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Reading

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Winter 1973

Reading **HORIZONS**

Editorial Board

Dorothy J. McGinnis, Editor

Blanche O. Bush

Clara Harbeck

Betty L. Hagberg

Robert G. Rubom

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Editorial Comment

PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT THROUGH READING

This is an invitation to you, the teacher of reading, to lay aside for the moment the common quest for a magic list of reading skills and turn to that more nebulously defined objective, personality development through reading. Reading, like all human behavior, is a function of the total personality. When an individual reads, he *identifies*, *interprets*, and *evaluates* in accordance with his needs, goals, wishes, defenses, and values. Furthermore, his willingness to put forth effort to learn to read will be proportionate to his desires, goals, and needs.

The concept that desirable personality characteristics and effective reading development are interrelated and interdependent is not new. Most teachers are willing to accept this hypothesis. But the ever-practical question remains: Precisely *what* can be done about it in a classroom of thirty or forty children? Perhaps the following suggestions may serve as a springboard for action: Get to know and understand your children without prejudice of cumulative records or negative reports from others. Respect the integrity of each individual and *believe* in his basic desire and ability to succeed. Teach skills and use materials that are at instructional learning levels rather than frustration levels. Try to make them meaningful to the child. Show your own personality, breadth of interests, and recognition of individual needs by providing an open and rich atmosphere for reading in the classroom.

If you have the energy to make full use of these suggestions, your reading program will incorporate motivation, experiential background and its enrichment along with a recognition of needs and abilities in the classroom. It will be centered around meaningful, successful learning experiences, and growing children. It will be an integral force in the lifetime process of personality development.

Dorothy J. McGinnis
Editor

READING TESTS DON'T REALLY TELL IT LIKE IT IS

George D. Masters

BEDFORD PUBLIC SCHOOLS, BEDFORD, N.Y.

Reading, at one time the hallmark of the educated man, is now the bugbear of the modern school. In other ages it was recognized that there were some children who didn't want to read, never wanted to read, and never would want to read. Today, such a student is spurred, goaded, and hounded till he either learns to read for self preservation, drops out of school, or confronted with failure, lets the world see the only R's he has learned, the wrong R's—resistance, rejection, and rebellion.

Although it is true that one can get more out of life from reading, it is not true that he who does not read is a failure. It takes intelligence to drive a tractor-trailer, to type a letter, or to repair a faulty carbureter, but it is not necessary to have the reading level of a college graduate. And this is what the majority of schools and parents are desiring for their students and children. Teachers want students to read well because they are judged on the reading ability of their students. Students are the finished product of the schools; and, like other industries, the school business is interested in turning out a product that is acceptable. And parents. Well, they are parents and are naturally anxious that their children succeed. But it is very difficult for the schools to judge a product that is acceptable. The modern educator realizes this and together with the parent clings to the lodestar of the standardized test—the one seeming constant in a confused constellation of pupil personnel data.

A standardized test is much like a recipe in cooking. If a woman in the kitchen wants to try a new dish, e.g. chicken chow mein, she will need instructions that have proven successful in the past. If she follows these instructions, she is reasonably sure of creating a culinary delight. The instructions that she is following have been reproduced over and over again to insure an accurate recipe. She is told to use one-half tablespoon of salt, not one; one-fourth pound of butter, not one-half; or one-half pound of rice, not a pound. In the same way standardized tests are subjected to rigorous study and experimentation. The conditions of testing, the reading of directions, and the scoring are always the same. Thus the child that is tested in Chicago, San Francisco, or New York will receive the exact same questions and

directions and his answers will be judged in the same way. The child's score is then compared with the scores of a mythical-like tested norm. His success or failure is based on where he measures when placed against this yardstick.

Although many parents and some teachers think that all standardized tests are intended to measure intelligence or "IQ," these tests may be divided into several kinds designed for different purposes.

The first kind attempts to measure intelligence or aptitude for school work. It stresses those kinds of ability that have to do with success in school and is composed largely of questions or items not specifically taught in school. The usual intelligence test will give one score for verbal or linguistic ability and one for numerical or mathematical ability. Some will even provide scores for memory, reasoning, spatial differentiation, and the like.

A second kind of standardized test is the interest inventory. Interest inventories are not really tests, since there are no right or wrong answers. The questions present to the student a list of possible likes and dislikes. Organized so that each response can be made by choosing from two or more suggested answers, the replies are then scored for a variety of occupations or occupational fields. The results show the relative strength of the individual's interests in different vocations, or how his interests compare with those of persons successfully engaged in various occupations.

A third kind, closely related to the second, is the personality measure. It also has no right or wrong replies. It is geared so that the individual answers questions about his hopes and fears, likes and dislikes, his actions in varying situations, and so forth.

A fourth kind tries to measure achievement in school subjects or subject fields—arithmetic, language, spelling in the primary grades and English, physics, history and other areas of study in secondary grades. For the most part it attempts to measure the knowledge of important facts learned in a subject area. The reading test is generally considered to fall into this category, although it should be given a classification all its own. The other tests are measures of amounts of knowledge. A reading test is an attempt to measure a skill. It is more concerned not with *what* a student knows but with *how* a student reads.

At one time a noted educator sat down and tried to determine what made a good reader. He finally came up with a list of 83 different skills that must be acquired if one is to read well. This complex dissection of the reading process showed that there were 17 separate

skills involved in understanding word meaning; 20 related to word analysis; 13 bearing directly on comprehension and interpretation; 25 involved in study skills; and 8 related to oral reading. The reading process of the good reader may be compared to the breathing process of a healthy individual. Both are so natural that one fails to realize how complicated each is, and only when something is wrong does he become aware. Few standardized tests attempt to measure half of these skills, much less all of them.

The standardized reading test is usually divided into two parts. The first part consists of vocabulary words to be defined. The reader is usually provided with a list of four or five words from which he makes a choice. The second part consists of paragraphs to be read followed by questions based on the paragraphs. As with the vocabulary, the reader is here also given a choice of answers. The results of these two sections may be given in stanines, percentile ranks, or grade equivalents. Of the three the grade equivalent or grade score is used most often. A score of 5.5 means that the reader has earned a score equal to the average score earned by children in the fifth month of the fifth grade. But those who make use of these reading tests often forget the basic assumption of the test makers: in a group of undifferentiated youngsters, some must always score higher on a test than others in accordance with the natural law of individual differences. Thus, the designers of the California Achievement Test found that the greatest number of fifth graders taking the test during the fifth month of school had 25 correct answers. This number then became the 5.5 reading grade for all future test takers. Too often people assume that any pupil with such a score could not understand and appreciate a book composed for the ninth grade despite his social, physical, and intellectual maturity. The bell shape curve of individual differences is not to be construed as a vertical line of homogeneous abilities. That which makes for differences in height, weight, and color, also makes for differences in intellectual ability. Each child is an individual and should not be made to fit into any preconceived mold.

But it is based on these scores that the destinies of hundreds of children are decided. They are often used to separate the sheep from the goats. Those who do badly usually wind up in the oaf's class and need influential fathers to get them into better colleges. These tests should only be another factor in judging the intellectual ability of a child. By themselves, they do not really "tell it like it is."

There are only two reasons why people read—for pleasure and for

information. How much pleasure and how much information do students get from a reading test? A reading test attempts to measure the testee's normal reading ability by placing him in an abnormal reading situation.

A reading test usually consists of isolated passages. This use of isolated passages, so reminiscent of the commonplace books of Francis Bacon, is unsound because of its very disjointedness. There is no smooth continuity. Coupled with these isolated passages is the complaint common to many of the students to whom I have given reading tests: "They're so boring." One of the more widely used reading tests contains short paragraphs on seals, hurricanes, an Arabian fable, Venice, Bach, an ichthyologist named James L. B. Smith, and apple growing in New Hampshire. For some this may seem like admirable fare. But for many children, and particularly the urban child raised on the streets of the inner city, Bach, apple growing, and the discoveries of ichthyology do not "hit them where they live." It seems strange that—if on one hand publishers realize that today's children are different and require a different kind of reading material than the Tom, Dick, and Jane stories of yesteryear, as witness any one of the new reading series now being published—these same publishers should use such innocuous reading passages in those tests which measure the reading ability of children, many of whom lack the money or parental interest to remedy an unjust testing score.

Many of these tests are geared for the commonplace and mundane. They discriminate against the imaginative mind. One test, for example, asks the student to choose one of five words "that means the same, or almost nearly the same" as "quiet." The choices: "exact," "still," "tense," "watery," and "blue." The dull reader of course will reply "still," which is the test-approved answer. But the child who reads creatively and replies with the poetic "blue" fails. Too often the testers award the scholarship of the humdrum, and a high grade often indicates a safe student, one who may never have thought of thinking for himself at all.

The lesson of Aesop's tortoise appears to be lost on the modern test designers. In athletic events where the sprinter is measured by time to bring out his best effort, the use of minutes and seconds is quite valid. But in most reading tests where the testee is given an X amount of time to finish a section, the time factor works against the thoughtful, slow reader. The introduction of this irrelevant factor implies that the slow reader is less competent than the rapid.

In scoring, most tests also discriminate against the slower and more deliberate student. Few tests take into consideration the number

of correct responses in proportion to the number of questions attempted. The tortoise-like student will receive a lower score although in proportion to the number of questions attempted, he may have a very high percentage correct. In order to compensate for this, teachers sometimes instruct students to answer every question. They feel that according to the law of averages these students are bound to guess one or two answers correctly and thus increase their scores. Such encouragement seems to indicate that reflection and thoughtfulness are held in low esteem while glibness and shallowness are lauded. Sometimes, as one looks about, one is tempted to say that this is as it should be. The age of the thoughtful reader may be a thing of the past.

