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Reading

HORIZONS



FALL 1969

Reading **HORIZONS**

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Table of Contents

Editorial Comment—Universities of Tomorrow	5
Homer L. J. Carter	
Just Who Is the “Mistaken Purist”?	7
Louis Foley	
The Role of the Home in Promoting Reading	12
Joseph B. Tremonti, C.S.V.	
To Read	18
Sister Rosangela Weiland	
The Ponics Quagmire	19
Bruce A. Lloyd	
The Cluster Plan for Reading In-Service Work	24
Nicholas P. Criscuolo	
Echoes from the Field	26
Joe R. Chapel and Ronald A. Crowell	
Did You See?	27
Dorothy J. McGinnis	
We Suggest	28
Eleanor Buelke	
Round Robin	31
Dorothy E. Smith	
Ten-Second Reviews	33
Blanche O. Bush	

Editorial Comment

UNIVERSITIES OF TOMORROW

Some institutions of higher learning in the United States are being weighed in the balance and found wanting. Enrollment is increasing as entrance requirements are being modified. Students are making demands for new courses and elimination of old ones. The value of marks, degrees, and even graduation is being questioned. Irresponsible students are destroying property and taxpayers are reluctant to support ever-increasing costs of institutional upkeep. Furthermore, they are shocked by the appearance of some instructors and dismayed by their teaching. Like indulgent parents, some administrators have become increasingly permissive. The end is not yet.

Will the new be better than the old? Will top-heavy structures and wheels within wheels be set aside? Will the business of the university be directed by experienced business executives? Will teachers, who can really do what they expect their students to do, be permitted to stimulate, inform, and guide young men and women? Will quality of instruction and leadership in the disciplines count for more than size of the university? We shall see.

It is possible that in the universities of tomorrow students will seek knowledge in order to achieve their objectives and not necessarily to earn degrees. Irrelevant requirements, credit hours, final examinations, and marks in courses may be no longer demanded. What the student can do may be appraised in terms of his history, on the spot observations, informal inventories, and programed examinations administered at the request of the student. Computerized data may be employed to determine whether or not certain academic requirements have been met. Instruction and graduation, like birth, may be individualized. The new *can* be better than the old.

Homer L. J. Carter

Editor

JUST WHO IS THE "MISTAKEN PURIST"?

Louis Foley

BARSON COLLEGE

Not long ago a reviewer of Wilson Follett's *Modern American Usage* quoted from that book as a sample of its "good advice" a declaration concerning adverbs. "The belief that adverbs should end in *-ly* is hard to down in the mistaken purist, and one often meets the tone of reprobation about the short forms. A newspaper will comment quizzically on the public authorities that have *given outright approval to road-signs like 'Drive Slow.'*"¹

Such a statement does not indicate any very clear understanding of the ways of language, our own in particular. One does not have to be a "purist" to recognize certain simple principles as they naturally work out. This they tend to do rather steadily on the whole, in spite of the befuddlement kept up by people who stubbornly refuse to look into the true nature of our speech, the *real* "usage" which is not altogether subject to individual whim.

Using good grammar is not, and never was, a matter of slavishly following arbitrary "rules" supposedly dreamed up by the much-maligned so-called "purists." It is not even strictly necessary to know the conventional terminology for the different parts of speech. Long before a child ever knows the word "adverb," for instance, he will have acquired a very definite *feeling* for the idiomatic use of adverbial expressions—if he is ever going to have it. Unless one already has a quasi-instinctive feeling for the grammatical system, the names for the various parts of its structure can have no meaning. These terms, however, enable us to talk about it conveniently. So we can become more conscious of the means by which we express ourselves, and learn to use them more precisely and more gracefully.

The way adverbial forms have evolved in English is quite understandable if one takes the trouble to look into it. Obviously nowadays everyone thinks of *-ly* as the natural ending for adverbs. So true is this that children sometimes use it to form adverbs that hardly exist, as "funnily" for example. This feeling about *-ly*, however, deep-rooted as it seems to be, is a comparatively modern phenomenon. Originally *-ly* was an *adjective* ending, and we still have a number of adjectives which bear witness to that older usage, as do *manly*, *womanly*, *saintly*, *cowardly*, *seemly*, *woolly*, and others, for which

1. ABWA *Bulletin*, February 1967, p. 25.

we have no corresponding adverbs at all. We have to say, for instance, "in a manly way."

This ending is a worn-down remnant of *like*, which in Old English was spelled *lic* and pronounced like our word *leek*. As apparently in all languages, our adverbs were formed from adjectives. In Old English this was done by adding another syllable, a final *-e* which of course was pronounced. So for *manlic* (manly) the adverb was *manlice*. But by no means all adjectives ended in *-lic* to start with; *hat* (hot) became adverbial as *hate*, and so on. When with the corruption of the language—call it simplification if you prefer—the final *-e* which marked the adverb dropped off, the old distinction was lost. Only after that was it possible for *-ly* to become the characteristic *adverb* ending that it has now unquestionably been for a good while.

In Old English the adverb for the adjective *slow* was naturally *slowe*. With the dropping of the final *-e*, there was no longer any distinction, until the evolution of *-ly* into the standard mark of an adverb made *slowly* inevitable. There is no more settled "law" of language than the way a certain manner of handling grammatical form, once it has become established for the great majority of words in a given class, will be applied to others not originally in that class at all. Thus various verbs once irregular have become regular. The irregular forms that persist are words that everyone learns very early in life, before he has become thoroughly aware of the standard patterns. That is why it seems "natural" to carry on with a few examples of otherwise obsolete ways of forming plurals, such as *men*, *women*, and *children*, or with such "strong" verbs as *go*, *went*, *gone*, or *think*, *thought*, *thought*. As for continuing use of *slow* as an adverb, we shall come back to that presently after noticing something else.

Despite the triumph of *-ly* as our standard adverbial suffix, we have a number of common adverbs which no one dreams of using otherwise than in their "flat" uninflected form. The explanation, however, is not the same as what we have seen in the case of old plurals or surviving irregular verbs. In fact it seems quite clear that the "flat" adverbs that remain with us might long ago have joined the overwhelming majority in *-ly* had there not been unavoidable semantic obstacles to prevent.

Let us consider for instance a few of the commonest examples: *high*, *low*, *near*, *hard*, *even*, *still*, and *wide*. "He threw the ball *highly*" would sound ridiculous because *highly* is specialized in a figurative sense; we say that a dish is "highly seasoned," or that the result of

some effort is “highly satisfactory.” *Low* cannot be replaced by *lowly*, not only because the latter is an adjective but because it suggests humility or inferior social rank, as in “the meek and lowly.” The adverb *nearly* now too strongly connotes “almost” to supplant *near* in its literal sense of “within a short distance.” In the eighteenth century it seemed quite idiomatic to say that something “nearly concerns us,” but now it is necessary to substitute *closely* to make the meaning clear.

