly and simply, always looking for signals of understanding. I have found this very successful.

“I feel that, though I have a very long way to go before I become a good listener, I am at least aware of the fundamental processes and will practice what I know and try to make as many others as possible aware of the importance of listening.”

ON TEACHING READING AND WRITING FOR FUNCTIONAL LITERACY*

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Introductory Remarks:

The teaching of reading and writing can be approached from various angles, and with varying degrees of emphasis. Teaching reading and writing to primary school children is not the same as teaching reading and writing to illiterate adults, minimally literate adults, secondary and college students, and university students. True, certain fundamental principles have to be observed in all these teaching-learning situations but there are basic differences in aims, in ability to learn and so forth, which have to be taken into account. In this article, the teaching of reading and writing will be discussed with particular reference to the achievement of functional literacy.

William Gray has correctly stated that "a person is functionally literate when he has acquired the knowledge and skills in reading and writing which enable him to engage effectively in all those activities in which literacy is normally assumed in his culture or group" (*The Teaching of Reading and Writing*, Unesco 1969 p. 24). One might be tempted to ask what those activities are. In my view, these are well summed up by Eve Malmquist in the following statement:

If we want to conquer poverty, hunger, and disease in the world, we have to conquer illiteracy first. Illiteracy is the most serious handicap for economic, political, social and individual development that we know. In fact, illiteracy is becoming more generally recognized as the most irreconcilable hindrance to development and progress everywhere in the world and furthermore, as a grave block to international understanding and cooperation. (E. Malmquist: *Reading: A Human Right and A Human Problem* IRA 1968 p. 3)

In brief, a functionally literate person is a person who does not merely know how to read and write, but is able to use this knowledge effectively in understanding or coping with the basic issues (economic, political, social, personal and others) that crop up in the society. The teaching of reading and writing is certainly a necessary, though by no means a sufficient, task in the development of functional literacy.

* This is a slightly revised version of a paper presented in April 1976, at the "Functional Literacy Workshop" for Adult Education Supervisors, under the auspices of Dept. of Adult Education, University of Ibadan.

Stages in Teaching Reading For Functional Literacy:

The task of teaching reading for functional literacy is no less challenging than that of teaching children to read. Experience and research evidence suggest that the task can be accomplished in four sequential stages (vide William Gray, 1969).

Stage one is the preparatory stage when the educator/teacher tries to ascertain the reading readiness of the adults, helps to remove handicaps in learning to read, and uses various strategies to promote increased readiness to learn to read, on the part of the adults. Adults who enroll in literacy programmes tend to differ widely in their rate of progress. Factors that account for such variations include: innate ability to learn, background of experience, command of language, and the functioning of their senses (particularly visual and auditory senses). These and related factors need to be investigated by means of tests, interviews and/or informal question-and-answer sessions, and necessary remedial measures should, where possible be applied to ensure increased reading or learning readiness. This is particularly necessary in second language situations where the problems of learning to read in an unfamiliar language, or in a language in which one has a minimal working knowledge, can be quite enormous.

As Gray (1969) rightly points out, most young people and adults who enter literacy classes are usually much more mature mentally than children, because of their greater chronological age and their wider experience. The programme of instruction at this first stage should be designed to achieve the following objectives, among others:

1. A compelling interest in learning to read. This can be achieved through friendly and purposeful discussion of the possible values of reading in various situations.
2. A clear recognition of the fact that printed or written words represent meanings. The discussion referred to earlier should also be designed to create in them an awareness of the interdependence of the spoken and the printed or written word.
3. A fairly wide range of information, and familiarity with the things and activities that will be referred to in early reading lessons. The point here is to encourage group and individual discussions to the point of familiarizing them with new ideas, concepts, issues, and activities which may later feature in their reading exercises.
4. A wide speaking vocabulary and the ability to speak with sufficient accuracy and clarity. Learning to read is known to be a much less difficult task if it is carried out in a language that one can speak and understand with a reasonable degree of accuracy.
5. Ability to think clearly and to make use of what the reader knows in grasping meanings, seeing relationships, making choices and solving simple problems. This ability is also enhanced by oral language activity (vide Carroll 1970. pp. 31-32).
6. Ability to discriminate between different sounds and forms, well enough to be able to distinguish one word from another.

7. Ability to interpret pictures well enough to use those that appear in assigned reading materials as aids in understanding what is read, and in recognizing different words.
8. Ability to work with others, to follow directions, and to adjust oneself readily to various learning situations.

The second stage involves the development of basic reading comprehension skills and greater interests in reading fairly easy materials. The main goal should be ability to read appropriate materials with relative ease, and to focus attention on meaningful information, including notices, signs, brief news items, and simple directions.

The specific aims of the teacher at this stage should include the following:

1. Deepening interest in learning to read.
2. Promoting increased readiness for reading.
3. Developing a thoughtful reading attitude, with appropriate emphasis on the comprehension of meaning.
4. Development of a sight vocabulary of carefully selected words which meet the simplest reading needs of adults.
5. Development of word recognition skills.
6. Stimulation of interest in reading for pleasure and information.

These aims imply that the teacher should build on or consolidate what was achieved in stage one, employ other motivational devices (including persuasion, praise, encouragement) to ensure more devotion to and continued interest in the reading tasks, and introduce appropriate instructional materials which will aid the achievement of these aims.

The third stage should be devoted to further deepening of reading interests and developing reading efficiency. To that end, attention should be focused on the achievement of a number of specific aims, such as:

1. Extending the sight vocabulary in reading to include most words commonly used in personal correspondences, news items, notices and simple bulletins, and books written for popular use. According to Gray (1969, p. 170) the size of the essential sight vocabulary varies from 1,500 to 2,500 for different languages. The teacher must try to remedy obvious deficiencies in this regard by consciously helping them to increase their stock of new ones.
2. Provision of the training needed for effective development of word-attack skills, which will enable the adults to recognize independently any word in their oral vocabulary. In this connection it would be necessary for the class to be taught the origin of certain words, the identification of the root, the stem, the prefix, the suffix and such aspects of words.
3. Development of increased understanding of what is read, including ability to recognize literal, related and implied meanings to re-act thoughtfully or appropriately to the ideas acquired through reading, and to recognize their value in solving personal and group problems.
4. Promotion of skill in reading various kinds of materials and in reading for various purposes. This will necessarily involve prolonged exposure to

appropriate reading materials under proper guidance by the teacher.

5. Development of speed of reading comprehension. As better reading habits are formed and reading comprehension skills are developed, speed of reading can be improved. However, the use of appropriate drill books can facilitate the whole process.

The fourth and final stage should be devoted to the task of helping the adults to acquire more mature reading habits. It is essentially the stage when the literate adults are encouraged to achieve a high level of functional literacy, so that they can feel truly literate and not just minimally literate.

The specific aims of the training programme during this final stage should be:

1. Completion of the training needed to ensure accuracy and independence in recognizing new and unfamiliar words which are likely to be met in the course of reading, including training in the use of dictionaries and other reference materials related to the interests and needs of members of the class.
2. Encouragement of growth in ability to understand printed materials relating to things and ideas outside the range of familiar experience; these include: new ways of doing things; descriptions of people and activities in other lands; new practices, procedures and standards, concepts and ideals in one's own country as well as in other countries.
3. Development of increased capacity to react thoughtfully to what is read, to recognize its values and limitations, and to make use of new ideas in solving personal or group problems, and in modifying one's ideas and behaviour if and when desirable.
4. Extension of reading interest, and acquaintance with various kinds and sources of reading materials—including materials relating to current events, bulletins focusing on practical problems of daily living, magazines, articles, and books of different kinds.
5. Development of curiosity about books, and a tendency to effectively use books and other written or printed materials for self-education, for the enjoyment of leisure, for guidance in solving certain problems, and for acquiring vicarious experiences.

Methods of Teaching Reading to Adults:

Current methods of teaching reading (to both children and adults) can be conveniently divided into three main categories: analytic, synthetic and analytic-synthetic. The synthetic method is based on the assumption that the teaching of reading should begin with the mastery of the basic elements of words (letters or syllables and their sounds). When these are mastered they are then combined into larger units (words, phrases, sentences and stories). This assumption has given rise to an initial emphasis on the teaching of the letters of the alphabet (i.e. the alphabetic method), followed by a combination of letters into syllabic units (i.e. the syllabic method) and a focusing of attention on the sounds of the letters and the syllables (i.e. the phonic method).

The analytic method (also called the global method) is based on the assumption that the teaching of reading should begin with the larger and

more meaningful units (viz. story, sentences, phrase and word) which could then be analyzed into smaller and less meaningful units (syllables, letters and phonemes). There is no unanimity on the question of whether a story, a sentence, a phrase or a word should be the starting point in the analytic method. However, the basic assumption is that the teaching of reading may start with the so-called “story method” by focusing attention on interesting stories followed by analysis of the story into various sentences (the sentence method), then into constituent phrases (the phrase method) followed by the last of the meaning-bearing units or the word (i.e. the “word method”).

The analytic-synthetic method, which is eclectic in nature, entails the selection of carefully graded words, sentences and simple passages for analysis, comparison and synthesis, almost simultaneously, right from the beginning. It is an attempt to make use of the methods which emphasize elements (alphabetic, phonic, syllabic) *and* those that emphasize meaning from the beginning (word, phrase, sentence and story).

For reasons of space we will not enter into a detailed discussion of the merits and demerits of these methods. It will suffice to point out that the analytic or global method is in keeping with the Gestalt principle that learning should “proceed from whole to parts.” The methods discussed here (synthetic, analytic and analytic-synthetic) can be effective for both children and adults. The so-called alphabetic, syllabic, phonic, word, sentence and story methods are better regarded as steps, stages or approaches within these methods than as methods in themselves, since none of them constitutes a complete method of teaching reading. Adult educators, or teachers in adult literacy classes, should be aware of the variety of approaches to the training of reading, and should feel free to experiment with one method or the other, until desired results are achieved.

As a general rule, whether the method is analytic, synthetic or analytic-synthetic, it should accord with the specific aims of instruction at the various stages outlined earlier. Instruction should be based on appropriate instructional materials, which may be devised by the teacher to reflect the interests of participants in the literacy class. As far as possible, instruction should be so highly individualized as to make allowance for differences in rate of learning. As the ultimate goal of reading is comprehension or communication of facts, information or ideas conveyed by larger units of expression (sentences, paragraphs, longer selections and books) the teaching of reading should not be limited to decoding letters, syllables, sounds and words.

On Teaching Writing For Functional Literacy:—

The teaching of writing is, in my view, a less controversial topic than the teaching of reading. At least, there is far less debate on how to teach writing than there is on how to teach reading. Because of this fact and the reason of space, I propose to deal with it very briefly. Moreover, the skill of writing is so dependent on that of reading that some of what has already been said about the teaching of reading is relevant to this discussion of the teaching of writing.

As in the case of teaching reading, four sequential stages can be

identified for instructional purposes. The four stages, which roughly correspond to the four stages discussed in connection with the teaching of reading, are:

1. The preparatory stage;
2. The stage when the basic skills of writing are mastered;
3. The stage when writing is used in meeting practical needs; and
4. The stage of acquiring more mature writing skills and habits.

During stage I, the main aims of the teacher should be to get well-acquainted with the basic needs, problems or characteristics of members of his class, and to provide the preliminary experiences which will not only provide the motivation but also give them the attitudinal, mental, physical and emotional readiness to learn to write. The teacher should also find out what the adults would like to write at the initial stages. Very often they would want to write their own names, the names of friends, relatives and so forth. As a starting point, such names should be written out for them to copy or trace, while the teacher provides personal supervision and encouragement. Several hours of instruction and practice should be devoted to such preparatory work, and to the teaching of handwriting without forcing them to write "cursive" or "joint script." Emphasis should be on legibility and accuracy. In this, as in other learning situations, nothing succeeds like success, so it is necessary to praise and encourage them for any writing "feats" they may accomplish at this stage as in other stages.

During the second stage, the writing activities should focus on larger units of expression, such as, phrases and short sentences or statements. The teacher should write the phrases and simple sentences, such as, "good books" and "Bola reads good books"; and the class should be encouraged to copy these legibly. Better still, phrases and short sentences encountered in the reading classes may be used for such exercises. Practice should be continued until the adults are able to copy whatever is written, and to write down whatever is dictated, with a reasonable degree of speed and accuracy.

The third stage of instruction in writing may be devoted to using writing to meet practical or personal needs. Attention should be focused on writing out larger units (longer sentences, connected paragraphs and short stories), which may be read or listened to in class. These should preferably be based on topics of general interest to the literacy class. Individual desires to be creative, or to use language creatively, should be encouraged. Errors of grammar and syntax should be noted, and tactfully corrected, but they should not be unduly emphasized or penalized, as this could be counterproductive. Emphasis should rather be on getting the class to participate actively in the excitingly new experience of expressing in writing the numerous ideas, experiences, thoughts and activities that they had listened to, discussed verbally or felt like discussing verbally in many situations.