This encouragement by many reading tests of thoughtlessness and glibness is not limited to the students or test takers. The reading tests encourage the same in the test givers—the teachers. Most tests give results in stanines, or percentile ranks, or grade scores, as was mentioned earlier. All of these are judgments, and merely encourage a teacher to test, score, and file. If the test results offered an analysis of the skills measured, maybe the youngster who is weak in finding the main idea might be able to receive some individual instruction in this skill. If the test makers could provide some sort of a reading profile of the test taker through something like an item analysis, perhaps then test scores and results might be of more value.

A reading test does not measure reading skills. It does measure a pupil's exposure to the written word. Given the same intelligence, two students will differ in reading maturity according to the number of words they have read. The student who has read 200,000 words in short stories and novels is bound to score higher than the youngster who has read only 20,000. Both may be compared to the man who goes for a walk in the country with his dog. The man walks straight along; the dog dashes back and forth, investigating anything and everything that attracts his interest. He dashes into bushes, chases squirrels, and sniffs everywhere. Both man and dog reach the same destination, but only the dog has really explored the whole terrain. And the student who has toiled over 200,000 words will master vocabulary much more easily than the student who has glanced at only 20,000 words.

Test makers, test givers, test takers, and all others who make use of test scores might do well to remember the advice that Montaigne offered in one of his essays, "Man is a marvellous, vain, fickle, and unstable subject, and on whom it is very hard to form any certain or uniform judgment."

A READING DEVELOPMENT COURSE

Angela M. Labmeier and Edward L. Vockell

SETON HIGH SCHOOL
CINCINNATI, OHIO

PURDUE UNIVERSITY

The effects of speed reading courses have been widely researched (cf. Berger, 1968). Stevens and Orem (1963) have suggested that the superior reader entering such a course with a more rapid reading rate, is an average or above average student, and likes to read. Rauch and Weinstein (1968) and Combs (1966) stress "read, read, read" as the best method for gaining speed. However, the National Association of Secondary School principals (1965) has warned that speed and comprehension do not necessarily go hand-in-hand, a finding which challenged earlier research by O'Brien (1921). A study of Air Force personnel (Brim, 1968) suggests that comprehension remains fairly constant as speed increases. Ray (1962) summarized nineteen representative studies since 1945 and found that most of these reported gains in rate of reading. Fewer than half the studies showed gains in both speed and comprehension.

Ray and Belden (1965) reported on a program calling for thirty hours of class work which produced significant gains in both speed and comprehension. Staton (1950), Beasley (1959), and Siegel (1962) have also reported significant gains in reading skills after speed reading courses. Retesting in these studies varied between three and six months. Stebens and Belden (1970) report significant gains in reading skills, except comprehension, five semesters after a college speed reading course.

The studies mentioned have focused on college and adult reactions to speed reading programs. Holmes and Singer (1966) have reported on a high correlation between speed reading and power among high school students and have presented a detailed correlational analysis of all the variables involved in their study. The present study was undertaken to test the effect of a speed reading course on ninth grade girls, replicating to some extent at the high school level studies reviewed above (Ray and Belden, 1965; Stebens and Belden, 1970). There were three major hypotheses: (1) that there would be a significant improvement in speed and comprehension as a result of the speed reading course; (2) that these gains would endure over a period of time; and (3) that gains in speed would be related to such variables as initial speed, initial and final comprehension, IQ, time of the year the course was taken (first or second quarter), and number of books read.

Subjects and Procedures

The subjects were 94 ninth grade girls at a Catholic high school for girls in a largely middle class section of a large midwestern city. All were members of "B" (average) or "C" (above average) classes. Mean IQ was 116. All students took a 30-lesson programmed-learning television course in speed reading (Visual Concepts Company, 1969). Six television lessons on study skills followed the speed reading program. The television lessons lasted from 28 to 30 minutes and were given five days a week, with supplementary practice sessions each day with a reading drill directed by a record provided by the Visual Concepts program.

The Nelson-Denny Reading Test A was administered to a "B" class (N=26) and a "C" class (N=19) who began the course in September, 1970, and to a "B" (N=28) and "C" (N=21) class who began the course in November. All classes took the Nelson-Denny Reading Test B at the completion of the course. Retesting was done with the Nelson-Denny A Test (cf. Brown, 1971) in April, 1971, approximately six months after the first group had completed the course and three months after the second group finished it, similar to the time intervals used by Ray and Belden (1968). An additional retest was given in October, 1971, to 34 of the students in the "C" classes. In addition to the test, students were asked to estimate the number of books they had read in the three months after the end of the course.

Results and Discussion

Table 1 and Figures 1 and 2 show significant improvements in both speed and comprehension subsequent to the speed reading course. Results also substantiate the hypothesis that gains made in reading skills would remain over a period of time (Tables 2 and 3). Although speed leveled off and eventually dropped slightly after the

Table 1. Gains in Speed and Comprehension During Course

	Beginning	End of course	t	p
Words per min.	255.7553	628.6277	227.2	<.01
Comprehension score	36.4481	40.0000	11.44	<.01

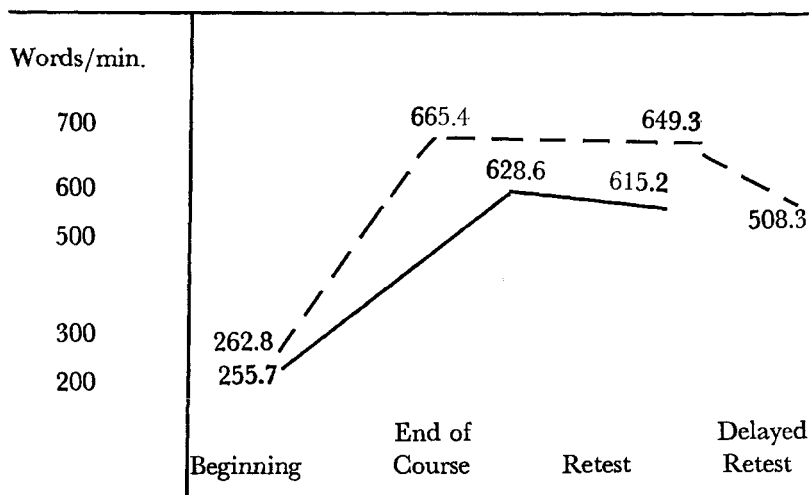
Table 2. Gains in Speed and Comprehension as Reflected in First Retest Scores

	Beginning	Retest	t	p
Words per min.	255.7553	615.1851	235.9	<.01
Comprehension score	36.4681	44.2340	26.51	<.01

Table 3. Gains in Speed and Comprehension as
Reflected in Delayed Retest Scores
(Including only 32 Above Average Students)

	Beginning	Delayed Retest	t	p
Words per min.	262.8125	508.3125	109.9	<.01
Comprehension score	43.3125	53.0000	19.54	<.01

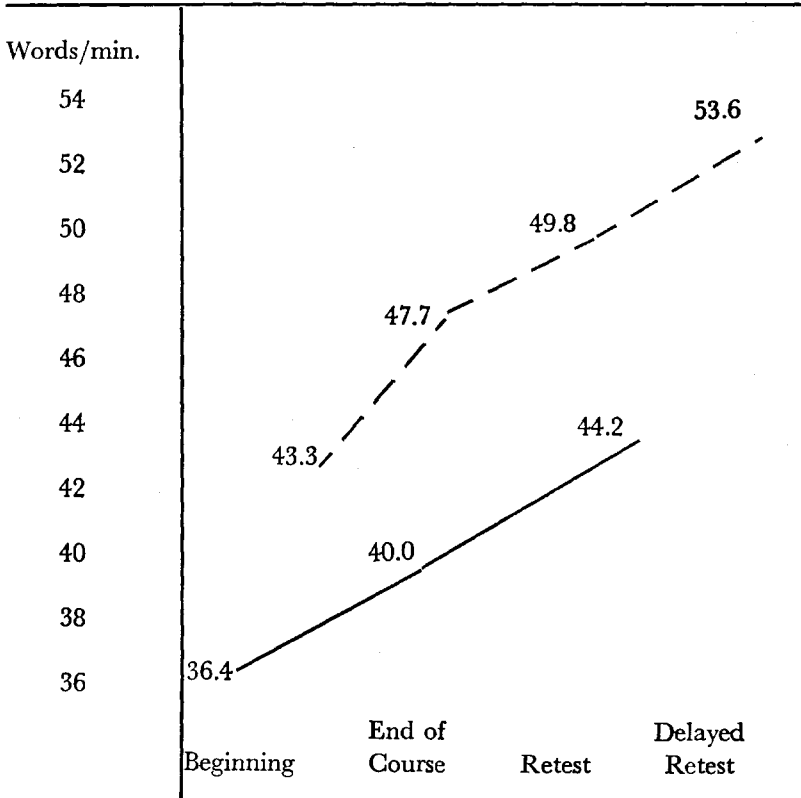
Figure 1. Mean Reading Rates at Beginning and End of Course
and on Retest and Delayed Retest



end of the course, there was still a substantial improvement over the initial speed. The increased rate of comprehension even after the course was over (Figure 2) might indicate that reading skills learned during the course continued to develop even after it was over. However, the fact that speed dropped as comprehension increased after the course provides evidence that improvement in speed and comprehension are unrelated. This lack of relationship is further corroborated by the low correlations between speed and comprehension in Table 4.