Hardly has too definite a meaning of “barely” or “scarcely” to be used instead of *hard* in such a sentence as “They tried hard,” or “He fought hard.” Comparison of the two statements, “We have been coming *late* in the afternoon,” and “We have been coming *lately* in the afternoon,” shows a difference of ideas that effectively prevents *lately* from driving out *late*. *Even*, in such expressions as “even now” or “He rises early even on Sundays,” could not be replaced by *evenly*: “They spread the cement evenly,” or “The wall rose evenly all along the line.” The rare word *stilly* almost inevitably reminds one of Thomas Moore’s poem, “Oft in the stilly night.” Not only is the word fixed as an *adjective*, but it seems to have an undesirable tone, perhaps because it resembles *silly*. Wide, in “It fell wide of the mark,” cannot be replaced by *widely* because the latter has acquired another sense, “The magazine circulates widely,” “As a lawyer he is widely known.” Other examples might be cited, but surely these are sufficient to demonstrate that adverbs which have resisted being drawn into the *-ly* class have had compelling reasons for remaining as they are.

Use of *slow* as an adverb has no such justification, for it can have no other meaning than that of *slowly*. There has been nothing to prevent the latter from having the standard form like the great majority of our adverbs, and in fact that is what has long ago taken place. At least in most contexts, *slow* as an adverb can hardly sound quite right to the ear of any person who has a feeling for correctness of expression.

Here, however, is where the *real* would-be “purist” comes into the picture. Certain grammarians and etymologists have exerted their influence to counteract the natural evolution of our language. Ignoring the fact of that evolution, and enamored of Old English for its own sake, they “like” *slow* better because it seems closer to that obsolete tongue. So they defend it as “an ancient and dignified part of our language,”² though the claim of “dignity” for it in most cases would

2. Greenough, J. B. and Kittredge, G. L., *Words and Their Ways in English Speech*, Macmillan (1916), p. 199.

be laughable. Mr. H. W. Fowler admits with an air of regret "the encroachments of *-ly*," but contends that "*slow* maintains itself as at least an idiomatic possibility under some conditions."³ Any "conditions" which admit such "possibility" have to be special indeed.

No one with any sense of correctness at all—unless he were trying to speak pidgin—would say "He slow moved over," or "The situation slow improved." If a person says, "The construction is slow starting," he must be meaning *slow* as an adjective; it is slow in starting, and the implication is that it has not yet started. It would not mean the same as saying, "The construction is slowly starting."

Of course there are, as there have always been, those who have no feeling whatever for any kind of correctness in speech. It is no cause for surprise that they should show no more respect for differences between adjectives and adverbs than for other grammatical distinctions. "He done real good" is perfectly in the pattern of the lowest levels of undisciplined speech. Presumably, however, we are not taking as a criterion the "usage" of those who couldn't care less about propriety or agreeableness in their language.

It seems as if hardly any old speech-ways ever fade out of common use without leaving fossil remains somewhere in the language. Examples are old meanings of words, generally forgotten, which subsist in adages and proverbial expressions, often leading to their modern misinterpretation. "Calling a spade a spade" was not a reference to garden implements, but meant speaking plainly about castrated animals instead of employing such euphemisms as "steer" or "gelding." "The exception proves the rule" uses *prove* in the old sense of *try* or *test*, which had become virtually obsolete before it was revived within living memory in "proving-grounds." As with such survivals of old meanings, so with archaic forms. For either, in fact, we often find examples in compound words, which may continue to preserve something no longer familiar elsewhere. Centuries ago, the Old English word *gos* became *goose*, but we still have *goshawk*. *Ware* is not commonly used now for "goods," but we still have *warehouse*, *hardware*, and other reminders. So one might go on indefinitely.

A common kind of compound adjective is formed by coupling an adverb with a past or present participle. While participles are adjectival in their use, as verb-forms they are modified by adverbs, as indeed adjectives are anyway. In keeping with the phenomenon of

3. Fowler, H. W., *A Dictionary of Modern English Usage*, Oxford (1927), p. 542.

occasional survivals of archaic forms, some of these participial combinations still carry on with “flat” adverbs. We continue to use *new-mown* and *new-born*, in contrast to the more modern compounding of *newly-wed*. Likewise with present participles we have *easy-going*, and *slow* hangs on adverbially in *slow-growing* and *slow-moving*. Such stray items, however, are rather irrelevant to the currents of modern language.

What usually starts the argument about adverbs is, of course, the familiar road-sign, “Go Slow” (sometimes even *Slo*). We may suspect that more than one cause operates to keep that phrase alive. No doubt there is some kind of satisfaction in the neat coupling of two monosyllables that rime. That this should seem more attractive than correctness need not astonish us, if we reflect upon the passion for alliteration which continually leads English-speaking people to sacrifice grammar and meaning quite cheerfully for combinations of words beginning with the same letter: “cash and carry,” “lend lease,” or “a word to the wise,” where it was *knowledge* rather than “wisdom” that was meant by the Latin proverb thus translated.

Perhaps as important a reason as any is the simple fact that *slow* takes up less space than *slowly*. In this respect it is like the “thru” which one sees in similar places. That spelling cannot be considered “phonetic”—unless one has in mind the distorted pronunciation to be heard in some parts of the country as a dialectal peculiarity. In both cases, however, the intended meaning is clear enough; it takes care of the situation.

Finally we may hazard the guess that there may enter into the affair a certain taste for occasional sloppiness or incorrectness just for its own sake. It may be “fun” like saying “ain’t” once in a while, with people who know that is not your natural way of speaking. To take such items seriously, as if they really demonstrated anything about correct language one way or another, is to be a little bit foolish.

THE ROLE OF THE HOME IN PROMOTING READING

Joseph B. Tremonti, C.S.V.

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The first teacher of a child, for better or worse, is the parent or parents. Morally and legally, the responsibility rests entirely and completely upon their shoulders. The parents can be guided and counseled, but in the final analysis they must be prepared to take the credit for success or the blame for failure.

Educational facilities are provided for all children. However, these should not be a substitute but a supplement to the parents' own teaching. Good parent-teacher relationship lessens home problems and gains respect for parents as they encourage respect for teachers. This kind of character building pays dividends all through life. Especially is this true during the junior and senior high school age. The teenager goes through a period of rebellion against adult authority. It is at this stage that the parents' attitude toward school and teacher is most important. Teachers have a right to expect and a duty to insist upon obedience from students. If the parents also insist upon the child's treating the teacher with respect and obedience, then there is a much better foundation upon which to carry out the further education of the child.

Mrs. James C. Parker says that in order to have a truly successful education, the home must contribute a basic foundation and the school must support it.³ Every school needs a vigorous program to build constructive relationships with parents; to gain understanding of the aspirations, values, and problems of parents and the community; to deepen parents' insight into their children's need for guidance, discipline, affection and good example; to raise the level of public understanding of education; and to gain community support for school improvements.