In all probability, adults will at this stage be most anxious to use their newly acquired writing skill in meeting their personal needs. They may wish to write brief personal letters to friends and relatives; to apply for advertised posts, or to write short petitions about some acts of injustice. Practice exercises should be based on such felt needs. In short, the adult trainees

should be encouraged to write about the things they feel like writing about. They should also be encouraged to use the vocabularies, expressions and ideas they have gained from their reading practice in writing about their personal needs, practical problems and other issues of interest to them.

The fourth and final stage in the teaching of writing should be devoted to teaching them to write more creatively, accurately and extensively. While it would still be necessary to encourage them to write about the things and events that interest them, they should be exposed to different forms of composition writing (descriptive, expository, imaginative, etc.) The teacher should suggest a variety of topics for practice in writing. Even though writing for functional literacy should normally have been achieved during the third stage, this final stage is needed for consolidation, for the development of more mature writing skills, and for learning to use the skill of writing in earning a living, and in meeting more complex demands in society, such as those mentioned by Malmquist (1968, p. 3).

Concluding Remarks:

To conclude: It has been suggested in this article that the teaching of reading and writing to adults is a difficult but not an impossible task. It has also been suggested that a high degree of functional literacy in reading and writing can be achieved if the training programme is carefully planned and faithfully executed. Four sequential stages, with clearly defined objectives for each stage, and possible methods of approach, have also been suggested.

Ideally the teaching of reading and writing should go on concurrently along the lines suggested. The adult learner should be encouraged to write down whatever he has successfully learned to read, particularly at the early stages. In this way the skills acquired during the lessons on reading will be used in developing and re-inforcing the skills acquired during the lessons on writing and vice versa. Furthermore, instructional materials should be learner-centered and should, as far as possible, reflect the various occupational, social and other interests of members of the literacy class. This makes the choice of appropriate instructional materials a crucial factor in successful instruction at the various stages indicated.

In the final analysis, success in the difficult but exciting task of helping adults to achieve a high degree of functional literacy will depend, not on a rigid adherence to the guidelines and suggestions derived from this and similar articles, but on the teacher's resourcefulness, his flexibility in using methods and materials available to him, his willingness and ability to tackle the peculiar learning difficulties that the adults might have; and his ability to arouse and sustain the interest of the class at various stages in the course. Even if some teachers forget or disagree with the details of what has been said here, they must not forget this important statement about the proper roles and functions of teachers in functional literacy courses.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN READING AND THINKING: ONE TEACHER'S VIEWPOINT

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What is the relationship between reading & thinking? Are they interdependent with or independent of each other or is one a function of the other? To explain this relationship, consider Diagram One.

This diagram offers that reading is one function of thinking. Reading is wholly within the realm of thinking. If a person is reading, he is thinking; if he is not thinking he cannot be reading. As Wellman (1974) states, Reading "... is sequentially and developmentally dependent on the fundamental foundation of logical thought process."

Focusing now on only the relationship between reading and thinking, consider the illustration in Diagram Two.

In this diagram, reading consists of the areas of decoding and comprehension. (Others may add that reading includes other skills like vocabulary, study skills, critical thinking, etc. However, this teacher contends these areas to be functions of comprehension. Nevertheless, to disagree with this viewpoint will have no effect or bearing on or relevance to the theme of this paper.)

To be able to decode without comprehending (i.e. to verbalize) is not reading. It means pronouncing written words and sentences correctly but meaninglessly. On the other hand, to be able to comprehend without decoding is impossible. Decoding is the obligatory first step in learning to read and the necessary foundation of comprehension. To decode is to think insofar as sounding out written words. Thus, one cannot decode without thinking. Additionally, to comprehend is also to think. In fact, the terms are synonymous. Moreover, decoding and comprehension = reading = thinking (verbally).

A pupil can respond to a reading exercise in a number of ways. Those ways will be examined with reference to the second diagram and to the following example:

Every drink is _____. Select one: wet, warm, window. Although there are three possible answers to this fill-in, there are actually four responses, one of them being the pupil's giving no response at all. In looking at pupil number one mentioned in the diagram, the pupil is not responding to the reading exercise question because he is not thinking about it. In fact, he is not attending to, concentrating on or even looking at the exercise. The exercise may be physically in front of him, but is not mentally. Thus, the pupil is not decoding the reading exercise and is, of course, not reading.

The number two child is, on the other hand, thinking about the reading

Diagram One

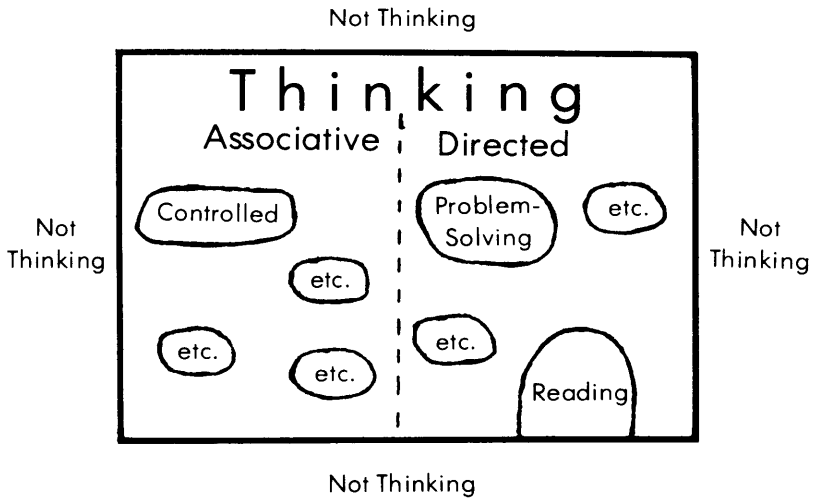
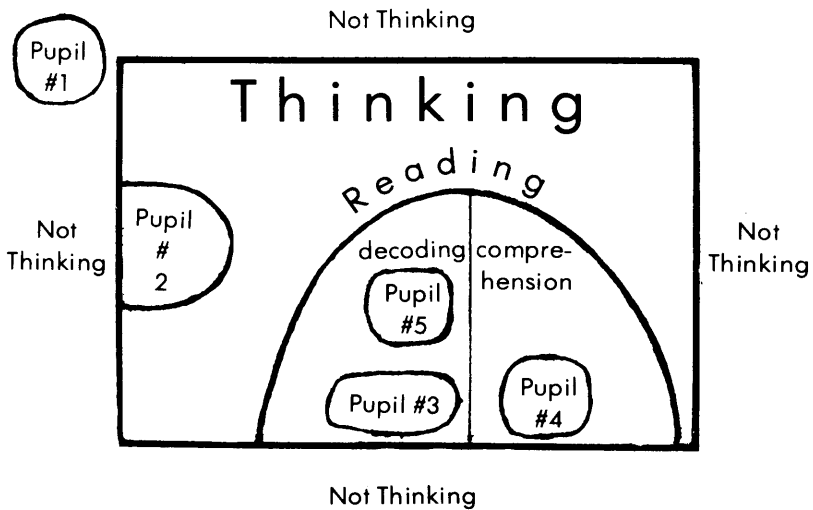


Diagram Two



exercise but is also not decoding. The reason he is not decoding is simple: he does not know how. He is diligently concentrating on his work but he just cannot crack the code. On the reading exercise he may write no answers or guess wildly.

The number three child may likely write on his paper, "All drinks are windows." His answer is not only wrong, it is illogical in spite of the fact that he *is* concentrating on the exercise and successfully decoding it. He is thinking insofar as he is decoding but not beyond that. His problem, unlike pupil two, is not with reading necessarily. His problem is with thinking logically. And logic is the heart of thinking. If a person cannot use logic he is not thinking. As Moffett (1968, p. 16) states, "If a reader can translate print into speech . . . and still fails to grasp the idea or relate facts or infer or draw conclusions, then he has no *reading* problem, he has a *thinking* problem, traceable to many possible sources, none of them concerning printed words." Moreover (p. 501), ". . . the growth of logic . . . influences the growth of language. . . ." Thus, the number three child is not thinking insofar as he is applying insufficient logic to the meaning of the passage.

The number four student may feel, "Every drink is warm." He is decoding successfully and, unlike the number three pupil, is thinking logically. However, his thinking is incomplete. He is not "thinking things through" in realizing, for example, that some drinks are cold. Or else he may just be careless and write down the first seemingly-correct answer he comes to. In any event he has no incorrigible thinking problem. It might be added parenthetically that pupils must be made to realize that a logical answer is not always a correct one although correct answers are always logical. Thus, pupil number four is comprehending and is thus reading *for the most part*. He is just not comprehending completely.

The number five pupil is really "together." He knows all drinks are wet. He is decoding sufficiently and understanding what he is decoding. He is using logic and thinking things through.

One tree does not a forest make. Similarly, one logical answer does not a thinker make. That is, a teacher cannot judge the reading or the thinking ability of a pupil from just one sample of either his reading or thinking. The teacher is in a position to draw worthy conclusions about a pupil's reading, only by detecting a *pattern* of his reading behaviors. In other words, in a fill-in reading-thinking exercise of which "Every drink is wet" is an example, the teacher can make no accurate assessment of the child's cognitive or linguistic abilities by looking only at one sample of the child's responses. The teacher must look at as many samples as possible. If the pupil gets at least 75% of reading exercise questions correct *consistently*, one can safely say the child is reading; less than 75% consistently and the child is not. In the latter case, it is necessary for the teacher to detect patterns of errors. Are most of the wrong answers wrong logically (Every drink is warm.) or illogically (Every drink is window.)? Is there a problem in word analysis or in comprehension? Is there a reading problem or a thinking problem? Finding patterns of errors, where they exist, gives the answers to these important questions.

Consider the five hypothetical students again, but now assigned to do a reading exercise on which there are 25 items like "Up is to down just as east is to _____." Add to this exercise that the answer to this and the other 24 analogies are printed on the bottom of the page. The pupil is directed to locate the correct words and write them in the appropriate missing spaces. Pupil number one is not doing the exercise and may be daydreaming, walking around the room, etc. Pupil number two is trying to do the exercise and is either not writing in any answers (out of embarrassment over putting in foolish answers) or putting in randomly a few correct but mostly incorrect answers. Pupil number three is doing the same thing as number two even though the former *can* decode. Number three's problem is that he is not thinking logically though he is trying to. Pupil number four is getting many of his answers correct but is having difficulty (inexplicable to himself) with problems like this:

Warm is to hot just as good is to _____.
(Maney, 1965)

Whereas the correct answer is "wonderful," the pupil may believe it "bad," a logical wrong answer. The pupil is using logic (" 'good' is the opposite of 'bad' and 'warm' is not the same as 'hot,' isn't it?" the pupil may ask.) but he is not thinking the problem through. If he were, he would realize that "good" and "wonderful" are not antonymous but are variants of the same concept. (The same explanation goes for "warm" and "hot.") Nevertheless, pupil number four may be getting up to 75 % of his answers correct because of his limited use of logic and compounded, maybe, with a knowledge of the process of elimination.

Pupil number five is doing better than 75% and is exhibiting no *pattern* of errors.

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REMEDICATION FOR THE POOR COLLEGE READER: PROBABILITIES OF SUCCESS

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INTRODUCTION

Reading is a most complex form of behavior, yet it is basic to all academic tasks. One must be able to successfully interpret the meaning of words to function in the academic environment. Unfortunately, there are thousands of freshmen annually entering our institutions of higher learning without the reading skills needed to complete college level work. This problem is most acute in two-year colleges with a student population that is relatively disadvantaged compared to students in four-year colleges. Two-year colleges have more high-risk students in terms of their chances to complete degree aspirations than do four-year colleges and universities.

Research conducted with high-risk college students to develop reading skills has been successful. High-risk students can overcome educational handicaps with the help of professional remedial specialists. This article will discuss some of the unique problems within higher education that are present as a result of an open door policy for students. The open door policy has resulted in more high-risk students in higher education, particularly the two-year colleges. The specific development includes a discussion of the entering college population, research on remediation programs, strategies for helping the student and a brief summary.

Who Gets Into College And Why?

Higher Education in the United States attempts to provide opportunities for the masses rather than for a closed elite group. Cross's (1968) notion of access and accommodation illustrates in a general way the major philosophies of higher education in regard to their clients. *Access* represents the institution's willingness to accept the student, but the student must conform or adjust to the institution. *Accommodation* represents an attempt on the part of the institution to adjust to the student. The rapid development of two-year institutions of higher learning within the past 15 years represents an effort to accommodate all types of students.

