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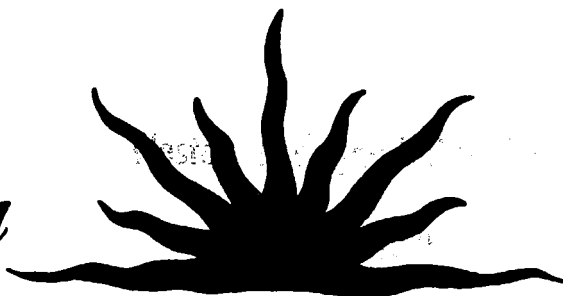
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AN INVITATION TO VIOLENCE

The ability to read is an essential element for living in today's world. Yet illiteracy is far more extensive than has been commonly thought. In the United States alone there are an estimated 3 million adults who are totally unable to read and write and another 20 million who read so poorly that they are classified as functionally illiterate. Throughout the world the number of adult illiterates is actually increasing at the rate of 30 million persons a year. The enormity of the problem becomes evident when we realize that illiteracy is related to ignorance, crime, unproductiveness, and strife. If we want to win the battle against hunger, poverty, disease and unrest in the world, we must conquer illiteracy.

Illiteracy is a subtle but very real threat to world peace. Those of us who live in advanced industrialized nations must realize that the future welfare and security of the world depend upon the prosperity of developing countries. U. Thant, General Secretary of the United Nations, stated shortly before his death that failure to diminish the gap between rich and poor countries "is an invitation to violence." As Goodings and Lauwerys have said, "The only differences of any importance are not those between the communist and the capitalist, but those between the hungry and the affluent, between the educated and the illiterate." One of the most important tasks of our present generation is the struggle to overcome illiteracy.

Dorothy J. McGinnis
Editor

SOMETHING OF WHAT ENGLISH OWES TO FRENCH

Louis Foley

PROFESSOR EMERITUS OF ENGLISH, BABSON COLLEGE

From the point of view of English, French cannot be considered as simply one of the languages of Europe. As an example of influence of one language upon another, its immense contribution to English is a unique phenomenon in the world experience of language development.

Story Untold

For the better part of two centuries, there has seemed to be a conspiracy of silence about the influence of French on the formation of modern English. To any serious student of the history of the English language, it must always have been inescapably clear, but it has seldom received anything like the emphasis it deserves. Even scholarly books, dealing with "the Latin in English," obliged to admit that most of it came "through the French," conveyed the notion of a sort of short corridor of no importance in itself. Untold numbers of high school teachers of English, having learned some Latin but being ignorant of French and of the real history of English, have disposed of as simply "Latin" any word which could be traced back, however indirectly, to remote Latin ancestry. With all the confidence of ignorance, this unrealistic conception has been planted once for all in the minds of generations of students.

Then there has been the conventional disposition of English as a "Germanic" language. It cannot, of course, be classed as a "Romance" language, since it was not developed from Latin as the Romance languages mainly were. It has, to be sure, certain unmistakable Germanic elements, but it is certainly by far the *least* "Germanic" of any language that could be considered in that classification at all.

Somewhat current centuries ago was the smart playful remark that English was "nothing but French badly pronounced." This was of course a gross exaggeration, but no more misleading than other generalizations of later times which have been taken more seriously.

Loose Reference to "Latin"

It is unrealistic to describe summarily as "Latin" any words which can possibly be traced back to Latin originals, without discriminating as to the way in which they became a part of English speech. While it

is true that in the main the French words now assimilated in English had at one time developed from Latin, that consideration seems rather beside the point. During the centuries that they had been French words, before entering English, many of them changed so much from the Latin, not only in form, but in meaning and use, that any mention of the remote ancestor is rather irrelevant. *It was certainly not because of the Latin descent that English adopted them.* Indeed, along with French words ultimately derived from Latin, English took in no small number of other French words which had never come from Latin at all. Independently of any more distant indirect source, they simply came into English as the French words that they happened to be. Often they represented ideas which the ancient Latins could never have foreseen.

Perhaps the most important fact about them is that as a class they entered English *orally*. That is no doubt why most of the French words imbedded in English are never thought of as being "foreign" at all; they belong as truly to English speech as do any other words in the language. Consider such common offhand examples as *table, chair, fruit, grape, peach, sugar, garden, hoe, carrot, air, music, court, suit, pen, pencil, large, fine, pure, color, sound, place, people, language, power, space, form, very*. Not all of these words came into French from Latin, but they all came into English from French.

Most of the truly Latin words in English were introduced by scholars, or came through translations of learned books. They are likely to seem abstract, pale, colorless, because they do not have their roots deeply planted in everyday life; they are comparatively "bookish" in tone. One acquires them by reading or going to school or listening to lectures, instead of possessing them by just naturally growing up among English-speaking people. They do not belong so thoroughly to the living body of English speech. They are often extremely useful, but not essential to the same degree as the ordinary words of everyday life. To be sure, in this changing world no vocabulary will always "stay put," and sometimes technical terms which were originally very scholarly will find their way into the commonest popular speech.

"Percentages" Misleading

Attempts have often been made to measure the different ingredients in English by percentages. Such efforts are bound to be futile, for they can start only from the crude assumption that words are equal units, whereas they are nothing of the sort. Sometimes one or two words will carry most of the meaning in a sentence, while the others do little more than adjust these principal words to the situation in

which they are placed. The really interesting thing about the French words in English is not so much their large number (though that in itself is impressive enough) as their importance to the *meaning* of almost any sentence in which they occur.

Contribution to Structure

It is inaccurate to assume, as many have done, that French influence has merely contributed vocabulary without affecting the syntax. The falseness of such a notion may be illustrated by one of the rare Anglo-Saxon words which have retained their form during a thousand years—the preposition *of*. The point is that the *use* of the word has entirely changed. Instead of meaning only “from,” as in Anglo-Saxon, it long ago became practically equivalent to French *de*. In Old English religious literature one finds the expression *rodetacn*, which might be translated literally as “rood token.” Now, however, any English-speaking person would express the idea by saying “the sign of the cross.” Here we may notice not merely the words *sign* and *cross*, but the word-order which corresponds exactly to that of the French phrase *le signe de la croix*. The English idiom for this idea is neither Anglo-Saxon nor Latin, but French in its plan of construction. And this single detail of the new use of a preposition made possible a clarity and grace in sentence-structure which the older language could not achieve.

It may be observed in passing that the commonest terms we use for classifying words grammatically—noun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction—are essentially French. Anglo-Saxon had only the loose term *word*.

Grammatical Forms

French has indeed supplied English with an astonishingly large part of its grammatical equipment. When a new word is coined in modern English, the kind of grammatical ending which it is almost certain to receive will show the profound influence of French upon the very *structure* of the language. New words formed nowadays are not likely to have endings like *-dom* or *-hood* or *-ness*, on such Anglo-Saxon patterns as *kingdom* or *brotherhood* or *kindness*. Instead it will seem natural to use one of the many terminations inherited from French, as are *-ity*, *-ance*, *-et* or *-ette*, *-ery*, *-ment*, *-tion*, *-ation*, *-age*, *-ine*, *-ure*, *-ic* (*-ique*), *-able*, *-al*, *-ess*, *-ee*, *-eer* (*-ier*), *-ism*, and various others. A fairly recent coinage, for example, is the word *weaponry*; to the old Anglo-Saxon word *weapon* was naturally added the ending *-ry* of French origin. Still more recent coinages on this same pattern are

rocketry and *missilry*. Classical-minded people may prefer to consider some of these endings as "Latin" or "Greek," but they became established in English because they had been made thoroughly familiar by the adoption of so many French words which were formed in similar ways.

Melting-Pot Myth

For a long time, it has been a commonplace to refer to America as a "melting-pot." This was a convenient way of alluding to the fact that the population included representatives of many national origins. As is typical of slang, the expression is a grotesque exaggeration. There has been nothing approaching such an amalgamation of diverse racial strains—*all* inhabitants representing the same proportions of *all* the contributing elements—as could be truly symbolized by the fusing together of different metals in a crucible.

Some people have even carried over this fanciful metaphor into the conception of *language*. They appear to forget entirely that English was already fully formed before it was brought to the New World. Since then it has undergone no basic change in the nature of its ingredients. Nevertheless the notion of the language as a hodge-podge of heterogeneous elements seems to have perennial appeal. In one way or another it has been expressed again and again.