The most important activity between home and school is that which brings parents and teachers together to learn about each other's problems and responsibilities in rearing and educating children. When parents understand and reinforce the school's efforts, children's learning increases.

Teaching is becoming more and more difficult. What do parents and teachers expect of each other in terms of the child? A teacher's success is often dependent upon the parents—their understanding, their cooperation, and sometimes their willingness to "face up" to the hard,

cold facts. If a parent always assumes that a child's complaint about his teacher is right, the teacher and the school may be accused of not teaching the three R's, of lack of discipline, or of "picking on" the child. The child nurtures these attitudes and becomes influenced by their bias. If, on the other hand, the parent questions the child and seeks the counsel of the teacher and the principal, the child immediately becomes aware of the lines of communication, and the home-school relationship takes on a new dimension. The home and the school then become focal points of common interest complementing each other, working in harmony.

The teachers also depend upon parents to encourage the continuing development of the skills which are initiated at school. Cooperation is needed because there is work to be done for children and youth—work that will not wait. Almost all children want to learn. They are curious and eager to explore, and they want to know. They are willing to work very hard to learn, but they want to learn those things that hold personal significance for them. What the teacher or parent has to offer must be related to the child, where and what he is, his interest, his growth and what he hopes to become. When this personal significance is present, then the child is motivated to learn.²

To find out what specific activities stimulate learning, parents of first graders in the Price Laboratory School, State University of Iowa, Cedar Falls, were asked to list the different things they had done that were closely allied to their children's interest in reading. The results of the questionnaire were revealing. According to their replies, parents, especially mothers, read to their children regularly. Especially important was the use of a quiet period in the day, resulting in a release from hurry and tension. This, it was found, was a time when child and parent were drawn closely together. The parents interviewed were unanimous in their belief that story time is a wonderful medium through which to have the children share in our heritage of great literature. Furthermore, story time can help children to think creatively and it will add many important and intriguing words to their vocabularies. Parents are consciously and sometimes unknowingly setting reading as a goal for their children when they frequently give books to their children on birthdays and holidays or as a special treat. Children who are in this type of stimulating environment are indeed fortunate.

Listening is another art that should be practiced. Fortunately, attentive listening on the part of parents and teachers will help make better listeners of children. Dictionaries, encyclopedias and almanacs

all have a place in homes where a sincere interest in reading is being developed. Parents can, and in many instances do, serve as para-teachers in the intriguing task of helping children develop power in and a love for reading. It was found in nearly every instance that successful readers came from homes in which children were read to frequently and were given books on special occasions; parents read extensively and had a personal interest in reading; children had many enriching experiences which the family shared; dictionaries, almanacs, and encyclopedias were used extensively; children were involved in games played together by the family which required reading; incidental reading was encouraged; recognition of letter names was encouraged and the library habit was established early.¹

Most parents want their children to go to college. However, many qualified young men and women find it difficult to secure admission to a reputable college or university because of the great influx of students already taxing the physical facilities of our schools. Some universities are becoming more highly selective in their admission procedures, virtually limiting consideration to those whose high school records have been outstanding or to those who can give evidence of having mastered the special skills necessary for success in college. If he is to succeed, the student must meet the inevitable challenge of maintaining his place in college. He soon learns that there are more demands placed on intellectual skills than in his previous schooling. Reading ability becomes of paramount importance, and the whole environment demands of him a higher level of thinking. Gibbon says, "Let us read with method and propose to ourselves an end to what our studies may permit. The use of reading is to aid us in thinking." High school and college students are expected to generalize, draw inferences and conclusions, and appreciate subtleties of style and content. They apply ideas read to society and to personal problems. They find textbooks more difficult, study periods longer, and a high level of concentration required for achievement. The assignments are more difficult and complex, and these newcomers to the college campus must adapt their reading to meet their new needs. Most of these skills should be mastered at the grade and high school level. Reading is the most important learning skill.

Now, what is the role of the parent in today's reading program? The writer would like to point out some of the more important ways in which the parents of today's children can help in this situation. First, there is the need to become familiar and better acquainted with the school reading program. For example, do you know what

the philosophy of reading is in today's schools? Years ago, we defined it as recognizing words and being able to pronounce them correctly during oral reading and then we realized that this was not enough to expect from our children. Then we modified our definition of reading so that now we think of reading not only as a process of recognizing words and understanding their meanings but also thinking about what the author has said, actually reflecting upon it so that we can compare what he has said with our own past experiences or with materials that we have read from other sources. In other words, today's reading program is one that does emphasize thinking skills along with the mechanics of reading and understanding what is read.

In order to know whether your school has a well-balanced reading program, you will need to look into your school to see whether or not your school is offering three types of programs. First of all, is it teaching a developmental reading program? In other words, is the school paying attention to readiness for reading; is it developing the necessary skills for word recognition, comprehension, study skills? Is there a basic reading program which presents a systematic, well-outlined approach to the skills development which are needed by children? This does not mean that your school should be limited to a basic reading program in any way because the school should also be teaching the necessary skills for reading social studies and science, health and arithmetic. Skills can be and should be taught in relation to the content areas.

Next, you should check to find out if the recreational reading program in your school is a stimulating one. Do the children read independently? Do they enjoy reading and what kind of books are they reading? As Noah Porter has said, "No man can read with profit that which he cannot learn to read with pleasure." In other words, teachers and parents today are not only interested in how well Johnny reads but also in what reading is doing to and for Johnny himself. All of these are essential parts of a well-balanced reading program.

Both parents and teachers can help prevent some reading problems. Perhaps the greatest aid is helping the child to be confident. We also need to keep in mind that reading problems are not caused by any one deficiency. Therefore, when Johnny's teacher talks with you and indicates that he is having some difficulty in reading, by all means follow the suggestions of the teacher to help alleviate the problem, such as hearing, eye, or other examinations to detect defects. If the teacher suggests reading aloud at home, find the time to help him.

Have patience in teaching the child words. Try to build up in your child a stick-to-it-iveness, a sense of pleasure in accomplishment and in doing things right. Parents can also help in preventing reading problems by providing a background of varied experiences for their children. Find the time to take them to the zoo, airport, post office, and places of this nature. Then take the time to talk to them about these places and the various functions they serve, so that their vocabulary as well as their knowledge is increased. Parents can avoid problems in reading by refraining from tenseness and nervousness over the situation, thus imparting their fear to the child. Above all, do not compare the child with a sibling who is smarter or a neighbor's child who is smarter. This tends to lower Johnny's already low opinion of himself. Instead, encourage and praise and have patience. Give him work to do or books to read that he is capable of reading, so that he has an opportunity to experience a sense of achievement. Let him know that you know he has a reading problem and that you will help him and in time he will be a good reader.