Research with academic indicators suggests that students entering four-year colleges tend to cluster in the top third whereas noncollege youth score in the lowest third. The junior college group has substantial numbers at all three levels (Cross, 1968). Thornton (1966) said the average academic ability of two-year college students is lower than that of four-year college

students. Most two-year colleges welcome students who represent various levels of tested academic aptitude and all segments of the socio-economic life of their communities.

Generally two-year students are likely to come from families with lower educational attainment and income resources than university or four-year college students. Two-year students do not consider themselves as well prepared for college as do students in four-year colleges and universities; moreover, they have less confidence in, and are frequently critical of, their high school courses and teachers (Cohen, 1971). Measures of intellectual orientation clearly differentiate among high school graduates who enroll in two-year colleges and those who attend four year colleges. Students attending two-year institutions are lower on measures of intellectual orientation when compared to students attending four-year institutions (Trend & Medsker, 1968). On measures of autonomy and non-authoritarianism, variables frequently associated with intellectual disposition, several investigators have found lower scores for two-year students and less flexibility in thinking than in four-year college and university populations (Warren, 1966).

The open door policy attempts not to discriminate on the basis of academic factors as well as non-academic factors (age, sex, race, ethnic background, socio-economic factors). If one accepts Burton R. Clarke's (1972) thesis that college effects occur primarily not at the level of attitude and values but in the allocation of statuses and roles, then it becomes necessary to open the door to all. Meyer (1972) expands on this point by stating it makes no difference whether a college graduate has learned anything. The fact is a graduate's job prospects, income potential, access to political and civil service positions, marital prospects, and other opportunities are greatly altered. Yet, by opening the doors to all, regardless of ability, problems are created. The primary problem is accepting responsibility for the welfare of the high-risk student.

Who are the high-risk students that enter our institutions of higher learning? Most likely they come from culturally disadvantaged backgrounds, meaning low in the socio-economic status of society. Charles H. Anderson (1971) said cultural traits of the poor reappear time and again throughout the literature on poverty: social isolation, low self-image, limited aspirations, inability to communicate, implusiveness, existence-oriented rather than improvement-oriented, fear, resignation, fatalism and inability to understand bureaucratic behavior. The inability to communicate is definitely a handicap in the academic world. Malcolm Douglass (1967) said those whose speaking and listening capacities are poorly developed will be hampered in reading print and writing. Havighurst (1970) said about half the disadvantaged children in this country or fifteen percent of the total child population are severely retarded in educational achievement.

A poor reader in college more than likely will bring with him or her traits that compound the reading problem. Spache's (1964) research indicates poor readers have low scores on attitudes toward school and may be

emotionally disturbed regarding their reading abilities. Bannatyne (1971) notes a strong association between poor reading attainment and antisocial disorder but little association between reading attainment and neurosis. Feldman and Graff (1968) found that environmental deficiencies leading to cumulative experiences of frustration in early schooling constitute serious problems for academic achievement. A profile of the disabled reader in public school indicates he or she will be undernourished, tired, have a brief attention span, display vague concepts of time and space and test average or below average on standardized I.Q. tests (Feldman and Graff, 1968). If they make it to college, more than likely they will still have a similar profile.

Research on open admissions clearly indicates that more students from lower socio-economic levels are attending college. Harold W. Bernard (1972) observed that research clearly indicates school grades follow class lines, with a disproportionate number of high grades going to middle-class students (especially upper-middle) and a disproportionate number of the low grades going to the lower class students.

Another characteristic of the underachiever is a stubborn, yet perfectly sincere, overevaluation of the level of their work (Pitcher and Blauschild, 1970). This imposes another complication for the institutions of higher learning to overcome in terms of upgrading the skill levels of poor readers. Both the underachieving wealthy and deprived student have the same inability to plan long-range goals (Pitcher and Blauschild, 1970). Both groups of underachievers show reading problems in the academic sense and have the same ups and downs in academic performance. Quite often the underachiever is involved and preoccupied with the activities of their own pocket-cultures and uninterested in the values and goals of society.

Perhaps the most difficult element to measure in terms of students characteristics is motivation. Bannatyne (1971) said the study of motivation comprises one of the most controversial sections of psychology. The motivational level of high-risk students presents another problem in overcoming reading deficiencies. White (1959) commented on some studies which indicate that breadth of learning is favored by moderate and hampered by strong motivation. There are numerous theories concerning motivation, yet there is no predictable test of this human characteristic. It is ironic that so much is said concerning motivation and educational achievement, but so little is known about who has it or does not have it. An analogy can be drawn from the Supreme Court judge who was asked what pornography was and replied that he could not explain it, but he knew it when he saw it. To ascertain achievement in terms of measurable data one must probe the research on remediation programs.

Research On Remediation Programs and Survival

Gray (1967) reported that psychology departments were the first to establish reading clinics in the academic environment. Between 1956 and 1967 there was a trend toward unrestricted enrollment and increased reading clinics. Teaching specific reading skills and the use of commercially

prepared systems are the primary approaches adopted for remediation of college students (Gray, 1967). Goodwin's (1971) research indicates the four standardized tests most often selected by junior college reading instructors are the Nelson-Denny Reading Test, Iowa Silent Reading Test, California Reading Test, and the Co-operative Reading Test. Eighty-five percent of the junior colleges use standardized reading tests for diagnostic purposes.

There are more high-risk students in two-year colleges than in four-year colleges, yet there are many junior colleges without sufficient remedial facilities. California junior colleges indicate that 80 percent of the entering freshmen are enrolled in remedial English (Bassone, 1966). Crawford and Milligan (1968) point out that while nearly all four-year colleges have established reading and study skills programs, very few two-year colleges have instituted such programs. Dubois and Evans (1972) claim that most college remedial programs are limited in scope, and not much effort is made toward salvaging the low achiever. Certainly more effort in remediation on the part of the two-year systems would aid in retaining potential scholars.

One could project back to the high school environment on this point also. Dechant (1965) said 50 per cent or less of high schools have reading programs and most of these are feebly developed, usually voluntary without strong administrative support. Three stumbling blocks to the improved reading programs in high school according to Dechant (1965) are: (1) no established adequate comprehensive program; (2) inadequate budget; (3) scarcity of qualified reading personnel. One may suppose that these items may also be stumbling blocks for the junior college reading programs.

Research on reading and success in college is plentiful. Artley, et al., (1973) found the single most important reading skill related to success in the first year of college was comprehension (relation based on GPA and reading comprehension scores). Yuthas (1971) found remedial reading programs were significantly related to persistence in college and resistance to extraneous influences which might lead to withdrawal. As for the disadvantaged minority students, Shaffer (1973) reported that the factors which contribute most toward successful achievement in college are: (1) scholastic aptitude, particularly verbal ability; (2) positive attitudes and techniques for studying; (3) acceptance of their educational goals and professors; (4) an orientation toward and motivation for academic pursuits. Patricia M. Hodges (1972) has an interesting study on non-cognitive predictors as alternatives in college admission for the culturally different (not necessarily the disadvantaged). Hodges found non-cognitive predictors such as strength and conservativeness of parental religious viewpoints as the best predictor.

Maxwell (1963) found that low achieving students who were academically successful were typically those with higher initial skills and tended to show greater improvement in more areas than the unsuccessful. Lee (1964) also reported that the greatest gains in rate of reading for both college and adult students is found among those with the higher initial skills. Adult students were found to make greater gains than typical college students.

To achieve, students need to be interested in college, have a good self-image regarding learning and attain a sense of control of the environment (Coleman, et al., 1966). For students entering college without these attributes, failure to persist is often the result. There is evidence that remediation courses can help students that are educationally handicapped. McDonald and Zimny (1963) found that comprehension and flexibility are the two primary ingredients of effective reading. Being taught how to study is believed to improve upon one's flexibility and comprehension.

There are many colleges that do not have adequate study skills/remediation courses, yet they recruit all types of students in terms of measured aptitude. Many administrators willingly accept students who are not prepared for college in order to maintain enrollment at a desirable level. The major problem is that many institutions of higher education are not dealing adequately with the academic problems their students bring with them. This is particularly true of institutions with an open door policy of admissions. Dubois and Evans (1972) have stated that most study skills/remedial programs in two-year institutions are limited in scope with little effort expended toward salvaging the low achiever. Cline (1972) said any community college today that maintains an "open door" admission policy and claims to be comprehensive, can ill afford to be without an effective reading and study skills program.

An admission process scientifically designed to prevent incoming students from enrolling in courses for which they are not prepared will strengthen both the curriculum and the instructional programs (Blocker, et al., 1965). Since the two-year institutions have students with less measured ability in terms of standardized aptitude scores, this population of students might benefit from strong remedial courses (American College Testing Program, 1969 and Flanagan, et al., 1964).

Strategy For Helping College Students With Reading Problems

William Glasser (1969) claims to have discovered an important fact regarding failure: regardless of how many failures a person has had in his past, regardless of his background, his culture, his color, or his economic level, he will not succeed in general until he can in some way first experience success in one important part of his life.

Arcieri and Margolis (1968) said the emotional and learning aspects of a reading disability must be handled at the same time, usually on a one-to-one approach. This means that the personality of the individual must be considered while attempting to accomplish learning tasks. Mary B. Lane (1972) claims that children often come to school eager to read and teachers make remedial readers out of them, because teachers make it difficult for a child in the first grade to maintain his self-respect. This same concept applies to college remedial readers. One should attempt to work with the student as an individual. Bloom (1968) believes that if every student had a very good tutor most of them would be able to learn a particular subject to a high degree and attain mastery, which would in turn help develop a life

long interest in learning. This life long learning process or self-motivation is a significant goal of higher education.

Arthur S. McDonald (1961) notes that multicausal factors and psychological functions underlie reading disability in high school and college students, because reading is a function of the whole personality and is one aspect of the growth of the individual. The ultimate goal of reading instruction must be the modification of the personal and social adjustment of the student, wherever such adjustment impedes reading ability.

There has been a trend away from indiscriminate use of mechanical aids and more emphasis on materials to fit individual needs (Berg, 1964). Ideally, the selection of materials and methods for a reading improvement program should be based on the needs of the individual. No single theory as yet has been able to explain all aspects of learning and certainly reading is considered to be learning (Kingsley, 1957). Bugelski (1956) said the learning psychologist (i.e., the teacher) is obligated to manipulate the factors of anxiety and reinforcement in such a way that positive results are obtained.

Research in successful reading programs have taken varied approaches. Schick (1968) said college students should perform analytical exercises such as understanding the author's purpose, principle thoughts, inferences and comprehension. After eight years of experimental programs at De Paul University it was concluded those reading programs which correlated significantly with college grades were those which emphasized major patterns of organizing and developing thinking in each content field (Douglass and Halfter, 1958). In other words the flexible reader was the most successful risk in college. Paulson and Stahmann (1973) think students who work at reading skills and study habits can acquire habits and skills on their own after an individual program has been established. In regard to the disadvantaged student, Astin, et. al. (1973) recommend introducing some system through which the total work load could be reduced and more time allotted than the traditional four years. Bloom (1968) also endorses this concept and furthermore states that aptitude is simply a factor of time. Given enough time anyone can master a skill or concept.

Miller and Stillwagon (1970) report success with a reading remediation program between high school and college. Group tests and inventories were administered (ACT, Edwards Personality Preference Schedule, Missouri College English Placement Test, Nelson-Denny Reading Test, Strong Interest Inventory and Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale). The group as a whole had a predicted GPA of 1.5 and achieved a 2.2 in summer and 2.0 in the fall. Yet, Miller and Stillwagon conclude that skills are not enough—students must accept responsibility for motivation, discipline and study. Programs aimed at salvaging the underachiever must be structured in such a way as to encourage and provide an opportunity for the students to help themselves.

Homer L. J. Carter (1967) listed eight principles based on 22 years of experience in reading programs at Western Michigan University:

- (1) The teacher must stimulate, inform, and guide.
- (2) Every student should know how well he reads and should select for himself the specific reading skills he needs to acquire.

- (3) The student should understand that he can improve his reading ability and that the responsibility for doing so rests with him.
- (4) Each student should be given an opportunity to set up his own objectives and to attain them at his own rate and in accordance with his own plan.
- (5) Attention should be given to physical, psychological and environmental factors which may be affecting reading.
- (6) The student should be taught to read effectively the texts required in his college work.
- (7) Instructions should be simple, direct, and specific.
- (8) The student should evaluate his own achievement at the beginning and at the end of the laboratory activity.

This list is simple and is generally supported by the research.

Perhaps the direct approach, one-on-one, is most rewarding in terms of individualizing the program, but it is also the most expensive. There will have to be a commitment of resources if sound reading programs are to be established for high-risk students.

Summary

Students entering the two-year colleges in the United States constitute over 30 percent of the total enrollment of all colleges and universities in the United States. These students are most likely to be the ones needing help in reading skills and study habits. In addition to the need for skills, emotional and personality problems must also be handled. The solution requires a highly skilled and experienced individual to teach reading. Without such individuals little success can be expected in helping the high-risk college student.

