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READING ACHIEVEMENT AND THE ADMINISTRATIVE TEAM

A few days ago I read a report entitled "School Factors Influencing Reading Achievement: A Case of Two Inner-City Schools."¹ It is a document which every school administrator should study and consider carefully. The report is an account of an in-depth examination of two elementary schools, and the findings suggest that many of the major determinants of student achievement are factors over which the school *has* control. The two schools selected for study were similar in student population, teacher preparation, equipment, and resources. Nevertheless, pupils in School A consistently outperformed the pupils of School B on reading achievement tests. The major area of difference between the schools was that the administrators of School A had identified reading as a significant school problem and had developed a coherent plan of action to provide leadership for classroom teachers. School B had not. Many professional personnel in the less effective school apparently considered the students' reading problems to be due to non-school factors and were pessimistic about the school's ability to cope with these problems. Consequently, they created an environment where children failed because they were not expected to succeed.

Administrative behavior, policies, and practices have significant impact on a school's effectiveness. The quality and attitude of the administration can strongly influence the learning situation. An administrative team capable of developing and implementing a plan for dealing with reading problems can dramatically affect students' performance in reading.

The administrative team of every school system throughout the land needs to examine its practices in order to determine whether they are doing all they can to develop within their schools a stimulating and positive learning environment. The administrative team needs to answer critically and conscientiously the question: Are we really providing the kind of leadership in our schools which is essential to effective reading achievement? The administrative team should not lose sight of the fact that many of the major determinants of student achievement are factors over which the school *does* have control.

Dorothy J. McGinnis
Editor

¹ A copy of the report may be obtained from Daniel Klepak, Director, Office of Education Performance Review, State Capitol, Albany, N. Y. 12224.



TEACHER EDUCATION IN THE FIELD OF READING*

David B. Doake

CHRIST CHURCH TEACHERS COLLEGE, NEW ZEALAND

For too long a pervasive idea in the field of teacher education has been that primary teachers only, and more especially those primary teachers who are concerned with the education of the very young, have the sole responsibility for teaching the students who are moving through our educational institutions how to read. The beginning and the end of the process of learning to read effectively have been left almost entirely in the hands of the primary teacher, who, up until recently, has experienced only minimal courses in the field of reading as part of his pre-service training. One of the main purposes of this paper will be to attempt to dispel this limited and educationally naive idea; more than lip service must be given to the truism that the development of the individual's ability to read is a continuous process.

Throughout this paper the term teacher is used to refer to any person who is charged with the responsibility of causing students to learn at any level of education. The term student refers to any individual pursuing learning at any educational institution.

The need for teacher education in the field of reading

It is not difficult to find reasons why we should provide pre-service programmes in the study of reading for our potential teachers. Although the available evidence indicates that the students in our schools, colleges and universities are reading slightly better than ever before, the evidence would also indicate that these educational institutions still contain far too many students who are failing in reading, students who are reading well below their potential level. Significantly, investigations conducted by Austin et al (1961), Adams (1964), Komarek (1962) and others in the United States indicate that teachers feel inadequately equipped to deal with the diagnosis and treatment of reading problems and ways of meeting individual differences. Austin (1968, p. 363) suggests that these findings indicate a lack of confidence and competence on the part of teachers in these important areas of reading instruction.

Although similar surveys have not been conducted in New Zealand,

* A paper given by D. B. Doake, Senior Lecturer in Education at the Christchurch Teachers College (Primary Division), at the Third New Zealand Conference of the International Reading Association, Auckland, 1972.

a decade of experience in tutoring teachers taking the Diploma in Teaching course in the Teaching of Reading, and numerous formal and informal discussions with teachers, leaves me with a belief that many of them suffer from similar uncertainties. In order, therefore, to contribute to a reduction of the incidence of reading failure in our schools and to increase the confidence and competence of our teachers, we must provide them with substantial courses in the field of reading. These courses should equip teachers with the ability to use diagnostic teaching procedures as an integral part of their daily reading programmes in ordinary classrooms.

The recent Report of the Curriculum Review Group of the New Zealand Post Primary Teachers Association "Education in Change" gives another compelling reason for providing teachers with adequate courses in the study of reading. In the section of the report dealing with "Learning and Enquiry" the committee records that:

The thesis of this section is the development
in young people of the urge to enquire. The
following statement summarises this thesis
simply:

that
enquiry
promotes the ability
to learn how to learn.

This ability subsumes all other competencies
discussed in this report. (1969, p. 39)

That such a statement could emanate from a group of teachers, most of whom have for years been responsible for presenting a curriculum aimed at having students absorb tremendous amounts of relatively useless factual information for the major purpose of retrieving it at examination time, dramatically demonstrates the direction of a highly significant and much needed change in secondary education at least. The emphasis in education is shifting from *product* to *process*, from having pupils memorise large amounts of inert information, to the processes involved in learning and enquiry; from pupils being constantly taught what to learn, to pupils being stimulated, encouraged and taught how to learn.

As this happens the emphasis will shift from teachers being, as Anderson (1968, p. 10) suggests, "primary sources of information" to books being one of the major resource materials used by pupils. If our secondary teachers are not trained in the use of soundly based methods of guiding and teaching their students how to read these

books, “the learning how to learn” philosophy will stagger along like an engine starving for the want of fuel.

Far greater demands than ever before are being placed and will be placed on our students for critical reading. Serious issues, relevant to our students’ futures, pervade our daily life. Students should become involved with them, and many have already expressed a desire to do so. Should the French be permitted to continue their nuclear testing at Mururoa, or anywhere else? What are the arguments for and against the proposed white South African rugby tour of New Zealand? How and why does a situation such as exists in Northern Ireland at present, develop? And what about the problems in the two major conflict areas on the globe—the Middle East and the Indo China peninsula? How and why have these situations been developed and prolonged?

The answers to these questions do not come easily. Maybe there are no definite answers to some of them. And our news media does not always help. It is almost impossible to read news items on major issues that are not slanted in some way. The biases of the reporter or the commentator have to be identified clearly and his credentials established; the reader must have the ability to read critically, and not become emotionally involved too early; he must be able to form opinions on the basis of objectively evaluated evidence. These skills and intellectual processes seldom develop of their own accord “. . . although certain higher mental processes may be important in reading, they are not always present in every pupil’s reading act. In fact, the more advanced reading habits, such as we speak of in critical reading may never appear unless the student is specifically trained for them.” (Spache, 1969, p. 29)

And to see this kind of training stopping once the student enters a tertiary institution is to ignore again the principle of the ongoing nature of the development of the reading process. Our tertiary level teachers have a vitally important and responsible educational role to play here which, unfortunately, they do not always acknowledge or accept.

Who Should be Trained?

Any teacher who uses books as aids to learning needs to be trained in the ways of making the best use of these extensive and usually reliable resource materials. Teachers at kindergarten, primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education all use books. Teachers at all these levels of education therefore should be taught how to make best use of them.

Quality teacher education programmes in the field of reading which ultimately lead to the more effective use being made of books as a means for learning, may not provide a panacea for the improvement of our educational practices, but they are a necessary prerequisite.

Who then should be trained to teach reading, what are some further reasons for this training being provided, and what are some of the appropriate skills to be learned at the various levels of education by both students and teachers?

Kindergarten Teachers

The kindergarten teacher should be trained to a high level of competence in detecting the presence of any deprivation in the language development of her pupils. She should be trained in selecting, planning and providing specific follow-up reinforcement activities to improve the quality of children's language usage. Perhaps more importantly the kindergarten teacher should be trained to identify each child's specific language needs and to provide special programmes, similar to those used by Malmquist in Sweden, in an attempt to correct any deficiencies. This diagnostically oriented observation and teaching would require an expertise which few of our present kindergarten teachers possess.

Through the skillful and seemingly incidental use of suitable stories, poems, jingles and games involving language, the kindergarten teacher should be able to make a significant contribution to each child's perceptual skill development, especially in the area of auditory discrimination. Training in seeing similarities and differences in shapes of various kinds, including letter shapes, could be introduced at kindergarten.

The child's fundamental conceptual understanding of books and pictures as listed by Marion Monroe (1964) should be developed. Special emphasis should be directed towards the gradual growth of an understanding as to "what reading is." I would advocate, even at this early stage, distinguishing between reading aloud and reading silently, in order that a beginning can be made in establishing for the child a realization that reading is not only an oral process, but that it is even more importantly essentially a silent process. Our kindergarten teachers already make a major contribution in leading young children towards discovering the enjoyment to be obtained from books, and the interest and information contained in books. The importance of continuing, and if possible, extending this contribution cannot be over-emphasized.

With these few observations I have only touched on some of the areas in language and reading through which our kindergartens can make a significant and vital contribution to the ability of children to learn to read, without losing the wonderful developmental atmosphere which pervades these educational institutions.

Primary Teachers

It is now accepted in our primary teachers colleges that specific courses in the teaching of reading should be provided for all students. These courses range in lecture contact hours from thirty to approximately seventy clock hours, with some colleges providing additional courses for some students. It must be pointed out however that courses of any substance in reading at our primary teachers colleges are only a recent innovation. Until the introduction of the three-year period of training almost all primary teachers trained in New Zealand colleges would have undertaken courses in reading of no more than eight to ten clock hours. Many of those courses were directed at the teaching of reading at the infant (5- and 6-year-old) stage.

It would be interesting to determine how many teachers, trained before the three-year period of training commenced, could remember studying the teaching of reading while at teachers college. Would there be many of these teachers in our primary schools who have never attended an in-service or refresher course of any substance in the teaching of reading? It would be interesting also to discover how many primary teachers have actually studied an authoritative textbook on reading. How many primary teachers could actually describe the reading process with a definition that goes beyond simple word perception and comprehension? What is the effect on reading teaching in our schools when we have teachers who have never been trained to teach reading, who are working too often from a basis of intuition, incidental learning and on how they think they were "taught" to read? The outcomes of these important questions require objective answers. I cannot provide these but I can make brief comment based on my teaching experience in the field of reading.

Over the past decade I have examined in excess of three thousand reports from student teachers, of diagnostic reading conferences they have conducted with individual children at various levels of our primary schools. The result of a careful examination of these reports is the realization that far too many of these children could be classified as retarded or seriously retarded in reading. They are usually inadequately equipped to analyze independently unknown words. If the beginning sound and context does not give it to them, then they

take their attempt no further. Perhaps even more importantly they do not seem to want to. The ability to demand and obtain meaning from the printed page at anything above a superficial, literal level, appears too often to be seriously lacking. Again they appear neither to see the need to interact with the author's ideas, nor to have the desire to do so.

Even more seriously, when reports are examined of ten-, eleven- and twelve-year-old children who are failing in reading, a number of things become apparent. Many of these children are all too frequently disabled readers from what appears to be the same causal factors that in all probability started them on the road to reading failure when they were five-, six- and seven-year-olds. Their basic sight vocabularies have remained undeveloped, their word recognition skills are minimal, their ability to obtain meaning from reading is severely restricted. Reading has often been seen by these pupils as something difficult, something that they can only fail in, something that is not for them. They have by this stage become educational cripples whose main goal usually is to escape as soon as possible from the verbally loaded learning environment of the school.

We appear to have reached the ludicrous stage where we accept retardation in reading as a normal condition for a number of children. The stage appears to have been reached where teachers expect to have disabled readers present in their classrooms and where they expect to have children fail in reading. The so-called "remedial reading teacher" is now an expected part of the school staffing schedule. The self-fulfilling prophecy has entered the field of reading.

I would surmise that the majority of our primary school teachers could easily point out to us their retarded readers who were achieving below their expectation level and below their chronological age. However, they would seldom identify the child who was reading above his chronological age level but several years below his expectancy level, the child of above average ability who is not reaching his potential, who is all too often supposed to be able to develop competence to an advanced level in reading without the teacher's guidance. These pupils are our really serious reading failures.

The picture I have painted then is a black one. It is meant to be. Too many of the causal factors in reading disability have an instructional base which is frequently the outcome of inadequate teacher education in the field of reading. Many of our teachers do a wonderful job of teaching our children to read, but too many of them actually promote failure rather than prevent it by some of their classroom practices involving reading. "At the base of every failure there is the

contributing factor of the teacher's inability to recognize the pupil's peculiar needs and handicaps, to adapt procedures accordingly." (Spache, 1969, p. vi)

In-service and refresher courses, reading advisors and diploma in teaching courses, handbooks of suggestions and comprehensive syllabuses of instruction, can help to overcome in part this serious gap in the background of too many of our teachers, but unfortunately the mesh of the net is far too large and the net itself not sufficiently wide. There are still too many of our teachers who have only a superficial base from which to begin to teach their pupils to read.