Table 4 presents the correlations used to test the various parts of the third hypothesis. Although amount of reading as reported by the students was related to initial speed and to final speed, there was no relation between improvement in comprehension or speed and amount of reading. IQ was related to comprehension on each testing occa-

Figure 2. Mean Comprehension Scores at the Beginning and End of the Course and on the Retest and Delayed Retest



Solid line All students (N = 94)

Broken line Above average students who were available for retest (N = 32)

sion, but it was not related to speed or to improvements in speed or comprehension. Initial speed was positively related to initial comprehension, to comprehension at the end of the course, and to final speed, but was unrelated to improvement factors (variables 10 to 13). Initial comprehension was negatively related to improvement in comprehension (probably a ceiling effect), but was not at all related to gains in speed.

Although the number of books read in the three months after the course was not related to the amount of gain in reading speed or com-

TABLE 4. Table of Correlations

<i>Variable</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Group "C" or "B") (Above average or average)	1.000													
2. Time of Course (Nov. or Sept.)	.006	1.000												
3. Initial Speed	.020	*.324	1.000											
4. Initial Comprehension	*.476	-.050	*.296	1.000										
5. Speed at End of Course	.100	-.078	.246	.240	1.000									
6. Comp. at End of Course	*.567	.063	*.335	*.679	.184	1.000								
7. Speed on Retest	.153	.101	*.345	*.273	*.571	.249	1.000							
8. Comp. on Retest	*.367	-.087	.235	*.702	*.298	*.583	.265	1.000						
9. IQ	*.692	.042	.171	*.577	.201	*.567	.226	*.492	1.000					
10. Comp. Gain During Course (No. 6-No. 4)	.166	.141	.080*	-.315	-.048	*.483	-.004	-.083	.045	1.000				
11. Comp. Gain Before Retest (No. 8-No. 4)	-.168	-.044	-.071*	-.441	.058	-.165	-.028	*.329	-.145	*.312	1.000			
12. Speed Gain During Course (No. 5-No. 3)	.097	-.188	-.079	.149	*.947	.078	*.473	.222	.150	-.076	.083	1.000		
13. Speed Gain Before Retest (No. 7-No. 3)	.155	-.017	-.017	.177	*.514	.136	*.932	.184	.175	.035	-.003	*.534	1.000	
14. Books Read Within 3 Months after Course	.015	.211	*.384	.132	.220	.115	*.333	.192	.128	-.008	.067	.099	.207	1.000

*=Significant at the .01 level. Correlations of .267 are significant at the .01 level (Guilford, 1964).

prehension, this variable was related both to initial speed and to speed on the retest. Thus it would seem that reading practice could be regarded as a “natural” way to improve reading speed. There is also evidence that students who had a quarter of the school year during which to practice their reading skills started the course with a higher rate of speed than those who started at the beginning of the school year. It is noteworthy that these beneficial “natural” effects do not occur with regard to comprehension, although improvements in comprehension *do* occur *after* the course.

Conclusions and Summary

The present data confirms on a sample of high school girls the findings of previous researchers that significant gains in speed and comprehension can be brought about and retained over a period of time. In the present study, both speed and comprehension increased significantly, although these gains were *not* correlated. Thus Brim’s (1968) findings that comprehension remains constant are not supported, while the warning of the National Association of Secondary School Principals (1965) that improvements in speed and comprehension may be unrelated would seem to be supported. Somewhat contrary to previous findings (Stebens and Belden, 1970), comprehension was an area of very significant improvement, especially *after* the course was over.

The results confirm the findings of Stevens and Orem (1963) that the superior reader enters the course with a higher reading speed, is a better student, and likes to read. But at the same time there is evidence that their findings should not be misinterpreted or over-emphasized, since there is no evidence that the student described by Stevens and Orem is more or less likely to profit from such a course than other students.

Similarly, the “read, read, read” theory is somewhat supported, since practicing reading in itself has been shown to be somewhat related to reading speed; but the amount of reading has been shown to be unrelated to any of the gain scores, and thus it cannot be viewed as a total solution. It would seem that while some gains can come about through mere practice, a specialized program brings about much greater gains for students who might otherwise remain untouched. It would seem highly unlikely that the gains in Figure 1 would occur in a program depending entirely on individual practice.

In summary, then, it would seem that speed and comprehension are relatively independent variables. The evidence indicates that a

speed reading program such as the one used in this study can provide rather widespread and practical benefits: students on the average can read a book over twice as fast as previously with a gain rather than a loss in comprehension. This in itself is worthwhile. In addition, it seems evident that theories advocating work solely with superior or extremely slow readers are inaccurate, since neither of these groups showed extreme benefit or lack of benefit from this program.

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USING TEACHER OBSERVATION FOR DIAGNOSING READING PROBLEMS

Wilma H. Miller and Otilie Womack

ILLINOIS STATE UNIVERSITY

NORMAL, ILLINOIS

The accurate diagnosis of a child's reading problems certainly is a necessity in today's elementary classrooms. Each child is much more than a member of a reading achievement group. He also is an individual whose specific reading strengths and weaknesses must be identified so that appropriate corrective reading instruction can be provided for him. Perhaps the easiest and the most effective diagnostic technique is teacher observation.

This article discusses the values of using teacher observation as a diagnostic technique and illustrates how a teacher can be more effective in the diagnosis of reading problems. The article discusses using cumulative records and several different types of checklists as useful aids to teacher observation. Some of the checklists discussed are extremely valuable in locating a child's specific reading difficulties, but are not widely known by many elementary teachers.

Diagnosis By Teacher Observation

In some ways observation is the most useful way of diagnosing each individual child's reading problems for the typical elementary teacher. Teacher observation can take place whenever a child is reading silently or orally and when he is learning any of the word recognition or comprehension skills. Teacher observation should be an ongoing, continuous process which determines each child's reading strengths and weaknesses and therefore points the way toward corrective teaching of certain reading skills. These, then, are the reading skills which should be thoroughly retaught before a child's reading difficulties become complex.

Using Cumulative Records to Aid Observation

Diagnosis of reading problems by teacher observation can well begin by the examination of a child's cumulative records. These records allow the teacher to obtain information which will help her best to meet the instructional needs of an entire group of pupils. For example, she may find from examining the cumulative records of her entire class that one reading achievement group is weak in phonetic analysis skills. She then can provide corrective instruction in these skills for this entire group.

Moreover, the cumulative records are helpful in identifying individuals in the classroom who will need special help either in one or more areas of reading instruction or from the reading specialist in the elementary school. After using the child's records, the teacher can make some assumptions about his reading development which can be either verified or rejected by using another technique of observation.

Diagnosis By Teacher Observation Using a Checklist

Teacher observation often employs the observable reading behavior of a child. Each child's various reading skills should be observed individually, and the teacher should record the results of the observation. Such observation of reading progress can be done without a structured aid, but a checklist can be of great value in directing teacher observation of reading skills. A checklist can provide the teacher with a list of significant reading behaviors, specific reading difficulties, and a convenient form for recording the results of an observation. A teacher can use a checklist which has been developed by a reading specialist, but she should adapt it to the developmental reading program found in her own school. Some of these checklists are described in a later section of this paper. A teacher also can develop her own reading checklist to guide observation if she is familiar enough with the reading process.

A checklist or scale can be used to evaluate reading readiness ability very well. For example, the following scale can be used to help a teacher evaluate a child's ability to interpret pictures.

SCALE FOR EVALUATING A CHILD'S LANGUAGE ABILITY IN INTERPRETING PICTURES

Teacher asks the student: "What is this picture about?"

Record his verbal response and classify its level on these steps.

The use of the tape recorder will be of value for this.

- Step I The child merely shrugs his shoulders and does not reply. He may say man, dog, etc.
- Step II The child describes what the characters are doing.
- Step III The child expresses a relationship between the characters or objects.
- Step IV The child sees the picture as one part of a narrative. He gives relationships of time, place, cause-effect.
- Step V The child reacts to the mood of the picture, perceives the

emotional reactions of the characters, and draws a conclusion or evaluates the actions.

Students who have not reached STEP III or STEP IV on this scale can scarcely have developed sufficient language ability to interpret a picture in the textbook and react to the narrative text that accompanies the picture.

Checklists can be found in the reading readiness workbooks or in the preprimers of most basal reader series. Wilma Miller has also developed a checklist which can be found in the book *The First R: Elementary Reading Today*. (3) Another very fine checklist, designed to aid teacher observation at the reading readiness level, was developed by Walter Barbe as part of his entire reading skills checklist series which he has recommended for use in the individualized reading plan. This reading readiness checklist, however, can just as well be used to help direct observation of readiness when the basal reader approach is used.