Administrators know who their students are in terms of chances of success and should take responsibility for their development or restrict their enrollment. Factors such as motivation and patience work in favor of the handicapped student, yet it is difficult to identify these factors.

Certainly no one expects the open door policy to be reversed. We need to expand upon the concept of the open door. An active, dynamic approach is required to help all students identified as high-risk.

There is evidence indicating the small college may best afford the high-risk student the opportunity to develop without the problem of transfer shock—going from the family/community environment to the large multiversity. One could hypothesize that high-risk students entering a reading/study habits program would significantly improve upon their predicted GPA. Several short term projects have been successful in this area. Perhaps more research needs to be accomplished to demonstrate the potential of a remedial reading program.

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THE USE OF CONCEPT FORMATION STUDY GUIDES FOR SOCIAL STUDIES READING MATERIALS

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When one contemplates the world in bold broad strokes he visualizes that world in concepts rather than a world of minute objects, isolated events, and single situations. Even in childhood we conceptualize our world because concepts help us to organize and to synthesize large amounts of information. By nature, once a key concept has been acquired, we use it at different levels of abstraction, complexity, and generality, depending upon our stage of maturation. One such key concept, using the Hilda Taba ¹ generic model, would be "conflict." When someone tells us that he has been involved in a conflict, he is not relating his actual experience, but a highly simplified and generalized version of it. Conflict can be physical or verbal. It can represent anything from a one-on-one situation to a multi-national feud over oil.

When kids read social studies materials and they are told to identify the key concepts, they often have a great deal of trouble in abstracting the concepts presented. The importance of using language appropriate for a student's reading level should be underscored, because many of the problems connected with concept formation are caused by linguistic barriers. It should be noted that little empirical evidence has been produced concerning the best way to sequence concept formation in the classroom. De Cecco makes this point, "as yet we have no studies of the concepts and principles with which most American children enter school and of the concepts they should learn first and those they should learn later." ²

Having examined the three generic models of De Cecco, Gagne, and Taba for concept attainment, it would seem that it is the critical attributes of concepts that students and teachers share in common which enable them to meaningfully discuss a particular passage of social studies reading material.

We as teachers ask students to read social studies materials for many purposes. Probably the most common purpose for requiring the reading of these materials involves the acquisition, storage, and retrieval of what we believe to be essential information. The reading process, for this purpose, can be structured as a two-step procedure. Each student, after reading a passage, will acquire bits and pieces of information which are lower-order concepts. These low-order concepts are best described as main and organizing ideas. Next the student must categorize these main and organizing ideas from the passage under a more inclusive higher-order key

concept which then permits the transfer to different levels of abstraction, complexity, and generality.

This article presents one way to systematically approach the problem of extracting the key concepts and their main and organizing ideas from such reading materials through the use of concept formation study guides. A sample use of a study guide to help fourth or fifth grade children in concept formation follows.

Let us assume that the year's study will be, "People in Communities Around the World." Next, let us say that one unit of the year's work will deal with, "Nomads of the World," and that we wish to spend about a week on the "Bedouin" nomads of Saudi Arabia. Borrowing from the Taba generic model, the student's study of the Bedouin nomads will center on the key concept of "interdependence," as this concept is central to the study of people in communities.³ The main idea we wish to use in support of "interdependence" is: interaction between a people and the physical and social environment which surrounds them influences the way they meet the basic needs of life. The organizing idea for the week's study on the Bedouins would be: the Bedouin people change their physical and social surroundings by frequent moves in order to make a living in the desert. The daily lesson plan presented here will feature an original reading passage which follows:

THE MOVE TO WINTER GRASSLANDS

Marzug was ten years old and he was now able to herd camels, goats and sheep, and do a man's work. He was very proud of his family for they came from the Al'Azab clan who are noted as one of the most far-ranging peoples of all the Bedouin nomads. Other clans, who never travel as far as the Al'Azab, call them, "nomads of the nomads."⁴

In a meeting the clan decided that they would move to a winter pasture area known as the Rubayda, northeast of the capital city of Riyadh on the northern tip of the Empty Quarter. Word had been passed by Oil field workers that good rains had fallen there and that winter grasses were beginning to sprout. It would be a journey of some 700 miles across the Empty Quarter and it would take some 90 to 100 days for all the parts of the caravans to complete the trip. The slowest group would be the herders and their animals, for they can only make 5 to 7 miles a day since the herds have to be grazed and watered along the way.

Things have changed a little since oil was discovered in Saudi Arabia. The advanced party of old men and women, who prepare camp sites along the way, now ride in an old pick-up truck. Rubber inner tubes from oil truck tires have replaced the smaller, leaky goatskin water bags of yesteryear. Many of the camp sites are located where deep water wells have been dug. These wells were given to them by the King of Saudi Arabia.

Marzug's family is not large. His father died last winter. Now his older brother Al Kurbi, and a sister, Miliaba, live with Marzug and his mother in a tent. Marzug's little family is part of a big family called a clan. In the big family are all of his father's brothers and their families. His father's oldest brother is the leader or sheik of the Al'Azab clan. This clan, or big family, is

part of a Bedouin tribe called the Al Murrah. A clan of the Bedouin is like a small town in America where many relatives live near each other. In Marzug's clan there are 35 tents, and each tent holds one family. Each tent is divided into two parts. One part, called the shigg, is for men; the women's side is called the muharran.

The women and girls are the ones who care for all the camping needs: tents, clothing, blankets, food, cooking pots, and packsaddles. They set up and take down tents at each stop. The men and boys herd the animals. Older men and women pick the trails, water sites, and camp sites. They know all the best places to camp along the way, because they have made many trips over the barren Empty Quarter.

All fall they travel northward to the winter grasslands. The nights are cold now, and people and animals huddle together to keep warm. When they finally reach their winter grasslands, the tents will be pitched on the east side of rocky hills to protect the people and animals from the cold west winds. The openings to their tents also face east.

The baby lambs and goats are born in February and they must be brought into the tents at night to keep them from freezing to death. But if it is not cold in the daytime they graze and nurse with their mothers.

When summer finally comes the clan will sell some of their animals, skins, rugs, and other handmade goods in the market town of Rumah. With the money they make they will buy the things they need to live another year in the open desert of the Empty Quarter. For their basic needs they will buy pots and pans from merchants, and grain for bread from oasis farmers.

The Bedouin clans move to better grasslands in order to feed and protect their animals. The animals provide them with clothing, tents, skins, milk, meat, and money at the market. Each family member has a job to do, and each family within a clan depends on other families in order for them to make a living in the desert. But the clan goes to a market town once a year to sell what they have and to buy what they need. Like other communities around the world, the Al'Azab clan knows that interdependence among many groups of people is the only way they can meet the basic needs of life.

The End.

Students' Concept Formation Study Guide:

The Move to Winter Grasslands

Key Concept: Interdependence.

Main Idea: Interaction between a people and the physical and social environment which surrounds them influences the way they meet the basic needs of life.

Organizing Idea: The Bedouin people change their physical and social surroundings by frequent moves in order to make a living in the desert.

PART I

DIRECTIONS TO THE STUDENT. Place a check to the left of those

statements below which you believe are true based upon your reading and class discussion of the story, "The Move to Winter Grasslands."

- ___ 1. All of the 35 families of the Al'Azab clan are related to one another.
- ___ 2. Each family member has a particular job to do when they are moving.
- ___ 3. Marzug's clan moved to winter grasslands to feed and protect their animals.
- ___ 4. Water and grass are very important to the Bedouin people in order to make a living in the desert.
- ___ 5. A market town, like Rumah, depends on the Bedouin tribes to exchange goods and services.
- ___ 6. Marzug lives in a house with his family.
- ___ 7. The Al'Azab's do not raise grains for feeding themselves or their animals.
- ___ 8. The Empty Quarter is a desert area with little rain and scarce vegetation.
- ___ 9. Finding good grass for the animals causes the Al'Azab's to make frequent moves.
- ___10. Older people find camp sites along the way.
- ___11. Marzug goes to school like you do.
- ___12. Even the children of the Al'Azab's have jobs to do that help all the people in meeting their basic needs for life.
- ___13. The animals provide meat, clothing, tent materials, milk, leather, and saddlepacks.
- ___14. The Al'Azabs, the oasis farmers, and the market town people depend on one another in order to meet the basic needs for life.
- ___15. The Al'Azaba grow crops for people.

PART II

DIRECTIONS TO THE STUDENT. Think of a family that you know who recently moved. What reasons did this family have for moving? In the chart below complete a listing of reasons our families and Al'Azab families have for moving from one place to another.

REASONS FOR MOVING	
Our Families	Bedouin Al'Azab Clan
1. Dad's new job	1. Good grasslands
2.	2.
3.	3.
4.	4.

5.	5.
6.	6.
7.	7.
8.	8.
9.	9.
10.	10.

From your list above answer the following questions:

1. Select those items under the "our" list that indicate they are reasons which support the idea of making a living. Do the same thing for the Al'Azabs. How are the reasons different? Alike?
2. Based on the information you have organized above, define in your own words what you think "making a living" means.
3. Based on the information you have organized above, make a list of the Al'Azab basic needs of life. Would they be different from our family's basic needs?
4. Based on the information you have organized above, define in your own words what you think "interdependence" is.

Part I in this process has three non-exemplars of the lower-order concepts. This can be varied. The format here is intended for average readers. You may want more non-exemplars and to mix the sequence order of statements for better readers in order to raise the level of reading ability.

A teacher led discussion on the vocabulary of Arabic names, along with a map of Saudi Arabia, and pictures of the Bedouin people and their way of life would be most appropriate as openers prior to using the concept formation study guide. Students may react to the study guide individually or in small groups.

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USING ECRI TECHNIQUES TO IMPROVE READING SKILLS IN SOCIAL STUDIES

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Improving the reading skills of students is the responsibility of every content area teacher. Since too few secondary teachers are provided the techniques to further students' growth in reading, we looked for ways and programs which dealt with integrating reading in the subject area.

In our search for current, reliable programs for this level, we found one design which seemed applicable. This program was instituted at the Exemplary Center for Reading Instruction (ECRI), a nationally recognized project to improve reading performance at the elementary level. Its findings were based upon seven years of research data and included many of the components in the reading process.¹ This project facilitates the teacher's ability to elicit correct responses from non-responding pupils, establishes high mastery levels of responses with performance and rate as criteria, and varies the number of practices needed by individual students. It also utilizes effective management and monitoring systems and diagnoses and prescribes instantly when errors or no responses occur.²

Since these techniques seemed applicable for secondary content materials, we decided to design a study for the purpose of comparing this program to the regular type of content presentation. Two eighth grade heterogenous social studies classes were used to evaluate the program by using one as a control group. The following procedures were used with the groups for five separate units, each covering a three week period.

Experimental

1. *Pre-Test*

A pre-test covering twenty words from the social studies unit, testing both spelling and

Control

1. *Pre-test*

Same

¹ Dr. Ethna R. Reid, SEVEN YEARS OF RESEARCH IN READING, Salt Lake City, Utah: Exemplary Center for Reading Instruction.

² Dr. Ethna R. Reid, Letter of Information for ECRI Instructional Packages, Salt Lake City, Utah: Exemplary Center for Reading Instruction.

definitions was given. Each word was pronounced twice and used in a sentence once. Context clues were utilized in the sentences.

2. *Correction*

The pre-tests were corrected and returned to the students for them to restudy the words or definitions which were incorrect.

3. *Presentation of words as content vocabulary*

Words for spelling and vocabulary were presented using directives to reach word attack, to elicit responses and to emphasize penmanship.³

4. *Textbook assignment*

Students read the assigned material three times, once to themselves, twice orally to another student.

5. *Post-test*

A post-test covering the same words presented on the pre-test was given; the test included both spelling and definitions. Each word was pronounced twice.

Each student was required to achieve one hundred percent mastery on the spelling; he retook the spelling portion until this was achieved.

6. *Discussion of assigned material*

A lecture-discussion of the assigned material was presented for student notetaking practices.

7. *Mastery tests*

Mastery tests were given,

2. *Correction*

Same

3. *Presentation of words as content vocabulary*

Words for spelling and vocabulary were pronounced and briefly defined. Students were then instructed to study and review the words.

4. *Textbook assignment*

Students were instructed to read the assigned material and to answer study questions.

5. *Post-test*

Same

These students were *not* compelled to attain one hundred percent mastery.

6. *Discussion of assigned material*

Same

7. *Mastery tests*

Mastery tests including six

³ Dr. Ethna R. Reid, Teacher Training Kits, Salt Lake City, Utah: Exemplary Center for Reading Instruction.

including reading a list of twenty words accurately in a designated period of time, reading a passage (given to the students before the test) accurately in a designated period of time, and answering five out of six comprehension questions.