Even with the development of the three-year courses in our teachers colleges too frequently reading is seen as a relatively minor course, when compared with other subject areas. The study of reading, despite its extensive scope, is still not recognized as a subject discipline. The colleges are required to provide courses in the eight traditional subject fields, so that a percentage of their students each year hopefully can go out into schools with an "in depth" knowledge in at least one of these fields as a result of three years of study in their "selected" subject. But not so in reading. Substantial courses for the pre-service training of even a percentage of our teachers in one of the most important facilitating skill and process areas of the curriculum are still not a reality in the majority of our teachers colleges. Reading is probably the only subject taken at our teachers colleges where it is not considered essential for the teaching staff to have any particular qualifications or expertise in their subject field. As long as you have been a primary teacher you can not only teach others to read but you can teach others how to teach reading. This idea that "if you can read you can teach others to read" takes on another even more alarming dimension!

Against this background of reading still not being recognized as a subject discipline in our teachers colleges, against the background of past two-year teacher education programmes in reading being grossly inadequate, and of some of our existing three-year reading teacher education programmes being only minimal in time allocation, what should be the content of pre-service programmes in reading for potential primary teachers?

It is not difficult to find agreement among authorities as to what the scope of these programmes should be. Such essential topics as the following are almost invariably included in any recommended prescription: the nature of the reading process, readiness in reading (the assessment and promotion aspects at all levels), the skills of reading, (vocabulary, word recognition, comprehension, content reading skills,

oral reading), measurement, evaluation and diagnosis, the causes of reading failure, organizing and teaching reading at the different levels of the school, instructional reading materials and the broad field of children's literature. All these topics to be studied in depth.

It is also now generally accepted that student teachers should have extensive, concurrent, supervised practice in diagnostic testing and teaching procedures. This should initially be with individuals, then move through to small and then large groups of children. Some of this teaching should be of the micro-teaching kind. It is also usually recommended that part of this controlled teaching experience should be with children at both ends of the reading achievement continuum, as well as those who are making normal progress.

How much time then would be needed for a programme of this nature to be implemented? My experience, based on six years of taking courses involving this kind of content and methodology for sixty lecture contact hours, is that this period of time is the absolute minimum to provide student teachers with merely a basis from which to begin to learn the complex task of teaching children to read effectively. I would consider that the students who graduate from the Christchurch Teachers College each year have been only introduced to the study of reading and the teaching of reading—even with a sixty lecture hour commitment!

Secondary Teachers

In 1948, the Committee on Reading for the National Society for the Study of Education stated, with reference to the reading required of secondary school and college students, that "The need is urgent on the part of many students for guidance which will aid them in acquiring greater competence in reading, in adjusting to the varied reading demands made upon them, and in securing essential types of understanding and interpretation." (1948, p.2) It would appear logical to assume that the time to start teaching children how to read effectively in the subject fields, is when they begin to study in these areas. It is not enough to be efficient in literary reading and general reading skills common to all reading activities. Regardless of what level of education we look at, the teacher is the person responsible to guide students' development of the full range of the reading skills relevant to the kinds of reading tasks they have to carry out.

But even if the situation was perfect in our primary schools and pupils progressed through to the secondary schools without suffering from any disability in the field of reading, the need for secondary teachers to guide the further development of their students' skills must

always be present. Unfortunately however, "Too often teachers assume that students already possess what they have come to receive: skills and ideas related to a given body of knowledge. One must not assume students' competence; one must assure it. And the assurance comes when students are guided by teachers." (Herber, 1965, p.9)

If there is an urgent need then to upgrade still further the courses in the study of reading at our primary teachers colleges, there is an even more urgent need to develop and implement courses in this field for all potential secondary school teachers. Recommendation 9 of Mary Austin's authoritative study on the training of teachers of reading in the U.S.A. states, ". . . that a course in basic reading instruction be required of ALL (her emphasis) prospective secondary school teachers." (Austin, 1961, p.147)

That we have reached the year 1972 without basic courses in the study of reading being an essential part of a secondary teacher's training, is a clear indication that despite "the impetus provided" for change by the publication of "Education in Change," the emphasis in too many of our secondary schools continues to be placed on the product of education rather than the process. And as Anderson suggests, all too frequently the teacher has been the producer of the information and the information processor rather than the student. The student's task has been that of listening to the teacher and copying his summaries, and one of the unfortunate outcomes of this kind of "teaching" is that if ". . . a pupil is taught rather than encouraged to learn, then the reading skills he requires are minimal and not much beyond word recognition." (Anderson, 1970, p.10)

If a basic course in reading were studied by our prospective teachers for our secondary schools, what might be some of the possible effects of the knowledge and understanding that should develop from this study? How, for example, would the full understanding and acceptance of the concepts of independent and instructional levels in reading alter the use made and the selection of the textbooks for study in the secondary school? What is the effect of having pupils constantly read at their frustration level?

And if our secondary teachers learned and applied the principles of the directed silent reading type lesson to any reading they required their students to do, how would this affect current classroom practice? If, for example, they developed their students' readiness for their required reading by ensuring that they each possessed an adequate background of knowledge and experience to deal with any new concepts met during their reading; that their interest in the subject matter to be

read had been stimulated to such a stage that they actually wanted to read the material; that relevant and realistic purposes had been established so that each student understood clearly why he was reading the material and what he was expected to find out from his reading and retain. How would the application of these simple but basic principles of directing reading change current practice as to the use made of books in our secondary schools? Boyd's (1965, p.15) investigation with Dunedin sixth form students disclosed that for these pupils reading for set purposes was a new idea.

The complaint that subject-teachers usually make in response to the suggestion that they should be "teachers of reading" is that they do not have sufficient time to "teach everything." They seem unaware, as Austin and Morrison (1963, p.50) suggest, that a dichotomy need not exist between content and process. They seem to be unaware of the principle that ". . . the teaching of a particular subject is the teaching of the study of that subject; and that makes inescapable the fact that every teacher is a teacher of reading and study." (Artley, 1969, p.433)

Even more important, however, is the apparent continuing failure on the part of the staffs of our secondary schools to recognize and accept that they have an even greater range of reading ability (and disability) to contend with than their primary counterparts. A study was made of the reading ability of students attending a university secondary school who had an average Wechsler-Bellevue I.Q. score of 119. It was found that ". . . irrespective of the general level of intelligence and reading ability in a given high school, the range of reading ability levels in each grade is at least eight and may run as high as thirteen." (Ketcham, 1959, p.249) The continued development of reading as a tool at least for the academic success of our secondary school students is crucial. That this development is still left almost universally to chance forms the basis of a serious criticism of the curriculum planners of this level of education.

A ray of light has, however, recently appeared on the Christchurch scene where an optional, developmental reading course was oversubscribed with third form students for two semesters at Hagley High School. Under the guidance of the headmaster, Mr. I. D. Leggatt, the staff of the school offered a series of optional courses for third formers including reading. The head of the English department of the school, Mr. Harris, was prepared to "learn on the job" as far as the teaching of reading was concerned, so the course was commenced after an extensive period of planning and consultation. As a result of a recent

visit to the class taking the reading option, I was able to witness a sense of purpose and involvement on the part of both the teacher and the students.

Whether reading is taken as a “subject” or taught as an integral part of the subject areas of the curriculum, substantial teacher education courses in reading are an urgent necessity for all students at our secondary teachers colleges. The content and duration of these courses would need to be similar in many respects to those provided in our primary colleges, but with more time being devoted to the area of the study skills. The International Reading Association’s publication compiled and edited by H. L. Herber (1965), “Developing Study Skills in Secondary Schools” would provide a sound base from which to begin in this important specific area of reading.

These then are some of the more important reasons why pre-service secondary teacher education courses should include the study of reading as a mandatory course to be taken by all students. Mary Austin’s criticism of the situation in the United States with regard to the lack of training of secondary teachers in the field of reading, appears to be applicable to the New Zealand scene. “Because the student entering secondary schools from the elementary grades needs to expand his reading power in order to master the reading skills essential for success in the junior and senior high school, it seems unfortunate that few prospective secondary school teachers receive any instruction in the teaching of reading that will enable them to provide adequate guidance for their pupils” (Austin, 1961, p.146).

Tertiary Level

Teachers in our tertiary institutions frequently operate on a number of false assumptions concerning their own teaching responsibilities and their students’ academic and skill achievements. Two of the most important, relevant to reading, are the assumption that the students taking their courses can read their required textbooks effectively, and the assumption that they have little or no responsibility to assist these students in reading these required texts. This is Herber’s “assumptive teaching” (1970, p.29) at its worst as the available evidence will show.

It is not difficult to find studies which have been conducted in countries other than New Zealand which demonstrate that a high correlation exists between reading ability and scholastic success at the tertiary level. One of the few reported studies in New Zealand in the area of reading conducted at this level of education, however, was made by Small at the University of Canterbury. He was able to report “It can be clearly seen that, in respect of the reading skill measured in

this test, the completely successful students were as a group, markedly superior to failing students. . . . The disparity in reading ability between the successful and unsuccessful students is quite apparent." (Small, 1966, pp.16-18). Witty, in summing up the results of research into the importance of reading as an aid to learning in secondary schools and colleges was able to draw the conclusion that "Scholastic progress is influenced definitely by the extent and nature of the reading competence of students." (Witty, 1948, p.11) Reading skill then is an important component of most students' successes at the tertiary level of education.

What then are some of the findings of research directed at determining the quality of these students' reading abilities?

Unfortunately, despite the obvious importance of reading at the tertiary level, an examination of the literature reporting studies in reading conducted in New Zealand at this level of education reveals a paucity of relevant investigations. It will therefore be necessary to refer almost exclusively to the overseas literature and research findings in this particular field. Frequent discussions with students concerning their reading abilities, individual remedial work with students and from the results of reading achievement testing conducted over a period of eight years involving the processing of approximately 3,000 protocols, have led me to the conclusion that if similar studies were conducted in New Zealand the results obtained could well be comparable to those reported here.

From the results of an extensive investigation into students' reading and study deficiencies conducted at DePaul University in the United States over a period of eight years, Halfter and Douglas (1958) reached some important conclusions. They reported that two-thirds of their entering freshmen lacked the reading skills required for academic success. They found that the chief reading difficulties experienced by college students lay not in the basic skills of word recognition and comprehension, but in the higher order thinking skills involved in most reading activities.

Hadley, in a similar extensive study at the college level, estimated from the results of his investigations that "95 per cent of college students lack adequate study skills and that a relatively small percentage have reading speeds and comprehension skills adequate for handling all college assignments." (Hadley, 1957, p.353).

In a paper presented at the 1968 conference of the Australia and New Zealand Association for the Advancement of Science, Anderson reported from his experience with university and adult reading im-

provement courses that most university students and adults exhibited a number of unsatisfactory reading characteristics. He found, for example, that they were word-by-word readers who regarded all words as essential to comprehension. He found little evidence of their setting useful purposes before their reading and as a result of this their reading was characterized by a lack of flexibility. "The pattern used was that of a slow, intensive reading, with an effort, usually unsuccessful, to read for long term recall of all information, irrespective of its possible usefulness . . . (and that) . . . in the main, readers were unaware of their inefficiency." (Anderson, 1968, p.12).

It is not difficult then to discover studies which report the presence of widespread and serious reading and study disability at the tertiary level of education. But as it was with the transition from primary to secondary education, so it is with the transition from secondary to tertiary level education. Even if the students come through a relatively perfect "system," the tertiary level teacher would still have reading and study teaching responsibilities. In the Sixtieth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Shaw asserts that ". . . the proper teachers to train college (university) students to develop their reading ability are instructors of lower Freshmen." (Shaw, 1961, p.344).

Most of us have attended a tertiary educational institution at some time where we would have been required to read text books or parts of text books. How many of us can remember being given guidance for doing our assigned reading? How was our reading usually assigned? By page numbers or chapters? Did our "teachers" ever give us specific purposes for our reading? Did we know what they wanted us to find out in terms of information and understandings? What kinds of ideas did they want us to develop? What were we expected to retain from our reading? Were we expected to read the whole book and remember everything in it? Some of the effects of the lack of guidance and purpose given to students for their required reading should be noted.

Over two decades ago Burton was strongly critical of the prevailing practices in secondary schools in the United States with regard to the manner in which students were directed to their required reading. His rather pungent remarks could well be directed at many of our tertiary level institutions today. He observed that "The meager, vague, unanalyzed, wholly inadequate type of assignment predominates in the secondary school practically to the exclusion of all other forms. . . . Despite fifty years of attack by competent critics armed with unlimited valid evidence there persists the wholly unexplained assignment aimed

at “covering the text.” . . . It would be difficult to devise an educational practice so grossly ineffective, so certainly calculated to interfere with learning, as a page assignment to a single text followed by a formal verbal quiz. Yet this is the practice used by the great majority of secondary school teachers (Burton, 1950), p. 277).

At the end of 1969 as part of a “College Reading Questionnaire,” 175 first year Christchurch Teachers College students described how they were usually directed to any required reading in their college textbooks. Eighty-three per cent of them reported that they were simply given page numbers or chapters as directions, 2 per cent reported that they were directed to specific topics, 9 per cent said that they were given page numbers or chapters to read “for a test” and 2 per cent were told to look for certain points relevant to a topic. Only 3 per cent (5 students in all) were able to report that they were usually given questions as guides for their required reading.