At a meeting of the National Council of Teachers of English in 1942, one of the principal speakers made a sweeping generalization: "Just as our country is a meeting-place for all the peoples and races of the world, so our language gladly and willingly received contributions from all of them. English is a United States of the languages of mankind."

A more conspicuous instance was a pamphlet issued by the publishers of Webster's Dictionaries in 1926 and widely circulated over a period of years. As an initial summary of linguistic origin, it announced that "the English language is called the descendant and representative of the Anglo-Saxon, but *many other languages* have contributed a *large proportion* of the words that we use daily." (*italics ours*) There followed a list of forty-seven words, indeed a miscellaneous-looking collection, obviously chosen carefully for the express purpose of showing as many different "other languages" as possible. In reality, however, they did not represent nearly so great a variety of "origins" as might at first appear. Ignored as if it were insignificant was the important question of how these words actually *came into English*. Yet from the natural point of view of the English language, a

word's "origin" is primarily and particularly where it came from *into English speech*. So far as English is concerned, the word's "derivation" means from what other language it was taken and adopted. As soon as we consider the list from this point of view, the picture takes on quite another aspect.

Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, for instance, plainly indicates no less than thirteen of these words (*cocoon, zigzag, tapioca, jubilee, vampire, candy, turban, crystal, sugar, jocko, garden, gravel, and coach*) as having come into English from French. *The Century Dictionary and Cyclopedia*, where word-histories are given in more detail, shows also three more (*floss, cigar, and polka*). For simplification, moreover, we are leaving out of account various other items in the list which might be called mixed or doubtful cases, but whose direct ancestry, from our point of view, seems about as clearly French as anything else. Relative importance of different sources can be seen by observing that among the forty-seven words, at least sixteen of which came from French, not more than one or two could be claimed as having come into English from any other single language.

Yet this kind of misleading generalization continues unabated. An article published in a widely-circulated newspaper in 1957 is a striking example. Though the writer gave considerably more recognition to the French element in English than is usual in such discussions, this was done only in a very limited and arbitrary manner. It is amusing, for instance, to read an offhand reference to "such fluffy French words as *burlesque, caprice, bagatelle, chassis*, and many others." Here the first three "fluffy" items belong to the class of "literary" words which, however numerous, form a very minor part of the French contribution, whereas *chassis*, like *garage* and *chauffeur*, came in naturally along with *automobile*, a word coined in France for an invention whose name is one of the small handful of words that have spread beyond the realm of western civilization into truly worldwide use.

Throughout this confident account one meets categorical pronouncements which give an impression of bewildering complexity. "From the Hebrew we get *Satan*, but Persia offered us *paradise!* . . . From Arabic we got . . . *syrup*. We filched *sugar* from the Hindus . . . we lifted *cotton* and *mohair* from the Arabic . . . Persia gave us . . . *caravan, turban, . . . lime, lemon, and orange, check, bazaar, and . . . chess* . . . The Arabs gave us *lute, monsoon, . . . carat, zenith, alkali, cipher, . . . mattress, arsenal, and giraffe* . . ."

Now the fact is that *all* the specimen words we have just quoted simply came into English from French, as the quite French words that

they had become, and they entered English in the same way as did other French words that may have come originally from Latin, Germanic tongues, or somewhere else. The picture is somewhat confused, of course, by mentioning indiscriminately, along with these, some words which perhaps *can* be attributed directly to such alleged exotic sources. These, however, may be equally misleading in another way, if it is implied (as it seems to be) that English has any peculiarity in possessing them. Most of them, sometimes in variant forms, will be found no less naturalized in other European languages—which probably knew them before English ever did.

Notion of "Anglo-Saxon"

During World War II, in response to a question as to the "secret" of his effective oratory, Sir Winston Churchill modestly replied: "My method is simple. I like to use Anglo-Saxon words with the least number of syllables."


Now that great statesman's superb and extremely effective command of English is of course universally recognized. Nevertheless this statement of his involves some fundamentally false ideas about language. One of these is the idea that so-called "Anglo-Saxon" words are somehow more truly *English*, and therefore more forceful and effective, than other kinds of words in the language can possibly be.

Our brief quotation from Sir Winston should be almost sufficient in itself to demonstrate the inaccuracy of what it says. All the strength of its meaning is precisely in the words *method*, *simple*, *use*, *number*, and *syllables*, all of which came into English from French. As for the term "Anglo-Saxon" (improperly applied here, of course), it represents a purely *Latin* method of forming international adjectives, one which is often convenient nowadays in combinations like Franco-American, Greco-Roman, or Russo-Chinese. That peculiar manner of compounding is not an Anglo-Saxon thing. But perhaps the best way to see the nature of the element in English which is arbitrarily called "native" will be to remove from Churchill's two short sentences everything *except* the Anglo-Saxon words. All that we have left is: "My—is—I like—to—words with the least—of—" In contrast to this vague and incoherent jumble, it will be perceived that the five French words, taken by themselves, *almost* suffice to express clearly and completely what the speaker wished to say: "Method simple—use (small) number (of) syllables." If one were sending a telegram, even the "of" might be dropped out. Moreover, though "of" is an old Anglo-Saxon word, this *use* of it clearly reflects the French idiom which English had not yet acquired in Anglo-Saxon times.

A Classic Demonstration

Lincoln's famous *Gettysburg Address* has been much praised as an example of perfection in English prose. Certainly it cannot be disposed of as "Anglo-Saxon." Two outstanding words, *dedicate* and *consecrate*, are classified as having come into English from Latin. They express the solemn nature of the occasion, the performance of a rite; they carry an air of impersonal formality. Really different in nature, much more deeply a part of the language, are the numerous words from French without which the meaning could not possibly be expressed: *continent*, *nation* (five times), *conceived* (twice), *liberty*, *proposition*, *equal*, *engaged*, *civil*, *war* (twice), *testing*, *endure*, *battle*, *portion*, *final*, *place*, *proper*, *larger*, *sense*, *brave*, *power*, *detract*, *note*, *remember*, *unfinished*, *nobly*, *advanced*, *task*, *remaining*, *honored*, *increased*, *devotion* (twice), *cause*, *measure*, *resolve*, *vain*, *government*, *people* (three times), and *perish*.

In general, the Anglo-Saxon element performs its customary function with "grammar words" which cement these meaningful concepts into a *pattern* that we grasp readily as we go along. The burden of the thought, however, is unmistakably carried by the indispensable words which centuries ago were adopted from French.



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LANGUAGE AND LANGUAGE BEHAVIOR ABSTRACTS

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A SECOND GRADE EXPERIMENT WITH A NEW READING-LANGUAGE PROCESS*

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Experimentation with innovative reading and language instructional processes is a vital necessity if teaching is to be effective and keep pace with our ever-changing society.¹ Pupils need to learn to read and read well if they are to become contributing citizens and since they learn best through various approaches, it seems logical that many reading instructional models should be made available for teachers to use. This implies that new programs should be discovered and also that they be tested in order to determine their viability with students in the classroom. Such is the nature of this report.

The *Picture-Vocabulary-Story (P-V-S)*² concept is a new approach to reading and language instruction and is similar to but goes well beyond the currently popular language experience process. *Picture-Vocabulary-Story (P-V-S)* materials provide for greater control over the learning medium yet they also make for greater flexibility in the learning process. This would appear to be a unique advantage not enjoyed by other approaches.

Most teachers are indeed well aware of the plethora of reading materials available for classroom instruction. One need merely attend state or national conventions such as those sponsored by the International Reading Association and it becomes obvious that reading programs exist in vast profusion. Yet, as of this writing, there is nothing quite like the *Picture-Vocabulary-Story (P-V-S)* materials. Many processes and procedures come almost close to the new *P-V-S* medium³⁻⁴⁻⁵

* Bruce A. Lloyd, *Picture-Vocabulary-Story (P-V-S)*, Kalamazoo, Michigan: the author, 1972, 36 pp.

¹ Harry Singer and Robert B. Ruddell (Eds.) *Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading*, Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1970.

² Bruce A. Lloyd, "P-V-S: A New Approach to Teaching Communication Skills," *Reading Horizons*. Vol. 14, No. 2, Winter, 1974, pp. 69-74.

³ Helen F. Darrow and Virgil M. Howes, *Approaches to Individualized Reading*, New York: Appleton-Century-Croft, Inc., 1960.

⁴ Virgil E. Herrick and Marcella Nerbovig, *Using Experience Charts With Children*, Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1964.

