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*Reading*

**HORIZONS**



**Spring 1972**



# *Reading* **HORIZONS**

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**RH**

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## *Editorial Comment*

### MAKING THE RIGHT TO READ A REALITY

In September of 1969 Dr. James E. Allen, Jr., who at that time was U.S. Commissioner of Education, announced that "we should immediately set for ourselves the goal of assuring that by the end of the 1970's the right to read shall be a reality for all—that no one shall be leaving our schools without the skill and the desire necessary to read to the full limits of his capability." It is now 1972. What has been done to achieve this goal?

The United States Office of Education has given the "right to read" effort top priority and has assumed the responsibility of coordinating the resources of the *professional* sector in the country and of focusing the nation's attention on reading. A National Reading Council has been appointed by President Nixon and charged with the task of marshaling the efforts and resources of the *private* sector. A National Reading Center has been established to stimulate the *public* sector to make reading improvement a community project. The International Reading Association and the Parent Teacher Association have worked diligently in many ways to make their contributions toward solving our nation's reading problem. A beginning has been made. But we are still far from our goal.

It appears to many of us that the Right to Read program is doomed to failure unless every individual throughout the land becomes personally involved. National and professional organizations alone cannot achieve the goal. Each of us must work toward literacy for all. Therefore, it seems pertinent to ask, What are YOU doing to make the Right to Read a reality?

Dorothy J. McGinnis  
Editor





# FROM THE PAGE TO THE MIND

*Louis Foley*

*Babson College*

A remarkable French book which deals comprehensively with the different aspects of reading is *La Lisibilité* by François Richaudeau, published in Paris by Denoël-Gontier in 1969. The title of this book immediately brings up a common problem in translation. Every serious student of language knows that very frequently the corresponding or supposedly equivalent words in different languages do not have quite the same meaning. While they may have considerable basic relationship, one may cover more or less ground than the other, and they do not come to the idea from the same angle of approach.

*La Lisibilité* is not satisfactorily translated by "readability." What the latter term suggests to us appears, for instance, in a review of the best-seller by Barbara Tuchman, *Stillwell and the American Experience in China*. The review is headed by the caption, "Writing readable history," and tells us in the first paragraph that the author "strives for readability." She believes that there should be "an element of suspense to keep a reader turning the pages."<sup>1</sup> So it is quite clear that, when we say a book is "readable," we mean the writing is lively and interesting, not dull or "dry." In other words it is not at all boresome.

Now that is not what is meant by *lisibilité*. Neither is the meaning represented by "legibility," though that idea is completely included. A book printed in any of various languages which use our alphabet may be perfectly legible, but if we know only English we cannot read it. Assuming one's natural acquaintance with the language in question, however, *La Lisibilité* is a profound study of the various elements entering into communication from the printed page to the mind of the reader.

In the Middle Ages (as indeed much later), reading was thought of as reading *aloud*; it was by *hearing* the words that one understood. When writing moved continuously without punctuation or spaces between words, and with frequent abbreviations, reading had to be done mostly by professionals. With conditions as they were in those days, the rapid visual sweep of the modern silent reader would have been hardly conceivable.

Speech operates according to laws which have their roots far back in long-lost prehistoric ages. When writing finally came into

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1. *The Christian Science Monitor*, March 14, 1971.

existence, it was simply a means of preserving what was *said*. Naturally it was read aloud; reading was an imitation of the speaker whose words had been kept on a page of manuscript. Since then we have come a long way. The modern silent reader benefits from a really different method of communication. He is likely to read from three to six times faster. He can learn to read with real efficiency, reading selectively, hurdling redundancies and irrelevancies. Naturally the evolution of the process of reading has had far-reaching influence upon the way writing is done. A simple example of the change appears in the effect of repetition. Within a few seconds a speaker may repeat a word a number of times, in different tones, without attracting attention or seeming redundant, whereas in the neutral tone of print such repetition would be conspicuous and annoying to a silent reader. More or less like ordinary conversation, most of the writing of earlier centuries seems very loose and wordy compared to composition that would be called good writing nowadays.

Scientific investigation and experimentation have brought out some facts about the process of reading which may seem surprising. Outside of extreme cases, for instance, it appears that neither the sharpness of vision of the reader nor the size of type characters has much to do with speed of reading. There is a considerable part of the shape of any letter which is not necessary for it to be recognized. One "sees" the whole word, whether it is completely represented or not; many letters can be left out without making words unintelligible.

The word-by-word reader is acting as if words were equal units, when of course they are nothing of the sort. In any typical sentence, many words are determined by the structures of the language; they do not in themselves convey any original information. The rapid reader senses immediately the *pattern* of a clause or sentence as a whole, and recognizes the key words which carry the essential new meaning. He does not really *see* as individual items all the words that he "reads." As by instinct he makes a knowing selection. Since, as has been well said, "the whole page is true at the same time," it is understandable that a rapid reader is likely to grasp its message better than one who goes more slowly. The fact has been demonstrated by repeated experiments.

M. Richaudeau is convinced that the mere *length* of a sentence—a matter upon which Mr. Rudolf Flesch has so much insisted—is not an important consideration. What counts for far more in ease of reading is *structure*. Given a coherent plan as a whole, with subordinate clauses clearly joined by proper connectives, a sentence can

be very long and still be perfectly easy to read. If we took seriously Mr. Flesch's prescription of 17 words for a sentence, we should be limited to bare assertions of simple ideas. Such sentences are effective in their proper place, but are very limited in their scope.

A reader is continually guided by signs so well established that no one thinks of them unless they are badly used: capital letters at the beginning of sentences, spacing or indentation to indicate new paragraphs, punctuation to keep sentence-structure clear, italics for certain words, and hyphens to mark compounds. These are commonly quite distinct in grammar and meaning (as well as pronunciation) from the separate words of which they are composed; "to close up the gap" is entirely different from "a close-up photograph." A good arrangement for the page of a book is to have lines of ten or twelve words each, spaced sufficiently to avoid mistakes in going from one line to another.

Experimentation has shown that characters of the system of Garamond can be read at considerably farther distance than those of the system of Didot. It has been demonstrated that the eye follows a line of Garamond easily without obstacle, whereas with a line of Didot there is a tendency to make a sort of inspection, stopping on the characters instead of having one's mind entirely on the ideas. The reason for this difference is not far to seek. Garamond puts the strength of letters in the parts of their forms which distinguish them from each other, while Didot puts their strength in the parts which they share in general. Once we see this point, we understand why Old English or Gothic type is hard to read.

Knowing how to read is not a simple affair. Naturally it presupposes easy familiarity with the language in which one is to read. And reading in a certain language may be a considerably different exercise from reading in any other. Every language that a person really knows—in which he *thinks* comfortably with the true idiom—is a separate register of the mind, a world in which no one can enter without possessing that language.

Benjamin Lee Whorf, in his *Science and Linguistics*, brought out a profound truth about language which many people have been slow to realize: "The background linguistic system (in other words, the grammar) of each language is not merely a reproducing instrument for voicing ideas, but rather is itself the shaper of ideas, the program and guide for the individual's mental activity, for his analysis of impressions, for his synthesis of his mental stock in trade. Formulation of ideas is not an independent process, strictly rational in the old

sense, but is part of a particular grammar . . . We dissect nature along lines laid down by our native languages. The categories and types that we isolate from the world of phenomena we do not find there because they stare every beholder in the face . . . We cut nature up, organize it into concepts, and ascribe significances as we do, largely because we are parties to an agreement to organize it in this way—an agreement that holds true throughout our speech community and is codified in the patterns of our language.

“Language is not merely a more or less systematic inventory of the various items of experience . . . It is also a self-contained, creative, symbolic organization, which not only refers to experience acquired largely without its help, but actually defines experience for us by reason of its formal completeness . . . (Meanings) are not so much discovered in experience as imposed upon it . . .”

The sixteenth- and seventeenth-century expression, “the great *book* of Nature,” M. Richaudeau points out, may be understood quite literally. Only slightly different was the term “the great book of the world,” used by René Descartes, the first of the great philosophers of the era of Gutenberg. For the thinkers of that time, Nature was to be deciphered and explained in the same way as one reads a text, proceeding by lineal logic from cause to effect. This new method of studying the universe produced extraordinary results. In five centuries man and his environment have evolved more than during all the hundreds of previous centuries. The diffusion of reading matter made possible by the printing press has been an essential cause of the scientific and technological development, as well as the psychological and sociological evolution, of Western man. This is what printed pages have accomplished in the last five hundred years.

# SLOW DEVELOPING NORMAL BOYS AS DISABLED READERS: A SPECULATIVE PILOT STUDY

*Mary Lou Stewart*

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This article is being published with the hope it will prompt further research investigation by individuals with the necessary interest, expertise, and financial resource. The reader should exercise care in interpreting the importance of the results which are tentative pending further investigation.

The recognition, in American schools, that boys have greater reading disabilities than girls is not a new phenomenon.<sup>(24)</sup> Of special concern to many educators is the "normal, healthy, intelligent" boy who, despite ability, advantage, and potential, still becomes a disabled reader and school failure. Rough estimates place 15% of the school population in this category.<sup>(19)</sup> One functional definition specifies the problem as follows:

Any condition which causes an individual's school achievement to be substantially below his measured potential in spite of an average or above average intelligence, an absence of gross neurological disorders, and severe cultural deficit, and conventional instruction sufficient for the majority of children in the regular classroom.<sup>(19:92)</sup>

Can we determine the cause of the condition? In this pilot study, focus has been placed on a possible underlying cause of the reading disability problem: the discrepancy between maturation rates of boys and girls. Girls, generally, mature physiologically more rapidly than boys.<sup>(9)</sup> Educational practice in the United States has established six years as the usual age when boys and girls seriously begin to learn to read. Since girls mature at a faster pace than boys, the immature boy may have a "double disadvantage" competing with children of the same chronological age in the classroom.

## REVIEW OF RECENT LITERATURE

### **Skeletal Age**

Over the years, extended efforts have been directed at improving skeletal assessment, more accurate an indicator of physiological ma-

turity than age, height, and weight.(9) Johnston and Manson express the issue as follows:

It may be stated with some truth that the more experience one has in evaluating children's Readiness for School the wider one's concept of normal functional limits at each age becomes. Nonetheless, the inadequacy of chronological age as the basic criterion for the nebulous thing we call School Readiness remains impressive. (20:97)

The Cleveland Atlases are recognized as an excellent standard of reference in determination of bone age.(1) In the hand, fusion in distal phalanx II in the female occurs very near the date of menarche. (4, 13) Bilateral symmetrical development also occurs in the hand.(2)

There is a problem associated with skeletal assessment which involves comparison of an x-ray film of a child with a standard of reference x-ray film. Subjective rating and interpolation must be used. Skeletal age, or bone age, represents the arithmetical average of the ages of all the bones in which ossification has begun. Absence of a center is not acknowledged in computation of bone age since bones not present are rated 0. For this reason, individual bone ages formed the basis of the skeletal assessment in this pilot study. Since expert subjective ratings were desired, Dr. S. Idell Pyle supervised individual bone age assessments.