During 1971, I asked 22 New Zealand university art and science graduates if, during the course of their studies for their various degree units, they had received any guidance in the form of study guides incorporating the use of questions and directions, for their assigned textbook reading. Only one student was able to report that she had received guidance of this nature and this was in one subject area. No student could recall receiving any other kind of assistance aimed at guiding their required reading!

While it could be agreed that guiding students’ reading by questions and directions is not the only method of assisting them to do their assigned textbook reading more efficiently, it is one of the simplest and most effective ways. As part of an investigation conducted by this writer in 1969 and 1970, 458 first- and second-year teachers college students who had been required to make extensive use of questions and directions in completing their assigned reading, were asked to indicate what advantages they saw in using these. The following table summarizes their opinions.

TABLE 1

What values for improving your reading do you see in the type of directed reading where you were asked to record answers to questions? You are asked to ring any of the following list that apply, in the light of your experience with this kind of direction for your reading.

	Percentage
	N = 453
a. Helps you to make your reading more purposeful.	76

b. Motivates you to read your text.	45
c. Aids your understanding of what is being read.	60
d. Helps you to find key ideas and supporting details.	86
e. Assists you to become interested in what you are reading about.	20
f. Stimulates your thinking about what is being read.	41
g. Reduces "verbalism" (slipping over words and ideas not understood).	48
h. Increases your knowledge of the subject matter being studied.	62
i. Helps you to prepare for tests and examinations.	56
j. Makes you more aware of the intense concentration required for "study-type reading."	52
k. Stops your mind "wandering off" on to other things.	21
l. Causes you to read your text more than you would usually do.	74

A great deal of our tertiary level students' time must surely be wasted in trying to "read their teachers" rather than in trying to read their textbooks. A great deal of our tertiary level students' time must be spent in what Perry calls "obedient purposelessness" (1959, p.193), in doing their required reading.

Over forty years ago Washburne (1929) established that question-guided reading was superior to a generalized page assignment. The results of the majority of the recent studies concerned with the characteristics of questions that influence learning from textual materials have been summarized in reviews published by Pyper (1968), Weintraub (1969), Frase (1968 a, 1970) and Rothkopf (1970). The results of my own unpublished research, and the conclusions reached by other researchers in this area, support Washburne's general finding as to the superiority of question-guided reading in facilitating learning and retention from textual materials. Careful attention needs to be given, however, to such factors as question type, placement, frequency, and the contiguity of the questions and the related content. These factors must be considered in the preparation of any reading guides involving the use of questions or directions for required reading.

Shaw, in his chapter in the Yearbook already referred to, outlines the reading teaching responsibilities of those responsible for the education of first year tertiary level students. "Each instructor of lower Freshmen should:

1. Help his students increase their ability to read textbooks and reference materials in his particular field,
2. Lead his students to develop their vocabulary in his field,

3. Aid his students in developing other skills leading to proficiency and scholarship in his field,
 4. Anticipate the special needs of his deficient students.
 5. Induce his students to utilize their precourse experiences in his field,
 6. Create in the minds of his students a strong impression of design in his courses, and,
 7. Cultivate his students' interest in voluntary reading."
- (Shaw, 1957, pp. 345-52).

Is it too much to ask that all our tertiary level teachers accept these responsibilities with regard to their students' reading abilities and their students' urgent need for guidance in reading their texts, especially those students who are just beginning to learn how to learn at this advanced educational level?

If our tertiary level teachers are to continue in their vitally important role of educating our future teachers, they have an inescapable responsibility to provide sound models of excellent teaching practices themselves. It is my belief that too many teachers at this level fail in this important responsibility. And the most visible area of their failure is in the field of reading teaching. Herber forcibly reminds us of our responsibilities here when he points out that "If we accept the thesis that the essence of good teaching is showing students how to do what they are required to do then . . . students must be guided as they read . . . The crucial factor is how one guides his students in the use of materials required in the course. (Herber, 1970, pp. 24-5.)

What is Needed?

As with most urgently required, important and radical changes in any field, the major problem of instituting a change in teacher education in reading lies in the first instance with the number of people available with sufficient expertise to institute the desired and required change.

Although the provision for the study of reading and for the pre-service education of teachers in New Zealand are still looked upon by some, as being catered for adequately by the existing situation, the fact is that there is no way in this country of anyone advancing his knowledge, understanding and expertise in reading beyond the introductory level, other than by pursuing a course of independent study, research and practice. Mary Austin lists in her book *The Torch Lighters* the views of college instructors as to the barriers which they believed were blocking the accomplishments of their course objectives. These are: the lack of time, the burying of the reading course in a language arts and other subject matter areas, inadequate observational

facilities, the placement of the "reading methods" course too early in the pre-service training period, and a total educational environment in some associate schools which was not conducive to effective teacher preparation. Significantly, Austin observes ". . . that not one faculty member admitted deficiencies in his own professional competence . . ." (Austin, 1968, p.384). And yet as her survey of the qualifications of those teaching courses in reading showed ". . . that undergraduate courses in reading instruction were being taught by those whose own preparation had been in education generally rather than in reading specifically." (Austin, 1968, p.383). This situation is strikingly similar to that existing in New Zealand today.

Not only, then, do we have a major problem in the lack of qualified and experienced personnel with the knowledge to institute the needed change, but we are probably faced with the even greater problem of convincing those who are involved in providing for the professional education of teachers that the change is needed. Change means more work, change means more money, change means uncertainty.

Despite these problems of personnel and climate, professional educational administrators cannot surely go on ignoring reports and papers such as Austin's *The Torch Lighters*, already referred to, her scholarly and comprehensive chapter entitled "Professional Training of Reading Personnel" in the Sixty-Seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the study of Education, *Innovation and Change in Reading Instruction*, and Marion Jenkinson's "New Developments in Reading: Implications for Teacher Education" recorded in the proceedings of the Second Invitational Conference on Elementary Education in Canada (1967). The gap between the recommendations of these two leaders in the field of education in reading and what is provided in New Zealand today is chasmatic.

The problem of the availability of qualified personnel can be overcome in part, I believe, by the New Zealander's characteristic capability of "learning on the job." Provided we are aware of it, and provided we are prepared to make allowances for initial mistakes and a slower rate of implementation of change, I have an inherent belief in the "do-it-yourself" capacity of the average New Zealand teacher. Initiative and intuition, energy and enthusiasm backed up by the available local knowledge and overseas experience should allow the following summarized needs in the field of teacher education in reading to be implemented.

I. The Immediate Needs: Pre-Service Education.

The outline presented here refers especially to the pre-service edu-

cation in reading of teachers for the kindergarten, primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education. The content of suggested courses for each of these levels has already been referred to in the body of this paper and this will not be repeated here.

- A. The preparation of reading instructors for teacher education institutions.
 1. In-service course for the purpose of *education in reading* for those responsible for presenting reading courses.
 2. In-service course for those responsible for presenting reading courses at different levels of education for the purpose of *co-operative planning* of basic content and methodology. (In November 1970, representatives responsible for reading courses from each primary college and the department met at Lopdell House for the main purpose of reporting what each college was doing in the field of pre-service teacher education in reading and examining the departmental syllabus. This was the first occasion reading personnel from the colleges had ever met. "What we should be doing in the field of reading" was the subject of only one paper.)
 3. National committee be set up involving representatives from all four levels of education to co-ordinate the content and emphasis for teacher education courses in reading at each level.
- B. The preparation of student teachers taking the basic course in reading.
 1. Students should be verbally fluent, sufficiently flexible so that they are open to behaviour change, and be capable, interested readers.
 2. Provision should be built into teacher education courses for those students suffering from reading and other language disabilities to receive corrective treatment. Students who do not respond to corrective teaching should be excluded from the institution with provision made for their return in the future if adequate improvement is demonstrated.
 3. Reading courses for student teachers should always be good models of sound reading practice.
 4. Courses for student teachers in other subject areas should be good models of reading teaching in each subject field.
- C. The content of a basic course in reading.
 Content should be of sufficient depth and breadth to allow students to develop:

1. A thorough understanding of the nature of the reading process, its psychological base and development.
 2. An adequate mastery over the skills of reading.
 3. The skills and abilities necessary to implement a diagnostic approach to the teaching of reading.
 4. A comprehensive understanding of the interrelationship of the language arts in order that they may use every available opportunity to integrate their reading instruction in their future classrooms.
 5. A sufficiently flexible approach to teaching reading in order that they can implement a variety of approaches where necessary.
 6. A detailed knowledge of the field of children's literature, instructional reading materials, and suitable content materials.
- D. The presentation of a basic course in reading.
1. A course of study in the field of reading should involve the student in both theory and practice, with a minimum lecture hour commitment of 80 hours. The initial stages of the course should involve the student in gaining mastery over the content of reading and in studying methods of skill teaching.
 2. Diagnostic teaching experience should be obtained through a sequence of experiences arranged in consequently more complex situations:
 - a. Experience gained in teaching reading with one child.
 - b. Experience gained in teaching reading with a small (2 to 3 children) relatively homogeneous group involving minimal individualization.
 - c. Experience gained in teaching reading with a small (3 pupils of same age) heterogeneous group, involving maximum individualization.
 - d. Experience gained in teaching reading with a larger (6 to 7 pupils) group at the same instructional level but with varying skill needs.
 - e. Experience gained in teaching reading with a whole class over a continuous period of time.
 3. Concurrently with these teaching experiences students should be:
 - a. Reporting, explaining and justifying their teaching experiences to other students and to the teacher.
 - b. Involved in micro-teaching occasionally for the purposes of:

- i) developing an awareness of the effectiveness of their teaching activity.
 - ii) being initiated into the art of self-criticism.
 - c. View video-tapes of actual teaching situations for the purpose of:
 - i) learning to conduct diagnostic testing sessions,
 - ii) learning teaching techniques,
 - iii) the analysis of lesson plans, and
 - iv) analyzing classroom organization.
 - d. Continuing their study of the theory and content of reading.
 - e. Involved in the concurrent study of the other language arts; listening, speaking and writing.
 - f. Involved in the concurrent study of children's literature, including graded instructional reading materials.
- E. The content of selected study in reading of two and/or three years duration.

The need is urgent to send at least some students out into schools with an "in-depth" background in the study of reading. The following list of topics is not to be taken as definitive:

1. The reading process.
2. The nature of language development and reading at various stages of growth.
3. Measurement, evaluation and diagnosis including reading test construction of various kinds.
4. The content of reading. The learning processes involved in skill development.
5. Reading disability. A study of the whole field leading to an in-depth study of some specific learning disabilities hindering reading growth. Related clinical observation and experience.
6. The whole field of reading materials including book selection.
7. Research in reading. The conducting of researches individually and collectively in selected areas. Learning the relevant research techniques.

II. The Immediate Needs: In-service Education.

There is a pressing need for massive in-service teacher education programmes in reading for teachers at kindergarten, primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education. Austin reports on a study conducted by Komarek of 52 school systems to learn how the deficiencies of retarded readers were met. The findings of this study would, I am sure, be repeated in this country if it were conducted.

Komarek found that classroom teachers were responsible for all the help given to poor readers in 70 per cent of the systems studied. She found that most of the teachers had received no training in determining reading retardation and had had no formal course work in the diagnosis and treatment of reading disabilities. Austin comments: "Clearly a dilemma exists: many teachers are fully aware of their inadequacies as they try to discharge the responsibilities which schools impose on them, but they have not taken the initiative to remedy the situation. Nor can the school administrators (headmasters) be absolved completely of blame. They frequently have permitted unqualified personnel to work with disabled readers . . ." (1968, p.364).

This dilemma already faces New Zealand teachers. To whom can they report their inadequacies in the diagnosis and correction of reading difficulties? Is it characteristic of our teachers to admit their inadequacies to departmental inspectors so that they can receive help? Can *one* reading advisor for each Education Board district meet these needs?

1. In-service programmes should not be limited to a few teachers. There is an urgent need for an extensive re-education programme that eventually reaches all teachers. The programme should be re-cycled every five years.
2. In-service programmes should become more of a co-operative venture between university, teachers college, Education Department and teachers. Reading Advisors should be based in teachers colleges, both primary and secondary. Reading teaching staff in colleges should be increased to administer and teach in regular in-service programmes.
3. The content of in-service programmes should always be geared to the specific needs of the teachers and the children they teach.

III. The Needs of the Future.

1. Professional courses for basic and advanced study in reading should be extended to allow for continuous study leading to advanced degrees in reading. Reading should become a "selected study" in our teachers colleges.
2. Reading clinics as joint university and teachers college ventures should be established on campuses for three major purposes:
 - a. To provide corrective work with students.
 - b. To provide opportunity for clinical experience for those involved in the teaching of reading courses.