There are a number of excellent checklists to aid teacher observation of reading strengths and weaknesses in both the primary and intermediate grades. All of these can be used to help a teacher evaluate the reading skills of both good and average readers who are learning to read by any of the approaches. Such checklists also can be used with disabled readers who should receive diagnosis and correction of their reading difficulties either in the classroom or in the clinic. As an example, many reading specialists consider the checklist found in the individual diagnostic reading test, *The Durrell Analysis of Reading Difficulty*, to be most effective in guiding teacher observation of a child's oral reading strengths and weaknesses. (2) This checklist can be found on the inside cover of the test. It also is reprinted in several books such as *Identifying and Correcting Reading Difficulties in Children* by Wilma Miller. (4)

Walter Barbe, as mentioned before, has developed an entire reading skills checklist series. These may be found in his book *An Educator's Guide to Personalized Reading Instruction*. (1)

Another valuable checklist is entitled "The Reading Progress Profile" and was first published in *Elementary English* in 1951. This profile is a series of checklists which can give a continuous picture of each child's reading. Since this profile accompanies each child as he progresses through the elementary school, it can provide the teacher with a picture of his reading growth. (5)

Another very good checklist of observations about a child's reading

which can help the teacher to evaluate his reading assets and limitations is found in Ruth Strang's book *Diagnostic Teaching of Reading*. Different parts of this checklist can be used to evaluate a pupil's silent reading, oral reading, dramatization of stories, and presentation of oral reports. (8)

George and Evelyn Spache also include a good checklist in their recent book *Reading in the Elementary School*. A part of this checklist can help a teacher to observe a child's oral reading behavioral subskills under the main skill areas of Fluency, Word Attack, and Posture. Part of this same checklist can help a teacher accurately observe a child's phonetic analysis skills in the areas of Consonants, Vowels, and Other Phonetic Analysis Skills. (7)

The Webster Publishing Company has published a very fine and well-known checklist which is primarily designed for use with readers who have difficulties in the elementary school. This checklist is called *The Reading Troubleshooter's Checklist* and can be used with a disabled reader. It includes behavioral characteristics in the various word recognition skills; it evaluates the skills of phonetic analysis, structural analysis, and context clues in detail; and it has a section to judge a child's reading comprehension. The chart for recording a child's performance in each of these skills which is included as part of the checklist is of great value. (6)

Using the Results of Teacher Observation

By the use of cumulative records, by informal teacher observation of a child's reading, and by directed teacher observation of reading skills, the child's individual strengths and weaknesses can be ascertained.

When the observations have been noted, the teacher must capitalize on each child's reading strengths and try to correct any of his reading problems. Corrective reading instruction should take place either on an individual basis or in a "needs" group. It will do a child little good for his teacher to diagnose his reading difficulties accurately if she does not provide systematic corrective reading instruction to overcome these specific difficulties. He then will not be so likely to have his minor reading difficulties "snowball" into major reading problems which require instruction from a reading specialist.

Summary

The diagnosis of reading performance by teacher observation is one of the most useful ways to determine a child's reading strengths and

weaknesses. Teacher observation can be directed by the use of a child's cumulative records or a good checklist. Each child should then be provided with corrective reading instruction in the light of these specific difficulties.

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A LIST OF BASIC SIGHT WORDS FOR OLDER DISABLED READERS

Jerry L. Johns

NORTHERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY

The Dolch basic sight vocabulary of 220 words has generally been recognized by reading authorities as a valuable asset to reading instruction. Research by Dolch (1941), Fry (1960), and Zintz (1966) and Johns (in press) has shown that the 220 words comprising the Dolch list represent 50 to 75 per cent of all school reading matter in the elementary grades. According to Dolch, these 220 words are recognized instantly by good second-grade readers and by average third-grade readers.

The Dolch basic sight vocabulary, as the name implies, is a short list of basic words which children should recognize instantly at sight. The Dolch list contains conjunctions, prepositions, pronouns, adverbs, adjectives, and verbs. According to Dolch, there are no nouns included on the list because each noun is tied to special subject matter. A casual perusal of the Dolch list, however, reveals that several words (fly, work, today, show) may function as nouns depending upon the context.

The 220 words Dolch compiled have been very useful in helping to build a basic sight vocabulary for children who are beginning formal reading instruction. These words have also been used in elementary and secondary remedial reading programs as well as adult literacy programs. The rationale for using the Dolch list in these programs apparently stems from Dolch (1952) and others who believe that the first step in remedial reading is to see that the child recognizes such words instantly by sight. Because the Dolch list was based on three word lists primarily related to young children, it is somewhat difficult to generalize about the frequency of these words in the materials often read by older children and adults. As previously mentioned, there is evidence to indicate that the words on the Dolch list comprise nearly 50 per cent of the words in most adult reading material. It is possible, however, that there exists a further list of words common to newspapers, magazines, and popular books that could be added to the Dolch list for use with older students and adults who are experiencing difficulty in reading. Such a list may be useful to remedial reading teachers attempting to help disabled readers in secondary schools and others involved in adult literacy programs.

Of special interest in this regard is a book of 1,014,232 words of

natural language text compiled by Kucera and Francis (1967). The Corpus, as the book is called, was compiled from 500 samples of various materials published during 1961, each of which contained approximately 2,000 words. To insure representativeness, the 500 samples were distributed among fifteen categories, representing the full range of subject matter and prose styles, from the sports page of the newspaper to the scientific journal and from popular romantic fiction to abstruse philosophical discussion. The fifteen categories, for example, contained samples taken from the various sections of the newspaper, several types of fiction, and magazines on various skills and hobbies.

The purpose of this study was to compare the first 220 most frequently occurring words from the Corpus list to the Dolch list. The first 220 words on the rank list were compared to the Dolch list resulting in a preliminary list, containing words on the Corpus list which were not on the Dolch list. This preliminary list was then compared with the Dolch list of 95 common nouns since numerous nouns appeared on the Corpus list. All words on the Corpus list which also appeared on the Dolch list of common nouns were then eliminated. This procedure resulted in a final list of 63 words which did not appear on either the Dolch basic sight vocabulary list or the Dolch list of 95 common nouns. Several words, however, were not included in this list because the root word appeared on one of the Dolch lists.

It is this list of words which might be useful for teachers who work with disabled readers in secondary schools or assist in adult literacy programs. The remedial reading teacher in the secondary school who assumes that the Dolch list will provide all the essential words for older students experiencing difficulty with reading may be mistaken. It would appear, from this analysis, that elementary textbooks contain many high frequency words which do not occur with the same degree of frequency in newspapers, magazines, and popular books often read by older persons.

Perhaps the most important contribution of this comparison of the Dolch list to the Corpus list is the realization that the Dolch list has limitations, especially in secondary remedial reading programs and adult literacy programs. The Dolch list should, of course, still be taught to these students; however, it could be augmented with the 63 words from the Corpus list which did not appear on the Dolch lists. It is hoped that this list of 63 words beyond the Dolch lists, if taught to older remedial students, will reduce even further the burden of unknown words they will be confronted with when reading newspapers, magazines, and popular books.

A LIST OF BASIC SIGHT WORDS
FOR OLDER DISABLED READERS

1. more	22. last	43. course
2. than	23. might	44. war
3. other	24. great	45. until
4. such	25. year	46. something
5. even	26. since	47. fact
6. most	27. against	48. though
7. also	28. himself	49. less
8. through	29. few	50. public
9. should	30. during	51. almost
10. each	31. without	52. enough
11. people	32. place	53. took
12. Mr.	33. American	54. yet
13. state	34. however	55. government
14. world	35. Mrs.	56. system
15. still	36. thought	57. set
16. between	37. part	58. told
17. life	38. general	59. nothing
18. being	39. high	60. end
19. same	40. united	61. didn't
20. another	41. left	62. later
21. while	42. number	63. knew

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ECHOES FROM THE FIELD

Joe R. Chapel

The Wisconsin Design for Reading Skill Development is being implemented in the Niles, Michigan, School System in grades K-3. This design has been developed by the Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning, supported in part by funds from the United States Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

The Wisconsin Design for Reading Skill Development represents a systematic attempt to:

- (1) State explicitly the reading skills that, by long standing consensus, are essential for competence in reading,
- (2) Assess individual pupils' skill development status by means of criterion referenced tests with respect to explicitly stated behaviors related to each skill,
- (3) Provide a comprehensive management system to guide grouping for and planning of skill development instruction, and
- (4) Monitor each pupil's progress in the development of specific skills.

The expectation is that the Design will be adapted and/or extended in view of local perceptions, needs, and resources.

The design comprises a number of interrelated components:

- (1) An outline of reading skills and related behavioral objectives;
- (2) Guides to informal individual skill observation;
- (3) Tests for skill assessment designed for group or individual administration;
- (4) Several alternative means for individual and group record keeping;
- (5) A model compendium of published materials for teaching the word attack, comprehension, and study skills;
- (6) A collection of teacher-directed activities and procedures for teaching word attack, comprehension, and study skills;
- (7) Guidelines for directing observations of pupil performance and planning pupil activities in the areas of self-directed, interpretive, and creative reading.

The administrators and teachers in the Niles schools are just getting this program started. In visiting with their personnel it seems apparent that there will be an energetic and enthusiastic effort directed to the success of the venture. We wish them Godspeed and will await with interest reports of their progress.

DID YOU SEE?

Betty L. Hagberg

Did You See "Happenings in Education—How Well Does Johnny Read?" by William D. Boutwell in the June 1972 issue of the *PTA Magazine*? In this article Boutwell attempts to portray *positively* the true picture of reading achievements in this nation.

Did You See Ellen C. Henderson's new and interesting book *Teaching Reading to Bilingual Children*? It is a step-by-step guide for teachers to help students learn English where the new language is a handicap. It is a 1972 edition published by Exposition Press, Jericho, New York. It contains 160 pages and its cost is \$3.00 for a paperback edition.

Did You See the recent literature describing the functions of the AAJC Career Staffing Center? It is a personnel clearinghouse established in 1971 as a membership service to assist community and junior colleges with their staffing requirements. Persons seeking employment submit an application and resumé to the Staffing Center twice a year, in December and April. Each applicant's file will be available to more than 1,500 college representatives. One year's registration is \$15.00 and the next deadline is April 1st. A list of positions available is mailed to each registrant in the spring of each year and referral of files is made at the request of any member college. The address is AAJC Career Staffing Center, 621 Duke Street, Alexandria, Virginia, 22314.