These tests were passed according to mastery expectations; if they were not, the student retook the test.

Students signed up for these tests after they had read the material according to instructions and were prepared for the test.

All tests were administered individually.

8. *Maintenance tests*

These unannounced tests were given to check spelling retention.

comprehension questions were given.

No requirement was made for a certain number of correct answers.

Students were advised of beginning date for the tests; the names were randomly drawn.

All tests were administered individually.

8. *Maintenance tests*

Same

In order to judge the ECRI program, pre- and post-test scores for spelling and definitions for each unit were analyzed. On most of the comparisons, significant or noticeable gains were shown by the experimental group.

As a reading comprehension check in which students were to score five out of six answers correct, scores on the unit mastery tests were compared for four of the units (See Table 1).

Reading Comprehension Unit Tests
5 of 6 Answers Correct

Unit Tests	Experimental	Control
	N = 30	N = 31
Civil War	29	10
Industrialization	26	17
Growth of the City	21	16
Foreign Affairs	15	3

Table 1

In addition to these formal analyses, other classroom observations included improved penmanship, more attentive listening, eagerness to help one another, more careful study of assigned material to pass mastery tests on the first attempt, and improved self concepts from meeting with success.

After using ECRI techniques in a content area classroom, we feel that definite gains were shown by the experimental group in specific areas of the

reading process, such as vocabulary, spelling, and content area comprehension. Because of the success shown with the social studies class, we feel that the techniques of this program can be used successfully by any content area teacher at the secondary level.

SKILL-REFERENCED INSTRUCTION FOR DISABLED READERS: GUIDELINES AND CAUTIONS

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*Skill-Referenced Instruction for
Disabled Readers: Guidelines and Cautions*

Early in the development of learning disability programs, the terms reading disability and dyslexia were widely used to describe the problem of a child who had extreme difficulty in learning to decode printed words (Jastak and Jastak, 1965), despite conventional educational opportunity (Money, 1962) and apparent capacity to learn (Bateman, 1964). Reading disability was further distinguished from simple reading difficulty by its severity and its duration, with resultant need for highly specialized treatment over a long period of time (Rabinovitch, 1962).

The implications of early writers were quite clear: the child with a reading disability differed from the one who had problems in first grade but caught up with his peers in second grade; neither was he the same as the child with frequent absences leading to gaps in basic skills who responded rapidly to short-term remedial programming. There was, by the early 1960's an abundance of evidence to suggest that the traditional basal and unstructured skill-development techniques were not reaching children in the lowest achievement subgroup. It was (and still is) unknown whether some or all of these children were neurologically impaired, in addition to being difficult and even inadvisable to make this distinction within the public school context (Reed et al., 1970).

Development of learning disability concept.

There was, in the early literature, a strong suggestion that the LD child suffered from some form of neurological impairment. Learners with severe disability were observed to have difficulty in recalling the orientation and sequence of letters, a phenomenon which Orton (1937) termed "strephosymbolia," or twisted symbols. Strauss and Lehtinen (1947) noted that neurologically impaired children saw patterns as fragmented parts rather than integrated wholes, that they were distracted by extraneous details, and that they did not perceive the figure as distinct from its background. Strauss and Lehtinen also discussed the difficulty of their students in relating temporal and spatial patterns, as between letters in a word and the sounds which they represent. They suggested further that the students' tendency to persevere was an indication of inability to perceive new sequences or relationships.

Cruickshank et al. (1961) observed brain injured and hyperactive children in their experimental program. They cited hyperactivity, distractability, and disinhibition as major characteristics. The students in this program were observed to have gaps in memory, to not comprehend verbal directions, to be unable to synthesize separate elements into meaningful wholes, to persevere in response, and to show catastrophic responses to situations they could not understand.

The work of Cruickshank and others suggested that hyperactive children without evidence of brain damage exhibited learning characteristics which were similar to those of the neurologically impaired. It also specified teaching methods which could be used effectively for children with extreme difficulties, regardless of etiology. New labels, such as "minimal brain dysfunction" and "maturational lag" came into use to describe the child with learning disability in the absence of documented neurological impairment.

Specialized remedial programs.

Fernald (1943) was among the first to develop a specialized clinical program based on the learning characteristics of disabled readers. Primarily concerned with her students' negative attitudes, which she attributed to repeated failure, she felt that new methods should be found to direct their attention to success. For children with total or extreme difficulty, she described a kinesthetic method in which they finger-traced words, while looking at the copy and saying the parts aloud.

Gillingham and Stillman's program, published in 1960, was developed much earlier, and based on work by the neurologist Orton. They analyzed the reading act into its simplest components—letters and sounds—and emphasized teaching each association separately, then putting letter sounds together in given sequence to form words. This method began with words which are perfectly phonetic, and followed a carefully structured sequence in teaching more difficult letter-sound relationships. Like the Fernald method, it utilized auditory, visual, tactile, and kinesthetic learning, emphasizing spelling and writing as well as reading.

Bryant (1965) observed that "dyslexic" children had extreme difficulty in abstracting and in making generalizations regarding the sounds and symbols of words. He pointed out that they may have difficulty in perceiving and in retaining a detailed image of the word, and suggested that calling attention to the details was an important part of remedial teaching. He cited difficulties in association of letters and sounds, sound blending and memory as reasons to teach the sounds within the context of words, rather than as separate elements to be blended. Bryant's theory stressed the need for "overlearning" or repeated practice as a way of helping disabled readers make automatic responses to sound-symbol associations. He also emphasized careful lesson planning to ensure correct responding, and specified the need for immediate correction of errors.

Johnson and Myklbust (1967) categorized reading disability into auditory and visual dyslexia, and designed specialized remedial programs

for each category. They observed that students with auditory dyslexia had difficulty in synthesizing sounds into words, and suggested a remedial approach in which they were taught to put together larger segments of words such as compounds, then syllables, and word elements. They also observed the auditory dyslexic's difficulty with relating visual parts of a word to their auditory equivalents, trouble in hearing differences in word sounds (particularly short vowels), difficulty in making generalizations when seeing similarities in word parts, disturbance in sequencing ability (enemy for enemy), and problems in reauditorization (looking at the letter and recalling its sound). Details of their procedures are outlined in their chapter on auditory dyslexia.

Johnson and Myklebust (1967) also described a program for visual dyslexics, who, they noted, had difficulty with visual discrimination of word configuration, slow rate of perception, reversal and inversion tendencies, trouble in retaining a sequence (pan/nap/npa), and problems in visual analysis and synthesis. These procedures specified in their chapter on visual dyslexia, stress an academic approach to remediation, using a minimum of "readiness" work with figures such as circles and squares. These authors also suggested that, instead of a multi-sensory approach, some disabled readers may need uni-sensory input, since they seem unable to process information through two input channels simultaneously.

Development of ability-testing and training.

Concomitant with the growth of specialized remedial programs was the realization that learning disabled children were not a homogenous group and that effective teaching depended on identification of the specific areas in which each individual had specific strengths and weaknesses. This provided the impetus for development of diagnostic tests such as the Marianne Frostig Developmental Test of Visual Perception (Frostig, 1961) and Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities (Kirk, McCarthy and Kirk, 1968), with prescriptive remedial programs based on the results of these tests.

There was a body of early literature on ability testing which seemed to strengthen the observations of the clinical writers regarding the learning characteristics of disabled readers. These characteristics, or correlates, indicated difficulties in auditory discrimination (Wepman, 1960), visual perception (Frostig, 1961), and integration of abstract sounds and symbols (Birch and Belmont, 1964). In addition, early summaries of research with the ITPA (Sievers et al., 1963) consistently showed that disabled readers were more likely to have ITPA deficits in the "automatic level" of functioning, rather than in higher level learning skills. These results suggested that they did not remember a sequence of symbols they had seen or heard or recognize a whole object when a part was missing, and that they continued to use language forms incorrectly long after others with comparable education and background had mastered them. The whole pattern of findings seemed to indicate that disabled readers, as a group, showed some basic learning deficits, as follows:

1. Poor perception of details in the pattern of a word.

2. Difficulty in association of sounds with symbols.
3. Difficulty in discriminating between words which look or sound alike.
4. Difficulty in combining sounds to make words.
5. Inability to remember words learned.
6. Difficulty in transferring learned skills to the reading of new words.

These problems may be compounded by a short attention span, a negative attitude, a tendency to persevere, and/or to attend to the wrong stimuli.

While theoretically promising, attempts to measure these deficits, to use test data for remedial programs, and to evaluate the results of remediation, have been disappointing. Zach and Kaufman (1972) pointed out that while deficits in visual perception were frequently identified by tests which measure visual-motor performance (copying), their treatment often consisted of training in visual discrimination (matching). Hammill (1972), while acknowledging the fact that training may not have been correctly implemented, concluded that the research didn't support the theory and questioned whether visual perceptual processes could even be trained. Hammill and Larsen's (1974) review of the research on remedial programs based on the ITPA implied that the value of these programs had not been demonstrated, and that the least satisfactory results had been shown on the automatic level skills—the same skills in which previous studies had shown disabled readers to be most deficient. Hartman and Hartman (1973) summarized by suggesting that the lack of validated tests to measure perceptual deficits and the use of remedial programs which taught skills only theoretically related to those deficits were major weaknesses in the perceptual process approach. In addition, the ability testing-process training approach may have over-emphasized diagnosis, leading to categorization and labeling, which were misinterpreted by some as explanations of disability.

Complete cycle.

Initially, special educators became concerned when certain students demonstrated potential yet failed to respond to regular instruction, either in the classroom or in the ordinary remedial reading program. These children were called "reading disabled" or "dyslexic" because their learning characteristics, as identified by clinical observations and special tests, seemed to differ from those of "normals." When attempts to remediate their learning "processes" not only led to labeling and segregation, but also yielded questionable results, the emphasis shifted back to the identification and remediation of specific academic skill deficits or learning "products."

This "new" remedial emphasis now focuses on the identification of reading skills, categorized as objectives, in which the child is deficient (specific letter symbols which he cannot name, vowel sounds which he fails to recall, etc.). The major tools for identification of these skills are criterion-referenced systems, such as those reviewed by Rude (1974), and written collections of skill-oriented remedial activities, based on the results of informal tests (for example, Boyd, 1975). The better systems provide the teacher with a series of remedial activities and a supplementary list with

book titles and page numbers of lessons which may be used to help the child meet the objective.

Rationale for skills approach with disabled learners.

Inherently, the skill-referenced approach seems to be appropriate for disabled readers, since it presents tasks which are directly related to their learning problem—reading words. Hartman and Hartman (1973) have suggested that remedial programs which stress lower-level skills (such as eye-motor coordination) may leave gaps in learning because they are so far removed from the task that there is no transfer of training. In view of what is known about the LD child's tendency to perseverate, his difficulty with transfer and generalization, the skill-referenced approach—with appropriate adaptations—seems promising.

The short time available for the learning specialist to work with each child further strengthens the rationale for use of the skill-referenced approach. Given a twenty minute remedial lesson with a child who confuses words having similar visual patterns, the teacher can present instruction which is either direct (practice in discriminating between words which have similar configurations) or indirect (exercises in discriminating between sequences of forms such as circles and squares). Logic dictates that the teacher would want to pretest the child and present instruction using sequential patterns of circles and squares only if necessary. Even where this lower level of instruction is necessary, the teacher would still have to follow it with direct instruction using words. The direct approach, then, particularly if it is based on a pre- post test management system, can help the teacher to specify each learner's needs and to track his mastery of skills.

Possible misuses of skills approach.

It is probable that skill-referenced approaches such as those described by Rude (1974) will most often fail with disabled readers as a result of their abuse, rather than their use. Remedial teachers could easily abuse these systems in at least the following ways:

1. by becoming worksheet dispensers, assuming that skill sheets or activities are self-instructional.
2. by using remedial activities which do not precisely match the lesson objective.
3. by failing to stress and test for mastery of one skill before going on to a new skill, thus increasing the chances of confusion due to partial learning.
4. by stopping after teaching the skill in isolation, rather than going on to help the child apply this skill to the reading of words in context.
5. by assuming that skill mastery measured by an immediate posttest is permanent, and therefore failing to present frequent reviews necessary for retention.

Since the better systems suggest that skill teaching is only part of a sound total reading program, this type of failure will result from incorrect implementation, rather than inherent weakness of the approach.

Guidelines for implementation.

Although it is obvious that disabled readers need to develop basic skills, it is not so obvious that they will acquire these skills by exposure to activities which have surface validity only, as may be the case with some of those referenced in the skills systems. Because any given "LD" child may have one or more special learning problem; the skill-referenced systems may need careful evaluation, with at least three basic types of modification prior to and during use with this group.