Expertise in bone age reading is necessary. Schoen, *et al.* (21) found the accuracy of radiologists' reading for bone age in short boys, particularly those without known disease, was not great. In more than 50% of these boys, bone age was usually delayed over two years behind chronological age.

A radiograph may well indicate a record of past illnesses and other "misadventures . . . and what is more important, a measure of the severity of their impact on the developing skeleton—itsself, quite probably a reflection of their impact on the total organism." (9:18-19) One of these indications is lines of arrested growth, or lines of increased density, running transversely across the shaft of the radius. These lines have been observed in children with severe nutritional disturbances and in children exposed to the bombing at Nagasaki and Hiroshima.(9) There is some controversy regarding the physiological mechanism in the deposition of bone in lines of increased density,(17) but little question exists that they represent evidence of disruption in the growth process. Garn *et al.* found, in an investigation of a normative American population, that lines of increased density on

the distal tibia in childhood are associated with episodes of disease, with trauma following minor surgery, and even with routine small-pox immunizations. Yet "in 10% of the cases, a new transverse line was observed on the distal tibia when neither disease nor trauma had been reported for the previous interval." (8:73)

Other aberrations which can be found on radiographs include notches, nicks, cartilaginous strips, and metaphyseal tags. Lee *et al.*, (13) in reviewing the Fels Growth Study radiographs, found no obvious relationship between degree of metacarpal notching and the stature of a child or rate of attaining physiological maturity.

Some relationship has been found between skeletal age and school achievement. In the age range of six and seven years, the slower maturation rate of boys, reflected in average Z scores for weight, height, grip strength, dentition, and carpal age accompanied low achievement in reading and arithmetic in a study by Klausmeier. (12) Moutis, (18) in a longitudinal study of boys, ages 10 through 12 years, at Phillips Exeter Academy, found boys who were superior in standing height and skeletal age also scored consistently and significantly higher in scholastic achievement tests, academic grades, and grade point average. In contrast, little relationship existed between retarded, normal, and advanced skeletal age groups and scholastic and psychosocial variables in Sekeres (22) investigation of boys at ages nine, 12, 15, and 17.

#### **WISC Test Scores and Reading Disability**

Group intelligence tests which demand verbal abilities place the disabled reader at a considerable disadvantage. The Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC), an individual intelligence test, consists of two scales: verbal and performance. The subtests in the verbal scale are vocabulary, information, comprehension, arithmetic, similarities, and digit span (forward and backward interpretation of numbers). Performance scale subtests include picture completion, picture arrangement, object assembly, block design (construction of color patterns to duplicate a given pattern), and coding (substitution of symbols for a given digit).

Since the early 1950's, a number of studies of the WISC subtest pattern scores of disabled readers have been published. Despite considerable difference in research design in the various investigations, general patterns have emerged. Besides the diagnostic value of delineating patterns, one purpose of studying patterns has been the attempt to ascertain whether low subtest scores are a symptom of the reading disability or an effect. (15)



Huelsman(10) reviewed 23 previous WISC subtest pattern studies for disabled readers. His findings indicated the disabled reader subtest pattern would include low scores on information, arithmetic, coding, and digit span; and a high score on picture completion. Also a high performance IQ score in relation to the verbal would appear in about 60% of the disabled readers.

#### **Behavior Patterns**

To what extent does academic failure affect the behavior of the disabled reader? Fabian,(7) in 1955, proposed that reading disability may be a clue to a personality disorder in an individual child. Barsky(3) investigated aggression scores in disabled readers using the Sears Aggression Scale, the Fels Revised Child Behavior Scale, and the Thematic Apperception Test. She found disabled male readers were higher in anti-social aggression than their matched female counterparts, and significantly higher in projected aggression than superior male readers.

#### **PURPOSES OF THE PRESENT STUDY**

The purposes of this pilot study were:

- I. To investigate the possibility that reading disability is associated with immaturity in developmental status in "normal, healthy, intelligent" boys.
- II. To design a research plan for clinical examination and assessment of the children involved. The following guidelines were established for the design:
  - A. The case study approach was followed so all aspects of development could be assessed.
  - B. Each aspect of the investigation was conducted by persons best qualified in that particular aspect:
    1. Physical "normalcy, health, well being" was based on the findings of a medical examination by the family physician.
    2. Intelligence was determined by scores on the WISC, an individual intelligence test, administered by qualified personnel.
    3. Reading and learning disability, and psychological, social, and emotional status were evaluated by clinical psychologists.
    4. Developmental status was determined through individual bone age readings in the hand and wrist. Radiographs were done in a medical clinic. Readings were supervised by Dr. S. Idell Pyle.

### METHODS

The four boys, subjects of this pilot study, were referred to the Reading Center and Clinic at Western Michigan University in Kalamazoo, Michigan. One of the functions of the Clinic is to provide developmental and corrective instruction in reading for children and adults.

Clinic services are given to "normal, healthy" children who have a reading disability. The parents, teacher, child, and other representatives of the school system in which the child is enrolled are present at the Clinic the day the child is interviewed and tested. Procedures involve in-depth interviews with all these individuals. Family, developmental, and medical histories are reviewed. Personal-social relationships are carefully assessed. An individual intelligence test, diagnostic reading tests, and school achievement tests are administered to the child. In addition, personality measures and informal inventories are given, and observations recorded. Choice of tests depends on the child's problems and needs. Following this day of interviewing and testing, the staff of the Reading Center and Clinic reviews the case, submits a diagnosis of the problem to the parents and school authorities, and recommends procedures for improvement of the disability.

For the boys in this pilot investigation, additional procedures existed. A letter was sent to the parents explaining the purpose of the study and asking if they would be willing to participate. If the parents agreed, arrangements were made for the return of the boy to the Western Michigan University campus for x-ray filming of the hand and wrist at the Kalamazoo Radiological Laboratory. At least one parent accompanied the child and signed a medical release for the x-ray film so it could be sent to Dr. S. Idell Pyle at Case Western Reserve University Medical School for a bone age assessment reading. At this time, anthropometric measurements were made. The boy was weighed in shorts and T-shirt, without shoes; height and erect sitting height were also measured. Standards specified by Damon(6) were followed in measuring standing height; those of McCloy,(16) for sitting height.

### DISCUSSION AND SUMMARY OF CASE STUDY REPORTS

Since most children referred to reading clinics are boys, and since boys mature physiologically more slowly than girls, could the "normal, healthy, intelligent" disabled reader be, in truth, a slow developing child? The results of the present study offer some slight evidence this could be so.

The skeletal assessments of each of the four boys in the present investigation showed that each of these disabled readers was physiologically immature. The boys' chronological ages were seven, 10, and 12 years. Anthropometric measurements did not indicate this developmental lag in two of the four boys. Carpal development was most immature for each boy.

Comparison of the x-ray of Ss 1 (Figure 3), age 7 years, 5 months, with the Standard of Reference Film for chronological age 36 months (Figure 1) and with the Standard of Reference Film for chronological age 84 months (Figure 2) shows striking carpal retardation. Ss 1 was in the "normal" range on the Pryor Height-Weight Tables, yet ossification is not evident in the epiphysis of the ulna, triquetral, scaphoid, trapezium, and trapezoid. The lunate has appeared in advance of the triquetral, otherwise onset of ossification is normal.

Bone age shows increasing maturity in a proximal-distal direction in the hand. The metacarpals range in bone age from 62 to 73 months; the proximal phalanges, from 76 to 84 months; and the middle phalanges, from 80 to 84 months. All distal phalanges are rated at 82 months of bone age. This pattern of retardation in bone development diminishing in a proximal-distal direction in the hand was characteristic of each of the four boys. Space limitations prevent inclusion of the other three x-rays with their appropriate Standard of Reference Films.

Lines of arrested growth similar to those observed in children with severe nutritional deficiencies and in children who have suffered episodes of disease and physical trauma can be observed in the x-ray of Ss 1 in the radius. These same lines appeared for Ss 2. Garn, (8:73) *et al.* reported that "in 10% of the cases studied, transverse lines appeared on the distal tibia when neither disease nor trauma had been reported for the previous interval." In the 37 studies Garn reviewed for the investigation, no findings were reported of a possible association between psychological problems and the appearance of transverse lines.

Other aberrations exist in the x-ray of Ss 1 (Figure 3). A deep notch is evident in metacarpal II; other notches are apparent in metacarpal V and middle phalanx V. Similar notches also appeared in the x-rays of Ss 2 and Ss 3. It should be recalled that Lee *et al.* found no obvious relationship between degree of metacarpal notching and the stature of a child or rate of attaining physiological maturity.

Finally, a cartilaginous strip which was a separate epiphysis can be seen in the x-ray of Ss 1 in metacarpal I. The only radiograph

free of notches, nicks, and epiphyseal damage was that of Ss 4 whose reading disability was of recent origin.

Each of the boys in the present investigation was judged to be physically "normal" on the basis of a medical examination by the family physician. Detailed neurological examinations were not given, but one could assume the family physician would have recommended neurological referral if indicated. Each physician was aware of the psychological manifestations accompanying the reading and school achievement disability of his patient.

Generally, with one exception, the developmental history of these four boys was uneventful. The seven year old boy had experienced rather severe trauma in the early years. His mother had confined him to a crib and had often left home. However, a positive relationship had been established recently with his stepmother. Basically the four boys were living in stable home situations at the time they were tested. All of the boys were Caucasian and from middle class homes. Two of the parents had completed 10th grade; all the rest were high school graduates.

Each of the four boys in this study was given the WISC. Two of the boys were in the normal range of intelligence (90-109); the other two were in the high average range (109-119). In some respects, WISC sub-pattern scores followed the general trend for disabled readers stated by Huelsman.(10) Performance scale scores were higher than verbal for the two boys who had been disabled readers throughout their school careers. Coding and digit span scores were below the mean of all three older boys. The subjects in this study did not follow the conventional disabled reader pattern in arithmetic, information, and picture completion scores. Ss 4, who had recently become a disabled reader, had a verbal scale score higher than the performance scale score. Ss 4's comprehension score was high: two standard deviations above the mean.

Visual-motor-perceptual performance as measured by the Bender Gestalt Test appears to be of greatest importance in reading in the first few years of school in terms of diagnosis, remediation, and prediction.(5, 14) Keough(11) found the Bender Gestalt score proved a good predictor of sixth grade reading ability. Eighty-two percent of the children identified as good or poor performers on the kindergarten Bender Gestalt Test were accurately identified in terms of being above or below grade level in achievement in reading at grade six. Silver(23) reported that reading ability improved with special reading instruction combined with visual-motor perceptual training

at age seven. Yet Connor,(5) in working with the same age group, found poor Bender performance in good readers as often as in poor readers and suggested a cautious approach. In this investigation, Ss 1, age seven, who was unable to read a word at all, had a low Bender Gestalt performance.