- c. To provide opportunity for clinical experience for those involved in studying reading.
3. Experimental programmes should continue to be encouraged leading to beneficial innovations in the teaching of reading and developing a climate of investigation and research in our schools.
4. Information retrieval resources need to be developed in the field of reading.
5. Opportunity should be provided for the release of teaching staff at the various levels of education to carry in-depth researches in the field of reading. The example of the benefits derived from extensive studies of this kind are to be seen clearly in the outcomes of the work of Dr. Marie Clay in Auckland.
6. Opportunity should be provided for those involved in the pre-service education of teachers to observe their students teaching in the field of reading in their own classrooms, through some form of intern programme.

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THE S.S. READING: DOES IT FLOAT?

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Increasing numbers of both elementary and secondary teachers have implemented Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) as a part of their program in reading instruction. Much of this implementation has occurred and will continue primarily on the recommendation of its proponents. There has been no serious examination of the assumptions by these proponents of its effectiveness in bringing about the benefits claimed for it. The tremendous importance attached to learning to read and the limited time available in which to provide instructional activities toward that end should lead us to a rigorous evaluation of SSR whenever and wherever it becomes a component of the reading program.

Briefly described, SSR is a daily, timed period of enforced silent reading. McCracken (1971) suggests that teachers adhere to the following rules:

1. Each student must read silently.
2. Teachers must read during SSR.
3. Each student selects a single book.
4. A timer should be used.
5. No reports required or records kept.
6. Begin with whole classes or larger groups of students.

According to Mork (1971), free reading, enrichment reading, library periods, and other opportunities which provided for silent reading of individually selected materials might be considered the forerunners of SSR. What is unique to SSR is (1) the structure of the silent reading periods (previously described) and (2) the outcomes to be expected from the use of SSR in the classroom. The latter is perhaps most subject to controversy.

The outcomes or benefits one is led to expect from SSR are numerous. Oliver (1970) has suggested the following as positive effects of SSR upon readers:

1. Increased attention span.
2. Improved self-discipline.
3. Increased sophistication in the self-selection of reading materials.
4. Improved acceptance and enjoyment of reading.
5. Refined and extended reading skills.

In a discussion of the effects of SSR on children, Mork (1971) has suggested that (1) children and teachers enjoy the SSR periods, (2) children read books, (3) reading is sustained over long periods of time, and (4) more ideas and information are acquired which results in more reading.

If SSR were to produce the results listed above and if they were to be long lasting results, it would be one of the most powerful instructional techniques available to the teacher of reading in both elementary and secondary school.

The Evidence

Inherent in the claims for the above stated outcomes are the implications that (1) some kind of measurement has taken place and (2) that SSR has been determined to be the cause of the effects. Unfortunately, objective data derived from controlled research which would support the claims made for SSR are almost nonexistent.

This potentially powerful technique for teaching reading receives its support almost entirely from subjective data such as: (1) the increased popularity of SSR; (2) positive comments from students who have experienced SSR; (3) positive comments from teachers who have used SSR; and (4) authoritative proclamation. All are questionable as evidence for those outcomes claimed by proponents of SSR.

Increased popularity. It is myopic to consider unproven instructional effectiveness as the causative factor regarding popularity. Sustained Silent Reading is a procedure which requires little, if any, instructional preparation on the part of the teacher. This fact alone could account for its increased popularity. If it is acclaimed by some authorities as a desirable practice and if it requires little work to initiate, then it could be popular as an "acceptable" alternative to a host of current practices. While this hypothesis may be unlikely, it is important to note that there are plausible causes other than effectiveness which might explain an increase in popularity of SSR. In any case, popularity is not an indicator of the effectiveness of SSR—it is an indicator of the extent to which it is implemented.

Positive student comments. It is gratifying to have those under one's tutelage enjoy their work in school, and proponents have noted a considerable amount of positive feedback to teachers from students about SSR. These comments, however, are not appropriate data for evaluating the effectiveness of SSR in terms of cause-and-effect. Such positive comments about SSR by students suggest only that there is something about a complex of factors which appeals to them. It may be the freedom to read what one wants to read or, on the other hand,

it might be the lack of demand for output which is appealing. The multiplicity of variables relative to positive student feedback makes it impossible to make productive cause-and-effect statements about SSR as an instructional technique.

It might be argued that it is not important to know why students like the SSR period and that it is important only that they enjoy the reading time. The ultimate goal, after all, is the development of readers who read. If, however, we want to develop readers who will read for a lifetime, then it is important to know that they enjoy the “R” of SSR so that assumptions regarding transfer of habit to daily living can be made more appropriately.

Positive teacher comments. Positive comments by teachers are also invalid when used as supportive data for the effectiveness of SSR in the reading program. Teachers cannot make cause-and-effect statements when the information necessary to do so is not available to them. Furthermore, teachers’ comments might vary greatly depending upon who is asking the questions—a fellow teacher, a principal, a college professor with vested interests in SSR and held in high esteem by the teacher, a college professor with vested interests in SSR and held in low esteem by the teacher, and so forth.

Selection bias is another problem to consider regarding the validity of teachers’ comments as evidence for the effectiveness of SSR. Those who are especially interested in seeing SSR work may tend to report those comments which support their position and to rule out as invalid or ignore those comments which do not support their position. It could be hypothesized that there is a direct, inverse relationship between the extent to which one is committed to an idea and the extent to which one assimilates negative data.

Authoritative proclamation. Much of the “truth” of SSR is derived by a method of authority. That is, something is so because someone we view as an authority says that it is. We as teachers must realize, however, that authorities in education as elsewhere, despite years of experience and impeccable credentials, can argue their preferences and beliefs as though they were fact. Apparently, such has been the case with SSR. While the instructional outcomes have been presented as *fait accompli* by recognized proponents, it is, in fact, impossible to do more than speculate given the amount and kind of data available.

One of the problems authorities in the field of reading face in assessing SSR is that they must deal with the observable and make inferences regarding the unobservable. For example, if children are sitting in their seats looking intently at a book and turning pages every so often, one assumes that they are “reading” in the best sense of the

word. In this way, inferences regarding process are made on the basis of observable physical acts. Without measurement and records of reading outcomes, however, it is difficult to know just what has happened in terms of the reading process itself. One must turn pages to read a book, but turning pages does not by itself indicate reading as a cognitive, affective process. A distinction must be made between observable behavior and assumed process.

The foregoing criticisms of the arguments in support of SSR are not intended to deny it status as a sound pedagogical practice. It may well be. Rather, it is a sincere request that the authoritative proponents state clearly that SSR is a preferred activity rather than a proven one, and that its effectiveness in achieving the positive outcomes claimed for it either be substantiated by objective measurement or explicitly assigned to the realm of belief. To continue to list as fact what is only assumed is ultimately unfair to those most involved. To sense later that what has been implemented in good faith and according to the rules does not produce the effects it promised can only result in greater frustration and pessimism among teachers responsible for the difficult task of making reading both possible and pleasurable for children.

SUMMARY

Sustained Silent Reading may well be a powerful technique for teaching reading. Unfortunately, the data which support SSR are extremely subjective and leave most questions regarding its assumed effectiveness unanswered. There is an urgent need for reading specialists and teachers to examine SSR through objective data to determine how well it works, with whom, and under what conditions.

Though it has never been well argued in the currently available literature, it is possible that the case for SSR in the reading program would best be advanced by simply describing it as a period of time and a set of conditions by which to provide opportunity for individualized, silent practice of the reading skills and attitudes developed through various other techniques of reading instruction. Honestly stated, this is perhaps justification enough. All other claims must be rigorously evaluated.

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THE RESURRECTION OF COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS¹

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There is a growing concern by the public that schools are not preparing their students to think critically. This is exemplified by the numerous articles appearing in newspapers and in magazines. It appears to be the contention of many parents that the primary goal of learning is the retention of factual information.

Some teachers, in various school systems visited by the writer, have likewise found, with increasing frequency, that many of their students respond merely with factual information to questions asked of them. Possible reasons for this phenomenon are: (1) the design of the comprehension questions presented to the student, (2) the emphasis that students respond to questions in a concise manner, and (3) the unwillingness or inability of the student either to elaborate or to respond in a manner that will promote meaningful discussions. Teachers, therefore, should not stop at the response that provides only factual information. They must lead their students to responses which require higher levels of thinking.

The comprehension questions accompanying a number of commercially available reading materials appear to have been designed merely to test the degree of competency of a student in some specific or isolated skill. Should the responses of a student to these comprehension questions be used for diagnostic purposes, then, in the writer's experiences, this may result in:

- (1) the teaching of each specific skill in isolation
- (2) the student's believing that there is little inter-relationship of comprehension skills.

PURPOSE

The purpose of this paper is to present and to discuss one set of comprehension questions found in *A Teacher's Guide To Accompany The Macmillan Readingtime Books* (4). This particular guide is not commercially available. It was prepared by the writer and has been in use, since 1971, in the developmental reading program of the Montvale, New Jersey Public Schools.

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THE TEACHER'S GUIDE

Description

The Macmillan Readingtime Books are among those materials which are used in the Montvale Public Schools for supplementary, recreational, and developmental reading. According to an informal survey conducted in a number of school systems (5), these materials are used for recreational and supplementary reading but not for instructional purposes.

The teacher's guide described herein contains comprehension questions, exercises, and activities related to the stories in the Readingtime Books. The reading levels of the 19 stories covered in this guide range from preprimer through 22. (Additional guides which cover the 31 and 32 reading levels are in preparation.) This particular guide was designed primarily as an instructional tool to help develop cognitive skills in a sequential manner and critical reading-thinking skills.

For the purpose of both brevity and illustration, only the comprehension questions related to the story entitled *Scared Kitten* (6) are included in this paper.

Format of the Comprehension Questions and the Rationale for Their Design

The format of the comprehension questions is presented in Fig. 1. An attempt has been made to phrase all questions in a manner that can be understood by the children. The answers to the questions have been included in parentheses that follow the questions. The teacher can accept from the student any answer that is similar in nature or paraphrased. Should the child's answer differ completely from that which has been provided, this too can be accepted providing it is a logical response. The reading-thinking skill that one is attempting to develop through the use of these questions is indicated within the brackets that follow the answers.

FIGURE 1

Figure 1. Comprehension Questions Related to the Story Entitled *Scared Kitten*, Reading Level: 22.

through page 7

1. Where did the mother cat make a home for her kittens?
(in an old doghouse) [recall of detail]
2. Why did she want the kittens to stay in the doghouse?
(in order that they be safe) [recall of detail]
3. What was the mother cat trying to do for her kittens by telling them to play inside? (protect them) [making inferences]

4. What was she really teaching the kittens?
(to be afraid of all dogs and boys) [making generalizations]
5. What words would best describe the black kitten?
(playful, curious, adventurous, daring) [vocabulary]

through page 14

6. What did the black kitten do when he saw the two kind boys?
(He ran away.) [recall of detail]
7. Why didn't he know that the two boys were kind? (He didn't trust any boys. He was afraid of all boys.) [perceiving relationships]
8. What happened when he met the kind dog and the children?
(He ran away.) [recall of detail]
9. Why did he run away? (The mother cat taught him to be afraid of all people and dogs and not to trust them) [perceiving relationships]

through page 19

10. The black kitten was afraid of boys and dogs. Did other things frighten him too? (yes) [recall of detail]
11. Why did he become afraid of big birds and people with big feet?
(He learned through personal experience that animals and people can be cruel.) [making generalizations]

through page 40

12. Discuss two pleasant or happy experiences that the black kitten had. (Melinda and Tommy gave him a home. The big dog saved his life. He was given another home by the old woman and the boy.) [recall of detail]
13. What did these experiences teach him? (All animals and all people are not mean.) [making judgments]
14. Did you boys and girls learn anything from the experience that the black kitten had? (yes)
What did you learn? (People and animals should be trusted until personal experience indicates otherwise.) [drawing conclusions]

() = answer to the comprehension questions

[] = the reading-thinking skill that one is attempting to develop through the use of these questions.

The questions are introduced in a sequential hierarchy of difficulty. They are designed to lead the student from the concrete to the abstract. As such, they attempt to teach the student to use the factual information directly stated in the selections to infer that which is not directly stated. In this manner:

- (1) recall of detail responses can then be used to elicit inferential responses
- (2) reading and thinking skills will not be developed in isolation by the teacher and will not be used in isolation by the student
- (3) the development of simple skills can be used to develop complex skills which in turn will develop more complex skills of reading and thinking at each level of learning
- (4) the student will be made aware of the inter-relationship of all comprehension skills

The schema for developing higher level cognitive skills is presented in Fig. 2. Each comprehension question requires an isolated response. An aggregate of responses, however, does not consist of isolated units since the components of the aggregate are all inter-related.

Furthermore, in order to develop higher levels of cognitive skills, the responses cannot be used in isolation. For example, questions 1 and 2 must be used not only to elicit the response for question 3 but also to develop the skill, making inferences.

FIGURE 2

Figure 2. Schema for the Development of Higher Levels of Cognitive Skills Using the Comprehension Questions Related to the Story Entitled *Scared Kitten*.