⁵ Doris M. Lee and Roach Van Allen, *Learning to Read Through Experience* (2nd Ed.) New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1963.

but fall somewhat short of its unique characteristics. Even the latest modern approaches seem too limited in concept and more or less bound by the thinking that is upwards of a dozen years old.⁶

So it would seem that the time is ripe for a new concept to reach the reading horizon. Hopefully the *P-V-S* medium is an idea whose time has come. This, of course, remains to be seen.

The P-V-S Medium

Each Picture-Vocabulary-Story activity consists of a file folder on which words (vocabulary) have been printed and a series of matching word (vocabulary) cards. On the reverse side of the vocabulary cards picture segments have been mounted. The pupil using the *P-V-S* material simply matches vocabulary, placing each word card over the corresponding word on the file folder. When that task is properly completed, the pupil closes the folder, carefully turns or flips it over and opens it. Now he is looking at the assembled picture and the vocabulary relating to it. Using the picture and the vocabulary as the focal point or guide, the pupil can react in several ways. He may write a story of his own explaining his interpretation of or feelings about the picture and use the vocabulary provided on the folder. He may tell his story to the teacher (or aide) who can subsequently write it for him. Or he may simply draw his own picture to illustrate his thoughts and then tell about it. There are many uses of this approach for developing reading-language skills.

Introduction

The *P-V-S* medium has been used informally by teachers who have had the material explained in the author's graduate reading classes. However, there have been no pilot studies to determine objectively the effects of the procedure on pupil reading or language achievement. It is to this end that the present study is directed.

Design

Initially a series of twenty-four *P-V-S* activity folders was constructed and boxed for subsequent use with pupils. The chief researcher then met with the school principal and participating teachers to explain the procedures. Early in the fall term he administered reading pretests to the experimental group and control group of second grade pupils.

⁶ Robert B. Ruddell *et. al.* (Eds.) *Resources in Reading-Language Instruction*, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1974.

Subsequently the materials were brought to the experimental classroom and procedures for using them explained to the children. Later, during a P.T.A. open house, the experiment was explained to parents. With that the study began. It lasted for twelve weeks and then reading post tests (alternate forms of the pretest) were administered. Data were subsequently treated and the results appear elsewhere in this report.

Procedures

Pupils in the experimental group worked with the P-V-S materials twice each week for the duration of the study. The total class was divided into six smaller groups of four pupils each. This facilitated the attempt at individualizing instruction. The Research Assistant (an honors student) worked with the pupils on Tuesdays and Thursdays throughout the experiment. She made certain that students selected a different P-V-S folder to work with each time she met with them. This provided exposure to all P-V-S items available.

On a given day a pupil would select one P-V-S activity to work with during the small group meeting which took place in an adjoining "study room." Once there, he would assemble his "puzzle" by placing the vocabulary cards over the corresponding word on the file folder page. Then he would close it, carefully flip it over, and open it to reveal the picture. After contemplating the picture (and the story it told) he would attempt to write or tell about his own interpretation of the story using as many of the words as he could.

The Research Assistant would help the pupil with his writing or listen to his oral story and write it for him. On occasion, some of the more immature pupils chose simply to copy, pronounce, and explain the vocabulary of a given P-V-S folder. The built-in flexibility was designed to allow each pupil to proceed or progress at his own pace and attempt to work at his own reading level. The time involved was about thirty minutes per group each day.

Although the children had to work with each P-V-S folder in the kit they soon developed a liking for certain ones. Consequently, those who wished could reassemble a favorite "puzzle" during free time in class.

Pupils in the control group had no special activities beyond the regular language-experience approach and individualized reading program included in the course of study.

Data Treatment and Findings

The Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test, Primary B, Form 1, was

administered to the experimental group and the control group prior to using the experimental medium. Twelve weeks later Form 2 (alternate form) was given to the same pupils. This reading test measured two factors, (1) vocabulary and (2) comprehension. No other tests were used.

In treating the data for differences in reading achievement, post test increases in both vocabulary and comprehension were evident. On the average, the experimental group gained almost eight points in vocabulary. This difference, $p = .075$, approached significance. The mean gain in comprehension was almost three and one half points but was not significant.

Discussion

The objective evaluation of this experimental program indicates that positive gains were made in vocabulary and comprehension. The vocabulary gain approached significance, but comprehension gains did not.

It would appear that the experimental program did have some positive effect and one must speculate that such gains could have been significant had there been a larger number ($N=24$) of pupils in the experimental group. More than one third of them were absent because of illness on the day the post test was administered. Later efforts to administer the post test to those who missed it did not work out because of administrative problems.

Subjective evaluation of the experimental program indicated beyond any doubt that it was successful. Pupils were always eager to work on their "puzzles." They looked forward to sessions with the Research Assistant and came to think of her as their "own teacher." The regular teacher noted that the pupils seemed to be able to verbalize at a higher level than her previous classes. Moreover, many pupils seemed to gain in writing skills as well as interest in reading.

Recommendations for Further Study

Although the present experiment was something less than a smashing success, gains were positive. The results indicate that there appears to have been some seminal effect on the reading and language achievement of the pupils. Further studies using the *Picture-Vocabulary-Story* medium seem warranted. When further studies are conducted, attention should be given to the following:

1. Larger numbers of pupils should be involved in the experimental program so that more definite conclusions can be made.

2. Measures of expectancy or potential should be made of experimental group pupils so that the real significance of gains can be determined.
3. The timing of the program should be such that the school curriculum does not conflict with the experiment.
4. Twelve weeks is a relatively short time span and it seems justified to recommend that the program should be carried out for an entire academic year.
5. Reading or language tests of greater sensitivity should be utilized in order to determine the effect of the program on a greater number of factors than just vocabulary and comprehension.

THE PROCESS OF OBSERVING ORAL READING SCORES

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Oral reading has a varied history of interpretation (12) and is presently under scrutiny in terms of characteristics rather than quantity (5). Despite the doubt that controversies generate, the identification and tabulation of oral reading errors dominate decisions generated in practice using informal reading inventories. In practice, informal reading inventories depend on identification, scoring, and interpretation of oral reading errors. Controversies are usually ignored perhaps in the hope that the expert judgment of reading specialists overcomes the difficulties. Beldin (1) explores the controversial history of informal inventories. From early studies to the present, doubt surrounds scoring criteria (7, 9, 10). This study examines the process of identification and scoring of oral reading errors by well-qualified reading specialists.

THE STUDY

Seventeen reading specialists listened to a single playing of an audiotape recording of a child reading orally a hundred and thirty-three word passage. The passage was at the child's independent reading level according to other assessments which included a retelling of the story and responses to conventional comprehension questions. They were asked to mark the errors on a typed script of the passage and count only those errors they would use to derive an oral reading word recognition score in an informal reading inventory.

SUBJECTS

Since the purpose of this study was to examine the scoring and interpretation practices of well qualified reading specialists, the subjects who were selected evidenced a high degree of training and experience. All subjects had held positions as classroom teachers, reading clinicians, and reading consultants for substantial periods of time. At the time of this study all subjects were employed as reading specialists. All but two subjects held the master's degree with an emphasis in reading or higher graduate degrees. The two subjects who did not hold the master's degree were about to complete the requirements for this degree. All subjects held certification as reading specialists.

PROCEDURES

Instruction to Subjects

Subjects were given a typed script of the one hundred and thirty-three word passage to examine before listening to the tape. They were instructed to prepare to listen to an audiotape recording of a child orally reading the passage on the typed script. They were asked to mark the typed script in the manner they do when they administer the oral reading paragraphs of an informal reading inventory. They were informed that the tape would be played only once to stimulate the actual testing situation. They were alerted that following listening to the tape and marking the typed script, they would be given time to analyze their tabulations. They were asked to decide whether this passage is at the child's independent, instructional, or frustration level, and to identify and describe each error they marked.

The Tape

The tape recorded oral reading passage was read in a midwestern dialect at 49.2 words per minute. The tape was recorded on excellent equipment which produced a high quality, low distortion recording. Thus, this tape was easily heard by the subjects.

The Responses

Table 1 displays the errors recorded by the subject in this study. The reading specialists varied considerably in describing oral reading errors.