Three of the four subjects of the present investigation were conventional disabled readers with a history of learning problems going back to school entrance. Degree of disability was reflected in scores on the Detroit Reading Test: retardation ranged from 1.4 years to 2.9 years in grade placement. For two of the three, all school achievement was affected including spelling and arithmetic. A wide range of reading disabilities were found: lack of coordination, reading reversals, reading blocks, inability to remember what was read and heard, acute difficulty in articulation in reading, poor word attack skills, inability to understand reading as a thinking process, and lack of responsibility for school work.

The disabled reader has lived with failure. He has the impossible task of trying to keep up as he catches up in academic work. It is difficult to separate cause from effect and almost impossible to associate cause and effect. One fact is certain. Each of the boys in the present investigation had behavior deficiencies. Clinical investigation showed the problems for each of them were compounded in ways that were different for each and yet in some ways the same. Immaturity, social withdrawal as a "loner," aggressiveness, dependency, lethargy, disinterest, daydreaming, inattentiveness, verbosity, stuttering were the behaviors observed singularly and in various combinations. One apparently cannot live with failure and inadequacy in school achievement and survive unscathed.

#### IMPLICATIONS

For many years, reading teachers and researchers have intuitively proposed that the slower physiological developmental pace of boys may adversely affect their chances for success in schools. This investigation is a speculative pilot study, a preliminary report, of that problem. It offers some slight evidence that developmental immaturity may be associated with reading disability. Yet many important questions remain unanswered and must await more extensive investigation by researchers with the necessary financial resource and required expertise.

Would superior readers, male and female, show the same patterns of ossification, aberration, and degree of skeletal immaturity? What

would the data reveal for the disabled female reader? Do all boys who are disabled readers have the same deviations in wrist-hand-bone age? Can disabled readers be classified as a group or must we study children on an individual basis? What is the importance and predictive validity of the Bender Gestalt Test? What degree of variability and asynchronous development can be tolerated in the "normal range" of development—how does one account for a child who has high average intelligence combined with total disability in a psychomotor skill like reading?

Reading disability is a complex phenomenon usually attributed to many various causative factors(19) like developmental lag and immaturity; neurological impairment; nutritional and chemical imbalance; experiential deficit; genetic variation; sensory loss and others. What is the importance and contribution of developmental immaturity to the disabled reader "syndrome"? It is this investigator's hope and belief that further research will be pursued so that positive answers to these questions will be forthcoming.

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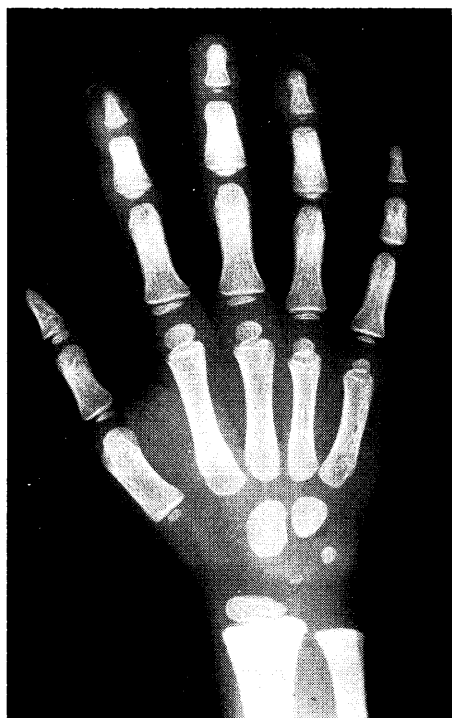
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# X-RAYS



**Figure 1:** Standard of Reference Film of the H and Wrist for 36 Months of Age in the Male

**Figure 2:** Standard of Reference Film of the H and Wrist for 84 Months of Age in the Male

**Figure 3:** X-ray of the Hand and Wrist of Sub #1 (Ss 1), age 89 Months.

The Standard of Reference Films : from Pyle, S. Idell; Waterhouse, Al M.; and Greulich, William Walter. *Radiographic Reference for the Growing Hand and Wrist* (1970). Pls #7 and #13.

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# CHILDREN AND POETRY

*Marion Hilberry*

*Berea College*

How do you get children to write poetry? For several years my husband and I have been interested in finding an answer to this question. As college teachers we have been particularly concerned about the numbers of good students who come to us reluctant to either write or read poetry. Our theory was that children at any age will take to poetry if they can be encouraged to make some poems themselves and to talk easily about the poems. This will lead, in turn, to their enjoyment of other poetry and all imaginative literature.

To test our theory we arranged to teach a few hours a week in the elementary school at Yellow Springs, Ohio. We set ourselves the task of getting these children to like poetry and to like writing it. Our first assumption was that since all children love rhyme, that would be a logical starting place. Taking the poem, "I Can't, Said the Ant," we asked the children to imitate the rhyme pattern. The plot was built around something happening in the kitchen and all the pots and pans and foods making comments. Children contributed individual lines to make up a whole poem. Here is an excerpt:

"She's hurt her chin!" said the gin.  
"Let me fix her," said the mixer.  
"Let's use tape," said the grape.  
"Look there," said the pear.  
"Mended with silk," said the milk.  
"She looks stable," said the table.  
"You've covered the crack," said the pack.  
"Good work!" said the perk.  
"Nothing to it!" said the fluid.  
"Looks the same," said the flame.  
"She'll break again," said a pen.

Somewhat older children proved they could manage the more complex limerick form:

There once was a fellow named Ned  
Who was ugly and quite over-fed.  
When asked of his weight  
He just stood there and ate.  
He was on a strict diet, he said.

After working with poems like these, we felt everyone had had

fun; we had established rapport and broken down prejudices against poetry. With slightly looser forms, the children sometimes began to loosen up and say what was on their minds. This cinquain, for example, is about as direct as it could get in its ambivalence:

Francie  
 Very mean  
 Very very nice  
 I like her  
 Sometimes.

And in this cinquain one can sense the exuberance of a high place:

Tree  
 Hard bark  
 Climb and see  
 Look up at  
 Me!

Then for several years we returned to our college teaching, convinced that children really do like poetry and can write it. We had far to go, however, in developing specific techniques for unleashing the emotion, the sensitivity, and the creativity that we knew were part of every child.

#### BREAKING DOWN THE BARRIERS—THE KOCH METHOD

The very techniques we were looking for and more, indeed a breakthrough in the teaching of poetry to children, came with the publication in 1970 of Kenneth Koch's *Wishes, Lies, and Dreams* (New York: Chelsea House). Koch, a poet himself, had spent several hours a week during 1969 visiting Public School 61 in Manhattan, teaching poetry to elementary school children of all races, backgrounds, and abilities. He wanted to see if he could find a way for children to get as much from poetry as they do from painting. He says:

The power to see the world in a strong, fresh, and beautiful way is a possession of all children. And the desire to express that vision is a strong creative and educational force. If there is a barrier in its way, the teacher has to find a way to break that down or circumvent it. (p. 46)

Breaking down these barriers is what his book is all about, and he is explicit about how to do it. First, he insists you must take

children seriously as poets and believe they have a natural talent for poetry. Then you must remove some of the usual rules and conventions, putting little emphasis upon spelling and punctuation. While children are creating, give them perfect freedom; interest in what words mean and how they are spelled will follow.

Koch observes that children, unlike adults, write better in a classroom surrounded by young, excited writers with a teacher close at hand to encourage them than they do at home in perfect quiet. When we saw a movie of Koch teaching children to write in Manhattan (available through the National Endowment for the Arts in Washington, D.C.), we were impressed with the seeming chaos of the classroom, chaos that on closer observation turned out to be humming, thriving, joyous activity.

What does he suggest one should read to children to get them started writing? Other children's poetry seems to excite them more than anything else; it makes them want to write and it often suggests particular techniques. They are especially attentive to poetry, adult poetry too, just before they are going to write, particularly if the poem has something to do with what they are to write about. Before the color poems (one sort of poem he often asks children to write), he sometimes reads Walter de la Mare's "Silver." He finds D. H. Lawrence's "Trees in the Garden," "Nothing to Save," and "The White Horse" work effectively. We have found that children respond easily to many poems in the anthology *Reflections on a Gift of Watermelon Pickle*, edited by Stephen Dunning, Edward Lueders, and Hugh Smith, and to poems by William Carlos Williams such as "This Is Just to Say" and "The Last Words of My English Grandmother."

The poems we find in *Wishes, Lies and Dreams*, all created by the children of P.S. 61, are undeniable proof that children can be taught to write poetry. But can Koch's suggestions and techniques work for other teachers in other classes? On a very limited scale, we have tried some of his approaches. Our conclusion is that any teacher who establishes a relaxed, friendly atmosphere, who encourages the children, and who loves poetry himself can use Koch's poetry assignments with success. Moreover, we discovered that once we understood his method, it was easy to create our own adaptations.

#### KOCH'S TECHNIQUES FOR STARTING POEMS

I would like to look now at a few of the devices Koch suggests for enabling children to write and show what his children did with

them—and occasionally what our children did. I will be using lines written individually or collaboratively by our daughters, 8 and 12, and by their boy cousins, 12 and 13. Later I will mention a few original approaches we worked out using Koch's method.

Koch argues that rhyme tends to inhibit the imagination and bring out contrived, conventional verse. But he acknowledges that some structure or pattern is necessary to get children's thoughts going. He always calls for a group collaboration poem at first to make the children less self-conscious. At the first meeting with his class, he asked everyone to make some rules about what should be in their poem. They decided to start with *I wish* and to have a color, a comic strip character, and a city or country in each line. The children responded with wild enthusiasm, each vying to get recognition for the line he had composed:

I wish I was Dick Tracy in a black suit in England.  
I wish I were a Supergirl with a red cape; the city of Mexico  
will be where I live.

We tried something similar with our own children and got these lines:

I wish I was with Princess Ann in bloody red England.  
I wish I was with Mr. Smith at Oshtemo in a purple bathing suit.

Another time, Koch asked the students to write a poem with only one requirement, that each line start with *I wish*; the wishes might be as wild and crazy as they liked. A fourth grade girl wrote this poem:

I wish I had a pony with a tail like hair  
I wish I had a boyfriend with blue eyes and black hair I would  
be so glad  
I wish I was Sleeping Beauty so I would go to sleep and they  
would come and kiss me  
I wish I had a daughter with blond hair and light green eyes  
I wish I could be the biggest dancer in the world  
I wish I had every miniskirt my sister has

—Milagros Diaz

Since comparisons are essential to poetry, writing them was one of Koch's early assignments. "Children are very good at them once they feel they are free to say whatever comes into their minds. Their perceptions haven't been as conditioned as ours by the sensible and the conventional and if the sky looks like a white mouse they are

capable of seeing it and, if they feel uninhibited, saying it.” (p. 105) He asked them to compare little things to big things, a mouse is like an elephant; and things in school to things outside school, the blackboard is as green as the sky. He was careful not to use formal terms such as *metaphor* or *simile*; in the primary grades he printed LIKE and AS in big letters on the blackboard and told the children to include one in each line.

Snowflakes are like shining diamonds  
A breeze is like the sky is coming to you  
The sun is like golden bright earrings

—Iris Torres

One form that all children liked but that older children responded to with special enthusiasm was *I used to/but now*, starting every odd line with *I used to* and every even line with *but now*. Usually there was a note of elation in the *but now* line.