1. Suggested teaching materials and activities may need adaptation. Durkin (1974a, 1974b) has pointed out that there are serious flaws in some of the phonics instruction recommended by teacher's manuals. She classifies these flaws into instruction which is irrelevant and that which is incorrect, and cautions reading teachers about unquestioning use of commercially developed materials. Teachers will need to examine specific activities carefully, discarding or modifying those which use distracting stimuli, which introduce words too rapidly or present an inadequate amount of practice. They should also avoid materials stressing the memorization of "rules" which are not consistent with the structure of the language or have little application to the actual reading of unknown words.

2. The terminal objectives of some of the skills lessons may need to be analyzed into a series of smaller subtasks. This could be done in at least three different ways. First, in some cases, the objectives are extremely broad (i.e. "short novels," "consonant blends," "synonyms," etc.) suggesting far more content than the LD child can assimilate at one time. In these cases, individual lessons which focus on a single pattern or generalization will need to be developed, and a series of review lessons in which the terminal generalization is presented will need to follow. Second, even when the lesson objective is narrow, the disabled reader's teacher may need to subdivide the lesson into steps, as determined by the learner's response level. An intermediate step in learning to name a given word by sight, for example, might be to circle the stimulus word, identifying it from among a choice of several, when it is pronounced by the teacher. A child who could respond correctly at this level would need to be led through a series of carefully programmed steps to the terminal objective of sight recognition (recall). A third type of task analysis might focus on the "characteristics" of "correlates" of the child's learning difficulty. When a child has difficulty with auditory discrimination, for example, one of the steps in each lesson for him would focus on the difference between the target word and other words which are auditorily similar. Further guidelines on the task analysis process can be found in Bateman (1971), while the works of Bryant (1965) and of Gillingham and Stillman (1960) further specify the subskills in the decoding task which may need emphasis.

3. It will be necessary for the LD child's teacher to monitor his responses to skill-referenced programming through continuous evaluation of effectiveness. Freschi (1974) is among those suggesting charting the rate of correct and incorrect responses as a means of providing concrete data to monitor performance and modify each child's educational specifications.

The work of those whose methods have proven effective with this group may offer guidelines for needed modifications. Haring and Hauck (1969) are among those who have demonstrated the effectiveness of a carefully structured reinforcement program in conjunction with sequential presentation of basic word attack skills. Johnson and Myklebust (1967) and Blau and Blau (1968) have suggested ways of helping disabled readers block out irrelevant stimuli as a way of overcoming multi-sensory interference. Englemann and Bruner (1969) have shown how to use hand signals to control attention, how to structure no-fail sequences of instruction by fading prompts and cues, and how to stress overlearning of basic response units as a way to circumvent memory deficits. Finally, evaluations will need to measure whether the child can retain and apply the concept, as well as whether he has mastered the lesson objective.

Recommendations.

Brown and Botel (1972), summarizing the present state of the art in treating reading disability, emphasize that the trend is not to explain why a child can't read, but rather to specify the conditions under which he does learn. Specification of those conditions will require careful review of what is known about learning difficulties and selection of techniques which have proven successful. The skill-referenced approach, while promising a management-measurement system, must not be poorly implemented or indiscriminately applied, or it too will fail to meet the needs of LD children.

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READING IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL: HOW TO ADD WORDS TO YOUR VOCABULARY PART II

Kenneth VanderMeulen

PART II

Readers will remember that in the fall issue, Part I of “Adding Words to One’s Vocabulary” appeared. Editor Ken VanderMeulen continues this series with the transcripts of tapes 3 and 4 dealing with prefixes and roots. Prefixes, suffixes and root words are those word elements commonly best taught and understood by teachers and students alike. However, as is pointed out in the following transcripts their importance in vocabulary development, especially that of the less understood “word root” is greatly underestimated. As James F. Shepherd aptly states, “When teachers see a logical relation between the meanings of Latin or Greek roots and English vocabulary, they should communicate this information to their students.” (*INSIGHTS, INTO WHY AND HOW TO READ*, International Reading Association, 1976). Students and teachers alike will find these self-help tapes to be of value in understanding the word structure of our English language.

William L. Holladay
Associate Editor

Tape III

This is the third tape in the series concerned with ways to help one’s reading vocabulary grow. Let’s begin with a reasonable question—Why is more emphasis suddenly being put on learning Latin and Greek word parts in our modern English? The answer is equally reasonable; a larger and larger percentage of our everyday language is including technical words, and we no longer can say that American English is based on Anglo-Saxon. Seventy to eighty percent of the new words being added to our language each year are words put together from Greek and Latin parts. All inventions, discoveries, and developments in science—all new concepts and machines had to have names. In this country, ever since the industrial revolution first got underway, we have been taking word elements from the Classical Languages for these purposes, to explain, describe, and name the parts that made up our innovations.

In Norman Lewis' book *Word Power Made Easy* the statement is made that the invention of *radio* alone put 5,000 new words into the language. Every part had to be named; every concept, and every process had to have words to fit the ideas. Thus, *micro* and *phone* were joined to name the part that was sensitive to the human voice. *Amplifier* named the device to enlarge the sound for *transmission*, and so forth.

Radio was invented more than fifty years ago, and many other inventions have come on the scene since. Whole new scientific areas have opened up, and thousands of new words have come into our world of reading. Dr. James I. Brown of the University of Minnesota has done research work which concludes that sixty to seventy percent of American English today is made up of elements which come from Latin and Greek.

To help you demonstrate to yourself just how important those language word parts have become, I'd like to have you participate right now by taking a sheet of note paper on which to write some roots and prefixes. The directions are simple, but should be followed carefully. Write the following prefixes down the left side of the note paper, with their meanings:

First, write d-i-s, and put parentheses around the *s*, and follow the prefix with a hyphen. Below d-i-s, write the meaning—*apart*. Although *dis*, when used with verbs, takes on the meaning of "do the opposite," as in disown, discharge, disjoint; we are going to look at the prefix used with Latin roots. So, the meaning is apart, as we said before. The next prefix is r-e (hyphen), and the meaning on the next line should be *back* or *again*. Prefix number three is d-e (hyphen), and the meaning below it should be *down* or *away*. Number four is e-x (hyphen), and put the letter *x* in parentheses. Now put the meaning *out* below that. The parentheses merely show that sometimes the prefix is used as a complete unit, and sometimes the letter in parentheses is not used. Prefix number five is c-o-n (hyphen). The meaning is *together*, or *with*. And, the last prefix is a-d (hyphen), and put the *d* in parentheses. The meaning of a-d, *to* or *toward*.

Now, in order to show how these prefixes have multiple ways of combining with Latin root words to make a variety of fairly common English words, we need to put a set of roots in six columns across the note paper, one root at the head of each column. The first column, just to the right of the prefixes, should be headed by the root t-r-a-c-t, again with the meaning—pull or draw—above or below it, depending on where you have room.

Now, move one column to the right, and put the second root s-t-r-u-c-t at the head. The word *build* is the meaning. In the third column, write g-r-e-s-s at the head, and the meaning, *step*. In the fourth vertical column, write j-e-c-t, and the meaning *throw*. The fifth and sixth roots have two spellings and I'd like to have you put them both in. For the fifth, write c-e-d and the other spelling c-e-s-s, and the meaning for both spellings is *move* or *go*. And, at the top of the sixth column, write m-i-s and m-i-t. This root means *send* or *let go*.

I'm sure that you have been noticing the number of combinations you can make out of this little set of word elements. I suggest that you look at

just a couple with me now, and then take the paper along to fill in the remaining possible squares with the words. Let's look at the last vertical column, and start with the top prefix—first you have dismiss, next line down we see both remit and remiss—both good American words—when you see a bill marked “please remit” you know it still means what it meant some two thousand years ago—“send back.” Next prefix d-e-, used with *mis* and a final *e* means *died* today, can you see why? E-, used with *mit* or *mis* will give us *emit* (send out) or *emission*, the term as applied to modern cars—emission control system. The next, c-o-n-, becomes *com* when used with a root beginning with *m*, and we then have commit, or commission. And the sixth, admit, admission, as when we let someone into a movie or game, the ticket says admit one . . .

We might also note together a few of the combinations which can be made under the column headed by g-r-e-s-s, meaning *step*. D-i-, used with the root, becomes digress, or step apart—one digresses when he parts from his story or speech or routine. Regress, step back, which is the opposite of p-r-o-, meaning forward, which gives us progress. D-e is not combined with gress in a word. E- used with gress, gives us an old-fashioned word for outside door, *egress* might be said to be the counterpart of EXIT. The next combination we see is c-o-n and gress, and *congress* was taken seriously as a term for the concept of the representatives moving or stepping together. Congress has come to mean a few other things in more recent times.

The last one, a-d-, loses the *d* in pronunciation, we don't say aggression—instead, we say aggression, simply doubling the first letter of the root to take the place of the dropped *d*. I leave you to do the rest, and hope you will be impressed with the number of ways a few prefixes and roots give you many concepts for your reading vocabularies.

This is the end of cassette tape number three in the series **ADDING WORDS TO ONE'S VOCABULARY**. To use number four next, simply push Fast Forward and turn the cassette over when it stops.

Tape Four

This is the fourth in the series of cassette presentations called **ADDING WORDS TO ONE'S VOCABULARY**. Here again, you will want to have some notepaper and a pen handy. The purpose of this ten minute discussion is to offer you the opportunity to become acquainted with a basic set of word elements which we use in our everyday language, but generally are not recognized as having meanings by themselves.

In the last tape we demonstrated how many of our words are put together with a prefix which acts as a preposition, and a root which gives the action, and we listed a half dozen for your participation.

This time we will take some words which are defined in the various subject matter classes, but no one takes time to help students really attach those ideas in their minds. For instance, when you go to the person who is to check your eyes, what sign or title do you look for? There's the optometrist, there's the oculist, and the ophthalmologist. Since they're your eyes, you

should be told—the Ophthalmologist is specialized to the point of being called an eye surgeon, and you may not need him unless you're in serious trouble. The oculist must have a doctor's degree, the optometrist can only measure your vision. There is the first root, you should become well acquainted with it—metr, or meter, means measure wherever you see it, from barometer, thermometer, to perimeter, diameter and metric. Opto—well, simply means *vision*. Optometrist—vision measure. The letters o-c-u-l will always refer to eye. Thus, bi-(n)ocular means two eyes.

To give you a quick rundown on the roots and prefixes you should become familiar with over the next few months, I have turned to Professor James I. Brown's list, called the Fourteen Word Master Series. Since his research concluded that two-thirds of the total language is based on Latin and Greek, Dr. Brown next looked for the word elements that are most frequently used in modern English. He came out with a list of twenty prefixes and fourteen roots which, he said, are used in over fourteen thousand relatively common American words. He formed words with these word elements.

Your instructor may at this time give you copies of the Master series, for you to use in noting meanings and examples. Stop the cassette while this is done.

Root one in the word precept is *cept*, and another spelling which you should add is c-a-p-t. The meaning is take, or seize, in the sense of grab. The idea in this lesson is to underline the root and add the other spelling. Under a middle column, write the meaning, and in the third column, some examples of the use of that root in other words. Examples of this root might be—intercept, capture, reception, and captive.

We're skipping the prefixes, remember, because they can be looked up, and because we only have time for the roots today.

The root in number two is t-a-i-n, and the other spelling t-e-n. The meaning is hold or have. You know many uses for *tain*, retain (hold back), contain (hold together), obtain, and pertain. The other spelling of *ten*, is found in the word *tenure*, which means the time one holds a position, and lieutenant, one who holds his job in lieu of the captain, and one who holds a building by contract—the *tenant*.

Number three we had before—mit and the other spelling mis, meaning send or let go. Examples are permit and admit, with the other spelling yielding such words as mission, missile, as well as words with prefixes, commission, admission—even the word *promise* (general idea—to send a pledge forward in time).

Root number four is f-e-r, means to carry or bear (that's b-e-a-r) a verb. The verb is given meaning with its prefix—so we have refer (carry back), confer, defer, inference, prefer, interfere, and the word *difference* also comes from this.

S-i-s-t is number five, and the other spelling is s-t-a. The meaning is stand or stay. Common words formed with prefixe, are subsist, resist, persist, and desist. The other spelling, static, standing still; status, our standing in a group. Other words are thermostat, statue, pedestal, and the word staple.

Number six is g-r-a-p-h. Meaning—write or record. The examples are many; and we need only mention geography, telegraph, biography, and demography.

Number seven is l-o-g, and the meaning is *word*. There are other meanings for the word element in other settings, so we will just mention the two examples prologue, a word before, and epilogue, a word on or about the work.

Number eight is s-p-e-c-t, which means look. You can probably begin your example list by yourself, but a few reminders—inspect, respect, spectacle, and spectator.