Teenagers can also be helped by discussing various current events with them, some article in a magazine; by letting them know you are interested in their ideas, and by encouraging them to read more in order to have more ideas and topics to discuss with you. If after helping the child all you can by following the teacher's suggestions you still find no solutions, then by all means take the child to a reading clinic in order that he may have the additional help and instruction that a center has to offer.

One thing for you to remember is that Johnny's teacher and school are just as eager for him to succeed as you are yourself.

In conclusion, may I share with you an anonymously written poem, which will serve to summarize the theme of this paper.

Children Learn What They Live

If a child lives with criticism, he learns to condemn.
If a child lives with hostility, he learns to fight.
If a child lives with ridicule, he learns to be shy.
If a child lives with jealousy, he learns to feel guilty.
If a child lives with tolerance, he learns to be patient.
If a child lives with encouragement, he learns confidence.
If a child lives with praise, he learns to appreciate.
If a child lives with fairness, he learns justice.
If a child lives with security, he learns to have faith.
If a child lives with approval, he learns to like himself.

If a child lives with acceptance and friendship he learns
to find Love in the world.

Now, may I ask you, with what is your child living?

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TO READ

Sister Rosangela Weiland

To read—
That noblest
of arts.

To perceive
from print
men's hearts.

To know
one's thoughts
and mind.

To understand
and feel
mankind.

To live
another's life
of woe.

To share
their grief
and grow.

To love
one's words
and needs.

To scan
or skim
another's deeds.

To partake
of present,
past, future.

To gain
in joy
and nurture.

To read—
That noblest
of arts.

THE PHONICS QUAGMIRE

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The quicksand of confrontation in phonics methodology has been the either-or dichotomy exemplified by the nature-nurture controversy of yesteryear. The proponents of heredity as the prime dictator of human growth and development had well-polished arguments for their position and so did those who believed in the preeminence of environmental factors. In the phonics controversy the oversimplification of viewpoint was equally clear-cut. Either we teach phonics as *synthesis* or we teach phonics as *analysis*, but we cannot do both. However, modern phonics instructional theory and practice indicates that perceptive teachers are taking both handles and doing just that up to a point.

The Synthetic Approach

Through the process of synthesis, the reader looks at each letter of a word, says the sound of the letter, and puts the sound together with the next letter. This procedure is used with all letters in the word to the end that the reader will be able to pronounce the word when he has put all of the sounds together.

At first glance, this system might appear to work and work well for pupils attacking unknown words, words not in their sight recognition vocabulary. But all too frequently in actual practice, more confusion than enlightenment was generated. Not only is the meaning of the word not forthcoming, but word pronunciation is equated with reading.

The problem of synthesis can be illustrated as follows: take the word BAT. Readers were supposed to say the sound of the letter B first and it usually came out something like BUH. Probably the vowel A gave no trouble and the reader would say A. So far he had BUHA. Finally, he looked at the letter T and probably said TUH. Putting all of these sounds together, he came up with BUHATUH, which is a far cry from the sounds heard in the word BAT.

The Analytic Approach

Analysis, on the other hand, called upon the reader to look at the word as a whole, to find familiar parts, and to see which phonics rules could be applied. From the known parts, the reader could determine the rest of the word providing he knew and could apply techniques such as initial consonant substitution, initial consonant blend or digraph substitution, and/or the substitution of phonograms. For example, if the reader saw the word MAT and did not know

it, but did know the word BAT, then all he had to do was substitute the sound of M for the B sound and arrive at the correct pronunciation.

Unfortunately, this technique, like all other techniques used with our presently spelled English words, has its advantages and its disadvantages or limitations as well. Looking for known word parts or word families (phonograms) is an acceptable word attack skill, but its use is restricted to those word elements that are (1) known to the reader and (2) fit the confining pattern. Likewise, not all English words fit these nice, neat patterns because of the ridiculous and inconsistent, irregular spellings which are an ever-present road-block to pupil reading. To illustrate the limitations of analysis techniques, take a look at the word TOGETHER. A reader may analyze the components TO and GET and HER, and not be able to continue reading because that is not the word.

Another fly in the phonic analysis ointment is the methodology based on rules. Readers were taught the many generalizations and the exceptions thereto with the assumption that they would look at a word, think of the generalization(s) appropriate to it, and come up with the pronunciation. For example, the basic (and comparatively unusable) generalization regarding two adjacent vowels goes something like this: "when two vowels come together in a word, the first vowel usually takes the long sound (says its name) and the second vowel is silent." That rule is illustrated by words such as *seat*, *boat*, and *hail*. Recent studies have found this rule to be less than fifty percent effective and there are more words that do not agree (break, lead, and said) than there are that do. Moreover, a number of rules of English phonic analysis have been shown to be of considerably less utility than was once thought. So it would seem that the analysis technique using known word parts and/or phonics generalizations has also left something to be desired.

The Modern Approach

This brings us to the basic question of the present dilemma, namely, what is the proper place of phonics in present-day, meaningful reading instructional programs. Synthesis has its limitations and so does analysis. What is the reading teacher to do?

Perhaps the best answer rests with the proper use-stress continuum.

Phonics can be defined as the correct association of speech sounds with their corresponding symbols. In other words, there is a phoneme-grapheme relationship (imperfect as it is) and readers need to be taught the correct phoneme response to the appropriate grapheme.

Herein lies the problem. Because of the imperfections and inconsistencies of English spellings with the corresponding lack of utility in either analysis or synthesis, how much stress should be given to modern phonics instruction in today's reading programs?

To answer this question, we must look to the actual use of phonics as the reader needs the appropriate skills to apply in attacking words. Initially the young or inexperienced reader has a limited sight vocabulary and is faced with the problem of attacking many of the words he meets. So there are many printed symbol groups whose pronunciation needs to be unlocked in order for the reader to read and to read better.

The real problem, then, rests with the reader's recognition vocabulary (his store of sight words) simply because the larger the number of words he recognizes instantly, the easier it is to read and to comprehend. The fewer words he knows and/or recognizes, the more he will have to rely on word attack knowledge. The larger the vocabulary of understanding (recognition vocabulary) acquired by the pupil, the more effective will be his use of phonic analysis. Once the word is pronounced, the appropriate mental associations must be made with the word, then the individual can continue reading with understanding. For the reader who has a limited vocabulary of understanding, using the dictionary is the best resource. Phonics skills do not give the reader word meaning. Even if the reader can "sound out" or pronounce the unknown word through the application of phonic analysis, he is still unsure of the meaning and must resort to context or the dictionary. Phonic analysis does not provide word definitions. These come from the reader's previous experiences.