I used to be a flower  
But now I am a color.

Our children wrote some lines following this pattern:

I used to be me  
But now I am I.  
I used to be leafy  
But now I'm a tree.  
I used to be watery  
But now I'm a pitcher.

Another Koch technique, one that we and other teachers had used before, is to ask children to write what a piece of music suggests to them. Our children produced this collaboration, stimulated by Louis Armstrong's music:

I see humming birds and giraffes  
I see hat and cane dancers  
I see houses moving, walking and dancing  
I see a grandmother standing on her head in the poppies

Koch used other devices I can only mention. His chapter headings give some clue to what they are: colors, noises, dreams, sestinas, the third eye, being an animal or thing, poems using Spanish words, and I Seem to Be/But Really I Am. But the most successful assignment called for the writing of lies. Telling a lie is a temptation to

most children, but being encouraged by a teacher to tell a whopper is irresistible. Koch explains, "Lying is a very quick way to the world of the imagination. It is also a competitive pastime. Like the Mississippi riverboat men in *Huck Finn*, the children at P.S. 61 were eager to do each other one better, to tell an even bigger, more astonishing untruth." (p. 49) This approach worked extremely well in getting non-reading, non-writing children to participate. When writing was a problem, Koch had them say their poems out loud and he wrote them down himself—the language experience approach.

Here is one of the lie poems, one of the best of all the P.S. 61 writings:

The Dawn of Me  
 I was born nowhere  
 And I live in a tree  
 I never leave my tree  
 It is very crowded  
 I am stacked up right against a bird  
 But I won't leave my tree  
 Everything is dark  
 No light!  
 I hear the bird sing  
 I wish I could sing  
 My eyes, they open  
 And all around my house  
 The Sea  
 Slowly I get down in the water  
 The cool blue water  
 Oh and the space  
 I laugh swim and cry for joy  
 This is my home  
 For Ever

—Jeff Morley, fifth grade

When we read this to our own children, our 8 year old, usually an avowed non-poet, composed this poem:

My mother is the sun  
 My dad is the moon  
 I am half sun, half moon.  
 My cousin is a bird elephant.  
 I have nine mothers and I have ten fathers.

I live in space.  
 I have 1000 stars.  
 My mother died when it turned dark.  
 My father died when it turned light.  
 I died when a bird snake bit me.

And her 12 year old sister wrote these lines of a strange, existential quality:

Yesterday I flew away and never came back.  
 I am nowhere and nothing is anything and neither am I.  
 I am a speck of air. I do nothing  
 All day but float and sleep.  
 This morning I ate seven boxes of flies and a piano.  
 Today we covered the world with green stamps.

#### KOCH'S TECHNIQUES EXTENDED

Once we had worked with Koch's ideas, it was fun to invent a few of our own. Sometimes we asked children to take three words at random and work them into a poem. Or another approach—to ask an animal a question. We asked our children to look at some object for several minutes until they imagined it becoming something else:

I looked at the wall hanging until it flashed red lights.  
 I looked at the cane until it became a tall toucan.  
 I looked at the mobile until it became a frozen fountain.

Then we asked them to close their eyes and to imagine a snake:

I see a snake on a tightrope.  
 I see a snake chasing his tail.  
 I see a multi-colored polka dot snake doing the twist.  
 I see a snake winding up and around a barbershop pole.  
 I see a snake on our sun picture and the sun frowns.

#### VALUES OF POETRY

There is no limit to the ways an imaginative teacher can stimulate children to write strong, exciting poetry. The writing and reading of poetry, if it can be done easily and with pleasure, is the kind of activity that Paul Torrance and others associate with creativity. It values that which is individual, implausible, even grotesque; it encourages the making and seeing of analogies; it makes respectable the discovery and expression of emotions and impulses; it excuses



one for the moment from external constraints—there is authority for skewed grammar, illogical combinations of ideas or images. Yet it encourages restraint and discipline generated from within the writer or the poem. If poetry can be kept alive, children and adults will have at their command a second language through which to see themselves and the world.

# MESSAGE FROM THE PRESIDENT OF THE HOMER L. J. CARTER READING COUNCIL

Dear Members and Friends of the  
Homer L. J. Carter Reading Council:

See you all in Grand Rapids, April 9-11, for the Sixteenth Annual Michigan Reading Association Conference. "Thrusts in Reading: Systems vs. Humanism" will be the theme. One of the most current and difficult concerns today is the opposing philosophies of the open classroom on one hand and systems approaches on the other. Are these irreconcilable? Can they be combined to reap the benefits of both? The purpose of the Conference is to explore the place of humanism in today's reading systems.

Think Detroit, May 10-13, for the Seventeenth Annual Convention of the International Reading Association. With distance being no problem, Michigan should be well represented. Persons who have never attended an international meeting could be greatly inspired by the vastness of commercial displays and exciting programs in all phases of reading and the language arts, such as: Institutes, Seminars, Luncheons, Micro-Workshops, Symposia and General Sessions. The theme for the Convention is "Reading, The Individual, and Society."

Did you know the IRA is composed of reading specialists, consultants, psychologists, teachers, professors and administrators? There are 55,000 IRA members and subscribers in 65 countries throughout the world. At present, the IRA is represented by 749 councils located in Australia, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Guam, Israel, Japan, New Zealand, Nigeria, Norway, Sierra Leone, Sweden, United Kingdom, Alaska, Hawaii and the Continental United States. The IRA membership in Michigan is 929, and there are 28 active local councils.

Be a Convention enthusiast in 1972!

Sincerely,  
Lois VanDenBerg

# DID YOU SEE?

*Betty L. Hagberg*

Did You See *NewsBook In Reading Instruction: Series I*? This book is a series of interviews of twenty-five top-ranking American educators. Each interview and point of view is different, and yet, almost all of these nationally known professionals agree on what must be done to end the reading crisis. The book is edited by Sandra M. Brown, Ph.D. and published by MultiMedia Education, Inc. 1971. It contains 192 pages and is illustrated with photos. Its cost is \$10.95.

Did You See "Subduing The Dragons of Reading" by Lynne and John Waugh? The best thing that can happen to a child in the course of a school day is to be "packed off" to a remedial reading class taught by Mrs. Lydia Barton in the Pajoaque Valley School system of northern New Mexico. The U.S. Office of Education calls it one of the ten best remedial reading programs in the United States. Mrs. Barton comments, "The keystone to reading is that it must be fun. If I see that any of these children are not enjoying this class, then I go back and reassess what I am doing, because something is wrong." This interesting article appears in the January-February 1971 issue of *American Education*.

Did You See "Home Start On Reading, Tips for Parents of Pre-school Children"? It appears in the January 1972 issue of *The PTA Magazine*. It suggests many helpful ideas on how parents can aid in their preschooler's reading development.

Did You See Dr. Leland May's article, "5 Ways To Teach Spelling"? It appears in the November 1971 issue of *School and Community*. He sets forth several techniques for teaching spelling which teachers have frequently used and found helpful.

Did You See "Introspection and The Teacher's Personality" by Paul Jay Fink, M.D.? It is featured in the October 1971 issue of the *Journal of The Reading Specialist*. Dr. Fink discusses personality factors in teachers which either enhance their teaching ability or reduce their effectiveness.

Did You See that The American Association of Junior Colleges, AAJC, is establishing on an experimental basis a year-around career staffing service for member institutions? Member colleges of AAJC may file position openings with the Career Staffing Center at no cost. Copies of "Position Opening" forms may be obtained by writing: AAJC Career Staffing Center, P.O. Box 298, Alexandria, Virginia 22314. Persons seeking community and junior college positions also may file application with the AAJC Career Staffing Center.

# JUNIOR COLLEGE READING PROGRAMS

*Terri Bruce*

Junior or community college reading programs are one of the areas most open for innovation. The two year college itself is still a relatively new concept and reading programs designed to fit the still evolving function of these schools offer the reading specialist both freedom and frustrations. To date, I have taught reading courses at a junior college which was affiliated with a university and at a community college with an open door policy. In the first instance, the courses were offered through the continuing education department and dealt largely with marginal admittance students. Presently I am within the English department and the reading courses are credit courses, some of which carry transfer credit to local universities. At this point, there are probably many more questions than answers. In this article, I would like to discuss these questions and perhaps this will lead to an exchange of ideas from other reading specialists who may have solutions. Particularly at this level, it is easy to become isolated from dialogue with other reading personnel. What my questions may serve to do is offer an outline of topics to which you may want to respond.

## 1. Why do students enroll in your courses?

It may be said that if the course is attractive to students they will voluntarily enroll for a non-credit self improvement course. Junior and community college students, however, often have twenty or thirty hour jobs and limited funds. Paying registration fees for hours that will not count toward their degree is not appealing. Particularly the two year terminal student may be very concerned about the time required to complete the degree. Some schools have a drop-in tutoring system. This works very well at resident campuses but has problems in a community college. Students often spend every free hour on a job. They do not have the extra time to seek help. Sometimes the marginal students are required to enroll in the courses. If the course is non credit and the student does not feel he needs the work, motivation becomes a problem. One alternative is to establish the course as a credit offering which counts toward his degree requirements.

## 2. Should reading courses be given credit status and be considered as an elective which will fulfill degree requirements?

If one agrees with Mortimer Adler in *How to Read a Book* that the ability to read and think has no upper level, then one would think that a reading course would be a valuable place for anyone to improve his learning skills. It offers two unique skills that are not often dealt with in other courses; the process of reading to learn and the use of resources. Most other courses are content oriented rather than process oriented, and the student is not introduced to resources that are available to continue learning after the degree is granted.

It has been said that required courses and credit regulations have done much to perpetuate bad teaching and stifle the student's initiative. However, token support for reading courses is displayed by administrators who place the reading courses on non credit basis in the midst of a seeming myriad of required credit courses the student must complete. Reading courses at this level also attract and should serve community members who are not seeking a degree. A non credit course would be preferred for these students.

3. How do you find guidelines for purchasing equipment and texts?

The materials in this area are being produced at a rapid rate. The instructor at this level must appeal to age ranges from 17 to 60 and reading levels from fifth to fourteenth. With a limited budget, what materials and texts would be best? Elementary and secondary reading teachers have established some vehicles for sharing ideas and receiving reviews for materials. The college level personnel have only limited ways to find information on materials or techniques.

4. How does the reading specialist establish connections with other faculty members?

Rapport with other faculty and knowledge of their teaching style and texts are two essentials if the reading instructor is aiding the students to deal with the concepts and materials that are actually being presented to him. Part-time reading instructors or ones that are solely responsible for maintaining a laboratory have difficulty finding time to make these contacts. The reading instructor as well as the reading program may become separate and isolated.

5. What are practical methods of evaluation and accountability?

The legislature is rapidly establishing accountability measures for community college faculty. It is more difficult to argue with their measures when accountability guidelines have not already been

established by the schools themselves. Restricting a reading instructor to a certain number of credit hours inhibits him/her from establishing drop-in referral systems or having the flexibility to develop programs that could be used in other classes.