TABLE 1
TYPES OF OBSERVED RESPONSE

Response	High	Low	Mean	S.D.
Total Markings	14	5	8.5	2.7
Total Errors	14	1	6.3	3.5
Substitutions	4	0	1.7	1.4
Insertions	6	0	1.5	1.5
Omissions	1	0	0.1	0.3
Repetitions Counted as Errors	6	0	1.9	1.5
Repetitions Not Counted As Errors	2	0	0.1	0.5
Corrections Counted as Errors	6	0	0.5	1.5
Corrections Not Counted As Errors	6	0	1.9	2.2
Sight Word	3	0	0.2	0.7
Mispronunciations	2	0	0.3	0.6
Successful Word Analysis Attempts	4	0	0.2	1.0

Six of the seventeen respondents estimated the material to be at the reader's independent level. Five subjects rated the material at the reader's instructional level, while the remaining six felt the material was at the reader's frustration level. Since the material was at the reader's independent level, about sixty-four percent of the subjects in this study underestimated the reader's performance.

IMPLICATIONS

Controversies surrounding reading assessment are real and cannot be ignored. No one can deny the facility for productive judgment that reading specialists develop through training and experience. But errors in judgment do exist as this brief study demonstrates. The difficulties in identification, description, and scoring of oral reading errors have several obvious sources that warrant further investigation. The quality of the error must be evaluated.

The oral reading selections of an informal reading inventory are usually administered without the aid of a tape recorder. This forces the examiner to rely on a rapid script marking technique and memory. This study emphasizes the need for tape recording the oral reading segment of informal inventories.

A second source of error lies in the examiner's listening capabilities. Reliability checks should be carried out periodically to establish the degree of adequacy or inadequacy the examiner brings to the assessment task. Poor hearing, inability to attend, and inattention to acoustic conditions are important factors in assessing the examiner's competency. The memory, listening capabilities, and willingness to attend to test conditions are sources of variation in oral reading assessment that seldom receive attention.

Scoring techniques account for a third source of disagreement in error identification. Obviously, different criteria are available. Betts (1946), Spache (1963), Gray (1963), Gates and McKillop (1962), Gilmore (1968), and McCracken (1963) represent some of the more widely used systems of assessment that rely on scoring criteria. Reflected in the responses of the reading specialists in this study is the general disagreement about treating repetitions and successful corrections as errors. In addition, concern must be given to the classification of errors that reflect differences in dialect between the reader and the examiner.

We must be careful in this critical stance not to throw the baby out with the bath water. The informal reading inventory is probably the best reading assessment tool available. Our objective should be to make it work for us and to make it into a better tool to aid in structuring productive learning situations. We need well-trained reading specialists, but judgment is an outcome of knowledge. Reading specialists must be willing to grapple with controversies and modify practice. Oral reading error identification must be approached in light of new knowledge.

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ECHOES FROM THE FIELD

Joe R. Chapel

During the 1975 summer session at Western Michigan University, there will be a large scale therapy program conducted by the Reading Center and Clinic and the Para-School Learning Center. Graduate students in the final stages of the Master's degree in Teaching of Reading will provide therapy for disabled readers at the Para-School.

The Para-School Learning Center of W.M.U., headed by Dr. Charles Warfield, was established in July, 1973. Presently the school works individually with 200 students who are between first and 12th grades. An average of 100 students attend the center each day. From these students, those who are most in need of reading therapy will be selected for this help by the staffs of the Reading Center and Clinic and the Para-School Learning Center. The parents of these students will be contacted and it will be essential that a commitment is given to send their children daily for therapy.

During the summer there will be periodic workshops conducted with the parents in an effort to show how they can provide help and encouragement at home for their children.

The therapy sessions will take place at the Para-School Learning Center.

THE INNOVATORS: THE JORDAN-ADAMS LEARNING CENTER

William L. Holladay



As any discipline grows and is talked and written about, rigid structure and inflexible concept often become hindrances to that very growth which fostered it. Certainly we have seen examples of this in education and perhaps more recently in the field of reading. The Jordan-Adams Learning Center has a simple, straightforward philosophy that circumvents this rigidity of thought; do and use anything that works.

The Center, established in Oklahoma City in 1973, is staffed by a group of professionals who found themselves dissatisfied with the inability to solve classroom problems and help learning disabled students in the formalized and structured form of mass education. Believing that they could perform a more valuable service as a specialized and private learning center, and after years of teaching, research and graduate work, these professionals serve the Oklahoma community in a wide capacity.

Neither in the Diagnostic Program nor in the Corrective Teaching Program are there any particular learning machines, materials or methods strictly adhered to. Dr. Dale Jordan, Director of Diagnosis, spends an entire day observing the client, who may be from 5 and a half years old to adult, studying and noting all possible facets that may have bearing on academic performance. The client's physical condition is meticulously and carefully documented by Center specialists, Dr. Robert L. Russell, audiological consultant, Phillip A. Walker, O.D., vision consultant as well as Dr. Jordan and Gary L. Adams, Director of Reading.

The main emphasis of the Center's program is geared toward the interpersonal aspects of the client and his surroundings. Success is felt to have been achieved when the client is able to cope and survive in his world. Believing that poor self-concept and lack of personal confidence is at the base of a wide variety of learning dysfunctions and negative behavioral and learning attitudes, Center personnel practice their own version of behavior modification. Dr. Jordan explains that "Our philosophy is to identify the specific points of error, then

teach to those points of error. In so doing we inevitably see significant changes in each child's habits, self-image, and conduct. We work toward remediating underlying causes for academic frustration where causes can be remediated. For those problems that cannot be changed, we emphasize coping skills, teaching children how to survive and thrive in areas that might always be difficult.

The tutorial program has shown an academic improvement rate of 95%. Perhaps most important is the fact that these students are now content to be at school and are better able to cope with failures and setbacks in their academic programs, thereby eliminating one of the greatest hurdles to learning.

Staff members have taken an active role in the academic community's life, conducting in-service programs, holding seminars and talks for parents and teachers as well as teaching graduate courses in surrounding colleges and universities. A considerable amount of diagnostic work is done for juvenile agencies and agencies working with indigent families. The Center has led research exploring the relationships between dysfunctions and delinquency for the Oklahoma Crime Commission as well as helping to develop techniques for lay volunteers in dealing with community problems that involve learning disability. Materials developed by the Center include: *Dyslexia in the Classroom* (Jordan), published by Charles E. Merrill (1972); *Jordan Oral Screening Test*, a phonetic analysis test; the *Jordan Written Screening Test* for specific Reading Disability; and the *Jordan Vision Screening Test* of binocularity in reading and writing.

WE SUGGEST

Eleanor Buelke

Rubin, Louis J. (Editor)

Facts and Feelings in the Classroom

New York: The Viking Press, 1973. Pp. 282.

Students today . . . are seeing life in terms different from our own and are forcing us to reexamine what schools are for and what roles we might play within them. Perhaps most significant is the growing interest in the life of feeling, with personal identity, with listening to your own drummer.

Communicative human relationships are dynamic, moving factors within society, exerting a prime influence upon quality of life. Never can they be broken into parts with labels and treated in isolation for effective human learning. Knowledge and education, in and of themselves, purely for the sake of survival of man, are worth little unless they contribute to the "grace and joy that make his survival worthwhile."

In *Facts and Feelings in the Classroom*, eight leaders in the field of educational change present their views on the role of emotions in successful learning. They believe that effective humanistic education is furthered by balancing attention to both affective and cognitive domains. In the opening chapter, Rubin sets forth the dominant theme of the volume: a curriculum that effectively influences children's behavior must concern itself with a broad range of feeling, thinking and valuing; to accommodate these concerns there need to be changes in definition of the school's role and function; these changes will demand concomitant changes in teaching methods and in-service teacher training.

Concerning changes in the curriculum, Meade states that it well may be the school's most important business to teach self-understanding and social understanding as parts of a whole. He suggests that confrontation and analysis of conflicts be faced and utilized in the classroom as parts of orderly, sanative processes which make it possible for all learners to acquire the "delicate art of self-negotiation." Both self-knowledge and knowledge of others are essential to individual health and societal health.

Scriven writes that the real subject matter of the curriculum is life itself; that rationality should be taught on an equal footing with reading; that school rooms need to be intellectually open, where children can learn to know themselves and the world. Such education would facilitate students' appropriate choices between what is im-

portant and what is trivial, leading to maturity, autonomy, and moral education—the significant elements of structure in a successful curriculum.