The next root is spelled p-l-i-c and originally meant fold. We find some change in the idea today, and we see the root in such words as duplicate, implicate, and triplicate. You see, that word element took the meaning that the users wanted it to—now, duplicate and triplicate mean two and three copies.

The combination of t-e-n-d means stretch, and the best example is tendon. Another spelling of that is tens, and we find tense and tension—meaning stretch.

Number eleven had d-u-c-t, or just d-u-c. The meaning is lead, as in the sense of channel. Everyday examples of this use are conduct, reduce, produce, induction, and even the word educate! If you remember that *e*, without the *x* still means *out*, added to duc, meaning lead—we have the idea that education is a leading out of ignorance to knowledge. At least we can hope!

Number twelve, the root is pos, and you should add the second spelling, pon. The meanings are put, or place, for these roots. You use them both in such words as propose, impose, expose, depose, repose, and compose. For the other spelling, component, proponent, exponent, opponent. The prefixes give direction to put or place.

Thirteen has three spellings, fic, fac, fect. The meaning, to do, make, or cause. When a story is made up, we call it fiction. When a company makes commodities for sale, the place is called a factory. When something is made or done wrong, we call it a *defect*. Other words are fictitious, factual, infection.

The last word in the fourteen word master series is mistranscribe, and the root, of course, is s-c-r-i-b; the alternate spelling is s-c-r-i-p-t. The meaning simply write, w-r-i-t-e. Once more, the prefixes are the cues to what is written. Write in or into, you have inscribe, inscription.

A doctor writes ahead for drugs or medicine, that's *prescription*.

If I sign my name *below* or *under* an order, that's a *subscription*.

We'll take up more prefixes another time. Right now, this is the end of *adding words to your vocabulary*, part four. Please push Fast Forward to the end of this tape, so that Number Three part will be ready for use again.

WE SUGGEST

Eleanor Buelke

Lucas, Christopher J.

Challenge and Choice in Contemporary Education

New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1976. Pp. viii + 455.

For most of mankind, life is a dirty trick. For others it is lived, in Thoreau's term, in quiet desperation. The promise of education is that through knowledge of nature and knowledge of self, people can fashion a temporary habitat on this whirling planet that can cater with some felicity to the impertinent claims of their restless souls. We get seduced into narrow definitions of education's function These are, for the most part, measurable goals of education.

But the prime function of education is not measurable. The ultimate business of education is human freedom¹

This book identifies six major ideological perspectives from which educators work as they go about the "ultimate business" of schools and learners in America. While the main thesis is concerned with "challenges and choices" found within the six described categories, the purpose of the main author is not to stir readers to commitment to any one choice, but, rather, to supply informational background from which to make a more intelligent selection from among alternatives. Each of the six sections is preceded by the author's summarization of relevant historical antecedents, current patterns of development, and highlights of essential criticism and support of each perspective.

The six major categories, delineated arbitrarily by Lucas, include the liberal arts tradition, educational technologism, humanism, career education, social reconstruction, and education without schools. Most of the problems posed within the jurisdiction of any one school district in our country fit into one of these categories.

In the first section of the book, writers address themselves to a topic that is puzzling thoughtful persons on the contemporary scene just as it has plagued educators for centuries. What are the ingredients that define an educated person? Should leaders in professional schools be committed to utilitarian goals, or should they be dedicated to the nurture of human traits? Educational philosophy or cost accounting; humanities or a creed of relevance; social, moral, and aesthetic development or material advancement—where are the priorities of American educators and tax-paying citizens?

¹ Stephen K. Bailey. "Combating the Efficiency Cultists," in *Challenge and Choice in Contemporary Education*, p. 166.

In the second section, writers are concerned with varying thrusts in modern education evolving under the influence of the technocratic revolution: behaviorist methodology, applied to problems of teaching techniques and evaluation; electronically based data storage, processing, and retrieval, used to supplement conventional modes of instruction; and new technical tools, used to organize, administer, and manage teaching and learning. All of these deal with the process of learning from an objective approach. The effects of such an approach upon our educational system and their relationship to a developing professionalism, their threats to teacher autonomy, and their relevancy to true efficiency in securing for Americans their cherished freedoms are discussed in selected, pertinent writings.

Open education and the move toward more humanism in the schools are reviewed in the third section of this volume. Descriptions of their varying forms are given, along with characteristic, particular promises and problems of these programs as they have appeared in different communities and systems. Inherent, basic values and pedagogical practices of educational humanism are questioned, detailed, and placed in reference to our American system of universal, compulsory education. Can human rights survive in the classroom? Can education be both highly individualized and highly effective? Will programs expanded and geared toward acknowledgement and respect for the unique potential and individuality of each student be supported and maintained by today's reeling economy and reluctant tax-payers? If authentic movements toward opening issues and relationships are not increasingly undertaken in the classrooms, what will be the results for society, in terms of continued freedom and responsible actions? Articles in this section stir serious thinking about answers to these questions.

The significant area of career education engenders its own brands of enthusiasts and enemies. Questions are posed by writers on both sides. Few would argue against the thesis that work is important to society. Can the dichotomy between things academic and things vocational be replaced with a melding of human resources and life-fulfilling employment? Should a major goal of this same society's education, then, be the teaching dimension of the importance of work to all students? Has content-centered learning lost its social utility and, consequently, its validity? Is the time right for restructuring our school curriculums in terms of the model which encompasses all grade levels: "career awareness" in grades K-6, "career exploration" in grades 7-9, and "career preparation" in grades 10-12? The goal of dignified, satisfying work for everyone as a result of being educated in America's schools is temptingly displayed, but, on the other hand, challenged by some as revealing a persistent authoritarian social philosophy. It has been suggested here that evaluation and systematic review of funded programs and research in this area are indicated, and that the appropriate time is now.

Within the last several decades there has been an ever-increasing interest in ways to anticipate and to pre-shape the world of the future.

Throughout the history of the United States, social, political, and educational thinkers have believed in the process of education as an effective means of building and preparing for a better society. Today most educators still hold that they, and the institutions in which they live and work, have a major role to play in the arena of social reform, but there are differences in interpretation of that role. Should institutionalized education act as the vanguard of social change, or will it serve more effectively by apprising students of the best informed judgments about the future and helping them to respond intelligently and forthrightly to expected changing conditions? Will future generations be able to cope with social dilemmas through education implemented largely by coercion and regimentation, or through a more informal, random approach? Should teachers concentrate upon the teaching of skills, or upon teaching of attitudes, or should they be expected to do both? Should schooling serve individual needs, or societal needs, or are these one and the same thing? Answers to these questions involve the requisite paraphernalia of public education such as curricula, teacher training, and physical and governmental forms of school systems. The choices made as challenges are faced make all the difference.

Education today must affirm the promise of human life. It must help us see citizens and public officials not as instruments of survival or of mere security, but as possible instruments of human freedom—to see the good society as an arrangement of institutions and laws that help to free men from the bondage of fear, loneliness and injustice, and from the crushing impersonalities of life For freedom is the condition of nobility, and knowledge is the condition of freedom.²

² Stephen K. Bailey, *Op. cit.*, pp. 166-67.

PROFESSIONAL CONCERNS: READING COMPREHENSION AND ESSAY WRITING

R. Baird Shuman

EDITOR

Glenda C. Petrini

CONTRIBUTOR

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.

Glenda C. Petrini, a Social Studies teacher at Thoreau Intermediate School in Vienna, Virginia, had tried for five years to teach the inquiry method to her students before she tried using reading skills as a vehicle for the comprehension of inquiry. In her article which follows, Ms. Petrini tells how she used the knowledge which she gained of reading skills to instruct her students in ways that would significantly strengthen their essay writing. Ms. Petrini presents convincing evidence that the teaching of reading and the teaching of writing can be combined very effectively.

Through the use of the "Umbrella Form," students learned not only how to present their ideas more effectively in writing but also learned how to draw implications from clue words which appeared in social studies questions. Content area teachers who follow Ms. Petrini's lead and who work cooperatively with reading teachers are very likely to find that the benefits accruing to them and their students from such cooperation will be substantial.

Teach Reading *and* Writing in the Content area!

Like many other content-oriented teachers, I was slow to realize that inclusion of reading skills for the content area would greatly facilitate my curriculum and help students learn American history more easily. Two years ago, my school's reading teacher found time to help me learn how to teach those reading skills that would make the "inquiry" approach, or scientific method of teaching history, more comprehensible to my heterogeneously grouped classes. Students of the inquiry method formulate hypotheses, gather data, analyze historical documents, engage in critical thinking and discover history for themselves. This method involves the use

of material which often contains archaic vocabulary and expressions. Teaching through reading skills alleviated the frustration involved when trying to deal with such material. It wasn't long before my whole program took on a more satisfying look.

Although reading skills for the content area seemed to be the appropriate vehicle for the comprehension of inquiry, I was still dissatisfied with evaluation procedures. I feel that the best evaluation of what a student has learned is by reading his thoughts as set down on paper. Essay-questions are best to measure such things as perception, analytical ability, organizational skills, and communication effectiveness when drawing inferences based on evidence. However, students generally have great difficulty in writing down answers to questions, and I usually avoided this type of test.

One of the things I found particularly useful for teaching comprehension of textbook material involves the recognition of "reading patterns."¹ Most professional writers for textbooks follow certain organizational patterns when they write. The student learns to recognize these reading patterns through clue words and will be alert for the specific purpose of the material being read. For example, if the student is reading about the Cowboy Era and he sees clue words such as "reasons," "effects" or "consequence," he knows a cause-effect pattern is being used and he should look for specific happenings and their results. While I was analyzing these ideas, I realized that students could be taught these organizational patterns not only for reading purposes but for writing as well.

I began to work out procedures for teaching how to write answers to essay-tests. I collected typical essay-questions for analysis of the vocabulary commonly used in such questions. I became satisfied that most questions give some clue as to the structure of the answer. It also appeared that the reading patterns would apply as writing patterns for all questions. I taught my students the use of the Umbrella Form as a focal point for structuring their writing.² The Umbrella Form is a drawing plus a few simple rules. The canopy part represents the topic sentence. The shaft represents three sentences that give details or proofs, and the handle represents the concluding sentence. Utilization of these rules helped my students to avoid the sin of brevity. An example which illustrates the complete process follows:

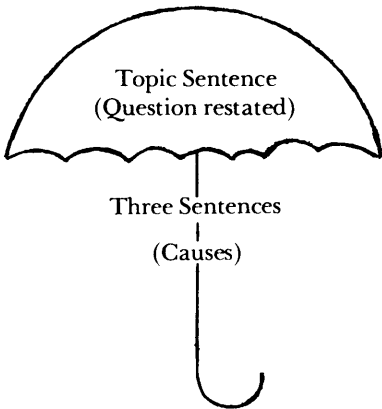
History essay-question: "Why did the era of open-range cattle raising come to an end in the latter part of the 1880's?"

Analysis: The word "why" is a cause-effect clue word. It implies "because . . ."

"The word "why" is a request that the student supply reasons or causes.

The phrase ". . . era of open-range cattle raising come to an end . . ." indicates the result or effect of the causes.

Pattern to be used: Cause-effect. The student will use the Umbrella Form with the result as the topic sentence:



Topic Sentence
(Question restated)

Three Sentences
(Causes)

Conclusion

Essay-Answer:

The era of open-range ranching ended in the latter part of the 1880's for several reasons. First of all, the area of the Great Plains had become over-stocked and there wasn't enough grass to feed the cattle. Ranchers found that disease spread easily on the plains from animal to animal and they couldn't care for their cattle properly. Finally, breeding to improve the cattle was impossible with open-range conditions. The day of the range-riding cowboy, romantic and adventurous, was over.

The answer to the right of the Umbrella Form contains five sentences which include three causes of the end of open-range cattle raising. Naturally, the student can give more reasons if he wishes, but the answer is complete as given.

Any student benefits from the acquisition of skills that bring order to the knowledge that he wishes to express. My students have benefited from the combination of reading and writing skills. They have learned considerable history and have sharpened their ability to do critical thinking.

Works Cited

¹Harold Herber. *Teaching Reading in the Content Area*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1970, pp. 104-106.

²Dorothy Rich. *WRITING: Success for Children Begins at Home*. Washington, D.C.: Home and School Institute, 1972, pp. 6-9.

TEN SECOND REVIEWS



Winter '77

Allington, Richard L., "A Note on the Jordan Left-Right Reversal Test," *Academic Therapy*, (Summer 1976) 11:409-414.

This article of evaluation and criticism would not be as informative and educational as it is, if it were not for the fact that the author of the Left-Right Reversal test, Brian T. Jordan, were not present in the next article to defend his work. Allington, who is known to regular readers of RH, has helped all reading professionals take a close look at reversals and the problems inherent in measuring and interpreting results in diagnosis.