Mature readers follow a similar pattern. They also find phonic analysis skills of service in the pronunciation of unknown words. Such individuals usually look at words, find familiar parts, attach sounds to symbols, synthesize correctly, and come up with a pronunciation. Then, if the set of sounds is in the reader's vocabulary of understanding and he recognizes this from some previous experience, the meaning becomes apparent and he continues reading. On the other hand, even if he can say the word, he may not know its meaning. Therefore, he must use clues that the context may give or he resorts to the dictionary. Once the meaning is known, the reader can proceed until he comes across another unknown word. The process is then repeated.

What, then, is the real value of phonics? Simply this: the skills of phonic analysis can help when the reader looks at a word, makes

the correct sound-symbol associations, *and recognizes the word* from his own individual store of words. If he cannot attach the sounds to meanings, no amount of phonic knowledge will help the reader understand what he reads. Phonic analysis, by whatever approach used, has these limitations. Although it is considered to be the best, single word attack skill procedure needed by readers, the value of phonic analysis is restricted and reading instructional programs should be adjusted accordingly. It is especially significant to note that reading skill instruction programs cannot be limited to phonic analysis alone. Other skill building learning procedures must be included.

The Quagmire Overcome

The proper, effective, stress-use continuum regarding the teaching of phonic analysis should follow a pattern and sequence that is most beneficial to the readers needing such instruction. The foremost concept teachers should consider is that reading for meaning is the ultimate goal of all reading instruction. Mere word pronunciation, of itself, serves few real purposes. Words must be read in context and have meaning for the reader. When reading is meaning-centered, phonics can assist the reader providing the analysis skills have a firm foundation. The skills should have a solid base in order to be useful to readers. This base is made up of experiences and instruction provided by the teacher.

Initially the skills of phonic analysis should be taught on an informal basis. Then teachers can gradually lead up to a more formal phonics program in which the skills are stressed for a time. Ultimately, however, phonics skill instruction should taper off so that the time can be devoted to other, more vital skill activities such as structural analysis, critical reading, drawing inferences and conclusions, predicting outcomes, and most vital of all, increasing sight vocabulary.

Conclusions

It has been noted that phonic analysis is a serviceable but limited tool or device for helping readers pronounce words whose visual forms are unfamiliar and/or unknown. Its utility declines as readers progress through the grades. Ultimately phonic skills have little value for readers and there is an increased need for higher level skills. Phonics most certainly does not help with the *meanings* of words if those meanings are unknown to the reader. In this instance he must resort to use of context, the dictionary, or some other source.

The best way to help pupils become better readers is to teach them to increase their own sight recognition vocabularies and give them

many experiences so they can learn more words. A large sight vocabulary is obtained by constant exposure to meaningful experiences and to words. This can be achieved orally (teacher-pupil dialogue; pupil listening) or visually (reading). A large sight vocabulary is retained by constant, meaningful reexposure to words (extensive and intensive reading, many experiences, and discussing experiences). A sight vocabulary is increased by continuous in-depth, in-breadth reading and more experiences at an ever higher level.

Although phonic analysis is a key of some utility in unlocking word pronunciation, getting meaning is the major purpose of reading. This phonics cannot do.

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THE CLUSTER PLAN FOR READING IN-SERVICE WORK

Nicholas P. Criscuolo

NEW HAVEN, CONNECTICUT, PUBLIC SCHOOLS

School systems are constantly seeking ways to offer practical and effective in-service reading programs for their teachers. One plan that has been working in the New Haven public school system is the Cluster Plan. This plan is used for staff development and involves taking a small cluster of three or four schools with similar problems and offering practical in-service programs on a released-time basis.

The content of each in-service program is designed to be relevant and practical. Demonstration lessons with children, exhibits and explanations of the latest supplementary reading materials and group discussions of pertinent problems and issues are the types of activities stressed in these programs. Prior to each program, however, a committee composed of principals, parents and teacher representatives from each of the schools in the cluster is set up to plan and implement the program.

Recently the Cluster Plan operated for three inner-city elementary schools in the area of reading instruction. This in-service program began at 1:45 p.m. after early dismissal and took place at Winchester School in New Haven. Four current reading approaches were reviewed briefly by publishers' representatives. Some of the approaches discussed employed the "code emphasis" approach while others employed the "meaning emphasis" approach as discussed in Chall's "Learning to Read: The Great Debate."

At the end of these presentations, a Panel of Interrogators questioned each consultant. This Panel consisted of a parent and teacher representatives from each of the three schools and was moderated by the author. Prior to the program, each panel member had been sent reviews of Chall's book and a short list of related articles to read. After a spirited discussion between the Panel and consultants, members of the audience were given the opportunity to ask additional questions.

The program ended at 3:10 p.m. From 3:15 p.m. to 5:00 p.m. the New Haven Reading Department sponsored a Reading Exposition in the gymnasium of Winchester School which was considered part of this in-service program but was open to all city teachers, parents and other members of the public. Thirty-two companies were represented and they exhibited current reading materials and equipment.

At this Reading Exposition, teachers, principals and parents had a chance to view and discuss the latest reading materials, most of which are being used in the city schools. Such an event enabled teachers to view first-hand the materials before they placed their reading orders for next year. Free bulletins, pamphlets and other literature were available for general distribution. Coffee and cookies were served at the Expo which lent a feeling of informality to the occasion.

A Guest Book was on hand for visitors to sign. Each publisher was assessed a small fee to cover the cost of the refreshments. Over four hundred people signed the Guest Book, attesting to the success of this event.

Evaluation of the in-service program and the enthusiastic comments received concerning the Reading Exposition, revealed that it was a day well spent. Practical ideas had been disseminated and discussed, teachers in small clusters had become involved, and opportunities for people to see first-hand, and not out of a catalogue, the latest materials in reading had been given. These were some of the ingredients which went into the recipe for a successful and sensible in-service reading program.

ECHOES FROM THE FIELD

Joe R. Chapel and Ronald A. Crowell

Again this year an outstanding program has been planned for the Homer L. J. Carter Reading Council. The theme for the year is Current Challenges in Reading. Five programs have been scheduled and, in looking over the speakers and topics, we think you will agree that this should be an exciting year.

Dr. Ralph Robinett, the director of the Miami Linguistic Reading Series will speak at the first meeting on September 18th. His topic is "Linguistics and Reading," with special reference to language handicapped children.

Mrs. Gladys Stoughton Scholten of the Kalamazoo Schools, who was formerly a consultant to Houghton Mifflin, will be the guest at the November meeting on Thursday the 20th at 7:30 P.M. Mrs. Scholten's message will revolve around the theme "Motivation for Better Readers."

The winter meeting on January 15th will be a panel of Kalamazoo teachers who will discuss "Parents: Their Role in the Reading Achievement of Their Children." Mrs. Jennie Schneider, the past President of the council will be the moderator and members of the panel will be Sheila Hood, Emogene Schuck and Darlene Schenck. This will be a potluck supper and, if you wish to attend, the supper will begin at 6:30.