Bloom's essay on "Individual Differences In Achievement" does not deal with structure of the curriculum directly, but is related to it because it concerns affective entry characteristics that are primarily within-school variables. These variables are significant aspects of quality of instruction; their control and manipulation can maximize, or minimize, effectiveness of schools and levels of variation of achievement. Like Meade and Scriven, Bloom maintains that the "implicit curriculum" that teaches the student who he is in relation to others and what his place is in the world of people, ideas, and activities has a major effect upon his personality and mental health. "If the school environment provides the individual with evidence of his adequacy over a number of years, and, especially, in the first six years, there are some indications that this provides a type of immunization against mental illness for an indefinite period of time." A school environment that places a high premium upon each person's right to realize his potential by providing the *time*, the *help*, and the *encouragement* he needs to learn will cost considerable additional time and effort. However, it would reduce the "normal" distribution of achievement between aptitude and achievement to a vanishing point.

If curriculum changes are actually to take place, there will be a need for systematic planning and development of continuing educational programs for teachers. Tyler feels that efficient programs will need to focus on growth of teachers toward autonomy. As he describes it, autonomy means that "an individual has a good deal of control over his life; he has a wide range of choices; he knows enough about the probable consequences of each major possible course of action that he can make an informed choice." Children, too, need to learn this autonomy; they can learn best with continuing guidance and support of teachers who serve as live models. Successful educational change depends upon committed practitioners who are human beings in control of their own destinies.

It takes a teacher with a considerable measure of autonomy to grow into the kind of person Maslow calls a "Taoistic" teacher, one who has trust in others that helps him view each person as an individual, and, therefore, restrains interference in the other's growth and self-actualization. This kind of teacher holds a humanistic philosophy that is, possibly, the optimum in behavioral objectives: the goal of helping another to become the best he is able to become. "Helping," Maslow concludes, is an exceedingly difficult and delicate thing. "The

master stroke of craftsmanship lies in knowledge of when to intervene and when to 'keep hands off.'” Much attention in the preparation of teachers must be given to “that facet of teaching finesse that involves knowing when—and how—to superimpose teacher control on the child’s own self-control.” Teachers who do, indeed, develop and use this kind of finesse will be aware of, and acutely sensitive to, the feelings and attitudes of their students.

Piaget’s statement concerning the constant parallel between affective and intellectual life during childhood and adolescence is part of the support Jones uses for his argument against polarization of affect and cognition in education. He holds that if we help children well in their development of self, we must also help them link that development to their enjoyment, creation, and remaking of culture—that if we expect children to learn areas of commonly valued public knowledge, we are responsible for making such learning relevant to their private worlds of personal concerns and interests. To do otherwise constitutes *abuse* in American education.

In discussing his concept of qualitative intelligence, Eisner carries this idea further. He contends that schools need to increase the range of educational options and to diversify the range of their guided inquiries; that the mission of the school is “not primarily one of selection but one of education,” and that the use of schools “as a continually narrowing road that near its end only has room for a few to pass through” must be discontinued. Specifically, he asks that we give children more chances to sense, to feel, and to react. From evaluating this kind of evidence, teachers can determine the kinds of school experiences learners really need.

In the last three chapters, the editor sets forth some postulations about education that purports to cultivate successful humans; some descriptions of essential changes to be made in education as it exists today; and consideration of the dangers inherent in the change-over. His plea is for schools not merely to *train* knowledgeable children through fear, coercion, and bribery and, simultaneously, to destroy their passion for learning; but, manifestly, to *educate* the young, increasing their intellectual options, liberating not only their human intelligence, but also their human sympathy, permitting them to improve their present and control their futures. In his words:

When we set our sights on this larger view of education we reduce the danger of confusing means with ends. The child’s unique gifts serve as the point of departure and their progressive development as the ultimate goal. It is the evolution of the child himself, therefore, and not the conventions of the society, nor the aspirations of his parents, nor the blandishments of the educational hucksters, nor the theories of the philosophers, that must prevail.

READING IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL:

Emotion as a Factor in Concentration

Kenneth VanderMeulen

A recent survey conducted to explore areas of problems in students' academic work brought out the fact that 92% of our young people indicated a difficulty in concentrating. One is struck by the high degree of unanimity in this matter. Some respondents make such revealing remarks as: "I can't remember what I have just read"; "My mind keeps going off the subject"; and, "It seems impossible for me to concentrate." Along with these confessions, one finds reasoning that searches for places to lay the blame, as: there is too much noise, the text is boring, the assignment was too confusing, studying can't be effective when the textbook is uninteresting. As many different ways of stating the problem as may be expressed, they all come down to one sad truth—merely keeping one's mind on a progression of thoughts in print has become a major academic problem.

It is especially noteworthy that so many of the students for whom concentration is a problem have a tendency to place the reason for the trouble on surrounding noises and on the "dullness" of the text. The myth that meaningless noise per se is a cause for failure to concentrate is a recurring one. And, in our haste to oversimplify the case, we may also say it is the television that has taught our children mental habits which operate against concentration. If indeed we were ever to invent an instrument that could ferret out all the causal factors in the problem of concentration-failure, we would undoubtedly find that each young person reacts to a highly individual set of factors, defying classroom or group treatment.

Probably the most commonly found causal factor would be one which cannot be altered by any treatment known; this is the attitude of modern Americans that paying close attention over an extended period of time is not worth the effort. Commercialism in American life dictates that mass media must produce and sell what is popular. It is not popular to sit and think. Games and pastimes which require mental power and sustained concentration do not make it on the entertainment market. The popular ingredients of entertainment are the exact antitheses of the attributes required for improving powers of concentration. Diversion, immediate gratification, rapidly changing

lights, color, and sound are much more easily accepted than the challenge of lengthy consideration of an intellectual problem. The Canadian writer John Buchan felt that our scatterbrain mentalities were the results of advertisers, who “make a frontal assault on our sensibilities.”

Thus, even when normally mature students assume an attitude of willingness and are prepared to expend the necessary effort to study their textbooks and assignments, their inability to focus their minds for an appreciable amount of time is most dismaying to teachers. Despite the good intentions of students, the results of all their work will add up to total discouragement, unless teachers can help them improve their powers of concentration. Development of concentration, after all, *is* possible; and may be a most gratifying outcome if the approach is made with some care.

Any consideration of concentration as an improvable reading skill must include discussion of the areas of factors which influence one's reading performance. The specific categories are as follows:

Physical—Without going into great technical detail about what constitutes the definition of the process of reading, we may say that reading is a physical act to the extent that we use our eyes and our nervous system. Our efficiency in reading can be altered by physical conditions that impede or hinder the process. Thus, pain, hunger, myopia, hearing loss, or extreme fatigue are some conditions which will influence reading performance.

Psychological—As intellectual progress or growth determines our ability to learn and retain for application, our emotional maturity tends to enhance or limit our willingness to use our intellectual ability. However, some of our past emotional reactions lie below the surface of our conscious mind, acting as a part of our mental content, influencing us without complete awareness on our part.

Environmental—This is probably the least important area of the three, since one can easily and simply alter the conditions of his immediate surroundings by physically removing himself to a place more conducive to study and thought. Yet this is the part given the most emphasis in the How-to-Study booklets, often repeating common-sense “rules” about one's desk, lighting, temperature, and the level of noise. It is not surprising that students fall into the habit of blaming the immediate surroundings for their inability to focus their minds on the order of ideas in the texts. Sometimes the teachers themselves succumb to student criticism of the style (or lack of it) in text writing, when what is really required is a brief unit devoted to an analysis of what comprises the skill of concentration.

Teachers of junior and senior high school students have to remind themselves periodically just how intensely personal the process of reading is. One might say we expose our ego-nerve each time we perform in reading. And while your class members may not now be aware of what heavy pressures were put upon them while they were learning to read, many still have very strong residual emotional reactions toward reading as young men and women. More parental, school, and peer pressure is put upon success in learning to read than in almost any field of human endeavor, save learning to speak—which is learned in relative privacy and with much more time allowed. Just as tight competition is often too much stress for children who haven't enjoyed adequate security of emotional support, performance in reading poses an awesome threat to young people who see it as an exposure of their personal inadequacies. Any failures the child may have incurred pose a threat to his emotional development in the earlier stages.

Thus reading *per se* may be regarded as an unpleasant experience for the high school student. He may have forgotten the reasons. And he may be equal to the level of the intellectual task in every respect. Yet the process of reading engenders an emotion which operates against effective interpretation and assimilation of what is read.

If we were to pursue the solution of this problem in a classroom where it is being effectively dealt with, we might hear the topic originally being discussed in Ms. Hunt's biology class, as follows:

"Ms. Hunt, aren't there writers of science texts who can make their stuff interesting? This book is really boring!"

"Yeah. Why don't we skip the book and do lab work?"