Besides the number of classes taught and the number of pupils served, accountability also includes objectives and results of student improvement. Evaluations and research reported in journals often times would require much more time and effort than a reading instructor has. However, pre and post testing using a standardized reading test is a method that is subject to much criticism in terms of the validity and reliability of the gain scores.

So the question is open. What are valid objectives and ways to measure student improvement that do not require an exorbitant amount of time?

6. What tests or testing programs are useful and practical?

More tests are being developed for this level, although there is still a limited choice. It would be advantageous to thoroughly test each student in each skill area. However, time prohibits. Some compromise with respect to time needs to be made. Besides the regular statistical information concerning tests, there are other considerations at this level. If the test content is too difficult, the student will become frustrated and give up. Also, if the content is too difficult, the student may improve reading skill; but the test would not be sensitive to the increase. If an easier test is used, some students will do so well that no diagnostic information is gained. So, what tests do you use? How is your testing program designed?

And so the questions go on. Please write to the quarterly and describe some method or idea that you find workable. Don't be concerned with length or topic; we welcome a variety of contributions. The area is exciting for those who like to create, but we are the most creative when challenged or stimulated by others.

Send contributions to:

Miss Terri Bruce  
Kellogg Community College  
Battle Creek, Michigan 49017

# WE SUGGEST

*Eleanor Buelke*

Bearley, Molly, Editor

*The Teaching Of Young Children*

New York: Schocken Books, 1970, Pp. vii +192.

. . . when we teach we need to be aware of the fact that the patterns of reaction that each child displays to persons, things and situations are the result of his own continuous cumulative growth and development, and that his individual history of personal experience is recorded and categorized in active mental patterns that are ready for further experience.

Inasmuch as the public school is a planned environment, and teaching in it is deliberate, planned intervention in children's continuous cumulative growth and development, the authors of this volume, *The Teaching Of Young Children*, believe that the appropriateness of such intervention is the key to effective education. Education which leads to worthwhile goals of clarification and understanding is teaching that supports, extends, and continues purposes from within. Teachers cannot give children experience itself; they can only provide children with conditions for experience, offering ways of structuring thoughts and ordering values. Teachers must take up their pupils' learning development where they find it—"to join the main stream"—"to get a glimpse of the children's own learning powers." This is understood in the light of the work done by Piaget, and is vastly different from programmed learning, or extrinsically motivated behavior, as it is generally conceived.

To this end, then, paying attention to the learner, his thought processes, and the levels of thinking and conceptual skills he brings to the learning experience, the considerations of this book are addressed. In the chapters of the book, throughout the major areas of science, art, literature, movement, mathematics, music, and into the realm of morality and values, the authors are demonstrating and discussing the rationale for ensuring continuity of children's learning from the massive volumes of experience they have had in their early years before entering school.

In science, the teacher's goal is to perpetuate and enrich the child's enquiring nature; all individuals need to have a rational view of the world if they are to make sense of it. In art, the teacher needs to provide conditions in which aesthetic development can flourish; it is essential to understand how art is related to intellectual and emotional development, and to realize its function in extending human experience.

In literature, teachers must recognize that stories can evoke deeply satisfying intellectual and emotional responses from children; such responses can give rise to accommodatory behavior, and may bring order and clarification to the complexity of life's experiences.

*Relationship* is the key in the establishment of concepts and learning patterns generally. Armed with the knowledge that children have a natural appetite for movement, teachers can use relatedness in movement to lead to the development of sound, personal relationships within the increasingly complex context of the school. "Because . . . every movement of man is expressive of himself, his aims, struggles and achievements, it reflects the inner activity of the person."

The ability of a child to deal effectively with numerical relationships is dependent upon the development of mental structures within him, not upon the building up of rote knowledge. The facility for perceptual learning by young children can easily lead to rote learning and be misinterpreted as conceptual learning. It is important for the teacher to differentiate between them. In the realm of mathematical thinking, then, "the contribution of a teacher is to provide the materials and language which are appropriate to the level of thinking reached by a child, but which also provoke the quest for further clarification and extension."

As in other areas, a sense of commitment to music grows with the child's experience of involvement in it. When children are guided in the gradual development of their individual and personal worlds of music "they will find the key to the wider world of music as established in our culture pattern."

The child's sense of morality and values is based upon gradual differentiation between "self" and "others." The very young child is intellectually unable to put himself at another's point of view. Conflict of purposes among group members results in a break-down of cooperation; the necessary accommodations to another's point of view is not possible. Because children are dependent upon adults in building up a store of possible actions, teachers must help them to understand justifications for rules, and to offer "choices" of behavior. In order for choice-making to be autonomous, children must be able to explore alternative ways of behaving. These authors suggest that teachers can foster moral progress by giving responsibility to promote self-respect; by being interested in trivial problems that loom large to children; and by refraining from arbitrary decisions which override a child's developing ability to think for himself.

Not for the ditto-dependent, gadget-gearred, mechanically mani-



pulative teacher is the philosophy of this book. But, for teachers looking for thinking and growth patterns “which they themselves can fill in with their own thought and experience,” this book offers much to help them in presenting ideas for close, courageous scrutiny, in maintaining continuous dialogue in the classroom, in holding fast to humanness, and in perfecting their professional knowledge and skill to teach when children are *willing* and *able*.

# READING IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

*Kenneth VanderMeulen*

In a great many high schools, teachers are finding that their students' inability to comprehend the textbook at grade level is becoming an increasingly serious problem. Frequently, these teachers state, reading the text with adequate understanding is "out of the question" for many of their students. High school administrators are looking for ways to set up special classes or institute remedial reading programs in order to solve what appears to be a growing reading problem. Upon closer examination, teachers and administrators may find that, for a large proportion of these reading problems, insufficient vocabulary plays a large causal role. They may concur with Luella Cole, who said, "In all probability, an inadequate vocabulary is the greatest single cause for failure to read with comprehension in either general or technical fields." (*Elementary School Subjects*, Rineholt, 1946, page 40)

It is the conviction of the writer that realistic hope for dramatic improvement in this matter lies in some re-thinking and new approaches to teaching vocabulary. In fairness to teachers, it must be said that the importance of vocabulary is widely recognized, and almost all classroom activities include at least some study of words and derivations or meanings. However, the real and valuable outcomes will not result from a redoubling of assignments or longer word lists. For an authentic change toward more effective reading comprehension, we need to take time to scrutinize the whole matter of vocabulary in high school, and plan some strategies which will incorporate what we have learned about this field. We might begin by looking at the ideas and attitudes we have about measuring our students' vocabularies.

In the past, we have tried to assess our students' vocabulary backgrounds with a standardized test, such as the Nelson-Denny, the Iowa Silent Reading Test, or the Diagnostic Reading Test, Survey Section. The fact that a number of students may score in the upper quartile in vocabulary and then fail in reading their history or science texts should make us reconsider. What the standardized test is measuring is one's acquaintance with the synonyms of one hundred words chosen from general vocabulary. Teachers very frequently regard the percentile results as an indication of how well equipped the student is to read the textbook in an academic area.

Let us look further. How large a reading vocabulary does the typical high school student possess? Judging by what the experts say, one person's opinion is as good as any other's. Robert Karlin, speaking at the IRA Conference in May of 1967, quoted Thorndike and Lorge as estimating a twelfth grader's vocabulary as 15,000 words. That is a low estimate, it would seem. However, Karlin reported Seashore as putting the number at 80,000 words! Whichever is more nearly correct, such numbers shake one's faith in a one-hundred word, one occasion vocabulary measurement. Therefore, to assess a student's ability to read in a given text, one should use terms and concepts in the text to be used in the course, and in the author's context and structure.

The use of *concepts* instead of word meanings requires some discussion. We must remind ourselves occasionally that reading is a process involving the individual's whole being—his mental content, composed of all impressions and experiences of his entire life up to the present moment. Thus, even though the student is highly motivated and his teacher well prepared and very stimulating, lack of experience with the words that form new concepts will preclude adequate comprehension. What results is verbalism—parroting of words.

One suggestion which might be useful in this respect is to assure yourself of a practical measurement through the use of your own textbook. Find out what the relative level of reading capability (or vocabulary background) is by using sentences and brief paragraphs you have picked carefully from all parts of the text. Have students read and then point out sentence meanings, read and paraphrase paragraph parts, and perhaps restate lines you regard as having implied ideas. Such a session need not be thought of as a test in the sense of establishing norms or determining percentiles. In becoming acquainted with your students' "learning styles," you may recognize certain students who are capable of reading from the text independently, you may see the middle group as needing some instructional help with each assignment, and you may also identify those who will certainly be frustrated in their attempts to read the text at all unless much help is provided.

As we think about means and methods of affording students vocabulary building opportunities, we need to take note of some pertinent informational material. According to a definitive report filed with the Office of Education in 1967, there are relatively few new ideas for vocabulary building that have been widely accepted or put into use by teachers in the field. In fact, the report concludes,

it seems that "the teaching profession seems to know little of substance about the teaching of vocabulary." (page 84, *The State of Knowledge About the Teaching of Vocabulary*, Petty, Herold, & Stoll, NCTE, March, 1967) Interest and concern among high school teachers have grown considerably in the past decade, however, and literally thousands of studies on the subject of vocabulary are in existence. Another reality is that none of the major studies published showed any certain methods or particular approaches as being conclusively superior to the others. It seems fair to say that one reason for the above rather dismal observation is that most of the studies compared traditional methods, when what is needed now is some fresh thinking about the whole area.

The answer then does not appear to lie in the workbooks on vocabulary building. Nor does it lie in the graded word lists and lengthy glossaries advertised as "opening doors to meanings." And word games, however cleverly contrived, do not themselves produce effective readers. We may look though dozens of studies and reports before we come to some expression of the inevitable conclusion:—Each teacher is the example of interest and curiosity about words. Every day's reading, however brief, should yield some terms for consideration and examination. The students very frequently will take the initiative, bringing words from their text and other reading, *after* the class climate has been established to include a habitual interest in our language.

The writer does not attempt to recommend methods or materials, since teachers oftentimes find themselves unable to make choices in this respect. Obviously, the more approaches the teacher is able to employ, the more beneficial will be the results. For one example, we might find the class' attention being drawn to certain terms in tomorrow's reading for social science. The teacher suggests everyone look at the term *gross national product*. One student offers to look it up and brings the dictionary definition: "The total value of all goods and services produced in a nation during a given year."

"National production and business—all right. How does 'gross' add to the meaning?"

"It means total?"

"Everyone satisfied? It means total?"

"It can mean twelve dozen, too."

"How about when it's used as slang, to describe something bad? Like a joke—and you say 'that's gross'. Is that the same word?"

"Care to look into the big dictionary and give us a rundown on

meanings and uses?" Delegating the duty, the teacher may go on, secure in the knowledge that his students will soon have enough experience with a word to make it usable to them in a few different senses.