Did You See "Learning and Evaluation: Two Sides Of The Same Coin" by J. B. Biggs published in the September 1972 issue of *Elements*? The article concentrates on the role of evaluation in learning. His main point is that evaluation cannot be considered as a separate issue from that of learning and instruction but that they are complex and inter-related processes.

WE SUGGEST

Eleanor Buelke

Ashton-Warner, Sylvia

Spearpoint

New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1972. 224 pp.

It is always best to learn about a great innovator by reading what he actually said in the context of the time when it was written. This is better than reading what others say at second hand about the new ideas of the creative thinker.¹

Teacher, Sylvia Ashton-Warner's first book about classroom teaching, has become a favorite, and classic, among teachers throughout the world. Previous to the publication of that book in 1963, readers had come to know the evocative imagery of her writing through her *Spinster* and *Incense to Idols*. Since the time when educators had been introduced to her sensitive, intuitive understanding, and creative methods of teaching her young Maori pupils, many have followed her life story in two more recent books, *Myself* and *Three*. There, changes in her life, reflected concomitantly with changes in world society, are touchingly revealed.

Now, like a visitor to an unknown, unexplored planet, she alights upon "Spearpoint." It appears almost totally strange, inhabited by beautiful children who are somehow puzzling, and not a little frightening. The site of landing is a new kind of "open-concept" school where, supposedly, children are free—free to learn—free to choose whether they "wanna" or "dowanna" learn and study.

In teaching these children, within the given structure of this school, the main thesis of her organic teaching theory, "Release the native imagery of our child and use it for working material," does not seem to be workable. She has always regarded this living imagery as the third dimension of personality. She has equated it with feeling, "the force which compels us to think, to talk and try to do things . . . but we are only a copy of others, and God knows there are enough copies around."

Perhaps, she hypothesizes, the children's native imagery is being replaced "by outside imagery concocted by man." It is startling, if not appalling, to think that she might be right: that "the compassion, pity, mercy, tenderness and the contagion of warm feeling" are being supplanted by dead images straight out of the television screen, the

¹ John Dewey, *The Child and the Curriculum*, and *The School and Society*, p. v. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, Eleventh Impression, 1972.

radio, and the “rabble-rousing beat” of a stereo. Suppose children no longer feel with love, or with hatred; suppose they no longer feel at all? Suppose they no longer have the comfort of a dream? “Dreams are a living picture in the mind of generating energy. They are at once direction finders and sources of power . . . There are no limits to the dreams a mind can conceive, but only the whole mind has the mechanism to dream . . . Yet no dreams combust from imagery which is sedated or dead; not the kind with the power to lure you.”

Throughout the author’s seven months at this school, the struggle between alien and natives continues. It may be that the natives are blind to subtle differences which the alien perceives between children of American society and those of other countries. Could it be that some traditionally inalienable rights and freedoms, upon which Americans so firmly and sometimes so rudely insist, do not, in fact, free them at all, because the necessary component, *responsibility*, is missing?

Before the writer’s final vision becomes reality, for it is written as a vision of the future, *hope* and *awareness* in the heart of man *must* direct his actions. They must keep man from espousing the religions on Cosmet, Ashton-Warner’s mythical planet of mutation. The religions are three. One is lying. One is the “Wannadowanna” assurance that life is “built entirely around what they want or don’t want,” with no deterrent consequences. One calls true believers to worship three gods sitting side by side: the dollar sign, the Adman, and a legendary spirit called Feeling. No one really knows what the last is . . . only that something is missing from their lives.

Indeed, we must become aware in order to choose the good—but no awareness will help us if we have lost the capacity to be moved by the distress of another human being, by the friendly gaze of another person, by the song of a bird, by the greenness of grass. If man becomes indifferent to life there is no longer any hope that he can choose the good. Then, indeed, his heart will have so hardened that his “life” will be ended. If this should happen to the entire human race or to its most powerful members, then the life of mankind may be extinguished at the very moment of its greatest promise.²

² Erich Fromm, *The Heart of Man*, p. 150. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1964.

TEACHING READING IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

"The Fine Art of Motivation"

Kenneth VanderMeulen

The most significant thing about motivation is that it is an intangible element in education. Its presence may only be sensed by the teacher. It does not come in units like ohms, ergs, decibels, or ounces. We're not even sure that its absence can be detected by objective measuring devices. Teachers, therefore, spend much less time studying and discussing motivation than they do in talking about programs, machines, testing instruments, and evaluation. The term *motivation* is frequently used by promotional representatives in describing an educational item on the market; the practice is much like the use of the term *fidelity* in a company name—it lends respectability to simple mercenary intentions.

Just what constitutes motivation needs some thought. Is it brought to the classroom in the heart of the student? Is the teacher charged with the responsibility of creating motivation where none existed? Can teachers even agree as to what it is and where it lives? Because reading teachers recognize the fact that motivation (or will-to-learn, or attitude) comprises a large fraction of improvement in reading, they *must* confront the matter of motive realistically.

Before the advent of the concept of learning to read as a continuous process, teachers tended to assume that students learned to read in elementary school. If reading problems developed, students might have been tutored, or simply regarded as having a poor attitude toward study. Teachers usually were inclined to associate lack of success in the classroom with emotional or behavioral problems, rather than reading deficiencies. Moreover, teachers thought of themselves as instructors in a discipline, and had the means for helping reading problems been present, they probably would not have been used. Teachers did not generally concern themselves with the process or the improvement of reading.

How has all that been changed since the advent of reading teachers in the secondary schools? During the past twenty-five years we have begun to see reading as the complex process it is. We know that reading consists of many skills, that it involves a multitude of factors—experience, emotion, environment, and physical health. We have begun to recognize reading as a highly sophisticated mental process

which requires a number of refined powers of abstraction and conceptualization.

In this age of scientific investigation, reading teachers have turned to scientists, requesting that they tell us more about the whole matter of reading. We have sought information and advice from the optometric experts, to learn more about what happens in the visual aspect of reading—to learn more about the optic nerve and muscular balance and binocular vision. We have questioned psychologists, and they have given us the benefit of guidance about learning: what helps or hinders memory, and what leads to retention of appropriate associations between symbol, sound, and idea.

In an age of professionalism, where being professional means to study what others have said or thought, teachers are encouraged to take graduate courses in education and related subjects. Study “in depth” replaces the survey courses, and many teachers eventually earn advanced degrees in one or another aspect of how to teach. They have become experts in the areas of methods, materials, procedures, testing, diagnosis, and reading programs.

In an age of technology, a host of devices and machines have been developed to help the reading teachers teach. With kits, programs, and systems, the salesmen enter our classrooms to bring us “advancement” in the modern mode. Whatever we need, they say, we can get for our students in a special electronic, computerized, programmed deal.

Finally, to add to our armament in attacking the impediments to reading progress, the National Reading Center in Washington has marshalled the forces of researchers and experimenters in the field of reading. Teachers may now have copies of all the conclusions and summaries of a thousand studies on what works in the areas of teaching developmental, corrective, and/or remedial reading.

Yet, to this moment, the same problems that have plagued secondary teachers through generations of efforts to help students read for meaning are still with us. The problem of failure to prepare the reading assignment is still there. The problem of the reluctant reader is with us yet. The problem of inattention to directions is still with us. Failure to concentrate, a problem which has grown in proportion to the complexity of our society, is with us. Despite the contributions of science, technology, professionalism, and governmental agency—high schools in the nation are being called holding patterns and pools of apathy.

The kinds of problems mentioned are motivational to a great

degree. They are not limited to any single area of the curriculum. However, motivation does *not* occupy over half of the attention in teachers' meetings. It seems that being openly concerned about lack of motivation in one's classes is like confessing an inadequacy. Many teachers do admit the sad truth to themselves; students frequently have to be coaxed and cajoled into expending the slightest effort in many secondary classes.

We should consider another factor or ingredient to the whole picture of classroom atmosphere which is related to motivation. This is the influence the teacher has upon the values and perceptions of the students. If we think of teaching as an art instead of a science, we may allow ourselves some reflection on the role of the teacher's personality and human-ness in the lives of the students. Take a few moments to think with me about the best teachers we ever had in our own school years. What were the characteristics and traits they possessed that made studying and learning a positive pleasure?

We may first remember great enthusiasm in the teachers we most admire. Enthusiasm for discovery, I submit, is the greatest lever of motivation in all of education. One does not have to be effusive; he needs only to be an example of willingness to learn, and belief in the efficacy of knowledge. Will James, the exemplar of enthusiasm said, "What we partly know already inspires us with a desire to know more." Maybe the word *inspiration* is too strong to be substituted for *motivation*. But, as we see less and less educational propellant within the students, we need to find and use more ways to stimulate, inspire, or inculcate a spirit for learning.

Was it the fact that they used better evaluation instruments than all the other teachers? Was it their vast knowledge about the particular subject in the curriculum that impressed? Was it their impeccable taste in bulletin board displays? Did they present the textbook assignments with 100% efficiency? No, we would have to admit, in every case it was the person himself who constituted the values we remember. One might be hard-pressed to name the exact approach or specific quality that created the fondness of memory for that teacher. We may even have forgotten appearance or voice pattern, but the impression of pleasant classroom atmosphere remains in our minds. What was that good feeling made of?