Ms. Hunt stops writing on the board and gives her full attention to the first speaker. "Now 'boring' and 'interesting' are both relative terms. Let me ask you, Paul, did you have trouble understanding what you read?"

"No, I guess not."

"Is it a matter of not having your purpose for reading in mind when you started?"

"Oh, I stated that on the study sheet. I was reading to find examples of symbiosis in nature."

"You may have touched upon a problem. Text writers are often experts, but not necessarily in writing. You had mastered the vocabulary in the section?"

"Yes, we covered that in class."

Ms. Hunt nods approval, and brings in the whole class, "Do some of the rest of you feel the same about the reading you do?" Various

class members describe their frequent difficulty in paying attention to printed pages, in all parts of their curricular texts.

While not attempting a crash course in the psychology of reading, Ms. Hunt briefly recounts the number of ways that feelings and intellect may come into conflict, giving students ample opportunity to ask questions, and making obvious her assumption that the class wants seriously to solve the problem.

Some of the members mildly protest that they think the text, not the reader, is the crux of the problem. Others say it is noise, being bothered by others, and possibly their own poor training in reading.

With each contribution, Ms. Hunt says she agrees that it may also be a factor. Finally, she makes what she calls an unofficial assignment. "Now, since the problem seems to exist for all of you in one course or another, I propose that you conduct a week long experiment. Each time that you intend to sit down to study for a certain period of time, keep a sheet of paper handy for a Concentration Log. As you study, jot down the source or nature of any distraction. Every single time you find yourself thinking about anything other than the subject of the assigned work, write that thought down."

"At first, this idea will seem hard to follow, because you'll be thinking about distractions so much of the time that you can't zero in on the subject at all. That is just a passing thing, however. All you need to remember is to be specific. And honest. Keep in mind that this is an experiment which helps you to analyze your habits of thought, to see yourself more clearly. No one is going to inspect your list.

"When you have listed some forty to fifty of these distractions, you need to put them into categories. You should classify them according to those three headings I told you about. Some will be physical; such as fatigue, or hunger, a cold, or headache. Some will be psychological; such as memories, anger, love, fear, shame, or elation. And some of the distractions you will have will be due to your surroundings; such as noise, heat, light, and persons interrupting you." Ms. Hunt pauses to wait for full attention.

"After you have completed the listing and categorizing, you should spend some time in thinking and reflecting on the list. Then, write a page or so to tell your reactions, findings, or observations about the list. What kind of distraction was most frequent in your case? We'll have another class discussion to decide on what the next steps are, after we've had some experience with this project."

In order to involve the reader in this matter, we are including here a list typical of those the students logged. The purpose is to examine the items of distraction on the unclassified list and decide what sort

of page of conclusions this student will write. Since such lists as the one below will constitute the basis for the class discussion to follow, the reader may readily predict what thoughts the students will reach about concentration.

- | | |
|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. looking for kleenex | 24. eyes burn—sleepy |
| 2. sorry about what I said | 25. get and open Coke |
| 3. hope get money soon | 26. sudden sad memory |
| 4. change radio station | 27. should write letter |
| 5. owe insurance—car | 28. thought about girl |
| 6. used bathroom | 29. looked at clock |
| 7. must find a job | 30. cleaning glasses |
| 8. digestive pain | 31. text seems confusing |
| 9. worry about health | 32. wished I dared phone |
| 10. can't seem to think | 33. can't see use of this |
| 11. receive phone call | 34. loud barking outside |
| 12. thought about grades | 35. friend comes into room |
| 13. yawning | 36. worry about grades |
| 14. wish I had more time | 37. met neat girl today |
| 15. should call M. | 38. made ink smudge on page |
| 16. annoyed at self | 39. dog next door yelping |
| 17. remembered joke | 40. silly radio commercial |
| 18. siren out on street | 41. noticed I was doodling |
| 19. no letter today | 42. upset by world news |
| 20. thought about date | 43. flickering fluorescent |
| 21. text is too tough | 44. noises on upper floor |
| 22. must ask parents | 45. this is a sloppy job |
| 23. another pmt. due! | |

As the young person who made the list above sought to classify his distractions into three categories, he finished with the items positioned as

Physical	Psychological	Environmental
follows: 1, 6, 8,	2, 3, 5, 7, 9,	4, 11, 18, 21
24, 30	10, 12, 13, 14, 15	25, 29, 31, 34,
	16, 17, 19, 20,	35, 38, 39, 40,
	22, 23, 26, 27, 28	42, 43, 44
	32, 33, 36, 37	
	41, 45	

Why does Ms. Hunt take important time out of biology class to have her students conduct what can justifiably be described as an unscientific experiment? Three probable outcomes can be seen as distinctly beneficial to the participant. First, students who go through this self-study will invariably be impressed with the number of distractions which originate within the mind as opposed to environmental interruptions. Second, the exercise always leads to an increased ability to look at one's problems with a degree of objectivity rarely attained

through any other method of self-evaluation. Third, the discussion which Ms. Hunt refers to is an important means of releasing a number of previously repressed thoughts and ideas about emotions. It will provide a means for the teacher to talk about the dozen ways of establishing and maintaining good emotional health. It will be a chance for some students to learn how to rid themselves of anxieties that tend to block their logical thinking. Finally, it may be the long sought opportunity to air some pet peeves, fears, and phobias; possibly to allay them for good.

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

The name of this department is Round Robin, in the sense of exchanging ideas in an ever upward and outward spiral.

There is another connotation to the phrase, however, that isn't quite so salubrious. Too often, as everyone knows, when there is a problem the buck is passed from person to person and from one level of authority to another.

Most people in the field of reading decry the great chasm between good teaching and good teaching of teachers. The school teachers say, "Why weren't we taught the real-life day to day solutions to teaching reading?" And the professors say, "Why weren't you interested in what we had to offer?" Or else they say, "We wanted to give you first-hand experience, but there wasn't money from the bursar," or "there was no cooperation from the schools."

The Reading Unit at Western Michigan University took a dramatic step in attempting to break the Round Robin syndrome. Or, rather, to create a Round Robin of real merit. Ronald Crowell, the chairman of the unit, invited Clara Harbeck, Reading Consultant, Kalamazoo Public Schools; Leona Hefner, Reading Consultant, Portage Public Schools; Martha Fuce, Secondary Reading Teacher, Plainwell High School; and Karen Dybeck, a teacher at Comstock Central Middle School, to discuss with the professors of reading their concerns in this matter.

Here are some of their suggestions:

Teacher training is needed in secondary developmental reading

programs.

Every student in the Teacher Education program should have at least one course in developmental reading.

Better course definitions are needed and duplications should be avoided; not one course with two titles.

Graduate programs should have a greater interdisciplinary emphasis, and the student should have a wide range of experiences in testing and measurement.

More functional training in classroom situations should be provided, for practical application of techniques and strategy in working with groups of children in therapy.

Use classrooms as a laboratory; get out into the schools.

Require that student teachers get acquainted with the reading teacher.

The Federal government is drying up funds for "down the hall" services. Student teachers need instruction on classroom supportive services.

"Tune in earlier." Students should learn more about diagnosis and remediation before graduation.

Most school districts require the use of a basal series, therefore the university people should help students become acquainted with basals and their strengths and how they can most effectively be utilized.

Learning disabilities courses and information on working with the gifted should be available to prospective teachers.

With the proliferation of new publications in reading it appears essential to offer a course which gives the student a broad survey of all modern publications.

These suggestions, if implemented, could have a salubrious effect on prospective teachers. What is your reaction?

DES, Editor

TEN-SECOND REVIEWS

Betty L. Hagberg

"How many a man has dated a new era in his life from the reading of a book."—Walden

Anderson, Clarence, Terrence Foley, Jean Daugherty, and Dorothy J. McGinnis, "The Realities of Teaching Reading at a Community College," *Interaction: Research and Practice in College-Adult Reading*, (Phil Nacke, Editor), The National Reading Conference, Inc., Clemson, South Carolina, 1974, pp. 261-264.

This paper presents an overview of the many urgent and vexing problems of teaching reading in a community college. Ways of dealing with some of them are suggested. Emphasis is placed on changing the reading program's image, that is, that the program is not for remedial students but for students who want to "reach up for self-realization." An individualized reading program based on diagnosis and prescription is recommended as the community college program attempts to meet the vast range of needs of its students. Other problems, such as approval and support of faculty and administration as well as achieving accountability, are raised. The ideas set forth in this paper stimulate thinking, discussion, and action.