However, learning a few words in the course of assignment previews can do very little to close the great gap between vocabulary experience and the effective reading of technical texts. As Harold Herber put it, "It is not possible for a classroom teacher to teach every technical word that his students will encounter during their studies of his subject." (*Teaching Reading in Content Areas*, Prentice Hall, 1970, page 151) What is needed is a concerted effort by all teachers at every grade level in every curricular area, to help instill a kind of word consciousness and a realization that vocabulary is the fundamental tool of effective communication. Merely teaching the words would not be sufficient, even if all teachers agreed to begin such activities today, since the language is dynamic and technology introduces new terms and concepts almost every day. What is probably more certain to produce a word awareness is an enthusiasm for "verbal speliology" on the part of all adults who work with young people.

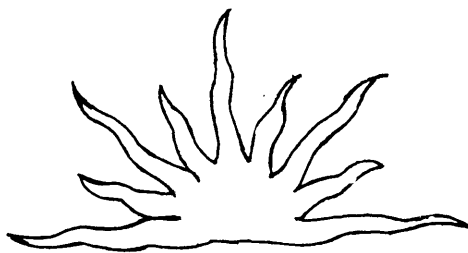
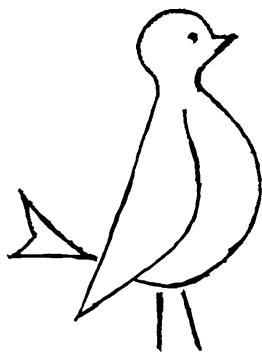
If there is a single educational philosophy which is accepted as effective and generally thought of as above the charge of faddishness, it is the idea of discovery. Students who are helped to find out for themselves are learning how to learn, and soon become able to apply and utilize what they learn. This philosophy may be called by a variety of names (learning centers, school of inquiry, "let's explore"), and may be implemented in an infinite number of methods. The basic idea as applied to words is to set conditions to encourage curiosity about certain language phenomena, and then stimulate and guide the students to a satisfaction of that curiosity. The process can lead to more adequate text reading, resulting in information, knowledge, insight.

To demonstrate this on a very small scale, we might use a few roots and prefixes from one of the many lists available. (I recommend Carter and McGinnis, *Effective Reading for College Students*, Dryden Press, 1957, Chapter V) If the context of a sentence does not readily tell a student what the word *obsequious* means, for example, he might follow the prefix to a definition—"in the way," and the root *sequ* as meaning "follow." He may then find that *secu* is related to *sequ*, and gives us *consecutive*, *executive*, *as well as consequent* and *sequence*. If the student chases down the uses of *ob-* in *obstacle*, *obtuse*, and a few other modern applications, he is well on his way

to becoming a kind of specialist in the classroom. There is no better form of reinforcement for learning than the accolades of one's peers.

Every class group may have its own peculiar penchant in the field of word meanings-and-uses. A class may read an issue of a news magazine together in this election year and turn up some interesting word uses. (*Sandbagging* in politics, for example.) Students who have mechanical interests could report to the class on the etymology of certain parts of an automobile or radio. Someone in the writer's class went to sea for some terms (focsle, bosun, scuttlebutt, etc.) and excited more curiosity than he satisfied.

The science and social science areas probably bear the greatest burden of concept and vocabulary introduction. Students who have a general vocabulary far above average, may find themselves lost and frustrated in the welter of new terms which must be mastered on almost every page of the texts in these two curricular fields. A special recommendation to the teachers of these two content course offerings is made in many of the reports on our secondary vocabulary situation. In essence, these studies favor the adoption of textbooks which contain glossaries, pronunciation keys, footnotes, parenthetical explanation, and added notations. In addition, if the teacher will instruct the student in how to use these vocabulary aids, future growth in word background building and concept formation will be assured.



## ROUND ROBIN

*Dorothy E. Smith, Editor*

Dear Readers,

We are continuing our presentation of readers' ideas for teaching reading skills at the secondary level. The following is again directed to English teachers.

Dear Editor:

Due to the growing interest and necessity for Black Literature to be taught in schools today, a number of students could possibly have trouble understanding Black English or Non-Standard Dialect. Books that may be used in a high school literature class could include books about black life such as *Cool World*, *Native Son*, *Black Voices*, and *The Best of Simple*. In order for all students to be able to read these books with understanding, some basic knowledge of Black English is a necessary prerequisite.

I would begin my introduction to any one of these books by first presenting a transparency which would compare Standard and Non-Standard Dialects.

### BLACK ENGLISH

#### COMPARISONS:

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Standard</i>	<i>Non-Standard</i>
Linking verb	He <i>is</i> going.	He — goin.
Possessive	John's cousin.	John— cousin.
Plural	I have five cents.	I got five cent—.
Subject	John lives in Troy.	John he live in Troy.
Verb	I <i>drank</i> the milk.	I <i>drunk</i> the milk.

Past	He <i>walked</i> home.	He walk—home.
Vb. Agreement	He runs home.	He run— home.
Future	I <i>will go</i> home.	I'ma go home.
"If"	I asked <i>if he did it</i> .	I ask <i>did</i> he do it.
Negation	I don't have <i>any</i> .	I don't got <i>none</i> .
	He <i>didn't</i> go.	He <i>ain't</i> go.
Indef. article	I want <i>an</i> apple.	I want <i>a</i> apple.
Pronoun	<i>We</i> have to do it.	<i>Us</i> got to do it.
	<i>His</i> book.	<i>He</i> book.
Preposition	He is over <i>at</i> his house.	He over <i>to</i> his house.
Be	He <i>is</i> here.	He <i>be</i> here.
Do	No <i>he doesn't</i>	No <i>he don't</i> .

The class could discuss these and skim through a few pages of the book looking for examples of the Non-Standard English. A record of *Simple* could then be played to enable the students to hear differences in dialect and also any words that are unknown to them, or unknown in a certain usage, such as slang, could be discussed. A discussion of Black slang would follow as I would ask the class for meanings of various slang words. The Dictionary of Afro-American Slang, now in paperback form, could be consulted after class discussion of word meanings.

Connie Gross

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2. Hughes, Langston, *The Best of Simple*. New York: Hill and Wang, Inc.
3. Major, Clarence, *Dictionary of Afro-American Slang*. New York: International Publishers.
4. Miller, Warren, *Cool World*. Boston: Little, Brown & Company.
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# TEN-SECOND REVIEWS

*Blanche O. Bush*

Most individuals can improve their reading skills and make normal academic progress as a result of adequate developmental instruction provided by the alert and well-prepared classroom teacher.  
—Carter and McGinnis

Allen, Gary G., "Right to Read: Rhetoric or Reality," *Phi Delta Kappan* (December, 1971), 53:217-220.

Was the President's proclamation that the 1970's is the "Right to Read decade," an empty proclamation? Has the huge federal, state, local, and public-private effort gotten off the ground? The author investigated two views—the first by the former acting director of Right-to-Read's National Reading Center, the second by the new director of the Right-to-Read office.

Anastasiow, Nicholas, *Oral Language Expression of Thought*, International Reading Association under the direction of the ERIC Clearinghouse of Reading, 1971, 51 pp.

This paper attempted to clarify some relationships between children's language and children's thinking. The premise was that children's speech is a reflection of their level of development and their thinking processes. Speech can also reflect the child's level of language mastery or the child's mastery of a language different from the standard system.

Athey, Irene J., "Language Models and Reading," *Reading Research Quarterly* (Roger Farr and Samuel Weintraub, Co-Editor), (Fall, 1971), 7:16-110.

In this paper models from three different sources, developmental psychology, psycholinguistics, and information processing are analyzed in terms of their basic concepts and assumptions. Research literature pertinent to the testing of hypotheses derived from the models and implications of each for reading are also considered. The final section on needed research concludes with an appeal for greater cooperation among these disciplines and the field of reading. The mutual goal is enhancing children's intellectual development in general, and their reading comprehension and enjoyment in particular.

Byrne, Sister Mary Ann, John E. Feldhusen, and Robert B. Kane,  
"The Relationship among Two Cloze Measurement Procedures

and Divergent Thinking Abilities,” *Reading Research Quarterly* (Roger Farr and Samuel Weintraub, Co-Editors), (Spring, 1971), 6:378-393.

The authors reported the relationships between three divergent thinking abilities and modified and regular Cloze performance. The Cloze procedure was adapted in an attempt to elicit more divergent thinking. Results indicated that subjects who were high in associational fluency scored significantly higher on Cloze. The adapted Cloze form did not elicit higher levels of Cloze performance. There was only one interaction between associational fluency and Cloze form that approached significance. It is important that educators and researchers recognize the influence associational fluency has on Cloze results.

Cleland, Donald L., “Presidential Address . . . That All May Read,” *Reading Lecture, Lectura, Laesning, Lesen*, 1970-1971, Annual Report, International Reading Association, pp. 1-6.

The components of a teacher educational program which should receive greater emphasis are as follows: First, understanding the nature of the language and reading process; second, a broad definition of reading; third, an understanding of the limitations of standardized tests and group evaluative instruments; fourth, skill in methodology; fifth, skill in the appropriate use of commercially prepared instructional materials and aid; finally, an elementary understanding of personality theory and counseling techniques.

Colvin, Charles R., “Theory and Objectives in College Reading,” *Journal for the Improvement of Reading Teaching* (Fall, 1971), 8:35-38.

The point of view of this paper is that organization, administration, testing, diagnoses, methods of instruction, selection and use of materials and evaluation of college reading programs all flow from a philosophy of college reading and the specifying objectives.

Cramer, Ronald L., “Dialectology—A Case for Language Experience,” *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1971), 25:33-39.

Noting problems in reading for children who speak non-standard English, Cramer concludes that language experience offers an attractive teaching alternative. The language exper-

ience approach is predicated upon the notion that reading must be meaningfully taught. This can be done when the material accurately reflects the child's own experience as described by his language. A child is more likely to learn to read when the activities associated with the approach have functional relationships with his language, experiences, needs, and desires.

Davis, Floyd W., and James S. Lucas, "An Experiment in Individualized Reading," *The Reading Teacher* (May, 1971), 24:737-743+.

For purposes of this study two definitions were deemed essential to individualized reading instruction. (1) Individualized reading implies a one-to-one relationship between teacher and pupil. (2) The student must have almost unrestricted freedom to choose reading material from a vast supply of written material. This article is concerned with achievement between an individualized group and a traditional reading group. From personal interviews, teacher anecdotal records and surveys, it was apparent that changes in attitudes toward reading and school were favorable on the part of individualized reading center subjects. No differences in vocabulary and comprehension nor achievement gains in overall reading were reported.

Donlon, Thomas F., "Whose Zoo? Fry's Orangoutang Scores Revisited," *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1971), 25:7-10.

Fry stated that he who uses test scores at or below chance level should be certified to teach, test, and provide guidance service only to orangoutangs. If you are interested in a meaningful reading score for use with humans, the way out is really quite simple. Scores at chance level or below should be disregarded and the test on the next lower level should be administered. However, the author urges caution in dismissing low level scores as non-predictive. He reports that empirical studies repeatedly establish the utility of chance-level scores through their nonrandom character.

Enstrom, E. A., and Doris C. Enstrom, "Reading Help for Lefties," *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1971), 25:41-44.

The authors discuss handwriting as it relates to other skills. They also give methods of instruction which can be used to prevent reading failure for the lefty.