Since basic in each of us is that all important reality of self-concept, we doubtless remember a good teacher who made it possible for us to accept ourselves on better grounds than scores on papers. Whether we are reading or writing or conversing with others, we act strictly

in accordance with the well-developed picture of ourselves that people have helped us form since infancy. The picture of ourselves may even be thought of as a determiner of how much effort we will put forth on any job or assignment. We acted with great enthusiasm and vigor because we were taught to expect success and satisfaction as outcomes of our efforts.

Possibly the classroom of our earlier years especially deserving of accolades was the one in which the light touch of humor was generously applied. Puns and limericks have always been used with great effectiveness in all courses, often constituting the only tow-line in special reading classes. Since the English language is rich in ambiguities and irregularities, it is not difficult to flavor every vocabulary and reading lesson with beguiling jokes. Such riddles as "When is a door not a door?" (when it's ajar) and "How are Christmas and a cat in the desert alike?" (sandy claws) cannot start too soon in the lives of readers.

Humor may not be teachable in the same manner that a body of knowledge is taught, but it has the same expanding and deepening effect on one's mental content as reflection on experienced events would have. In addition, humor helps us toward a more flexible attitude of acceptance of human differences toward emotional maturity.

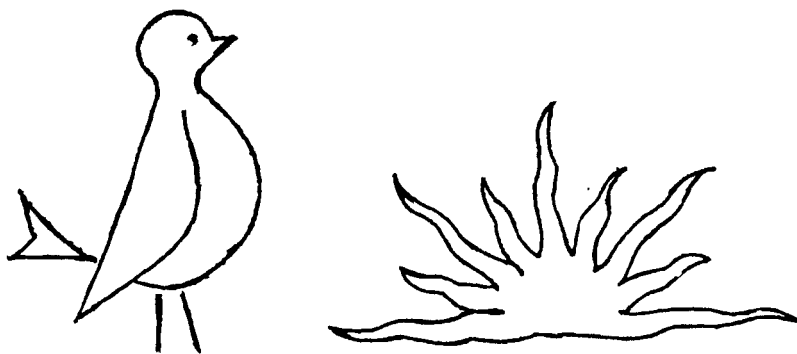
This is not to say that the teacher who brings a Bob Hope joke book to his classroom has instantaneously improved his personality. But it does claim that a classroom in which the teacher does not take himself too seriously is vastly more effective than the grave pedagogue and his tomblike atmosphere. In this respect we have come a long way. Look for a moment at this quote from *The New England Primer*, published 1816, page 26—

I in the burying place may see
Graves shorter there than I;
From Death's arrest no age is free,
Young children too may die.

We may also remember our best teacher as having taken a personal interest in us. As one looks back, he may remember the very moment and occasion when he realized that his reactions or feelings were of genuine concern to his teacher. Parents are of paramount significance in young people's lives, but the discovery that one's thoughts and talents matter greatly to other important adults is vital to the emerging personality. When one is able to say to himself, "What

I say or believe makes a lot of difference to grown-ups," he sees the need for responsible thinking.

This all may read like Mary Poppins' overweening optimism to the reader, to be rallied to the flag of sincerity and enthusiasm in a day of hard facts and frequent cynical incredulity. However, if we are discussing the motivation—the welfare and reading growth—of the secondary student, we must keep ourselves aware of all the elements that make up and pertain to this matter. Good reading programs are maintained by teachers who see the student as more important than administrative edicts, curricular requirements, window dressing, or well-oiled machinery. The relationship of the teacher to the student is where education is, and, as Frank G. Jennings puts it, "Education is a profoundly moral undertaking."



ROUND ROBIN

Dorothy E. Smith, Editor

Dear Editor:

I had reached my frustration level! As a fairly new art teacher I felt totally helpless in meeting my goals; unifying the wealth of materials and ideas that were to be found in books with my course content. I was slightly familiar with the Montessori Method and the phrase "liberty within limits," which allows each student "the freedom to choose his activity, but requires its execution in a structured framework."¹ It just lent itself to the type of activities and programs I wanted in the classroom.

I had my students do pictorial book reviews with captions which they could show and explain to the class. They had total freedom in their choice of books. However, I had four students who could not read at all, and many who could not spell. And there was one student who never failed to hand in a paper, but I was not prepared to deal with his writing techniques. He would write patterns of four and five consonants in a row, then a vowel, and then repeat the process. From a distant view, his work looked like writing, but up close it looked like someone had gotten hold of a typewriter and just randomly pecked away! I knew from my projects, and general student response, that I had a wide range of abilities in my classes, but I honestly was shocked that I also had non-readers.

I could not put my finger on why, but the self-concept of the non-reader seemed to be very negative. His reading ability seemed to be a factor in his finding time for negative behavior in the classroom—

¹ Goldberg, Miriam, *Education For The Disadvantaged*, New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967, p. 383.

perhaps because the success of an art project is dependent on good reading skills. Even in making a simple frame, the student has to know how to read a ruler. Glazes come with prescriptive directions which must be followed carefully. The list is endless.

One method I tried with the non-readers was to emphasize skill and care in lettering the alphabet. Success was almost one-hundred percent. I realized that I was not equipped to teach reading or improve reading problems but I had to do what I could. I extended our lettering unit to advertising and the student response was great. They had to be very careful about spelling, size, meaning, and vocabulary. The interest and success level was so high that I experienced no discipline problems.

I am slowly growing along with my students, and there is one thing I know from my own experience; every teacher is a teacher of reading!

Mrs. June Sturdivant

MESSAGE FROM THE PRESIDENT of the HOMER L. J. CARTER READING COUNCIL

Dear Council Members and Friends,

The Homer L. J. Carter Reading Council proudly announces that our membership has been able to complete the funding necessary to establish a \$10,000.00 Fellowship Fund named in honor and functioning in memory of the late Homer L. J. Carter.

Your continued support of our programs made our recent gift of \$1,000.00 possible. Just as Professor Carter gave so much of himself to each of us by his teaching and influenced our interest in the field of reading, we now extend to others an opportunity to share this interest in his name.

My heartfelt thanks for your generous support.

Sincerely,

Clara Harbeck

President

Homer L. J. Carter Reading Council

TEN-SECOND REVIEWS

Blanche O. Bush

Diagnosis of reading problems is useful to the classroom teacher only to the extent that it suggests what he can do to improve the child's reading performance.

—William L. Rutherford

Allen, Irene, and Richard Thompson, "Individual Reading—A Revisit and Review," *The Michigan Reading Journal* (Spring, 1972), 6:29-32.

The authors reviewed much information concerning individualized reading. They described what it is, its advantages and disadvantages, why it meets pupils' needs, and how one can prepare and conduct an individualized reading program.

Anderson, Jonathan, "Research On Comprehension In Reading," *Improving Reading Ability Around the World* (Dorothy Kendall Bracken, and Eve Malmquist, editors), International Reading Association, Newark, 1970, pp. 115-121.

This paper is a report of research on cloze procedure. The technique that researchers, reading specialists, and classroom teachers are finding increasingly useful in measuring the reading difficulty or readability of printed material is discussed.

Bader, Lois A., "Preparing Future Secondary Teachers In Reading," *Journal of Reading* (April, 1972), 15:492-495.

An attempt was made at Michigan State University to provide a series of experiences for future secondary teachers. A model describing the preparation of future secondary teachers in reading was presented. A key feature of this model is cooperation between the public schools and the university. The goal was to produce content area teachers who will not see reading instruction as an added burden, or a remedial chore, but as an integral part of their effectiveness as instructors.

Becker, George J., and Thaddeus M. Trela, "Case Studies in Reading," *Journal of Reading* (March, 1972), 15:436-438.

The authors listed ten references which are typical of the work which has been done in the area of case studies in read-

ing. These references were selected to provide a representative sampling of diagnostic and instructional procedures in books and magazines at varying grade levels.

Boyan, Catherine S., "Critical Reading—What Is It? Where Is It?" *The Reading Teacher* (March, 1972), 25:517-522.

This paper presents some techniques for teaching critical reading. It emphasizes the need for teachers to provide the proper setting and encouragement for their pupils.

Bracken, Dorothy Kendall, "Research and Practice in Improving Listening," *Improving Reading Ability Around the World*, Procedures of the Third International Reading Association World Congress of Reading, Newark, 1970, pp. 122-131.

This presentation, concerning the relationship between listening and reading, explains the difficulties of listening and makes suggestions for both basic and cognitive listening skills. It describes the benefits of special training for improved listening and the gains to be expected in reading from listening training.

Carlson, Ruth Kearney (editor), *Folklore and Folktales Around the World*, Perspectives in Reading, Number 15, International Reading Association, Newark, 1972, 172 pp.

This ten-author volume focuses upon folklore and folktales around the world. A few definitions of commonly used terminology about folklore and folktales clarify some of the sections of this collection of papers. The authors hope that readers will lose some of their ethnocentrism and learn to appreciate the contributions which the folktale offers toward a better understanding of the peoples of the world. A bibliography is included.

Criscuolo, Nicholas P., "Reading Courses for Parents," *The Instructor* (August-September), 1972, 82:64.

Educators realize the importance of parental reinforcement as it relates to the reading program. A worthwhile activity is a reading course for parents to teach them ways they can help their children to become more proficient. Ten topics were developed: (1) defining reading; (2) infant, toddler, prereading stage; (3) kindergarten child; (4) how children learn to read;

(5) reading readiness and beginning reading experiences; (6) helping children at home; (7) word analysis skills (workshop session); (8) sight vocabulary (workshop session); (9) comprehension thinking skills (workshop session); (10) guiding reading interests.