Bradley, John Michael, "Using Readability to Improve the Content Validity of Informal Placement Tests," *Reading Improvement*, (Fall 1976) 13:182-191.

The author did a comprehensive study of the amount of variation within and between basal readers and workbooks. He found much disagreement between readability levels and publishers' designated reading levels. The article includes names of series and variance ranges found.

Chall, Jeanne S., *Reading and Development*, International Reading Association, 800 Barksdale Road, Newark, Delaware, 19711, 20 pps.

The booklet is a printed form of a keynote address, given at the opening of the twentieth annual IRA convention in New York, brings up some important questions about the state of reading and the progress made in reading education. Doctor Chall's talk is essentially a plea for less specificity in testing and diagnosis, and for more flexibility in the relationship of teacher to student. The report on the state of reading is optimistic and positive.

Carver, Ronald P., "Word Length, Prose Difficulty, and Reading Rate," *Journal of Reading Behavior*, (Summer 1976) 8:193-203.

Students tend to read materials at a rate which is influenced by the level it is written for and by the reasons for reading. Carver's study seems to refute the idea that reading rate rests mainly on difficulty which is measured by word length and sentence length.

Dyrli, Odvard Egil, "Programmed Piaget," *Learning*, (October 1976) 5: 78-86.

Because important principles expressed by Piaget have been misunderstood and/or misapplied in schools, the author has adapted a chapter of his new book *Implementing Intellectual Development Assessments* to help readers take a fresh look at the stages of mental growth.

Frederick, E. Coston, "The Peripatetic Professor Learns," *Journal of Reading*, (October 1976) 20:9-13.

Often, a single sentence or line will stand out in an article as a gem of wisdom. This article has several such lines, being a frank account of a teacher's hitchhiking trip to Alaska. Chance acquaintances' reflections on their impressions of the good that teachers do are worth thinking about.

Ganier, Ann S., "The Post Oral Reading Cloze Test: Does It Really Work?" *Reading World* (October 1976) 16:21-27.

A variation of the cloze test is described here as useful in measuring student comprehension of material, after tests which compared the conventional cloze procedure to a cloze test administered after oral reading of the passage. While the results are not of immediate use to the classroom teacher, the ideas generated by the research are most stimulating.

Hall, Mary Anne, "Prereading Instruction: Teach for the Task," *The Reading Teacher*, (October 1976) 30:7-9.

Because the prereading activities are so important to the development of concepts and skills which lead to reading, this author suggests involving print in the foundation work with children. Citing convincing evidence in the literature, Hall points out many advantages and benefits to be gained through the use of letters and words in readiness activities.

Heath, Earl J., Patricia Cook, and Nancy O'Dell, "Eye Exercises and Reading Efficiency," *Academic Therapy*, (Summer 1976) 11:435-445.

While most experts agree that "smooth, coordinated ocular-motor control" and the achievement of efficient reading are related, they do not agree on the theory that eye movement drills lead to better reading. This article concludes that use of the "Bender facilitation exercise program" yields convincing evidence of greater skills and efficiency in reading.

Heinrich, June Sark, "Elementary Oral Reading: Methods and Materials," *The Reading Teacher* (October 1976) 30:10-15.

While accepting the school's major goal of producing independent silent readers, the author argues in favor of teaching good oral reading in elementary grades. This cogent article includes a list of sources for oral reading instruction, as well as many suggestions for application.

Hill, Charles H., and Linda J. Gattis, "Teaching the Restless Ones," *Reading World*, (October 1976) 16:28-34.

A capable writer working in the area of special education gives the reader a bonus. The article, written with facility and acumen, deals with that area of remedial work we call hyperactivity and its accompanying difficulty, inattention. Besides dissipating some mistaken ideas many teachers tend to have about hyperactivity, the article offers a few truly original and practical thoughts on how teachers should regard these students who cannot pay attention.

Kaufman, Maurice, "The Oral Reading Sample in Reading Diagnosis," *Reading World*, (October 1976) 16:39-47.

This scholarly paper takes note of the questions which have been raised regarding the usefulness of oral reading for purposes of diagnosis, and proposes procedures by which diagnosis of word analysis needs can be accomplished.

Lamme, Linda Leonard, "Are Reading Habits and Abilities Related?", *The Reading Teacher*, (October 1976), 30:21-27.

Lamme refutes the assumption that good readers are avid readers, and shows that we know little about students who score high on reading ability tests. She further suggests that we have been so busy teaching reading skills that we have neglected our obligation to encourage free reading among our students.

Marzano, Robert, Donna J. Barbar, Nan Breen, Colleen Larson, Sheryl Larson, and Patricia Tilton, "Sound Discrimination and Reading Comprehension in Middle School," *Journal of Reading*, (October 1976) 20:34-36.

The results of this study indicate a definite relationship between auditory discrimination and reading achievement. The authors suggest more emphasis and care in reviewing vowel sounds with middle school students.

McWilliams, Lana, and Perry McWilliams, "What are Reading Teachers Doing to Their Students' Personalities?", *Reading Improvement*, (Fall 1976) 13:174-179.

All reading teachers share a common concern for the welfare and growth of students in their charge under atypical school conditions. In this article, the research centers around the effects of one-to-one teaching in reference to student self-confidence and perceived ability to control forces which affect one's life. Conclusions imply some need to re-examine our remedial programs and teaching strategies.

Pýrczak, Fred, "Reducing Reading Illiteracy by Improving Reading Materials," *Reading Improvement*, (Fall 1976) 13:159-162.

In this article, the author examines the assumption that publishers have made "everyday reading materials as readable as possible." His findings do not support the assumption. His recommendation is that many companies would benefit greatly if they re-wrote materials (contracts, directions, etc.) so they might be more easily understood by more people.

Shender, Karen Joseph, "Bilingual Ed," *Learning*, (October 1976) 5:32-41.

Shender's article is comprehensive, and is especially helpful for readers who want to know more about the history and development of programs for students who come from other than the Anglo tradition and language. The author includes much factual data and addresses of agencies from which resource material may be obtained.

Shuman, R. Baird, "Open-ended Stories and Basic Reading Skills," *Journal of Reading*, (October 1976) 20:18-22.

The author, one of the feature writers in RH, suggests ways to entice even the most severely handicapped students to attempt the thinking and reading that accompanies carrying unfinished stories to some conclusion. Shuman goes into detail to demonstrate the versatility and high yield benefits of the technique.

NEW MATERIALS

Sandra Ahern

READING CONSULTANT, COMSTOCK, MICHIGAN

Why Am I Different? by Norma Simon. Published by Albert Whitman and Company, 1976, 560 West Lake Street, Chicago, Ill., 60637, 32 pps., Grades K-2.

What does it mean to be different? How do we feel about it? The author uses everyday situations to show how boys and girls become aware of the similarities and differences through comparison, recognition, and analysis. The book makes a strong positive statement: "I am different and being different is O.K."

Mystery of Lonely Lantern by Florence Parry Heide and Roxanne Heide. Published by Albert Whitman and Company, 1976, 128 pps., Grades 3-8.

Suspense builds in this new Spotlight Club Mystery when, after seeing a mysterious stranger in an abandoned house on Halloween, the junior detectives try to learn the identity of the black-masked figure. The story is written and plotted appealingly for the special reader.

NOTE: The following books, reviewed in the fall '76 issue, are also from the Albert Whitman & Company, 560 West Lake Street, Chicago, Illinois, 60637.

Soccer Hero, by Mike Neigoff
Benny Uncovers a Mystery, by Gertrude Chandler Warner
Grandma is Somebody Special, by Susan Goldman
You Go Away, by Dorothy Corey
Cuando Me Enoja, by Norma Simon
A Button in Her Ear, by Ada N. Litchfield
All Kinds of Families, by Norma Simon
Skateboard Four, by Eve Bunting
Codes for Kids, by Burton Albert, Jr.

The Diagnostic Inventory of Basic Skills by Albert Brigrance. Published by Curriculum Associates, Inc., 94 Bridge Street, Newton, Mass., 02158, 1976, 162 pps.

The purpose of this system is to assess basic readiness and academic skills from kindergarten through sixth grade. The in-

ventory allows the teacher to make detailed diagnosis and evaluation. The manual also makes it easy for the teacher to prescribe an instructional program tailored to meet the needs of the child.

The sequence of reading and computational skills includes levels from readiness through several skills in each category of reading, language skills, and mathematics. With the outstanding guidance the examiner is given through the various sub-tests, elementary teachers should find they can reach an accurate evaluation and diagnosis of any student's basic skills.

Reading Aids Through the Grades—A Guide to Materials and 440 Activities for Individualizing Instruction by David H. Russell and Etta E. Karp. Revised by Anne Marie Mueser, Teachers College Press, Columbia University, N.Y., N.Y., 10027, 338 pps., 1975.

The four hundred activities in this revised edition are divided into three major areas: reading readiness, beginning reading, and advanced reading skills. Activity objectives are listed, and numbered to accompany the ideas in each of the major areas. Many, many illustrations are given to help the teacher prepare the materials. Of further assistance to teachers is the annotated list of relevant reading materials published recently.

NEW MATERIALS

Ron Crowell

WESTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY

The Child as Critic: Teaching Literature in the Elementary School, by Glenna Davis Sloan, Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 130 pps., 1975.

Teaching Literature: Designs for Cognitive Development, by Deborah Elkins, Merrill, 1976, 323 pps.

These two books present a refreshing view and some unique suggestions for developing children's thinking skills through the teaching of literature. Both books are specifically about the place of literature at the center of the language arts curriculum, and build compelling cases for the development of thinking skills and imagination through a cohesive, language centered curriculum. *The Child as Critic* is aimed at the elementary program, while *Teaching Literature* is directed at the adolescent student in the secondary school.

Dr. Sloan bases her thesis in *The Child as Critic* on ideas about teaching literature and the framework for criticism of literature as expressed by Northrup Frye, University of Toronto. She has skillfully integrated his theory into practical and creative suggestions related to the study and composition of poetry and story. However, this book is not just a "how-to—" book. Each suggestion is solidly grounded on the theory of children's needs and an overall conception of their growth toward "more fully developed human beings."

Dr. Sloan's view is in opposition to what she calls the "skills and drills" approach, and to fragmentation of the teaching of language arts. Rather, she calls for unification of children's learning around the study of literature in elementary school, involving all language arts. As she points out, "The literate person, however, is not one who *knows how* to read, but *one who reads*; fluently, responsively, critically, and because he wants to . . .

. . . In the drive toward literacy , we have splintered the subject 'English' into a number of discrete entities: reading, listening, speaking, writing, spelling, grammar—each with its own textbooks, drills, exercises, and timetable slots. Reading in particular has often been divorced from the rest of the 'language arts,' sometimes taught to children by teachers who teach them no other language activity. New knowledge from linguistics and literary criticism indicates the folly of this fragmented approach . . ."

Through the study of literature children can become critics, and in this

reference to literary criticism, Dr. Sloan reaches her main proposition. The structure of literature provides a deductive framework for the teacher. "The student is led toward these understandings inductively. With the deductive framework to guide him, the teacher structures learning sequences that give the child scope for asking questions, forming his own conclusions, and testing these against evidence." (p. 47) The student is helped to develop "educated imagination" which is the "constructive power of the mind."

In the chapters on the study of poetry and the story and composing poetry and story, the author presents many, many ideas developed around "learning sequences," which will be of use to the elementary teacher at all levels. These ideas and activities provide the bases for a comprehensive teaching program in the language arts.

Teaching Literature by Deborah Elkins is also a book of practical suggestions which is solidly grounded in theory. The book is directed toward the secondary school and is based on the work of Piaget. Since the secondary school is functionally divided into subject matter areas the author does not make the same argument for an integrated program as Sloan does. However, the effect of her suggestions appear to be very similar. The centrality of literature in the language arts program, systematically approached, will lead to the development of higher level cognitive skills in adolescent learners. She also views the ultimate goal to be the development of the fully functioning human who is sensitive to the human condition.

The discussion of Motivation and Cognition in the first chapter is cogent and should prove especially useful to the perceptive teacher. The chapters on "Teaching the Short Story," "Teaching the Novel," "Engaging in Drama," "Experiencing Poetry," and "Coping with the Essay and Exploring Biography" provide very thorough discussions and many useful ideas for the teacher.

These are both fascinating and important books and should provide many ideas which teachers at all levels can put into practice. Not all people will agree with the thesis each author proposes, but the emphasis on the development of higher order thinking skills is something all teachers must concern themselves with. They provide one more perspective in the growing awareness of the importance of language and thought in all of education.

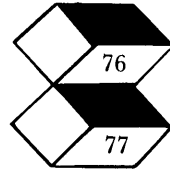
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PROGRAM

HOMER L. J. CARTER READING COUNCIL
INTERNATIONAL READING ASSOCIATION



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.