<i>Response:</i>	<i>To Question No.</i>		<i>Response:</i>	<i>For Question No.</i>
factual information	1	leads to	inferred meaning	3
and factual information	2			
factual information	1	leads to	generalizing	4
and factual information	2			
and inferred meaning	3			
factual information	2	leads to	associational thinking	7
and inferred meaning	3			
and generalizing	4			
factual information	2	leads to	associational thinking	9
and inferred meaning	3			
and generalizing	4			
and associational thinking	7			
generalizing	4	leads to	generalizing	11
and associational thinking	7			
and associational thinking	9			
factual information	12	leads to	making judgments	13
making judgments	13	leads to	reasoning	14

Additional Discussion

A Teacher's Guide To Accompany the Macmillan Readingtime Books is the outgrowth of an attempt to continue to develop higher levels of reading and thinking skills of students. The technique applied in using the comprehension questions in this guide is based upon methods employed while teaching in the classroom. The methods employed during this time stemmed from the fact that the comprehension questions contained in a number of the teacher's manuals accompanying reading materials:

- (1) often necessitated rephrasing in order that the student understand that which was asked of him.
- (2) were so designed that they required the asking of a number of additional questions in order to elicit a logical response.
- (3) lacked the sequence or the means to elicit a critical response.

CONCLUSIONS

Skills for the development of critical reading and thinking should be introduced at each grade level from the pre-reading stage on through each level of formal reading instruction. The degree of development of these skills and the format used for their presentation will depend, to a great extent, upon the maturity of the student and his instructional level of reading.

The following points should be emphasized:

- (1) Pictorial, printed, expository, and narrative materials can all be used in an effort to develop critical reading-thinking skills. Likewise, any kind of reading, whether it be developmental or recreational, can be used for the same purpose.
- (2) The design and sequence of comprehension questions should be of such a nature as to enable one to employ the inductive method of teaching.
- (3) It is possible to channel a student's thinking by guiding him from questions that require literal responses to questions that require inferred responses.

One cannot assume that a student will read and think critically unless he is taught to read and think critically.

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MUSINGS OF A SIXTH GRADER

Charlotte S. Ehresman

SOUTHERN MIDDLE SCHOOL, OWENSBORO, KENTUCKY

Creative writing is an unfolding process which I firmly believe is a "must" in every classroom. It is the heart of the language arts program and is an effective therapeutic device for the reenforcement of a child's innermost feelings.

Creative writing is the pulse of any classroom. If enough mental paint has been mixed and the layers of frustration, superimposed inability, fear and embarrassment removed, then children will lay bare their hearts and write about that which is felt to be true. They will come alive on paper, creating a total effect through identification with and an appreciation and understanding of creative writing.

"Poetry," wrote Carl Sandburg, "is a phantom script telling how rainbows are made and why they go away." We have complied with the exhortations of Sandburg to keep our ears open and let noises in from the street, the meadow, our memory. The children's writings reflect infinite searching for that which they hold so dear and true. There is beauty and mystery in each child's poem.

A TREE

There you are in that
long brown dress,
You have the funniest
brown hair I have ever seen,
You look like you're going
somewhere, but instead you
just stand there not moving at all,
lazily soaking up the sun.

Debbie Howard

MY SECRET THOUGHTS

As I sit in the classroom bored to death,
my thoughts seem to take wings. As I float
through the clouds I feel so light and there's

[Editor's Note: Each year Ms. Ehresman "publishes" the poems of her sixth grade students. We have selected several for your enjoyment and have placed them on various pages of this issue of **READING HORIZONS**.]

nothing to hold me down. I'm on the
beach, the waves are rolling and trying
to touch my toes. I hear the seagulls
trying to talk to me as they fly above
my head. I'm having such a good time and all
of a sudden the teacher calls "Jan"!
And I had a crash landing.

Jan Kimmel

SNOW

Winter
Cold, white, icy,
fluttering daintily
the earth is a crystal palace
Snow Flakes.

SKY

Daybreak,
The sun peeps out
from behind a mountain,
White pillows float across a blue
background.

Lisa Newcom

FLOWERS

Flowers grow quickly
As if they were pushed out of
The solid black dirt.

Tammy Bradley

I'M A LITTLE GIRL

I'm a lonely girl
On an island all alone
Happy as can be.

Leslie Clark

ECHOES FROM THE FIELD

Joe R. Chapel

A conference entitled, "Secondary Reading: An In-Depth Look," will be held on the campus of Olivet Nazarene College in Kankakee, Illinois on April 18 and 19, 1975. Participating in the conference are some of the nation's foremost secondary reading and educational authorities: Edgar Dale, Daniel Fader, Edward Fry, Dorothy McGinnis, Wayne Otto, Nila Banton Smith, and Francis Oralind Triggs. The purpose of the conference is to explore teaching reading in the content areas and to present the best secondary reading projects in America today.

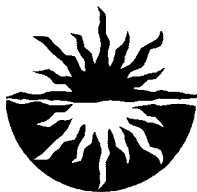
Conference Director Patrick Welch says that the conference will be practical in both format and presentation. Too often conferences stress elementary concepts and procedures. This conference is to look beyond the elementary level and into secondary problems, projects, and specific content area topics. This conference is part of the St. Anne Community School's attempt to involve, stimulate, and educate the secondary student.

This promises to be a powerful conference for people in Secondary Reading. For information regarding registration contact Mr. Patrick Welch, St. Anne Community High School, 650 West Guertin, St. Anne, Illinois 60964 or phone (815) 427-6132.

HORIZONS OF READING EDUCATION:

Self-image and the Disabled Reader

William L. Holladay



Every teacher, whether a reading teacher or a content area teacher, has had the problem of teaching disabled readers and has found to his dismay that not only must a learning disability be confronted, but that often a major portion of this learning disability involves the student's self-image or emotional self-concept. Frustration results for both the teacher and student. There seem to be no magic formulae for treatment of this problem, but many teachers are finding some very creative solutions. Ms. Shirley Madsen, a reading teacher in Helena, Montana is one such teacher.

While teaching at Mountain View School, a girl's correctional institution in Helena, Ms. Madsen conducted an experiment in "cross-grade" or "cross-level" tutoring. A strong believer in the theory that poor self-image or concept interferes with treatment of the disabled reader, Ms. Madsen's goals were to improve reading skills and concurrently build self-concepts. Evaluative tests were administered to determine reading level. Disabled readers in the 7th and 10th grade range became the "instructors" for other remedial students in the 4th to 6th grade range, to be termed "clients." Additional positive reinforcement was provided by a payroll system, business contracts and an atmosphere of professionalism. While guidelines were presented and specific goals established, the student participants were strongly guided to view the program as their own through democratic decision making and assumption of responsibility.

Among the materials used were the SRA Kit 111b, SRA RFU Kit, SRA Vocabulab and the Macmillan Spectrum. One hour sessions were held twice weekly. As a learning tool, instructors were encouraged to plan their own lessons, teach themselves how to use the various kits and materials, and keep records of each session. Clients, in turn, were responsible for their own workbooks and for gauging their own progress through the kits.

The Nelson Reading Test and the Nelson-Denny Reading Test were used as entrance exams with The Davis Reading Test, the Wide

Range Vocabulary Test, as well as different forms of the former tests as comparative concluding tests. These yielded mixed data on student gains during the experiment. Eleven of the 13 students who completed the program showed gains on at least one of the tests. Ms. Madsen notes dissatisfaction with the testing instruments as they reflect a white middle class cultural bias and are perhaps deceptive when used for evaluating institutionalized children.

The students' own evaluations were more important, however, than any set of standardized test results could have been. "To be independent, to help someone else, to be responsible, to improve my reading, and to learn how to work with people" were all highly significant comments made by participants. The fact that all participants *thought* their reading had improved and that they frequently spent their earnings on books points toward the assumption that the experiment was highly successful in combating poor self-concept and self-defeating attitudes in the disabled reader.

Ms. Madsen, now teaching at Helena Junior High School, continues to fight the poor self-image in her disabled readers as she sees this as the most important factor at the secondary level. Besides "cross-grade" tutoring, she feels that showing sincere and deep interest in each student's achievements and needs, likes and dislikes is especially important. Every chance for praise and reward is utilized, creating comfortable reading areas, individualizing instructional programs for success, using high interest materials, and advertising in all possible ways the student's good points are all effective methods of confronting the disabling poor self-image of the student with a reading problem.

WE SUGGEST

Eleanor Buelke

Ames, Louise Bates, & Chase, Joan Ames

Don't Push Your Preschooler

New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1974. Pp. x + 212.

Where have all the wee ones gone—
Long time passing?
Where have all the wee ones gone—
Long time ago?
Where have all the wee ones gone?
Gone to pre-school, everyone.
When will we ever learn?
When will we ever learn?¹

After the manner of folk media, the balladeer sings a plaint for young girls and young men facing crucial issues of their times. Writings and protest marches by youth further proclaim their plight. Professional group leaders plead causes for members of their organizations. Politicians wield power and influence for their constituents. Articulation of human rights is accorded accolades in almost every life sphere. But, there is one group that remains relatively unheard, and, because of its age limits, particularly vulnerable to the efforts of its purportedly dedicated and loving caretakers.

Who will sing, or speak up, for the preschoolers, for the very young? Who will rise in protest against thievery that steals from them their precious time for growing; against larceny that removes the three-dimensional real world of playing, acting and doing, to replace it with the unreal world of manufactured rules, structured activities, and the two-dimensional environment of books, and of pencil and paper; against adult abdication of good sense, judgment, and faith in Nature's "own intricate and highly effective plan and pattern" for growth of a fully functioning human infant into a full-fledged adult? Who is to caution against unconsciously self-serving, albeit well-meaning, professionals who use their work "to gratify rescue fantasies" to which young children "lend themselves so easily and exquisitely?"²

Speaking for the very young, in this book, are Ames and Chase, experts in the science and understanding of child behavior. They continue

¹ Paraphrased from the ballad, "Where Have All The Flowers Gone," popularized during the last two decades.

² Bruno Bettelheim, *A Home For The Heart*, p. 11. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1974.

the affirmation of Dr. Arnold Gesell and Dr. Frances Ilg that “behavior is a function of structure.” They suggest that parents not spoil things for their children, and for themselves, by “expecting too much too soon, or by trying to push them into behaviors for which they may not be prepared.” They cite some very good reasons for these admonitions: the important things a normal child needs to learn in his preschool years will come about quite naturally; if a child is not normal, he will need supportive appreciation and understanding, not pushing; pushing cognitive development or other behaviors simply *does not* work; any positive effects of pushing, or initial advantages of early instruction, *do not last*, and may be negated later by undesirable attitudes; and such efforts can lead to false assumptions by educators about speeding up school curriculums. Perhaps, the strongest argument against pushing preschoolers to learn academic skills is how this affects other aspects of the child’s development during these years. It is during this period that a child needs voluntary, intensely personal, highly motivated, happy, success-oriented play activities. Play is necessary because it sets in motion all the ingredients for successfully coping with life. In it the child is a decision maker; he has freedom of action; he can master his imaginary world; he meets the elements of adventure; he expands his language; he explores the world of things and the ways people react to him; he builds interpersonal relations; he learns to master his physical self; and he investigates and practices adult roles. Through all of these experiences the child will be reaching perfection of behavior in orderly, predictable steps, following his own inborn, individual timetable. He will be succeeding as a human being. He will not be a Loser—a Labeled Disabled.

In recent years much good sincere effort, operating from a base of massive government grants, has been expanded in compensatory education, in the hope of speeding up, or improving, academic performance of certain categories of very young children. “None of the programs so far appears to have raised significantly the achievement of participating pupils.”

The writers of this book do indicate some things parents/caretakers can do to help their preschoolers get the most out of their preschool years. These are detailed in five separate chapters beginning with the words: “What You *Can* Do.” They conclude with some recommendations for a healthy child-parent relationship which takes cognizance of constitutional psychology and characteristic child growth and behavior:

1. Patience will pay off—relax and enjoy your child;

2. Set up the child's day and life to be comfortable, but at the same time, stimulating and rewarding;
3. Remember that Nature's blueprints are highly individual; some children are better at living than they are at formal learning;
4. Keep a biological point of view which holds that each individual has his own timetable;
5. Do not try to speed your child into behavior that his still young body is not ready to perform; and
6. *Respect* individuality; *respect* immaturity; *respect* your child for what he is at this moment.

There is nothing in this list about administering batteries of tests designed to diagnose and label the young, preschool child with data which will remain in his record the rest of his life. There is no mention of "education's hottest new boom, the 'learning disabilities' badge."³ No implication is made that specific motor and perceptual exercise routines, or prescriptive psychoactive drugs to modify behavior or automatically produce advanced students, or segregating children into special learning disabilities classrooms is indicated. The key word in the list is *respect*; implicit in such respect is trusting the other to grow in his own time and in his own way. Only thus can the child be activated to justify such trust and respect, and to trust himself to grow.