Crews, Ruthellen, "More Myths on the Teaching of Reading," *Journal of Reading* (March, 1972), 15:411-424.

It is true that too many myths have been kicked about in the search for a solution to the reading problems in our schools. We have long passed the time when we can afford to place the blame on someone else as a possible solution. The author suggests that we practice those well-known clichés: "Take the child where he is," and "All teachers are teachers of reading."

Cunningham, Richard C., "Resurrecting Meaningful Inservice Training," *Journal of Reading* (April, 1972), 15:485-487.

Inservice education, once the bane of content teachers, appears about to make a comeback on the American educational scene. Several factors are acting to resurrect inservice. The most important factor is the continuing need of practicing teachers to familiarize themselves with new developments in curriculum and methodology.

Downing, John, "A Gap Has Two Sides," *The Reading Teacher* (April, 1972), 25:634-638.

The author maintains that the learner's tasks, as well as the teacher's techniques, probably need to be modified to bring about student progress. The quickest way to build a bridge across the readiness gap is to start from both sides.

Farr, Roger, and J. Jaap Tuinman, "The Dependent Variable: Measurement Issues in Reading Research," *Reading Research Quarterly* (Spring, 1972), 7:413-423.

This article discusses concerns about measurement in reading research. These concerns are addressed to researchers and consumers of research. The problems are organized into four major categories: (1) the selection and validity of measures; (2) the reliability of assessment; (3) the appropriate scores to use, and (4) the description of tests and testing conditions. A

list of questions is included as a guide to considering measurement problems in reading research.

Fleming, James, "Promoting Language Skills in Preschool Programs," *Some Persistent Questions on Beginning Reading* (Robert C. Aukerman, editor), International Reading Association, Newark, 1972, pp. 13-19.

Reportedly there is much recent concern for preschool language development. Possibly this is the result of (1) studies of children's language acquisitions which have incorporated major changes in investigative approach as well as in linguistic theory; (2) notions of what constitutes readiness for intellectual activities which have increasingly received sophisticated, interdisciplinary attention; and (3) the demand of many heretofore rather quiet segments of society which have challenged many underlying assumptions, overt practices, and apparent outcomes of traditional preschool activities. Most of the emphasis regarding preschool language development is concerned with that segment of the population which usually is labeled "disadvantaged."

Freshour, Frank W., "Beginning Reading: Parents Can Help," *The Reading Teacher* (March, 1972), 25:513-516.

According to the author a parent should make activities with his child enjoyable, not long and difficult. In all relationships, the child should be granted the right to fail, to have his successes praised, and to be treated with respect. A parent is a parent—not a teacher. A parent can be a strong, positive influence on his child. The teacher can teach the skills.

Goodman, Kenneth S., "Reading: The Key Is in Children's Language," *The Reading Teacher* (March, 1972), 25:505-508.

In reading, the solutions to the teaching-learning problems are in the children themselves. If we view them as users of language, our goal becomes one of making literacy an extension of the learner's natural language development. Instruction will be successful only to the extent that it capitalizes on children's language-learning ability and their existing language competence.

Griffiths, Anita N., Joseph F. Fillen, and Roberta Dankel, "Leave Dyslexics in the Classroom," *Academic Therapy* (John Arena, editor) (Fall, 1972), 8:57-65.

The authors stated that there is a clear indication that the children with learning disabilities can be dealt with in the classroom by the classroom teacher provided they are given remedial help. It seems clear that: (1) Learning disabilities can be recognized by the classroom teacher once she knows how to identify the symptoms; (2) Final diagnosis and recommendations for remedial help need to be defined by competent psychologists or educators; and (3) A relatively small amount of inservice allows the classroom teacher to bring about material improvement in the child's classroom achievement and behavior.

Gump, Patricia L., and Richard R. Muller, "Using Art and Imagery in a Multimedia Center," *The Reading Teacher* (April, 1972), 25:657-662.

The program the authors describe deals with figure-ground relationships in art and reading. On the basis of this experiment, there are a great many opportunities for the reading teacher to combine nonprint visual media with the skills involved in deciphering and understanding the printed word.

Humphrey, Jack W., and Sandra R. Redden, "Encouraging Young Authors," *The Reading Teacher* (April, 1972), 25:643-651.

The authors describe a project they helped develop which combines reading, writing, and library services. As a result of the project, over three thousand children are authors of books or stories in anthologies for this year alone.

Kasdon, Lawrence M., "Causes of Reading Difficulties," *Parents And Reading* (Carl B. Smith, editor) Perspectives in Reading No. 14, International Reading Association, Newark, 1971, pp. 23-36.

The author presented some of the facts and assumptions about the causes of reading difficulties. Among the causes of reading difficulties are physical, intellectual, and educational factors. Other factors concern more fashionable terms such as learning modality problems, dyslexia, perceptual handicaps,

and minimum brain damage. The author suggests that carefully designed longitudinal studies are needed before we can speak with certainty about causes of reading problems.

Knight, David W., and Paul Bethune, "Science Words Students Know," *Journal of Reading* (April, 1972), 15:504-506.

In order for teachers to teach adequately the specialized vocabulary peculiar to a content area, it would be helpful if the teacher knew which words are probably known or understood by students at a given grade level. Edgar Dale has done an extensive study of the vocabulary of students in grades four to sixteen. Some possible applications by teachers for this list are: (1) Use words that are in the reading vocabulary of students as they prepare materials for classroom use; (2) Use the list as a guide in estimating the number of new vocabulary words introduced in commercially prepared materials; (3) Use the list as a guide in selecting supplementary materials, and (4) Use the list as a guide toward the development of vocabulary which more specifically meets the needs of their students or content areas.

Kottler, Sylvia B., "The Identification and Remediation of Auditory Problems," *Academic Therapy* (John Arena, editor) (Fall, 1972), 8:73-86.

The information in this article is intended to provide procedures and samples for both testing and training children with auditory problems. These problems are sound localization, sound discrimination, and sound sequencing. These informal programs are based on varied developmental activities. The author presented these procedures as supplemental, structured opportunities for the child to learn and practice the skills in which he is deficient.

Lane, Patricia K., and Margery Staman Miller, "Listening: Learning for Underachieving Adolescents," *Journal of Reading* (April, 1972), 15:488-491.

The studies and experiences mentioned in this article, although not conclusive, are evidence that listening plays a major role in a well-balanced curriculum at any level. A listening

program, if incorporated into the general curriculum, may be instrumental in raising the interest level and increasing the thinking skills of students who have been "indifferent" and intermittent learners.

Mann, Gloria T., "Item Analysis vs. Test Scores For Evaluating the Results of Reading Achievement Tests," *The Reading Instruction Journal* (January, 1972), 15:29-37.

This paper discusses the silent reading achievement tests that accompany the *Lippincott Basic Reading* series. Its purpose is to show that: (1) Scores, per se, made on these tests have limited diagnostic value regardless of the test scores; (2) An in-depth item analysis of these tests is necessary in order to identify the specific strengths and weaknesses of each child and to aid the teacher in planning her instruction to meet these needs.

McNaughton, Anthony H., "Research on Children's Written Language in Social Studies," *Improving Reading Ability Around the World* (Dorothy Kendall Bracken and Eve Malmquist, editors) Proceedings of the Third International Reading Association, Newark, 1970, pp. 142-148.

The major objectives of the Taba Curriculum in social studies are: (1) the development of a number of specific thinking skills; (2) the acquisition, use and understanding of important elements of knowledge; (3) the formation of particular attitudes and values. This report describes the development of techniques for evaluating a child's written responses against aspects of the first two of these objectives.

McNeil, John D., "Performance Tests: Assessing Teachers of Reading—A Proposal," *The Reading Teacher* (April, 1972), 25:622-633.

McNeil stated that there is a need for more research in the performance tests which assess teachers of reading. To identify properly the effective instructor, variations in test construction should be created and tried out. Research should also be undertaken to find out how generalizable are the results of performance tests. What is the relation of a short fifteen-minute per-

formance score to achievement of semester goals? What connection is there between a teacher's success with classes of reading skills and his success with reading tasks within a class of skills? Such knowledge is important if one is testing to evaluate individual teachers and would eliminate any suggestion of discriminatory job testing.

Miller, Burley, "What Parents Can Do For the School," *Parents and Reading* (Carl B. Smith, editor), International Reading Association, Newark, 1971, pp. 107-111.

The New York City Schools have prepared a list of suggestions for parents that seems particularly useful: (1) Talk to your child; (2) Listen to your child; (3) Read to your child; (4) Help him with his reading; (5) Teach your child how to take care of books; (6) Take him on trips; (7) Build up a reading atmosphere at home; (8) Encourage him to join and use the public library; (9) Buy games and puzzles for your child; (10) Praise your child; (11) Keep your child well and rested; (12) Give your child responsibilities; (13) See that your child has good habits of attendance; (14) Check your child's report card. Don't nag about grades; (15) Set aside a time for homework and a comfortable place to do it; (16) Guide your child in movie going and T.V. viewing; (17) Accept your child as he is; (18) Show an interest in the school.

Moburg, Lawrence G., *Inservice Teacher Training in Reading*, ERIC/CRIER and the International Reading Association, Newark, 1972, 42 pp.

This paper summarizes and evaluates the research published since 1963 dealing with inservice teacher training in reading. The review of research concerned with inservice programs in reading is followed by a synthesis of research findings. Recommendations for future research in the area are made.