On March 19th the Reading Council will hold its first annual Drive In Conference featuring Dr. Dolores Durkin, nationally known educator and researcher and the author of numerous articles and books in the field of reading. The conference will begin at 4:30 and last until 9 P.M. This should be one of the highlights of the year for reading teachers in this area.

In an attempt to provide information on current issues in the field and better communication regarding what's going on in the field the last meeting of the year, on May 14th, will depart from the usual format. This will be a dinner meeting at the Gull Harbor Inn and will be a "Report From Anaheim." Those people who will have attended the 1970 IRA convention will report on the proceedings. This should be an extremely valuable meeting.

All meetings this year, except the final dinner, will be held at the Little Theater in Portage North Junior High School. All interested people are cordially invited to attend these stimulating meetings.

DID YOU SEE?

Dorothy J. McGinnis

"Revolutionaries Who Have to be Home by 7:30" appearing in the June 1969 issue of *Phi Delta Kappan*? In the article Nicholas Pileggi reports on the revolutionary activities of today's high school youth in New York and elsewhere. His report is followed by the comments of five education leaders: Edgar Friedenberg, Ted Gordon, Arnold Salisbury, J. Lloyd Trump, and Robert J. Havighurst.

The article "The Effects of Expectancy and Other Research-Biasing Factors" published in the *Phi Delta Kappan*, June 1969? This article should be of interest to all researchers and to teachers who have read the Rosenthal-Jacobson book *Pygmalion in the Classroom* which is an extension of work done by Rosenthal and others on a concept called the experimenter bias effect. One of their conclusions was that teachers' expectations regarding the intellectual performance of children lead to actual and significant change in performance.

Many researchers seriously question various aspects of the Rosenthal-Jacobson work and contend that it is so defective technically that it should never have been reported at all. Theodore Barber, for example, reports in the *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, Vol. 33, No. 1, 1969, of five unsuccessful attempts to replicate Rosenthal's work. The controversy has led to the conclusion that the expectancy factor included in the experimenter bias effect is not as pervasive as *Pygmalion in the Classroom* would lead one to believe and that there is considerable confusion over five concepts important to research design: Hawthorne effect, experimenter bias, demand characteristic, placebo effect, and halo effect. The article by Gephart and Antonoplos attempts to clarify these concepts and to put the Rosenthal-Jacobson report in perspective.

The report that an appropriation of \$49.7 million dollars has been made, under a section of Public Law 89-313, to aid 100,000 handicapped children during the fiscal year 1969? Centers and programs throughout the United States, Guam, and Puerto Rico will be set up. For additional information write to: Aid to States Branch, Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, United States Office of Education, Washington, D.C.

The directory of schools, agencies, and institutions for children with special needs? It is published by the Ohio Youth Commission, 2280 Broad Street, Columbus, and offers more than two hundred listings of facilities located throughout the United States. The cost of the directory is \$3.

WE SUGGEST

Eleanor Buelke

Raths, Louis E., Harmin, Merrill, and Simon, Sidney B.
Values and Teaching

Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1966. Pp. ix +275.

What is that elusive something that makes the difference between poor teaching and good teaching, that impedes or promotes efficient learning, that stimulates intellectual growth in all members of a class group? Conclusions from a number of reading research studies done in the past few years under auspices of the U. S. Office of Education seem to indicate that the most important variable in the process of learning to read is closely related to the teacher. Is it the meshing of his personality with that of his pupils? Can it be the pervasive importance of their intrapersonal relationships? Might it be the quality of the interaction process as teachers and pupils, together, examine cognitive and affective dimensions of learning, making choices, prizing those choices, and acting upon them consistently? Does it have something to do with what Nila B. Smith calls the "common denominator" of humaneness, promoting "moral, social, and educational values which . . . must be achieved solely through association of human beings with other human beings?"¹

Perhaps, what is needed to solve teaching and learning problems are insights into relationships between all elements of the problems so that those involved can understand the choices, with their limitations, that are offered for solution. Perhaps, man can never gain a productive understanding of his own values until he reaches a deeper understanding of contradictory meanings and applications of the basic values of others. It may be that, as pupils are helped toward clarification of their relationships to society, they may come to an independent understanding of circumstances which may condition, but not necessarily determine, the extent and nature of their growth.²

The authors of *Values and Teaching* believe that teachers who have seen their formerly relatively stable professional environments change rapidly in recent years can no longer assume that the same problems and instructional tasks for them, and for their pupils, will arise repeatedly. Teachers need approaches which provide them, and

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1. Nila B. Smith, Editor, *Current Issues in Reading*, p. 486. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1969.
 2. Erich Fromm, *The Revolution of Hope*. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, Inc., 1968.

their learners, with a basis for viewing new and unanticipated problems. Good teachers operate above a craft level, analyzing their problems and performances, actively in control of improvement of their teaching. With a real concern for the affective domain of learning, they are serious about building and organizing their own value systems so as to order their world and their consistent, effective actions in it.³

These writers suggest that persons whose behavior evidences no responsibility for decisions about using their lives appear to have unclear values. They seem “unable or unwilling to marshal up their full intellectual resources for use in the crucial game of living.” Children like this are categorized as being *apathetic*, *flighty*, *uncertain*, or *inconsistent*, or as *drifters*, *overconformers*, *overdissenters*, *under-achievers*, or *role players*. In order to show others how to work professionally with such children, helping them to clarify their own values, promoting more purposeful, more positive, more enthusiastic learning behavior, the writers have outlined here a theory of values and a methodology for clarification of values.

The main premises of the book are concerned more with the *processes* persons use to obtain their values than with their particular value outcomes. Seven criteria for reaching a value that can work effectively for a person are listed:

- Choosing: (1) freely
- (2) from among alternatives
- (3) after thoughtful consideration of each alternative
- Prizing: (4) cherishing, being happy with the choice
- (5) affirming, being willing to make a position known publicly
- Acting: (6) doing something with the choice
- (7) repeating this action in different situations, on a number of occasions

If a value is to result, all seven criteria must apply. In addition, eight categories of classroom behavior which have a significant relationship to valuing are explained. They are labeled “value indicators.” These expressions, which approach values, may be raised to the level of values if teachers provide opportunities for children to reveal them. Goals

3. David R. Krathwohl, Ben'amin S. Bloom, and Bertram B. Masia, *A Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: Handbook II: The Affective Domain*. New York: David McKay, 1964.