Where have all the wee ones gone—
 Long time passing?
 Where have all the wee ones gone—
 Long time ago?
 Where have all the wee ones gone?
 Gone to growing—everyone.
 So shall we ever learn.
 So shall we ever learn.

³ Diane Divoky, "Education's Latest Victim: The 'LD' Kid," *Learning*, (October, 1974), 3:20.

READING IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

A SELF-HELP READING LABORATORY

Kenneth VanderMeulen

Movements to begin all-school reading programs often wait for the right set of circumstances and may be in the planning stages while hundreds of students are missing the spark they might provide. We should think of a means of setting some of the wheels turning, even if the school does not seem ready for all phases to be put into action. It is a sad fact that many high schools have nothing approaching an emphasis on reading; therefore, there is nothing to call teachers' attention to the importance of improving reading skills in every class. If no one takes responsibility for attending to the vital matter of reading at the secondary level, teachers will continue to teach their content material without helping students refine their skills for learning.

The ideal way to set a program in motion is to administer tests of reading levels throughout the school. However, if the school is given no impetus in this direction, student reading needs are not measured and nothing in the way of a reading program is indicated. Thus no one acts. If the administrator is approached about instituting a reading laboratory or all-school reading program in the high school, he may simply shrug his shoulders and turn palms upward in mute eloquence. There is no trained personnel, there is no money, there is no room, there are no materials, there is no equipment. A teacher cannot easily overcome those odds.

Nevertheless, this writer believes there is a sure-fire way to start action toward all-school support for reading improvement. The strategy lies in starting a developmental reading laboratory for the adequately motivated students in the school. Students of normal reading and comprehension levels often desire a place and the means for increasing their proficiency in a variety of skills. While a school's financial situation may not be able to support a fully equipped diagnostic and remedial reading laboratory for the severely retarded and problem readers, it can most certainly provide the atmosphere of a reading improvement program with many areas of potential for extending both scope and service. The idea here is starting something; initiating action with a place where students may help themselves, thus building into the plan the element of success at the outset.

The self-help emphasis is based on several studies and observations,

all leading to a conclusion that students who are encouraged to account for their own progress through independent effort usually make better gains in skills improvement than students in teacher-dominated classes. As one example of evidence in support, we might cite the research reported by Russell Burgett to the IRA in May, 1972. He indicated that high school students made greater gains than the control group when they were allowed to test their own reading strengths and weaknesses, work with self-selected materials for academic progress, and assess their own gains through self-administered survey tests. Burgett elaborated by specifying other benefits incurred through the experiment, such as increased incentive and self-reliance.

To set up a reading laboratory for independent self-help, a teacher or group of teachers needs only the resolution to begin and the persistence to see it through. As an excellent initial propellant, one might make a public statement that he is about to set up a developmental reading laboratory in the school, despite the well-known fact that the "right circumstances" do not prevail. The statement of intention will provide sufficient reaction so that a teacher may easily learn where cooperation and aid may be found.

In order to help the reader visualize such a laboratory in action, we will describe a completed and operating developmental reading laboratory in its physical setting and in its uses. The objectives in the whole concept are as follows: 1) to initiate some movement toward a school-wide program; 2) to facilitate student self-help in a variety of ways; 3) to draw attention of colleagues and promote cooperation; 4) to keep investment of time as well as money to a minimum.

The laboratory we are seeing in operation is physically quite small, perhaps only twelve by twelve feet. It is furnished with a file cabinet, a table, desk, several shelves of full wall length, and six or seven comfortable chairs. On the desk is a Junior Controlled Reader, and the directions taped on the desk tell the student where he may find the film strips and comprehension tests for the controlled reader. This part of the program is for those students whose percentile on the rate section of the Nelson-Denny Reading Comprehension Test fell at or below forty. The student who starts a rate improvement program uses a dittoed chart on which he keeps a full record of his effective rate. Effective Rate is a term given to the product of the words-per-minute rate of reading the selection multiplied by the percent of comprehension on the test. This process tends to keep down the incidence of unrealistic rates and haphazard guessing on the quizzes.

A second area in which students are willing to practice individually

is that of spelling. Frequently, one's lack of adequate spelling training is a dark secret he wishes to keep from others, but which will constitute a serious obstacle in adult life. Yet, teachers who stress correct spelling are often resented, obviously, because such drill further erodes student confidence. The self-help lab, therefore, has two levels of spelling tests on recorder-cassettes for screening. One level is the thirty-three word list by William Kottmeyer—illustrating the spelling generalizations which should be known by students entering high school. The higher level is a set of thirty-three words from the Syracuse University list of "One Hundred Words Most Frequently Misspelled by Educated People." The cassette directs the student to take a blank sheet of paper from the shelf, write the words pronounced for him, and then correct his own words using the printed sources. If one misses more than six words, he is encouraged to start a spelling improvement program from the initial step, the demonstration cassette entitled "You Can Become a Perfect Speller." The tape, adapted from the V/A/K/T Spelling Method, convinces the listener that studying spelling should be multi-sensory, involving auditory and kinesthetic memory as well as visual, and uses the spelling of CHRYSANthemum to teach the listener how sound learning principles, not simple repetition, should be used in spelling study.

Cassettes for the listing of groups of words need not be an expensive item. By putting a list of twenty-five words on each side of a thirty-minute tape, the lab can offer students a spelling improvement program encompassing twenty-four steps, good for use by many students, for less than twenty dollars. It is easy to find apt and able students to read the words on the cassettes at no cost to the school.

A second vital part of the program for cassette tapes is that of vocabulary building. There are many sources of interesting materials about words, some of which can easily be adapted to brief cassette lessons. In the lab we are describing, the cassettes contain a "Word Building Program," with brief discussions about prefixes, roots, and modern examples based on Carter and McGinnis' *Effective Reading for College Students*. If students regard the tapes as "home-made," they also recognize the intention of the program as beneficial to them.

The third of the four areas for self-help in the developmental lab (first and second being mechanics of reading and cassette programs in spelling and vocabulary) is the file card system which attempts to help students identify and eliminate minor flaws in their study habits and attitude or emotional adjustment. For example, a student who says he "cannot get interested" in his history text may look into the card file.

Here, on the alphabetized tabs, is one marked *Interest*. A glance at the 5 by 8 card shows a number of books treating that particular difficulty in study. The books are referred to by number, followed by chapter and page. The student finds number 76 (*The Techniques of Reading*, by Judson), and turns to page 227, where he finds a brief but comprehensive discussion of his exact trouble.

Other topics treated in the card file are skimming, note-taking, rate flexibility, concentration, phrase reading, sentence meaning, retention, key words, and many more.

A partial list of books to keep on the shelves for giving students helpful information about reading difficulties are as follows:

Armstrong	Study is Hard Work
Baker	Reading Skills
Braam	Developing Efficient Reading
Carter & McGinnis	Effective Reading for College Students
Center	The Art of Book Reading
Cosper	Toward Better Reading Skill
Gilbert	Breaking the Reading Barrier
Herr	Effective Reading for Adults
Judson	The Techniques of Reading
Preston	How to Study
Robinson	Effective Study
Shefter	Faster Reading Self-taught
Smith	Be a Better Reader
Triggs	Improve Your Reading
Witty	How to Become a Better Reader
Wood	Reading Skills

(The above is only a small sampling of the books which are available to use, but will serve to start the system with a core of the best and most useful volumes.)

The fourth area is to offer students specific lessons in workbooks to remedy weaknesses in reading which are identified by diagnostic tests. These self-assessment and practice sessions in this fourth area are more closely supervised by a teacher or adult than the other three parts of the reading laboratory, because there is scoring and interpreting of standardized tests involved. The participant may take a test on his own but cannot analyze the results to see his strengths and weaknesses in reading without help in scoring. Steps forward from this point depend upon the student. Knowing his needs, he may scan the tables of con-

tents of such workbooks as *Be a Better Reader*, *Breaking the Reading Barrier*, *Basic Reading Skills for High School Use*, *Design for Good Reading*, and others. A copy or two of each workbook lie on the shelves for student use, but instructions request that all answers be put on notebook paper, kept in student folders. One highly useful workbook is *Tactics in Reading*, Olive S. Niles, because it includes two forms of diagnostic tests for pre- and post-evaluations, and is divided into eleven subtests, with drills and practices exactly applicable to the student needs.

In summary, it is feasible and useful to provide a self-help type of developmental reading laboratory for the adequately motivated student. It increases self-reliance, has obvious benefits in academic growth, can be expanded in many directions, and will serve to alert teachers to the ways reading growth can be fostered in all content areas.

from Musings of a Sixth Grader

COIN COLLECTING

Going to a store
 Asking change for a dollar
 Searching still searching
 For an old dime or penny
 Oh well, better luck next time.

Carl Erickson

RADIANCE

She was radiant
 Standing in a moonlit field
 She was beautiful
 Glowing with her outward pride
 And why? Because she loved him.

Carol Robinson

Round Robin is a forum intended for our readers' use to express or comment on any topical subject affecting the field of reading. Send your letters or comments to Dorothy E. Smith, Round Robin Editor.



Dorothy E. Smith, Editor

Dear Readers,

The "Continuous Progress" concept or ungraded elementary system, is one of the hottest issues right now in the teaching of reading. As you know many school systems have eliminated first, second, and third grades as such, and hope simply to keep each child in the ungraded primary until the child is ready for fourth grade. Some schools are contemplating enlarging the program to include the first six grades and the Chicago Board of Education plans eventually to have everything below high school on this program.

There are some real problems attendant on both sides of the issue. Is Continuous Progress a system whereby each student can learn at his own rate, or is it a "no-flunk cop-out?"

We asked several educators to give their opinion and we'd like to share their answers with you.

Dear Mrs. Smith,

I have taught 13 years at junior high, high school, and intermediate levels; but I have always taught those students with reading achievement gaps. I am very much in favor of "Continuous Progress" for the following reasons:

1) Administrators and teachers would have to think beyond the "basal

text” in providing students with materials for different sequential skills rather than “grade levels.”

- 2) The child would have more understanding of what is expected of him. Not only must he be able to demonstrate proficiency in a skills area, but he must learn to read before progressing with his peers.
- 3) Teachers would have to change their receptiveness to diagnostic teaching. Inservice training, teacher training institutions, and such periodicals as *READING HORIZONS* would reflect that change.

Thank You,
Don White
Mattoon, Illinois

Dear Mrs. Smith,

I am inclined to agree with many eminent educators that the disadvantages inherent in the program outweigh the advantages.

At present, I am a teacher of English in the middle school and find that many students are devoid of rudimentary skills so necessary for sequential progress in learning. I am all for individualized instruction: this, I believe, requires a skilled teacher, and one who is an indefatigable worker for the development of each child.

Too many students somehow are lost in mid stream and start drifting aimlessly with the current which too frequently washes them ashore as “pushouts.”

I believe all too often educators have latched onto any innovative practice and have metaphorically interwoven the skill areas with Nathaniel Hawthorne’s poem, “Happiness.”

Happiness is a butterfly,
which, when pursued, is always
just beyond your grasp, but which,
if you will sit down quietly,
may alight upon you.

I believe skills, especially in the areas of communication, (creative writing is my strong hold) must be taught with relentless vigor. But when these skills quietly alight upon a student may he take wings and soar. That is the task of the teacher; it is of the greatest magnitude.

Mrs. Charlotte S. Ehresman
Southern Middle School
Owensboro, Kentucky

Dear Mrs. Smith,

Although the continuous progress concept recognizes the democratic philosophy of the inherent worth of the individual; when the child enters the secondary grades, and the competition for grades is increased, and there are definite class distinctions, the continuous progress concept is deflated. Viable secondary programs that reflect the ungraded position will need to be initiated and researched. The continuous progress concept seems to raise more questions than answers. Does the ungraded process bring about change and in what areas? What are the affective responses of students to the ungraded process? What are the consequences in terms of self-image and motivation? Why does it have to be an "either-or" situation or graded versus ungraded? Too frequently educational change is equated with improvement. Why not start with the child, not a category or structure, and work from this aspect within any structure?

Lorri Davis
Elgin, Illinois

What do you think? Which system would you prefer for your school? Or do you agree with Lorri Davis, that it does not have to be an either-or situation?

Dorothy E. Smith
Editor

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diagnosis of gaps in learning, temporary grouping to meet individual needs, and evaluation following instruction. 4) Teaching suggestions offer options for inductive or deductive approaches. Author and publisher grant permission to reproduce evaluation devices for classroom use. (26 pp.) 5) Informal inventories for diagnosis of each skill in sequence is included. 6) Index provides cross reference for initial teaching, diagnosis, and evaluation of each skill.

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TEN-SECOND REVIEWS

Betty L. Hagberg

I chose teaching because: children are the challenge and inspiration of today and are the hope, protectors, and champions of the future. Let the bankers take care of money, physicians take care of illness, lawyers take care of entanglements—important, yes all! But, transitory, all! Only parents and teachers can pass on a legacy that destines what the world of tomorrow will be.—Verna Dieckman Anderson

Alongi, Constance V., "Response to Kay Haugaard: Comic Books Revisited," *The Reading Teacher*, (May, 1974), 27:801-803.