Nephew, Erv, "Behavioral Objectives and Program Reorganization," *The Reading Teacher* (April, 1972), 25:618-621.

The author argues that development of behavioral objectives must begin by determining direction for the school district. The author recounts the steps one school district took in ap-

proaching the problem. This district first decided what they really wanted to accomplish for the children of the district. They then revised their proceedings and their approach on that basis rather than with a change of system or organization. If quality education is to result, the first consideration in improving education must be accountability. A new organization or a new system must only be used as a vehicle to arrive at that point.

Newman, David, "Perceptual Versus Phonics Training," *Academic Therapy* (John Arena, editor) (Fall, 1972), 8:15-20.

The purpose of this study was to compare the effectiveness of two standard methods—perceptual training and phonics training—being used in remedial reading today. Most of the students in the perceptual and the phonics training programs showed significant educational growth on many of the subtests. The relative growth for each student on each subtest depended on the training method on the particular subtest. In some instances it depended on age and intelligence. Any conclusions to be drawn from this study must reflect the nature of the training; how the children and teacher were selected; the nature of the reading measure; and the extent to which these findings could be generalized to other children with learning disabilities.

Powell, William R., "The Effective Reading Teacher," *The Reading Teacher* (April, 1972), 25:603-607.

What is an effective reading teacher? The author offered the following criteria as a partial answer. First, a conception of what makes up diagnostic teaching; Second, the ability to determine the various reading levels inherent in each child; Third, an appreciation of the value of interpreting accurately the potential of each student; Fourth, a conceptual system of the organic nature of comprehension (cognitive system); Fifth, an understanding of the concept of readability (symbol system); Sixth, a knowledge of the basic ingredients of phonics, structural analysis, and linguistic patterns.

Rampp, Donald L., and Jan R. Covington, "Auditory Perception, Reading, and the Initial Teaching Alphabet," *Journal of Learning Disabilities* (October, 1972), 5:497-500.

The purpose of this study was to ascertain the effectiveness of the i.t.a. reading program for children with auditory perceptual disturbances. Results of this investigation revealed that the ten children studied were reading significantly better at the conclusion of the forty-week program. Implications of the results are discussed.

Rutherford, William L., "From Diagnosis to Treatment of Reading Disabilities," *Academic Therapy* (John Arena, editor) (Fall, 1972), 8:51-55.

Why does the child have so much difficulty with reading? What should be done to improve the child's performance? Generally, the teacher will accept an explanation of the problem at one of four diagnostic levels. Those levels are: general cause, terminology, overt behavior, and prescription. This article considered each of the levels and their comparative usefulness in improving the child's performance. The author maintains that diagnosis of reading problems is useful to the classroom teacher only to the extent that it suggests what he can do to improve this performance.

Schell, Leo M., "Promising Possibilities for Improving Comprehension," *The Journal of Reading* (March, 1972), 15:415-424.

This article attempted to describe some of the promising possibilities for improving reading comprehension which seem most useful and practical. The author discusses listening, phrase reading films, Impress Method, the Cloze procedure, linguistics, and sentence patterns.

Schoeller, Arthur W., "The Child and the Curriculum, Reading: Emerging Role of the 'RRT'," *Instructor* (August-September, 1972), 82:69-70.

A new source of help in teaching reading is becoming available to teachers in many schools across the country. Reading specialists who have been doing remedial work with pupils are now, instead, working with teachers. Prevention must replace remediation. The author discussed the emerging role of the reading specialist as a reading resource teacher (RRT).

Smith, Carl B., "The Effect of Environment on Learning to Read," *Parents and Reading* (Carl B. Smith, editor), International Reading Association, Newark, 1971, pp. 10-22.

In this presentation, the author summarized the research on environment, looked at aspects of the environment that relate to operation in the reading process, and described some programs intended to overcome the environmental factors. Research indicates that the following environmental factors are often related to poor reading: (1) Inadequate vocabulary; (2) Lack of early experience with a variety of shapes and sounds; (3) Few experiences that relate to the content of the books used in school; (4) Lack of stimulation through books; (5) Lack of discussion, questions and answers, cause and effect conversation; (6) Negative attitudes toward school and authority and learning; (7) Rigid restrictions on behavior.

Soll, Lila, "Learning by Doing," *Journal of Reading* (April, 1972), 15:496-499.

The reading skills program at Baruch College for open enrollment students has been developed to put meaning into the cliché of "learning by doing." Reading classes are scheduled in coordination with specific required freshman year courses. This procedure allows the students to experience the realistic demand of a credit-carrying college level course. At the same time the students learn specific study skills and ensure that the skills carry over to academic skills.

Sullivan, Joanna, "Liberating Children to Creative Reading," *The Reading Teacher* (April, 1972), 25:639-642.

The author developed this article from a study she recently completed on the relationship of creative and convergent thinking to literal and creative reading ability. She stated that if children are to be judged on their ability to express what they know, they should have the freedom of using their experiences and imaginative abilities and to respond on their terms.

Sutton, Marjorie Hunt, "Accountability and Teaching Reading," *The Reading Teacher* (March, 1972), 25:528-532.

Teachers must proceed with caution and full awareness of

the many problems of accountability. There are many pitfalls to be avoided if accountability is to succeed. An additional problem is that of overcoming the false assumption that all gains in reading ability are a direct result of classroom instruction for which the teacher is responsible. The assumption, that all failure to make expected gains in reading ability can be laid to ineffectual classroom instruction, is also untrue.

Thelen, Judith N., "Everyone Shall Have the Right to Read, But Who's Going to Teach Them?" *The Reading Teacher* (April, 1972), 25:612-615.

In answer to the question, "Everyone shall have the right to read, but who's going to teach them?" the author made a national survey on certification of personnel. Results indicate that over a period of ten years the percentage of agencies requiring a course in reading for certification of elementary school teachers has risen from 14 percent to 47 percent. Ironically, over 50 percent of those states not requiring reading courses do have specific certification requirements for reading specialists.

Valmont, William J., "Creating Questions for Informal Reading Inventories," *The Reading Teacher* (March, 1972), 25:509-512.

The author presented hints which may aid in avoiding many of the common difficulties typically encountered in creating questions for Informal Reading Inventories. Some of the hints are: (1) Questions should be in the approximate order in which the information upon which they are based is presented; (2) Main idea questions should be placed first; (3) Ask the most important questions possible; (4) Check the sequence of questions to insure that a later question is not answered by an earlier one. (5) Keep questions short and simple. (6) Generally state questions so that they start with who, what, when, where, how, and why. (7) Avoid asking questions on which the child has a fifty-fifty chance of being correct.

Wanat, Stanley F., "Performance Tests: Assessing Teachers of Reading—A Response," *The Reading Teacher* (April, 1972), 25:623 +.

Teacher assessment is an important concern, and performance tests can be developed to serve as one means for evaluating instructors.

Weber, Rosemary, "Bibliography," *Reading, Children, Books and Our Pluralistic Society* (Harold Tanyzer and Jean Kari, editors), International Reading Association, Perspectives in Reading No. 16, Newark, 1972, pp. 81-89.

Each bibliography listed was examined to ascertain, if possible, the authority and outlook of the compiler, the criteria used for the selection of items to be listed, and the level of reader for whom the materials were assembled. These points are discussed in the annotation following each listing.

Weintraub, Samuel, "Auditory Perception and Deafness," ERIC/CRIER—International Reading Association, Reading Research Profiles, Newark, 1972, pp. 51.

The relationship between various auditory abilities and reading performance has long been a topic of interest to reading educators and researchers. Researchers, administrators, reading specialists, and classroom teachers, as well as individuals in related areas such as speech and hearing, will find information of use in this bibliography.

Whisler, Nancy G., "The Newspaper: Resource for Teaching Study Skills," *The Reading Teacher* (April, 1972), 25:652-658.

Supplementary materials to any commercial approach to reading are often necessary to service the individual needs of youngsters. The newspaper activities described in this article have tremendous potential in the developmental reading program. They can be effectively used in conjunction with any reading series or method of instruction.

Wiggins, Phyllis Wynn, "The Reading Teacher: Heart of the Curriculum," *Journal of Reading* (April, 1972), 15:482-484.

The reading teacher in today's high school, particularly in the central city, is the heart of the curriculum. This has been reaffirmed and supported during the last two years at the Rufus King High School in Milwaukee. Not only have King teachers been learning techniques for strengthening reading skills in content areas, but many have also learned that they have been teaching reading in ordinary classroom work assignments all along, albeit unaware. The author added that

the reading teacher must assume the responsibility for showing content area teachers how and why to develop reading and learning skills.

Williams, Maurice, and Virginia M. R. Stevens, "Understanding Paragraph Structure," *Journal of Reading* (April, 1972) 15:513-516.

The authors conducted a study of elementary and secondary students to determine the effectiveness of teaching methods concerning paragraph structure. In the areas of summarizing the main idea and finding the topic sentence, students did seem to progress in these areas as they moved from elementary to secondary schools, but they need further improvement at both levels.

Zuck, Louis V., and Yetta M. Goodman, "On Dialects and Reading," *Journal of Reading* (April, 1972), 15:500-503.

The articles in this bibliography are classified under four headings: (1) Linguistic concepts related to oral language; (2) Linguistic concepts related to written language; (3) Implications for the classroom; and (4) Social class dialects and language: are they related?

PROGRAM 1972-73

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INTERNATIONAL READING ASSOCIATION

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