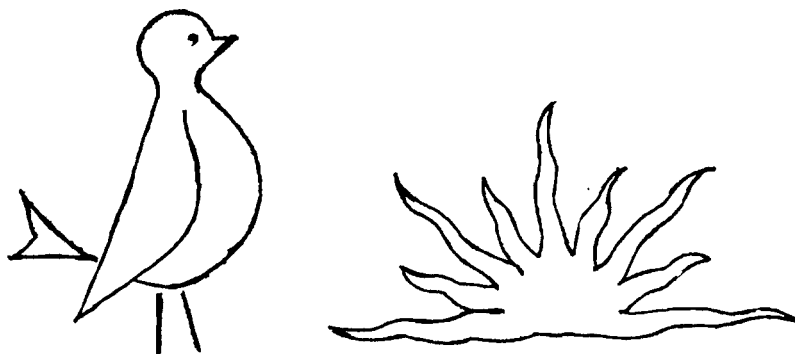
and purposes, aspirations, feelings, interests, beliefs and convictions, attitudes, activities, and worries are seen as typical value indicators.

Teachers who accept the seven criteria of the valuing process can learn techniques and practice teaching behaviors for spotting value indicators and helping children to develop their values. For example, in the process of "choosing," a free choice from among considered alternatives suggests that there must be a group of meaningful things to choose from, with no "either-or" alternatives. Choices offered must be those which can be honored by the teacher. In the matters of "prizing" and "acting," pupils need to be given time for verbal interaction, expressions of feelings and opinions, and ways and means of putting decisions into action.

Two later sections of the book define and describe more specific strategies, procedures, and workable guidelines for teachers to use in implementation and evaluation of the value theory in the classroom. Chapter Nine, concerning emotional needs of learners, needs to be considered for what it is, largely the authors' statement of position. However, it may serve to help the teacher place his own values and valuing processes in proper perspective to his responsibilities to children. The last chapter is a review of research in this field. Here it is stated that this value theory has been used with positive, significant results, but that further research is needed for better understanding of its implications for education.

Readers attracted to *Values and Teaching* will most likely be those whose own values are centered upon what Fromm calls "priorities of life," whose efforts in the classroom are aimed at helping others to be live, dynamic controllers of their own personal and societal systems,⁴ and who concur with the authors' affirmation of respect for the pupil's own highly personal life, for "his experience, and his right to help in examining it for values."

4. Erich Fromm, *op. cit.*



ROUND ROBIN

Dorothy E. Smith, Editor

In the October, 1968 issue of the *Phi Delta Kappan*, there appears an article, "The Teacher Preparation Myth: A Phoenix Too Frequent," by Seymour Metzner (pp. 105-107), and comments by Millard Clements (p. 107) and Samuel Bowles (p. 108). Mr. Metzner's thesis for the article, according to the editors, is: "The author contends that raising the educational level of teachers is likely to have little effect on pupil achievement and cites supportive research. New York University and Harvard professors offer comments."

This article has elicited a great deal of discussion, and we would like to present to you a rebuttal of Mr. Metzner's thesis. We would like to hear reactions to these ideas, from both sides.

Dear Editor:

The all-purpose, all-encompassing "remedy" for the extensively documented educational "illness" reported by Mr. Metzner was, to me, the most shocking part of his article. Certainly he must have something more specific and practical to suggest to help correct a situation he has researched so thoroughly, unless his sole purpose was shock therapy. If so, he created a real bomb.

It would be difficult for those of us in the field of education to believe that education in almost any form serves no purpose. I cannot list the research here, but the weight of history itself leans on the value of formal training of the young and the learner of any age. If additional education of teachers does not result in improved pupil learning, then something is wrong with either the type of additional teacher training and/or the measurement of pupil achievement.

I agree with Mr. Clements in his "Comment" following the Metzner article, that our researchers may be more "agricultural" than sensible in their efforts to apply science to human nature. For a long time the value of our present methods courses, factual courses, teacher evaluations, and even degrees have been questioned by many in the profession. Test scores as true measures of student knowledge and achievement are always under fire.

I would like to know more about the influence of teacher verbal ability on pupil achievement, as mentioned by Samuel Bowles in his "Explanation" of the Metzner article. I believe that this is a phase of teacher training that needs a lot of exploring. We are finally aware that educators must know the many tongues of today's world and, unless they can communicate sincerely in all of them, they will fail to instruct with any meaning.

In the same issue of the *Phi Delta Kappan* was an article by Thomas A. Billings, the director of the Upward Bound Program. He listed the needs for success in that endeavor as follows:

A program which provides

1. warmth and involvement for the staff and students alike
2. involvement of family and neighborhood
3. novel approaches to study
4. structure and purpose of subject matter

These needs seemed very much like the needs for the success of any educational program. Was this article on Upward Bound coincidentally in the same issue as the "Phoenix?"

Perhaps we should think about how many and what kind of ghettos there are in our complex society. Does psychological underdevelopment share some of the disadvantages of economic underdevelopment? Are our schools a form of ghetto? Does our teacher education help keep them that way? I hope Mr. Metzner's "Phoenix" burns for a long time and the new bird really rises.

Sincerely,

Jaynette Austin

Texas Southern University

Houston, Texas

TEN-SECOND REVIEWS

Blanche O. Bush

Reading furnishes the mind only with materials of knowledge; it is thinking that makes what we read ours. So far as we apprehend and see the connection of ideas, so far it is ours; without that it is so much loose matter floating in our brain—Locke

Ayers, Jerry B. and George E. Mason, "Differential Effects of Science: A Process Approach Upon Change in Metropolitan Readiness Test Scores Among Kindergarten Children," *The Reading Teacher* (February, 1969), 22:435-439.

The purpose of the study was to ascertain the effects of a science program upon readiness test scores of kindergarten children. The implications are that the program can add to the reading readiness of five-year-old boys and girls.

Betts, Emmett A. "Reading is Thinking," *Developing Comprehension Including Critical Reading* compiled by Mildred A. Dawson and reprinted from publications of International Reading Association, Newark, Delaware, 1968, pp. 109-111.

Children can be taught to think. Their ability to think is limited primarily by their personal experiences and the uses they make of them in problem solving, in abstracting and generalizing to make concepts, in judging, and in drawing conclusions. Under competent teacher guidance children gradually learn to think within the limits of their rates of maturation.

Blair, Harold, Eugene Schaulb, Eugene Zanger, and Harriet Blau, "Developmental Dyslexia and Its Remediation," *The Reading Teacher* (April, 1969), 22:649-653.

The authors in summary said: (1) Developmental dyslexia is demarcated from other reading problems. (2) The possibility exists that learning to read, and possibly learning in general, may be obstructed instead of helped by the uncritical and rigid incorporation of the visual modality at all times in the learning pattern of every individual. (3) Modality blocking suggests that there may be more opportunities for the specific treatment of reading and other learning deficiencies than have been suspected.

Cohn, Marvin L., "Structured Comprehension," *The Reading Teacher* (February, 1969), 22:440-444+.

Structured comprehension is a technique developed for working with problems in literal meaning and comprehension. Clearly, structured comprehension is not to be applied as a panacea for all who have reading problems. It is designed primarily for use with those who have adequate word analysis skills (but may not necessarily use them), and for those who are so passive in their reading as to have difficulty with grasping appropriate literal meaning.