The author echoes an "Amen" to Kay Haugaard's article in the October, 1973 issue of *The Reading Teacher* entitled "Comic Books, Conduits To Culture," as she too thinks comic books wield a magnetic attraction for children. Alongi points out that comic book characters are illustrated in faddish styles, such as clogs, bikinis, and cutoff denim shorts. The text is overflowing with the use of slang phrases, and emotions are clearly revealed through facial expressions, punctuations, and floating symbols (dollar signs, food, and hearts). The stories in comic books are geared to themes to catch a child where he lives—in a dream world of "When I grow up . . ."

Armstrong, Mary K., "First Grade Lift-Off With Library Books and Lots of Energy," *The Reading Teacher*, (May, 1974), 27:778-781.

Mary Armstrong, a kindergarten teacher and former first grade teacher, shares her ideas on how she created excitement for reading among her very young students. The excitement began through the introduction of the children's own stories and reading good literature to them. Some decoding skills were provided through instruction. The skills of reading and language were also accelerated by experience stories and creative writing. At the same time, each child was given an opportunity to choose and read books at his own pace for fun. The absence of assigned uncreative homework and the awarding of paperback books for each child's own library made reading a pleasure for these students. The author suggests, "It's not the only way; it just seems

more appropriate" to launch first graders into reading through fun-to-read library books.

Bratten, Milton, Sylvia O. Richardson, and Charles Mangel, *Something's Wrong With My Child*, New York: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich, 1973.

The authors state that many so-called learning disability children suffer from immaturity or maturational lag. These children probably will not catch up, and their continued academic failure will add emotional problems to compound their basic learning problems. Problems which make up a learning disability are described as well as ways in which one can recognize the disabled learner. Parents are advised as to where they can get help and at the same time are warned that they themselves must always be the major source of help. The authors support segregated class placement for these students. Practical advice is given to parents and teachers as to what each can do to make learning disabled children more successful.

Bryan, Tanis H., "Learning Disabilities: A New Stereotype," *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, (May, 1974), 7:304-309.

The author states that a variety of characteristics, primarily negative in nature, have been associated with learning disabilities. He indicates that a review of the empirical research which has compared learning disabled children with academically successful children shows little data to support these negative notions. Bryan protests that behaviors which discriminate groups do not appear to include simple perception and discrimination, hyperactivity, nor neurological deficits, and there is some question about the intelligence level of sampled children. Behaviors which do discriminate groups include ability to pay attention, difficulty with complex tasks, and tasks which make heavy demands on language skills and information organization. He is hopeful that professionals in the field will not become frozen in inappropriate stereotypes regarding learning disabled children, but will be sensitive to and supportive of research efforts on their behalf.

Bundy, Lester L., "Our Current Reading Instruction Is Inadequate," *The Reading Teacher*, (May, 1974), 27:774-777.

Bundy says that in most public schools excessive emphasis is

being placed on basic word recognition and simple comprehension skills in the teaching of reading to the exclusion of other important skills. He directs attention to the two kinds of "reading" a child learns: 1) The traditional "school skills" in textbooks and worksheets and 2) his own "outside world skills" which involve gaining meaning from music, television, movies, radio, comics, and other people. Bundy states that in order to make reading instruction more relevant to the needs of children, the traditional view of reading instruction needs to be greatly expanded to include the skills involved in dealing with mass media and modern communication techniques.

Carroll, James L., "Demonstration Techniques Simulating Four Learning Disabilities," *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, (May, 1974), 7:28-30.

Some individuals find it very difficult to understand how a student with a learning impairment may perceive his or her world. Four demonstration techniques simulating receptive difficulties in the areas of visual, auditory and tactile discrimination and impairments in problem solving and concept formation have been developed and are described by the writer. He indicates that these techniques have been successfully used in workshops and inservice training sessions with students, teachers, and parents.

Collier, Calhoun C., and Lois A. Redmond, "Are You Teaching Kids To Read Mathematics?" *The Reading Teacher*, (May, 1974), 27:804-808.

In all mathematics the subject matter is presented in written form. Recent research indicates that a student's success in mathematics is directly related to his ability to read and interpret written material. The arithmetic text is unlike others in format and style and requires different skills and techniques. Mathematical material is usually concise, abstract, and abounding in complex relationships. There are more ideas per line and per page than in any other writing. For a student to comprehend sentences and concepts he must surely be able to read. Pupils must interpret both words and mathematical symbols and signs. To read meaningfully in the subject requires both decoding and comprehension skills. The vocabulary is often techni-

cal and specific. Many new meanings need to be developed for familiar words. The authors cite seven questions students need to answer in solving story problems. Collier and Redmond advocate that practice with the use of these questions contributes to better reading and mathematical success for students.

Coy, Michael N., "The Bender Visual-Motor Gestalt Test As A Predictor of Academic Achievement," *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, (May, 1974), 7:317-319.

Coy's purpose in this study was to investigate the predictive validity of the Bender Visual-Motor Gestalt Test as it relates to achievement in reading and math. Fifty-one third grade pupils' reading and math achievement test scores were separated into the top and bottom 27% and were then compared with the Bender Gestalt test scores. The author states that no significant differences were found for total Bender Gestalt test performance. The validity of using the Bender Gestalt test as a predictor of reading and math achievement for regular third grade pupils is questioned in this study.

Dauzat, Sam V., "Wise Utilization of Human Resources: The Paraprofessional in the Reading Program," *Views On Elementary Reading Instruction*, Editor, T. C. Barrett, International Reading Association, Newark, Delaware, 1973.

Dauzat suggests twelve ways in which paraprofessionals can contribute to the reading program when they are closely guided and supervised by the reading teacher. He indicates that current practices in the use of paraprofessionals merely tap the surface of this potentially rich educational resource. The author points out that nowhere is the need for individualization of instruction more firmly established than in the reading program. Since neither time nor energy permits a single teacher to fulfill the educational needs of all students, the paraprofessional may serve to enhance the role of the professional educator. Twelve specific suggestions for paraprofessional job descriptions are set forth.

Dennison, Paul E., "Reading Programs Are Means—Not Ends!," *The Reading Teacher*, (October, 1974), 28:10-12.

Reading is more than a sum of its component skills. Mate-

rials and educators tend to simplify the reading process into a mere “decoding” of an objective message existing outside the reader. It must be recognized that reading is a part of the language acquisition process, an inherently subjective activity. Real reading is an experience, not just an activity. “How can ‘skills’ be taught as a means rather than as an end? According to the author, the answer lies in accepting several assumptions which he explicitly interprets. He again reminds his readers that the end is “the growing child.”

Dillner, Martha H., “Affective Objectives in Reading,” *Journal of Reading*, (May, 1974), 17:626-631.

Dillner reviews four component behaviors of the affective domain: 1) attending, 2) receiving, 3) valuing, 4) evaluating. She indicates that the descriptions are not reflective of anything that good teachers have not already been doing for years, but she delineates them to emphasize to new or uninitiated teachers the need for behavioral objectives in the affective domain. Affective objectives concern feelings and emotions which are difficult to assess but which are extremely important. Therefore, they need to be made as concrete as possible. Dillner asserts that if teachers can identify the behaviors which reflect these important human characteristics and if they put them in terms of explicit objectives, they will more likely know how to motivate their students for cognitive learning.

Durkin, Delores, “Some Questions About Questionable Instructional Material,” *The Reading Teacher*, (October, 1974), 28:13-17.

Durkin’s article appears as the first in a series of five articles built around personal classroom observation and practical advice. Through her visitations to classrooms in the past 6 years, the author directs attention to two findings about classroom instruction. They are: 1) teachers were spending time in unnecessary and even erroneous instruction, and 2) such instruction was often the result of an unquestioning use of the basal reader, the workbooks, and the manuals accompanying them. Vivid examples are provided of non-essentials featured in published lessons and of incorrect instruction going on in classrooms. Both admonition and challenge are directed to authors, publishers, and teachers. Each must take their professional re-

sponsibilities more seriously, both in offering better materials and in making decisions regarding what will be taught, how it will be taught, and to whom it will be taught.

Egeland, Byron, and Ken Winer, "Teaching Children to Discriminate Letters of the Alphabet Through Errorless Discrimination Training," *Journal of Reading Behavior*, (July, 1974), 6:144-150.

In this research study 64 inner city preschool children were taught to discriminate letters of the alphabet using either an errorless discrimination training (EDT) approach or the traditional reinforcement-extinction approach. For the EDT group the distinctive feature of the letter to be discriminated was highlighted in red. As the training progressed the red was gradually faded. Each group received ten training trials for each of the two different letter combinations presented. The results indicated that the EDT group made significantly fewer errors during training and on the post test as compared to the reinforcement-extinction group.

Forness, Steven R., "Implications of Recent Trends in Educational Labeling," *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, (August/September, 1974), 7:445-449.

It is evident that special education has entered a new era of noncategorical approaches toward exceptional children since special education classes are being discontinued. The trend develops with serious questioning of traditional diagnostic labels and of grouping various types of exceptional children together for educational programs. The author explores the implications of previous educational experiences for learning disabled children.

Garry, V. V., "Competencies That Count Among Reading Specialists," *Journal of Reading*, (May, 1974), 17:608-613.

Garry provides a list of task competencies that identifies the critical areas in which a reading specialist performs. The task competencies were developed following a research of the literature, interviews with reading authorities and reading advisors from the State Department of Education, and from graduate preparatory programs for reading specialization. This roster of

tasks supplies a basis for judgments affecting the revision and initiation of graduate reading programs.

Glennon, Claire A., and Doris E. Nason, "Managing the Behavior of the Hyperkinetic Child: What Research Says," *The Reading Teacher*, (May, 1974), 27:815-824.

The authors emphasize the need for parents and professionals to know more about the problem of hyperkinesis and then to decide how to act on their knowledge. They reiterate that the answer lies in significant research of the past and in that yet to be done. Glennon and Nason review research that has been helpful to parents and teachers as they try to define their children's difficulties. The characteristics, educational management, and the medical management of hyperkinetic children are reviewed. The research in each of these areas is carefully summarized.

Griffen, Donald C., Howard N. Walton, and Vera Ives, "Saccades as Related to Reading Disorders," *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, (May, 1974), 7:310-316.

A group of inadequate readers was compared with a group of adequate readers on measures of saccadic eye movements. The authors discuss saccades as a possible contributing cause of reading problems rather than the traditional view that they are primarily or solely the result of reading experience. Nonreading as well as reading materials and activities were used. On all the materials the disabled readers tended to make more regressions and fewer forward fixations. Two subgroups involving microsequencing evolved from this heterogeneous group of inadequate readers. Griffen, Walton, and Ives discuss implications and procedures for saccadic diagnosis.

Hammill, Donald D., and Stephen C. Larsen, "The Relationship of Selected Auditory Perceptual Skills and Reading Ability," *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, (August/September, 1974), 7:429-435.

Hammill and Larsen present a review of studies using correlational statistical procedures to examine the relationship of reading to measures of auditory discrimination, memory, blending, and auditory-visual integration. The research reviewed sug-

gests that auditory skills are not sufficiently related to reading to be particularly useful for school practice. They indicate the direction future research must take to explore the relation of additional auditory variables to reading.

Hatch, Evelyn, "Research on Reading A Second Language," *Journal of Reading Behavior*, (April, 1974), 6:53-61.

Research on reading a second language is directed by three questions: 1) should beginning reading be taught in the child's first or second language, 2) what other factors in addition to an "inadequate grasp of language" account for reading disability when reading a second language, and, 3) what are the most effective methods for teaching reading as a second language? The research comparing the reading behavior of English and non-English speaking students is reported and discussed in each of these areas.

Henry, George H., *Teaching Reading As Concept Development: Emphasis on Affective Thinking*, Newark, Delaware, International Reading Association, 1974.

Henry offers this inquiry into affective thinking. He has done so with a sense of pioneering inside a realm of pedagogy that has not been much explored. He indicates that Piaget's and Bruner's learning theories have influenced many educators and reading specialists. But few responsible for reading in our schools have really examined these theories to see what they might yield for a method in teaching reading. The idea of concept development presented here has delineated and clarified for the teacher those logical strategies necessary in reading for concept development.

Johnston, Joyce D., "The Reading Teacher in the Vocational Classroom," *Journal of Reading*, (October, 1974), 18:27-29.

Johnston presents a unique and workable team-teaching situation between a cosmetology instructor and a reading teacher in a vocational classroom. Here, a practical procedure for reading in a content area is provided. Special educational problems arise in the science oriented portion of the cosmetology curriculum. She demonstrates how basic word attack and study

skills for science can be successfully taught to cosmetology students provided the teaching procedures are directly related to cosmetology. The author maintains that parallel strategies can be adapted for other vocations.

Learning Magazine, "Motivating Today's Students," "Building Independent Study Skills," "Resolving Classroom Conflict," "Developing Values in the Classroom," *Learning*, 530 University Avenue, Palo Alto, California.