Atwood, Beth, *Building Independent Learning Skills*, Learning Handbooks, 530 University Ave., Palo Alto, California 94301.

This book offers a variety of classroom tested ideas and approaches to help students become independent learners. Included are more than 100 activities and projects that help students learn to define problems, plan investigations, and evaluate results. Also presented are suggestions for topics that develop specific independent learning skills.

Burgy, Dianne R., "Supervisory Strategy in Reading," *Journal of Reading*, (November, 1974), 18:119-121.

Reading personnel face difficulties when translating a job description into the realities of the everyday work. The duties, whether specified or merely understood, have to be translated into time allocations of daily, weekly and monthly schedules. The working relationship between the reading specialist and other teachers, and the areas of reading to be emphasized are

practical and important topics to be clarified. Burgy presents five areas of importance and suggests time allocations for each.

Capuzzi, Dave and Mary O. Netherton Warren, "Using Transactional Analysis Making the Reading Experience OK," *Journal of Reading*, (December, 1974), 18:225-230.

The authors state that the student entering high school or college with a reading handicap brings with him attitudes and feelings about himself and his environment which can interfere with his reading skills and personal growth. The instructor of this student also has feelings and attitudes which can block growth. Therefore, it is important for the instructor to gain insight into himself and his students before he attempts a developmental reading program. What seems to be a reading problem may be a personality or interpersonal relationship problem instead. Transactional analysis offers an instructor a way to increase communication in the classroom and to understand psychological dynamics of the learning experience. Capuzzi and Warren maintain that reading teachers need not become authorities in transactional analysis theory to become aware of its value. They briefly outline the theory and indicate that an awareness of the different ego states which we all share, the transactions we engage in, and the games we play can help us reach many students who otherwise might never learn to read.

Cassidy, Jack, "Legislative Activities and Involvement, Ten Tips for State Councils," *Journal of Reading*, (November, 1974), 18:140-142.

Cassidy challenges reading professionals to become actively involved in legislative activities. Recent developments such as the elimination of reading positions in some states and the Peter Doe case in San Francisco demonstrate this need. The author sets forth ten tips to foster legislative involvement of state councils. He reminds us that we can no longer afford to let others make laws that affect responsibilities we are best able to carry out as professionals.

Chan, Julie M. T., *Why Read Aloud to Children?* (Micromonograph), International Reading Association, Newark, Delaware, 1974.

The author presents the merits of oral reading to children in the home. She explains why reading to children is important and also suggests how and when this activity might take place. Chan discusses what children gain from being read to and shows how the home and parents can provide a climate conducive to reading.

Criscuolo, Nicholas P., "Quality Reading Programs at Bargain Basement Prices," *Journal of Reading*, (November, 1974), 18:127-130.

The author, as supervisor of reading, describes eight programs which have been implemented in a public school in Connecticut. The programs are: 1) Book Bank, 2) Reading Inducement Plan, 3) Reading Share-In, 4) Reading Exhibit, 5) Make-It and Take-It Workshops, 6) Volunteer Programs, 7) Preservice Program, and 8) Involvement of Parents. These eight effective programs retain quality in reading instruction and operate economically at the same time.

Curwin, Richard L., and Geri Curwin, *Developing Individual Values In the Classroom*, Learning Handbooks, 530 University Ave., Palo Alto, California 94301.

The authors present a practical approach to help every child understand who he is and how to become more like his ideal self. It provides down-to-earth activities, teaching strategies and procedures to help teachers develop every child's own values. Some of the content includes: definitions and discussions of key valuing concepts; projects that help students examine their lives, feelings, experiences, and goals; ideas for building trust and self-respect; and many more suggestions on how to help the student to become more like his ideal self.

Drew, Walter F., Anita R. Olds, and Henry F. Olds, Jr., *Motivating Today's Students*, Learning Handbooks, 530 University Ave., Palo Alto, California 94301.

Based on many teachers' classroom experiences, this handbook deals with specific motivational problems and describes successful strategies to help students become motivated

achievers. Content includes: activities that help students understand their need to achieve, motivational techniques for teachers to use in one-to-one relationships, how to involve parents in motivating students, and many more useful approaches and techniques. The authors have trained many teachers on this subject.

Duffy, Gerald G. (Editor), *Reading In the Middle School*, International Reading Association, Newark, Delaware, 1974.

This publication clearly points out the place of reading in the middle school. Part I presents the unique characteristics of middle schools and middle school students; Part II focuses on the organizational problems of the middle school programs; Part III describes the reading content and instructional strategies; and Part IV predicts the future of the middle school. The book is practical and field oriented, usable to both the reading teacher and content area teacher.

Durkin, Delores, "Phonics: Instruction That Needs To Be Improved," *The Reading Teacher*, (November, 1974), 28:152-156.

Durkin states ". . . that our schools are teaching phonics is hardly an undesirable situation." If children are to learn how to identify words not recognized in their printed form, they have to be taught how to use spellings, along with other cues, to help with identification of new or unknown words. However, the author indicates what is bothersome about the current scene is not that phonics is being taught but that it is being taught poorly. In this article, Durkin describes some features of current phonics instruction that would be viewed as flaws. She then offers valuable guidelines for the improvement of phonics instruction.

Durkin, Delores, "After Ten Years: Where Are We Now In Reading?" *The Reading Teacher*, (December, 1974), 28:262-267.

Durkin compares her observations from frequently, regularly scheduled visits in classrooms to *The First R*, (Austin and Morrison, 1963). Individualized instruction, grouping practices, testing practices, and instructional leadership have changed very little. The author lists five variables which affect what any teacher does in a classroom and suggests four cate-

gories of professionals who must make contributions if solutions are to be found for the less than perfect instruction. Those categories include: 1) the teacher, 2) the instructor of reading courses, 3) the elementary school principal, and 4) the author of commercially prepared instructional materials. Suggestions of "what to do" are given for each of the categories.

Durr, William K., and Roberta Hickman, "Reading Instruction in Soviet Schools: Methods and Materials," *The Reading Teacher*, (November, 1974), 28:134-140.

The authors present a resume of their ten days of intensive discussion with Soviet leaders and visits to schools in Moscow, Leningrad, and Tashkent. They point out that the 150 national languages in the Soviet Union are in varying degrees more consistent than English in their symbol-sound relationships. Strategies for reading instruction are grounded in this consistency. Prior to the beginning of formal reading in first grade, some 80 percent of Soviet children are enrolled in day care centers. The centers offer a variety of activities which prepare children for a successful beginning in first grade reading. It is reported that an average of 50 percent of the children in cities can read before grade one. In Russia first graders are about one year older than the average U.S. first grade student. The Soviet first grader is introduced to his "ABC book" the first day of school. They complete this 103-page book by mid-December. Durr and Hickman briefly describe this book and offer some interesting conclusions about learning to read in the Soviet schools. The authors point out that there is a common dedication to the goal of literacy in the Soviet Schools. Could the success of Soviet children in reading possibly be because there is a complete and honest conviction that each child *will* learn to read? Do read this article in its entirety!

Earle, Richard A., and Richard Morely, "The Half-Open Classroom: Controlled Options in Reading," *Journal of Reading*, (November, 1974), 18:131-135.

The authors reiterate that educational commentary of the 1970's reflects an intense concern for increased freedom with responsibility in the classroom. It is indicated that teachers often flit from one promising innovation to another, expecting an overnight "moth-to-butterfly" transformation. Consequently,

rejection with disappointment is the outcome. The authors carefully describe and give examples on how increased freedom with responsibility can be achieved by the gradual adjustment of three elements: 1) time, 2) task, and 3) student movement. However, they warn that significant change in classroom management must be preceded and accompanied by changes in teacher attitude, and change is never comfortable.

Froese, Victor, "IRI's At the Secondary Level Re-examined," *Interaction: Research and Practice In College-Adult Reading*, (Phil Nacke, Editor), The National Reading Conference, Inc., Clemson, South Carolina, 1974, pp. 120-124.

This article is based on a critical review of the literature and sets forth the problems related to using IRI's at the secondary level. Its intent is to stimulate further research and development of IRI's. The author indicates that informal reading inventories have been in use approximately fifty years and that there are few studies related to the use of them at the secondary school level. Froese identifies ten problem areas of informal reading inventories. He states that very few of the problems have been satisfactorily solved at the secondary level and suggests that this is a fruitful area for further research.

Garcia, Ricardo L., "Mexican Americans Learn Through Language Experience," *The Reading Teacher*, (December, 1974), 28:301-305.