Flynn, Austin M., "Community Attitudes Toward Reading," *The Reading Teacher* (May, 1971), 24:708-710+.

Flynn lists factors responsible for the cultivation of community attitudes: (1) The publicity given reading scores, (2) The proposal of James Allen, former U.S. Commissioner of Education, that every person has a "right to read," and (3) Black people who have developed a group of authors that not only speak for them but write for them.

Freshour, Frank W., "Parent Education and Reading Readiness and Achievement in Research" (J. Wesley Schneyer, Editor), *The Reading Teacher* (May, 1971), 24:763+.

The studies reviewed suggest that guided parent involvement can be successful in helping children to greater success in the area of readiness and reading achievement. The question is how and what can the parent do to help the child with his reading?

Gargiulo, Raymond J., "Applying Learning Theory to the Reading Process," *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1971), 25:20-23.

Because of its nature, the reading process is inevitably tied to learning theory. To make learning theory more relevant to the reading process, teachers need a better understanding of three learning theory principles: discrimination, reinforcement, and transfer. This article describes these three principles of learning and their use in instruction.

Gibson, Madelyn Squire, "Should Remedial Readers Be Given a Report Card Grade in Reading?" *The Reading Teacher* (May, 1971), 24:715-717.

The author stated that grading remedial readers should not be perpetuated for the following reasons: (1) Grading is subjective; (2) A concern for the end (grade) and not the means (how and why of reading) becomes important, (3) Grades induce unfair competition, (4) Grades are thought of as punishment, (5) Failing grades contribute to a failing self-concept, and (6) Individual differences are not taken into account.

Gilliland, Hap and Harriett Mauritsen, "Humor in the Classroom," *The Reading Teacher* (May, 1971), 24:753-756+.

The first step toward the use of humor in teaching is for

the teacher to be enthused and ready to have fun along with the children. Classroom humor is most effective when it is pertinent to the situation and contains something of the personality of the teacher or the child. Reading time is an ideal time to develop an appreciation of humor. The methods one uses to relate humor to classroom and individual reading depends largely upon the personality of the teacher and the type of children with whom she works.

Green, Richard T., *Comprehension in Reading, An Annotated Bibliography*, International Reading Association, Newark, 1971, 22 pp.

This book contains 816 references. It summarizes the articles on comprehension, interpretation, creative reading, critical reading, concept development, and thinking.

Hafner, Lawrence E., Wayne Gwaltney, and Richard Robinson, "Reading in Bookkeeping: Predictions and Performance," *Journal of Reading* (May, 1971), 14:537-546.

This study undertook to investigate possible relationships existing among certain selected variables for a group of high school students enrolled in a bookkeeping course. Of particular interest were intelligence, reading ability, and teachers' ratings of student characteristics. The investigators believed that business education offered a particularly interesting area for study. It has a heavy loading of content in most of the textbooks. The authors chose the Cloze technique to study content.

Hill, Walter, and Norma Bartin, *Reading Programs in Secondary Schools* (Ramon Ross, General Editor), International Reading Association, 1971, 15 pp.

This annotated bibliography reflects changing status and needs in the secondary reading situation.

Hunt, Lyman C., Jr. "Updating the Individual Approach to Reading: IPI or IRP?" *Meeting Individual Needs in Reading* (Helen K. Smith, Editor), International Reading Association, 1971, pp. 43-51.

Two major concepts are considered in this paper. First, a distinction is made between two forms which have resulted from the thrust toward individualized instruction in education. Prescriptive individualization associated with IPI is distinguished from a personal form of individual instruction found in the more typical individualized reading program (IRP). Features

which differentiate the two forms of individualization are outlined. The structure which is usually highlighted as the contrasting factor between the two forms is challenged. The difference is not one of structure (prescribed) versus unstructure (personal) but rather one of the nature of structure. The second major concept, a delineation of the structure needed to succeed in IRP, consumes the remainder of the paper.

Huus, Helen, "Reading and the Individual," *Meeting Individual Needs in Reading* (Helen K. Smith, Editor), International Reading Association, 1971, pp. 1-9.

This presentation focuses on the individual and how reading affects him. The purpose is to analyze the interaction between the individuals and his reading, and to recognize the contribution reading can make to his total development. Four points were discussed: First, was purpose; Second, was the individual's acceptance of responsibility for his own learning; Third, was the development of the thinking individual; Fourth, was the necessity for self-renewal as a lifelong pursuit.

Katrein, Robert M., Stanley M. Steed and William J. Waldner, "A Cooperative Approach to High School Reading," *Reading Improvement—Critical Reading, Reading Interests-Vocabulary Development* (Fall, 1971), 8:43-45+.

This paper describes a summer program conducted by an English teacher, a reading teacher, and a counselor. The specific intent of the program was to help incoming freshmen adjust more easily to high school.

Kennedy, Larry D., "Textbook Usage in the Intermediate-Upper Grades," *The Reading Teacher* (May, 1971), 24:723-729.

The classroom teacher can through planning and teaching give her pupils a headstart in comprehending the content of the textbook. Such concern with the textbook does not alter the realization that a single textbook will not meet the individual needs of pupils. Elementary teachers may hope for the day when each classroom is a library. Teachers feel that the mastery of a textbook is not the determiner of school success. However, the textbook provides a course of study for students. The textbook is responsible for three essential elements of any curriculum; the content, the skills, and the sequence in which these skills are to be learned.

Laffey, James L., *Methods of Reading Instruction, Reading Research Profiles*, ERIC/CRIER, International Reading Association (March, 1971), 87 pp.

This annotated bibliography is divided into three major parts, elementary, secondary, and college and adult reading. One reason for dividing the bibliography into these three parts is to stress the differences as well as the similarities in methodology at these three levels. While the goals of reading instruction at the elementary school level stress teaching the child how to read, reading instruction at the high school and adult levels emphasizes applying reading skills to learning and studying.

Laurita, Raymond E., "Reversals: A Response to Frustrations?" *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1971), 25:45-51.

Perhaps the most insidious problem facing the teacher of reading is that of reversals. The author in this experiment focused on a specific problem within his general concern over the effects of frustration and anxiety on learning to read.

MacGinitie, Walter H., and Richard Tretiak, "Sentence Depth Measures as Predictors of Reading Difficulty," *Reading Research Quarterly* (Roger Farr and Samuel Weintraub, Co-Editors), (Spring, 1971), 6:364-377.

Two summary measures of sentence complexity—depth of postponement and number of levels in a sector analysis—were evaluated as predictors of reading difficulty. Criteria were Cloze scores and listed grade level equivalents for 80 of the McCall-Crabbs Standard Test Lessons in Reading. The Lorge Readability Formula was also recalculated using both the Test Lessons and the Miller-Coleman Readability Scale. The two sentence complexity measures were found to be highly correlated with sentence length and similar to it as predictors of reading difficulty.

McCracken, Robert A., "Interesting Sustained Silent Reading," *Journal of Reading* (May, 1971), 14:521-524+.

In our press for achievement, the importance of practice in reading silently has been overlooked. Our students are overtaught and under practiced. Each student should learn to read silently and to sustain the act of reading in books for reasonably long periods of time. Each student can learn this

from adult example and through teaching complemented by practice. Teachers reported that students want to talk about the books read and most students want credit for what they do. When given the opportunity to respond, they do so.

McDonald, Thomas F., "An All School Secondary-Reading Program," *Journal of Reading* (May, 1971), 14:553-556.

To be effective, the reading program must be considered an integral part of the total curriculum rather than an isolated entity. This article presents a series of stages for implementing an all school secondary reading program.

Miller, Wilma H., "Organizing A First Grade Classroom for Individualized Reading Instruction," *The Reading Teacher* (May, 1971), 24:748-761+.

A successful individualized reading program requires that the children have many opportunities to engage in independent learning activities. At the same time the teacher should conduct individual reading conferences or teach skills in small groups. Especially early in first grade, most children can do little independent reading during this free period. Children need centers in their first grade classroom to which they can go to find meaningful activities which they can work on independently.

Morgan, Lorraine, "A Model for Preservice Education of Elementary Reading Teachers," *Reading Methods and Teacher Improvement* (Nila Banton Smith, Editor), International Reading Association, 1971, pp. 163-170.

Suggested elements for designing a model of preservice education for teachers of reading at the elementary level are:

- (1) Choice—Learning to choose responses from an expanding range of options is developed through many opportunities.
- (2) Responsibility—When a student is the active agent for his own learning, he makes a deeper commitment to a task.
- (3) Individualization—The educational program should be sufficiently flexible to accommodate itself to the mode of individual students.
- (4) Self-Awareness—Understanding of one's own origin, experiences, values, and identity may be one of the most important characteristics of the effective teacher.
- (5) Social-Awareness—Only after some degree of self-awareness has been achieved can the student begin to reach out to other



people. (6) Communication—Both the impressive and expressive angles of reading, listening, speaking and writing occupy the prominent portion of facilitating learning.

Naylor, Marilyn J., "Reading Instruction Through the Multi-Station Approach," *The Reading Teacher* (May, 1971), 24:757-761.

The purpose of this article was to describe the initial phase of a program designed to incorporate the strengths of numerous known approaches. These approaches are designed to meet the individual needs of intermediate grade students. The multi-station approach is so named because materials are located at various learning areas or stations within the classroom. Reading areas reflecting basic skills were identified as vocabulary, word recognition, comprehension, oral reading, application, and appreciation.

Otto, Wayne, and Richard J. Smith, "School-University Cooperation in the Preparation of Reading Teachers," *The Reading Teacher* (May, 1971), 24:719-723.

This article describes some relationships worked out between the University of Wisconsin and the Madison, Wisconsin Public Schools primarily for the training of reading specialists at the graduate level. Some of the guidelines presented for maintaining the schools-university relationship with maximum mutual benefits were: (1) Professors and University students should understand the school reading program, the philosophy that guides it, its recognized weaknesses, and budgetary limits. (2) Cooperating teachers, principals and consultants should be aware of constraints that are imposed for university credit courses. (3) Parents of children who participate in the program should be informed and be involved whenever possible. (4) Reading Consultants from the public school should be invited to make presentations regarding program, procedures, and materials to university classes. (5) Professors and graduate students should locate research problems identified and given high priority by school personnel. (6) Professors and graduate students should be invited to participate in the planning and implementation of inservice education for public school personnel.

Rist, Ray C., "Black Studies and Paraprofessionals—A Prescription

for Ailing Reading Programs in Urban Black Schools,” *Journal of Reading* (May, 1971), 14:525-530+.

The data from this study suggest that the combination of black studies material with the continual use of paraprofessionals may provide the necessary ingredients for the formulation of a successful reading program with black studies in urban schools. The findings suggest that both the deprivation and expectation theories provide important insights that can be transmitted into practice within urban black classrooms.

Rosen, Carl L., and Phillip D. Ortego, “Resources: Teaching Spanish-Speaking Children,” *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1971), 25:11-13.

The ten sources presented here are intended to provide insightful and analytic information on issues in language and reading instruction of Spanish speaking children.