Each *Learning Handbook* contains unique activities, games, projects, and tested techniques. They present a wealth of down-to-earth ideas and suggestions to make teaching and learning more effective, interesting, and exciting. The activities range from projects that can be done immediately and simply to more extensive ideas and approaches. There are directions which are easy to follow with photos, illustrations, and diagrams. The only materials needed are things you can get inexpensively or free.

Lowe, A. J., and John Follman, "Comparison of the Dolch List With Other Word Lists," *The Reading Teacher*, (October, 1974), 28:40-44.

In this article, the authors do not question word lists, but the use made of them. The Dolch list is composed of words from speaking vocabularies and materials including basal readers. The Kucera listing, a sampling of adult material, the Carroll list from school materials used in grades three through nine, the lists of words by Otto, Johnson, Murphy, Taylor, and Harris were found to be in high agreement with the other lists. The purpose of Lowe and Follman's study was to determine the rankings of the first 150 Dolch words in four other ranked lists and three word list studies of basal readers. It was hypothesized that all or most of the 150 words would be included in all other lists and the correlations of the rankings would be high. The results of the study are set forth and the authors conclude that "the first 150 words of the Dolch list may still be used without reservation or limitation."

Lund, Paul A., and John M. Ivanoff, "Correspondence of Self-Concept Measures With Levels of Reading Achievement," *Journal of Reading Behavior*, (July, 1974), VI:159-165.

Lund's and Ivanoff's investigation utilizes 227 incoming col-

lege freshmen to determine differences in measured self-concept among college freshmen grouped by demonstrated reading ability, sex, and enrollment in a reading skills program. The study indicated significant difference in measured self-concept between various groups. The greatest difference appeared between those who did and those who did not enroll in a reading skills course.

Macmillan Educational Corporation, *Education Yearbook 1974-75*, Publication Date: December 2, 1974, Price: \$49.50, Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 866 Third Avenue, New York, New York 10022.

This yearbook gives an overview of important educational trends and developments in the past year. Both analysis and factual summaries of education news of the year's top stories is provided in 29 topical articles. Forty-nine tables present the statistics of education in the U.S. today and a survey of trends influencing American schools. The yearbook also offers a 33-page annotated bibliography of recent books, films and tests, including a detailed survey of criterion-referenced tests.

Mavrogenes, Nancy A., Carol K. Winkley, Earl Hanson, and Richard T. Vacca, "Concise Guide to Standardized Secondary and College Reading Tests," *Journal of Reading*, (October, 1974), 18:12-22.

Four practitioners in the field of reading prepared and present a very useful extension of the IRA Reading Aid Series, *Reading Tests For The Secondary Grades: A Review and Evaluation* (Blanton and others, 1972). The publication aids secondary teachers in locating appropriate tests for classroom use. The guide includes four kinds of tests: 1) survey tests, 2) analytical tests, 3) diagnostic tests, 4) special tests. This concise guide is comprehensive and easy to read.

McConkie, G. W., and Bonnie J. F. Meyer, "Investigation of Reading Strategies: II a Replication of Payoff Condition Effects," *Journal of Reading Behavior*, (July, 1974), 6:151-158.

McConkie and Rayner (1974) made an earlier study in which reading strategies of college students were manipulated through the use of payoff conditions. This study is a repetition and extension of the McConkie and Rayner research. The influ-

ence of four variables on reading speed and test performance was investigated: existence of a payoff structure, the form of the payoff structure, type of payoff, and presence or absence of feedback. The existence of a payoff structure had little effect alone, but the form of the structure produced noticeable changes in reading rate. Feedback on performance appears to produce substantial reading strategy changes in students.

McConkie, George W., and Keith Rayner, "Investigation of Reading Strategies: I. Manipulating Strategies Through Payoff Conditions," *Journal of Reading Behavior*, (April, 1974), 9:9-18.

Reading strategies of several groups of college students were manipulated by using payoff structures which stressed retention vs. speed. The influence of four variables on test performance and reading speed were studied: 1) existence of a payoff, 2) type of payoff, 3) explicitness of payoff instruction, and 4) presence or absence of questions after each selection. There were considerable variations in rate under these conditions but not in test performance. The article also points out the usefulness of payoff systems for the study of reading strategies.

Miller, George A., Editor, *Linguistic Communication: Perspective for Research*, a Report of the Study Group on Linguistic Communication to National Institute of Education, Newark, Delaware, International Reading Association, 1974.

The study group defines two general areas as the most pressing problems of literacy at the present time. They are: 1) "Imparting basic literacy to those who most need it" and 2) "Raising language comprehension in the entire population." Certain general recommendations to the National Institute of Education follow the brief analysis of the two problems. Also included are specific suggestions and strategies for implementing the general recommendations of the report.

Putnam, Lillian R., "Don't Tell Them To Do It . . . Show Them How," *Journal of Reading*, (October, 1974), 18:41-43.

Putnam emphasizes that one of the most useful study skills a secondary student needs is the ability to read a section or chapter in a text and to express the main ideas in concise state-

ments or in a good study outline. The author also indicates that the process is most effectively taught when using students' own textbooks because it then has direct application.

Russell, Sheldon N., "A Crucial Problem Facing Secondary Education," *Journal of Reading*, (May, 1974), 17:600-603.

Can reading be taught in the content areas? Russell relates his experiences and explores what he considers an untenable position. He presents a case for support of a qualified reading specialist directing a staff trained and competent in reading disabilities. He explains certain vital functions for the administrator, the reading specialist, and the reading line staff. He emphasizes that, if organized properly, they can realistically deal with the reading crisis.

San Mateo County Schools, "An Evaluation of Instructional Materials," San Mateo County Office of Education, Redwood City, California, June 1974.

This publication presents an evaluation of instructional materials in English, spelling, handwriting and literature adopted in California in 1974. It includes detailed evaluations of 121 sets and systems of elementary textbooks and audio-visual materials. The evaluations utilize the EPIE format and were written by teachers in San Mateo County.

Satz, Paul, and Janette Friel, "Some Predictive Antecedents of Specific Reading Disability: A Preliminary Two-Year Follow-Up," *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, (August/September, 1974), 7:437-444.

This article reports one phase of an ongoing longitudinal project designed to identify the students who may develop dyslexia. The present study is based on the second year follow-up of an original population of 497 white male kindergarten children administered a developmental and neuropsychological test battery in 1970, and an evaluation of the predictive accuracy of these tests to the criterion reading level at the end of first grade in 1972. The results of the analysis revealed that over 90% of both the high risk and low risk students were correctly classified. The results show initial support for the predictive utility of preschool tests.

Shami, Mohammad A. A., and Martin Hershkowitz, "Relative Importance of 'Mastery of Reading Skills' As a Goal of Public Education," *Journal of Reading Behavior* (April, 1974), 6:89-97.

No one questions the importance of reading as the basics for educational growth. However, the question as to its relative importance to all public groupings with respect to other educational goals has been studied in Maryland at the state and local levels. The data reveal that this goal is always rated the most important or second most important of all educational goals. The authors recommend that the "mastery of reading skills" should underlie all early education programs, with remedial and developmental reading centers designed to support the classroom teacher.

Stewart, Mary Lou, *The Process of Motor Co-ordination In the Human Infant*, College of Education Monograph Series, Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo, Michigan, 1974.

This study represents a synthesis of the research of Bernstein, Bruner, Gesell, McGraw, Piaget, and Werner to discuss theoretically the process of co-ordination and the integration of two separate skilled motor acts to form a new skilled motor act. Although the co-ordination process has been substantiated by infancy research, evidence has been offered to show that the process can be constant throughout the life span to senescence and also across the intellectual and social-emotional aspects of development. The author has presented a practical longitudinal process model showing the steps involved in co-ordination from the first attempts at skill integration to the acquisition of final exquisitely refined motor acts.

Vacca, Richard T., and Joanne L. Vacca, "Consider A Stations Approach to Middle School Reading Instruction," *The Reading Teacher*, (October, 1974), 28:18-21.

The authors describe a stations approach to middle school reading instruction. They delineate several advantages of this approach emphasizing that the stations approach provides the framework which can facilitate students' understanding and awareness of the logic or "why" behind instruction and practice.

Vandever, Thomas R., and Donald D. Neville, "Modality Aptitude and

Word Recognition," *Journal of Reading Behavior*, (July, 1974), 6:195-201.

After modality aptitude for 282 second graders was determined, 72 children were selected who learned significantly more or fewer words when they were presented in one method (visual, auditory, kinesthetic) than in the other two. Six categories of students resulted: visual strength, visual weakness, auditory strength, auditory weakness, kinesthetic strength, and kinesthetic weakness. Visual strength and weakness students were placed in classes in which visual methods were used to teach. The same procedures were used for those with auditory and kinesthetic strengths and weaknesses. At the end of six weeks of instruction, analysis revealed that students taught to strengths did no better than those taught to weakness. In view of the results of this study, it is difficult to avoid the conclusion that modality does not form a reasonable grouping procedure. Time spent in identifying students having a modality strength might be better spent in instruction.

Weintaub, Samuel, Helen M. Robinson, Helen K. Smith, and Nancy Roser, *Reading Research Quarterly*, Volume IX, Number 3, 1973-74.

This issue contains 369 reports of reading research published between July 1, 1972, and June 30, 1973. The research studies are categorized into 6 main areas.

Wender, Paul, *The Hyperactive Child: A Handbook for Parents*, New York: Crown Publishers, 1973.

The author dedicates his book to the reportedly five million hyperactive children in this country. In the text he gives a description of the main characteristics of the hyperkinetic child and suggests practical methods of treatment. Wender discusses medication for such children, which he favors if prescribed by a qualified physician. However, he points out that medication should be supported by understanding and by correct handling. The book is informative and easy to read. Parents and teachers who have mistakenly labeled their child hyperactive may learn that their fears have been exaggerated.

Williamson, Leon E., and Freda Young, "The IRI and RMI Diag-

nostic Concepts Should Be Synthesized," *Journal of Reading Behavior*, (July, 1974), VI:183-194.

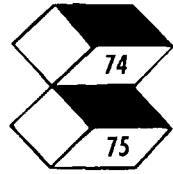
The results of this descriptive study of 30 intermediate grade students support the research by Biemiller and Weber in 1970. Their results indicated that reading errors are powerful cues to use in diagnosing reading performance. The subjects' performances demonstrated that reading behavior is different when reading at the instructional and frustrational levels as defined by IRI (Informal Reading Inventory) and analyzed by RMI (Reading Miscues Inventory) concepts. When reading at the frustrational level, subjects tended to adhere more closely to the sound and symbol materials of the text than when reading at their instructional level. When reading at their instructional level, subjects were less apt to make as many miscues having high sound and symbol similarities. A miscue at the instructional level was more likely to fit the grammatical and semantic structure of the whole. A miscue at the frustrational level tended to fit only the sentence or phrase in which it occurred. Therefore, high sound and symbol similarity are not positive indicators of good comprehension. The RMI concepts are very powerful for analyzing oral reading errors made within the boundary set by IRI concepts. The concepts in these two techniques should be synthesized.

Ziebel, Bebe, "The Reading Teacher As Guidance Counselor," *Journal of Reading*, (October, 1974), 18:44-49.

Reading teachers have proclaimed with some success the motto, "Every teacher a teacher of reading." Ziebel suggests that perhaps it is now time for a motto for reading teachers, such as, "Every special reading teacher partly a guidance counselor." Reading teachers must not overlook the emotional disability of the student. The student's low self-esteem, fears, doubts and depressions are often a major factor in keeping the pupil a retarded reader. Ziebel strongly advocates that additional training in counseling techniques can be of considerable help to the reading teacher in achieving the desired goal of making each of the students an effective reader.

PROGRAM

HOMER L. J. CARTER READING COUNCIL
INTERNATIONAL READING ASSOCIATION



THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 26, 1974

"Teaching and Reading from a Self Concept Point of View"

Dr. Donald Hamachek, Michigan State University, East Lansing,
Michigan

6:00 P.M., Supper, Portage Northern High School Cafeteria and
Auditorium

THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 21, 1974

Fifth Drive-In Conference: "Emerging Concepts in Teaching Reading"

Dr. Robert Karlin, Queens College of City University of New York,
Flushing, New York

4:45 P.M., Portage Central High School

THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 13, 1975

"Reading for Students in Grades K-12"

Ms. Peggy Brogan, Author, Editor, and Educational Consultant,
Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.

7:30 P.M., West Ballroom, University Student Center, Western
Michigan University

SUNDAY, MONDAY, AND TUESDAY

APRIL 13, 14, and 15, 1975

"Models of Teaching Reading," Eighteenth Annual Meeting, Michi-
gan Reading Association, Grand Rapids Civic Center

SATURDAY, APRIL 26, 1975

Reading Talkshop and Business Meeting

9:30 Brunch, Holiday Inn (Expressway), Carriage Room

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FRIDAY, MAY 16, 1975

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