Garcia contends that today, more than ever before, pressure is being exerted on reading and language arts instructors to meet the needs and interests of Chicano students. Studies indicate that 63% of the Chicano student population is reading six months below the national norm in the twelfth grade. The author indicates that compensatory reading programs must be made more effective. They have generally focused on changing the language habits of Chicano youngsters. He suggests that language arts teachers change the ethnic content of their English-based instruction to portray the bicultural environment in which Chicano children live. This would make the English language arts instruction relevant to the cultural interests of the Chicano student. In his paper, Garcia suggests methods and bicultural materials that could be used by reading teachers to teach Chicano disabled readers. He lists re-

sources and gives names and addresses of centers which provide bicultural Mexican American materials.

Johns, Jerry L. (Editor), *Literacy for Diverse Learners*, International Reading Association, Newark, Delaware, 1974.

This publication is an excellent collection of papers drawn from the Denver and other IRA conventions. Its content provides practical strategies and insights into the factors which must be considered in programs for illiterates, young or old. Each section of the book is prefaced by questions with which the authors deal and concluded with a bibliography of articles and books of current importance published in the United States. This publication will bring new insights into your situation and offer alternative approaches to your work.

Lesser, Gerald S., *Children and Television*, Random House, New York, New York, 1974.

This book gives a careful account of the development of the popular and successful TV show from the beginning concept through the first year of broadcast. Lesser includes the failures as well as the successes. The basic premise of "Sesame Street" is to educate. Professional educators carefully planned and reflected on the program before it was viewed over the TV network. Lesser points out why this program has been so successful.

Meyers, Elizabeth S., Helen Ball and Marjorie Crutchfield, *The Kindergarten Teacher's Handbook*, Gramercy Press, Los Angeles, California 90007.

The program presented in this volume provides the teacher a means of assessing children and individualizing instruction for them at the outset of the Kindergarten experience. In the assessment procedures described, the teacher will secure a sample of each child's functioning in visual motor integration, visual memory, fine motor and manipulative skill, language, gross motor control, body concept, and auditory discrimination. The assessment tasks are suitable for children from varying socioeconomic backgrounds. Suggested instructional activities are provided once assessment is completed. The authors suggest in this prescriptive teaching approach that a portion of the

Kindergarten day be set aside to work with children individually or in small groups for brief instructional sessions. These sessions are tailored to each child's profile of strengths and lags.

Miller, George A. (Editor), *Linguistic Communication: Perspectives for Research*, International Reading Association, Newark, Delaware, 1974.

This is a report by a study group organized by the National Institute for Education to examine some of the problems of linguistic communication. The writers affirm that literacy skills are acquired in many ways and in many situations. A program of research and development of learning and instruction in reading, writing, listening, and speaking is recommended. The two areas defined as the most pressing national problems of literacy at this time are: 1) Imparting basic literacy to those who most need it, and 2) Raising language comprehension of all the population.

Newcomer, Phyllis and Donald Hammill, "A Short Form of the Revised Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities," *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, (November, 1974), 7:570-572.

A short form of the ITPA was developed for use in research projects. The authors selected sample items from each subtest so that all psycholinguistic functions measured by the original test were included in the brief form. Both the long and shortened tests were administered to 83 "normal" children between the ages of 5 and 10. Results indicated that the short form ITPA had sufficient reliability to be used for the purposes of research or screening. However, the authors recommend that the study be replicated on children of uniform chronological age before it is used in clinical settings.

Osburn, Bess, "Shock Treatment Inservice Program Adds New Life to Reading," *Journal of Reading*, (November, 1974), 18:122-126.

"How can I teach him science? He can't read." The question, "Should every secondary teacher be expected to teach reading in his subject area?" is often raised and much discussed among educators. To develop an awareness of the reading process, a model might be used to direct the attention of teachers to their own reading process. Osburn shares and ex-

plains a simulation activity she used which proved very helpful in establishing interest and developing an awareness among teachers as to what the reading process involves.

Peterson, Joe, and Martha Carroll, "The Cloze Procedure as An Indicator of the Instructional Level For Disabled Readers," *Interaction: Research and Practice In College-Adult Reading*, (Phil Nacke, editor), The National Reading Conference, Inc., Clemson, South Carolina, 1974, pp. 153-157.

This study was undertaken to determine whether or not the cloze technique can be used to predict scores on more traditional measures of comprehension. Fifty-six disabled readers in grades 6, 7, 8, and 9 from a rural setting provided data for the study. Readers were considered disabled if measured reading comprehension was two or more years below grade placement. The results support previous reported figures of 38-44% with the cloze technique in predicting instructional levels of disabled as well as normal readers. The author points out a certain amount of instability with cloze and recommends that practitioners proceed with caution until further research indicates the degree of confidence one can place in scores derived from cloze procedure.

Pikulski, John, "A Critical Review: Informal Reading Inventories," *The Reading Teacher*, (November, 1974), 28:141-151.

Pikulski reviews and explores several problems regarding the use of Informal Reading Inventories. He carefully outlines the points in question and reminds his readers that these problems can be solved. The author states that pointing to difficulties in no way suggests that informal reading procedures are not useful. The purpose of this paper was to point out some pitfalls that should be guarded against and to suggest the need for more study to make the IRI an even more useful instrument.

Popham, James W. (Editor), *Evaluation In Education*, McCutchan Publishing Corporation, Berkeley, California, 1974.

For those who want to keep up with developments in the field of educational evaluation, this book is consistent with the current mood of excitement prevalent in that field. Each chap-

ter is written by a scholar recognized for his competency on the topic under consideration. Some of the ideas are literally brand new. For example, Scriven and Stufflebeam provide some refreshing insights and introduce some intriguing theoretical modifications into their approaches to the tasks faced by evaluators. Each chapter is also available as a separate booklet.

Rauch, Sidney J., "The Administrator and the Reading Program: Clarifying Roles of Reading Personnel," *The Reading World*, (October, 1974), 14:37-39.

In his paper Rauch warns that confusion about roles and responsibilities of reading personnel can reduce the effectiveness of reading programs. All faculty should know the functions of the reading specialist which the administrator should specify at a faculty meeting and clearly express his support. Rauch concludes his paper by providing a list of suggested responsibilities for the reading teacher and the reading consultant.

Rude, Robert T., "Objective-based Reading Systems: An Evaluation," *The Reading Teacher*, (November, 1974), 28:169-175.

The article identifies the outstanding features of a group of currently popular criterion referenced, or objective based, elementary school reading programs. Both strengths and weaknesses of each program have been given attention. The programs examined include the *Croft Inservice Reading: Word Attack and Comprehension*, the *Fountain Valley Teacher Support System*, the *Prescriptive Reading Inventory*, *Read On*, and the *Wisconsin Design for Reading Skill Development: Word Attack and Study Skills*. Each of the programs is analyzed according to five basic criteria: 1) skills and objectives of the program, 2) assessment techniques, 3) the management system, 4) instructional procedures and materials retrieval, and 5) program characteristics. The implementation cost per student has purposely been omitted in this article. Cost should be considered after examining the strengths and weaknesses of each program.

Sanacore, Joseph, "Enhancing the Reading Program: Administrative Considerations," *Journal of Reading*, (November, 1974), 18:114-118.

Sanacore reviews practical administrative aids to a school

reading program. Since the improvement of the program is largely dependent upon the building leader, that person should:

- 1) Obtain qualified reading staff, using as a guide the 1968 International Reading Association's criteria,
- 2) Provide inservice education programs to assist and motivate teachers, as well as to inform principals,
- 3) Guide the staff in certain aspects of reading evaluation and observation in classrooms,
- 3) Provide for parent aides in reading who have been given workshop preparation to do tutorial work.

Shaw, Darla H., "Serving the Entire Student Body in Reading," *The Journal of Reading*, (December, 1974), 18:203-205.

The author thinks the reading specialist should be of help to more than just disadvantaged readers. Students who are not reading below grade level need help in applying what they read, retention of material, vocabulary development, and other reading study skills. Shaw indicates that reading teachers must change the concept of their jobs. They must look into methods of serving the student body instead of limiting themselves to a few. True, high school reading teachers should give priority to disabled readers but priority need not mean isolation in the reading lab. They need to sell their services to content area teachers who often can do more about improving a student's reading ability on a daily basis than a reading teacher can do on a once or twice a week basis. The author outlines services the high school reading teacher can provide for the total student body.

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