Sanders, Peter L., “Impetus, Participant, Facilitator—A Definition of the Administrator’s Role,” *Journal of Reading* (May, 1971), 14:547-552.

This paper defines the role of the administrator in the reading program and suggests several roles he must play. He must be the impetus, causing the philosophy of reading to be defined. He must be a participant in the learning undergone and the decisions made. He must be the facilitator for the implementation of new ideas.

Send, Mark W., “The Linguistically Different: Learning Theories and Intellectual Development,” *Reading for the Disadvantaged—Problems of Linguistically Different Learners* (Thomas D. Horn, Editor), A Project of International Reading Association, Harcourt, Brace and World, 1970, pp. 99-114.

The purpose of this chapter was: (1) to explain the function of language, (2) to identify and describe four learning theories, (3) to illustrate how these theories can be incorporated within instructional materials, (4) to suggest ways in which teachers with a grasp of underlying learning theories can teach the linguistically different more effectively.

Simons, Herbert D., “Reading Comprehension: The Need for a New Perspective,” *Reading Research Quarterly* (Spring, 1971), (Roger Farr and Samuel Weintraub, Co-Editors), 6:338-363.

The seven major approaches to comprehension reviewed are: (1) the skills approach, (2) the measurement approach, (3) the factor analytic approach, (4) the correlational approach, (5) the readability approach, (6) the introspective approach, and (7) the models approach. These approaches are criticized on the grounds that they have not produced more information about the comprehension process. This lack of knowledge of the comprehension process is attributed to the failure of past research to be theory based. A new direction is proposed which is based on linguistic theory and psycholinguistic research.

Smith, Frank, and Deborah Lott Holmes, "The Independence of Letter, Word, and Meaning Identification in Reading," *Reading Research Quarterly* (Roger Farr and Samuel Weintraub, Co-Editors), (Spring, 1971), 6:394-415.

Two traditional assumptions about fluent reading are examined and rejected: that identification of letters is a necessary preliminary to word identification and that identification of words is a prerequisite for comprehension. A model is presented, proposing that letter identification, and the comprehension of meaning are distinct tasks that can be performed independently on the same visual information.

Smith, Nila Banton, "Strategies for Improving the Teaching of Decoding Skills," *Reading Methods and Teacher Improvement*, International Reading Association, 1971, pp. 1-19.

Diversity in decoding approaches has never been as great in the schools of our country as it is today. The decoding skills are the focus of unprecedented attention and this attention is well deserved for nothing is more fundamental to the reading process than ability to "crack the code." Smith reviewed some of the recent research in this area with the hope that from it some strategies for improvement may emerge directly or through inference.

Spache, George D., "Strategies for Improving Remedial Reading," *Meeting Individual Needs in Reading* (Helen K. Smith, Editor), International Reading Association, 1971, pp. 53-58.

Strategies for remedial reading or the treatment of learning disabilities may be categorized under three headings: The first involves the pupil-teacher relationship. The second strategy

involves a therapeutic or psychological approach. The third strategy concerns the academic progress of the learner.

Spencer, Gary D., "Some Personality Factors Relating to Reading," *Meeting Individual Needs in Reading* (Helen K. Smith, Editor), International Reading Association, 1971, pp. 22-28.

This paper tried to show how personalities of both teacher and pupil are related to reading and learning. The writer stated that the model presented a neat, concise description of some obvious types of personality differences, which, in actuality, are never pure. Also the multiplicity of variables that affect personality development—such as the first born vs. the youngest in the family; two radically different personality types in the home; traumatic shocks in early life such as divorce, deaths, severe physical illness—can never be static.

Stanchfield, Jo M., "Development of Pre-Reading Skills in an Experimental Kindergarten Program," *The Reading Teacher* (May, 1971), 24:699-707.

Basic to the current approaches in teaching reading is the assumption that success in beginning reading is crucial. Reading programs in primary grades must be organized to assure success. Evidence of the emphasis on early stages of reading is found in the number of research projects in reading readiness. Sesame Street through the medium of television has greatly increased the interest in pre-reading skills. Results of this experiment reported indicate that kindergarten children taught in structured-sequential programs with appropriate materials achieve significantly more than those in the regular curriculum.

Stauffer, Russell G., "Slave, Puppet or Teacher?" *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1971), 25:24-29.

The author challenged certain rather common practices with an alternative proposal, the directed reading-thinking activity. The title raises a question every teacher of reading should ask: "Am I a slave, puppet, or teacher?" Stauffer stated that our teachers are bright, able, prepared people and they do not need to be either slaves or puppets.

Stensland, Anna Lee, "American Indian Culture and the Reading Program," *Journal of Reading* (October, 1971), 15:22-26.

This bibliography with comments includes books on Indian

culture, books for reluctant readers, biographies, and anthologies.

Stevens, Deon O., "Reading Difficulty and Classroom Acceptance," *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1971), 24:52-55.

The primary purpose of this study was to determine if children with reading problems were as well accepted by their peers as were other children. Findings indicate that children identified as remedial readers will not be as socially well-accepted as their classroom peers.

Stine, Doris E., "Teaching Ideas: Tenth Grade Content-Fourth Grade Reading Level," *Journal of Reading* (May, 1971), 14: 559-561.

Reading for a purpose was emphasized. Suggestions to aid the reading problem include: (1) Make questions very specific and tell students where to find the answers. (2) Teach the vocabulary pertinent to the subject. (3) Feed them some success. (4) Have students write down what you expect them to remember. (5) Be sure thoughts are written in sentence form to help organize thinking. (6) Give open-book tests since they reinforce what students have been doing in class. (7) Give students dittoed outlines of the chapter with questions which should be completed in sentence form. (8) Use various media such as taping the class in a general discussion, taping reports, listening to records, watching film slides. (9) Allow students to work together and talk quietly.

Thompson, Ruby L., "Word Power: How to Use What They Like to Give Them What They Need," *Journal of Reading* (October, 1971), 15:13-15.

The "Now List" method described involves words which are presented orally in context and listed on the chalkboard. Each student is responsible for bringing to every class meeting at least one word that he personally feels each member of the class should know. The "Now List" offers possibilities for teachers to use words that are relevant to students. These words can be used as springboards for introducing each of the other approaches to vocabulary development.

Trusty, Kay, "Principles of Learning and Individualized Reading," *The Reading Teacher* (May, 1971), 24:730-736.

The author suggested that the individualized reading program be examined in the light of some of the principles of learning. (1) Children learn best when activities and materials are meaningful. (2) Learning is more meaningful when pupils participate in goal setting, planning, and evaluation. (3) Children learn more readily when many sensory approaches are used. (4) Children learn better when relieved of the pressures for competition and allowed the opportunity for cooperation. (5) Learning is most effective when children are freed from distractions or personal problems.

Walker, Jerry L., "National Assessment of Reading," *The Reading Teacher* (May, 1971), 24:711-714+.

The national assessment is not an individual achievement test and it will not yield individual test scores. It shows what percentage of a population can perform a given task with a particular stimulus. Results may also be reported in terms of the respondents' socio-economic standing and race. The reading assessment is innovative in many ways and could result in many good practices not only in testing, but also in teaching.

Wardhaugh, Ronald, "Theories of Language Acquisition in Relation to Beginning Reading Instruction," *Reading Research Quarterly* (Roger Farr and Samuel Weintraub, Co-Editors), (Fall, 1971), 7:168-194.

Various theories of language acquisition are discussed: behaviorist, nativist, and cognitive. The major input into the theories is from either linguistics or learning theory, both of which are very narrow in their concerns. Four controversial issues in language acquisition are reviewed: frequency of stimuli, imitation, expansion, and meaning. Presently available theories of language acquisition have little to offer anyone in coming to a better understanding of how beginning reading should be taught.

Wilson, James B., "Pilot Study Using Selected Published Material for Retarded Readers in Secondary Social Studies," *Meeting Individual Needs in Reading* (Helen K. Smith, Editor), International Reading Association, 1971, pp. 59-65.

The purpose of this investigation was to determine the effectiveness of selected published materials that have been developed for the retarded readers. This investigation was

carried on in a metropolitan high school. It involved the introduction of new materials in American history, written especially for retarded readers.

Yarrington, David J., and Barnes Boffey, "Eight Myths: Ingrained Mediocrity," *Journal of Reading* (October, 1971), 15:9-12.

Too many of us in the "reading establishment" perpetuate several myths which obviate change in behaviors, attitudes and practices. These myths are (1) Censorship is good: You must select the right books for children. (2) A child should be reading at grade level. (3) Time in school equals proficiency in reading. (4) Reading is good in and of itself. (5) Children read to learn. (6) Remedial tricks work. (7) "Reading books" are good. (8) There is no one best method to teach reading.

Zuck, Louis V., and Yetta M. Goodman, *Social Class and Regional Dialects: Their Relationship to Reading*, (Ramon Ross, General Editor), International Reading Association, 1971, 16 pp.

This annotated bibliography is divided into four sections: linguistic concepts related to oral language, linguistic concepts related to written language, implication for the classroom, and social class dialects and sound language learning: Are they related?

# PROGRAM 1971-72

HOMER L. J. CARTER READING COUNCIL  
INTERNATIONAL READING ASSOCIATION

THEME: Reading—The Individual and Society

THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 16, 1971

“Taba—Its Relationship to the  
Individualized Reading Program”

Demonstration

Mrs. Ruth Diephuis, Resource Teacher

Kalamazoo Public School

7:00 P.M. Smorgasbord Dessert

Compliments of Executive Committee

Portage North Junior High School

Little Theater

THURSDAY, OCTOBER 21, 1971

Second Drive-In Conference

“Individualized Reading”

Dr. Jeannette Veatch

Arizona State University

4:30 P.M.-9:00 P.M.

Portage Northern High School

Auditorium

THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 24, 1972

Co-Sponsor Reading Center and Clinic

Western Michigan University

Dr. Bill Martin, Jr.

Holt, Rinehart and Winston

7:30 P.M., East Ballroom

University Student Center

Western Michigan University

SATURDAY, MARCH 25, 1972

“Innovations”

Reading Talkshop

12:30 Smorgasbord Luncheon

Holiday Inn (Expressway)

Carriage Room



MONDAY & TUESDAY, APRIL 10, 11, 1972

Fifteenth Annual Meeting  
Michigan Reading Association  
Grand Rapids Civic Center

WEDNESDAY, MAY 10, 1972

Through

FRIDAY, MAY 12, 1972

Seventeenth Annual Conference  
International Reading Association  
Detroit, Michigan

Theme: Reading—The Individual and Society

# READING INSTITUTE

Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo, Michigan

June 18-23, 1972

*Theme:* READING INSTRUCTION FOR TODAY'S STUDENTS

*For:* Classroom and reading teachers at all levels, primary through college; reading consultants and supervisors; curriculum specialists; school administrators; clinical personnel.

*Activities:* Lectures, demonstrations, panel discussions, mini classes, exhibits, trips to resource centers, banquet.

*Keynote Speakers:* Jules C. Abrams, Hahnemann University; Russell G. Stauffer, University of Delaware; Richard L. Watson, Wichita State University.

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