Cramer, Donald L., "The Influence of Phonic Instruction on Spelling Achievement," *The Reading Teacher* (March, 1969), 22:499-503.

The relative contribution of instruction in phonics to aid spelling achievement is uncertain. The following conclusions appear to be warranted in light of research cited: (1) Clear-cut definitions of what is meant by phonic knowledge and phonic training have not been made. (2) There is little agreement about what constitutes an appropriate phonics program to aid spelling performance. (3) Some type and amount of phonic knowledge and training may be of substantial benefit to spelling achievement. (4) There appears to be a close relationship between general phonic knowledge and spelling ability especially at lower grade levels. (5) Auditory and visual discrimination abilities are significantly related to spelling ability. (6) Auditory and visual discrimination training may foster spelling growth. (7) The type of language program in which children have participated appears to be an important determinant of spelling success. (8) There is a need for carefully designed research to determine the effectiveness of various types and varying amounts of phonic instruction in fostering spelling achievement.

Dauzat, Sam V., "Good Gosh! My Child has Dyslexia," *The Reading Teacher* (April, 1969), 22:630-633.

Dyslexia is a term, which in its generic use, refers to a reading disability. The term is so general that it might be applied to twenty to forty percent of the school population and therefore tells parents very little about the child's condition. An entire lifetime could be spent in isolating causes of dyslexia and there would still be need for further study. In view of only those causes which have been mentioned in the article the author asks, "How can dyslexia be accurately defined?

Davis, John E., "The Ability of Intermediate Grade Pupils to Distinguish Between Fact and Opinion," *The Reading Teacher* (February, 1969), 22:419-422.

The purpose of this study was to ascertain the ability of fourth, fifth and sixth grade pupils to distinguish between statements of fact and statements of opinion. On the basis of the findings of this study it was concluded that there is an obvious need for improvement in distinguishing between fact and opinion. Pupils in order to learn these skills need much encouragement and opportunity for the application of these skills. Above all pupils need time to think.

Deutsch, Cynthia P., "Socio-cultural Influences and Learning Channels," *Perception and Reading*, Helen K. Smith, editor, Proceedings of Twelfth Annual Convention of International Reading Association, Part IV, 1968, 12:83-86.

The topic of this paper is really more in nature of a hypothesis than an area of fact and interpretation. The hypothesis is that environmental circumstances are influential in the process of acquiring knowledge. This statement means that not only what one learns but also how it is learned are influenced by the social and cultural conditions under which he lives. Evidence has accumulated to show that whatever portion of perceptual function may be innate, substantial portions are learned or at least are modified by experience. The kinds of experiences which influence specific aspects of perception and the way in which they are influential should be considered.

Evans, James R., "Auditory and Auditory-Visual Integration Skills as They Relate to Reading," *The Reading Teacher* (April, 1969), 22:625-629.

The purpose of this article was to discuss some of the past thinking and recent research on the topics of auditory acuity, auditory discrimination and auditory-visual integration as they relate to reading. Impaired auditory acuity especially for higher pitched sounds appears to be somewhat associated with retardation in reading. However, the incidence of hearing loss does not seem great enough to consider it a factor in most reading disability cases. Difficulties in auditory discrimination especially in development of a sight vocabulary have been shown to be at least slightly associated with reading disability on a much wider

scale. Recently skills in auditory-visual sensory integration have been demonstrated by several investigators to be at least moderately correlated with reading achievement.

Gilliland, Hap, *Evaluation and Teaching of Word Analysis Skills*, published by Reading Clinic, Eastern Montana College, Billings Montana, 1969.

This bulletin was intended as an aid to the teacher both in evaluating and in teaching the specific skills in word analysis needed by each student. In elementary school classes after certain skills have been taught, it is important that the teacher check the children's knowledge of these skills and their ability to use them in identifying new words in reading. Those skills not used easily by pupils should be reviewed or retaught. The initial material can be used for instruction and also for re-evaluation at a later date. In the remedial reading program the teacher must first evaluate to determine in which areas the student needs help. After instruction in these skills, re-evaluation is necessary. The material can be used for both teaching and evaluating.

Gilliland, Hap, *The Establishment and Operation of A Remedial Reading Program*, published by Reading Clinic, Eastern Montana College, Billings, Montana, 1968.

The purpose of this publication was not to describe in detail methods of teaching remedial reading. Only a few general principles which should be understood by all members of the school staff are listed. Included are the following topics: The remedial reading teacher, the remedial pupils, diagnoses and evaluation, grouping, administration of program, parent relationships, teacher aids, materials, and methods. A good appendix of publishers of tests is also included.

Goodman, Kenneth S., "Dialect Barriers to Reading Comprehension," *Developing Comprehension Including Critical Reading* compiled by Mildred A. Dawson, reprinted from publications of International Reading Association, Newark, Delaware, 1968 pp. 109-111.

The hypothesis of this paper is: The more divergence there is between the dialect of the learner and the dialect of learning the more difficult will be the task of learning to read. With these dialect-based difficulties in mind the author suggests the best approach to teaching divergent speakers to read. (1) Literacy

should be built on the child's existing language. (2) The child's pride in his mother tongue and his confidence in using it to express his ideas and to communicate should be strengthened as a firm basis for learning. (3) No attempt should be made to teach the child to speak a preferred or standard dialect while he is learning to read.

Halle, Morris, "Some Thoughts on Spelling," *Psycholinguistics and the Teaching of Reading*, Kenneth S. Goodman and James T. Fleming, editors, Selected papers from I.T.A. Pre-Convention April, 1968, pp. 17-24.

The question of concern in this paper is what are the formal properties of an optimal writing system for a given language? It was assumed that the optimal orthography of a language is the one that is most readily learned and once learned is utilized with the fewest errors by normal subjects.

Hardman, Helen W., "Exploration with a Simplified Phonemic Alphabet," *The Reading Teacher* (March, 1969), 22:541-549.

A desire to use the child's natural language and yet use the alphabetic principle or code emphasis in approaching writing and reading led to the development of this alphabet. The specific purposes were: (1) To give the children a tool for early written expression to aid personal growth and to reinforce reading and phonic instruction. (2) To free the teacher from vocabulary limitations in the use of experience stories. (3) To allow the use of short poems and prose bits as early reading materials. (4) To allow the immediate inclusion of the vowel phonemes in the aural-visual phonics program. (5) To provide for each phoneme a single symbol to which the multiple spelling patterns encountered could be related.

Holmes, Jack A., "Visual Hazards in the Early Teaching of Reading," *Perception and Reading*, Helen K. Smith, Editor, Proceedings of Twelfth Annual Convention, 1968, I.R.A., Newark, Delaware, pp. 53-62.

The specific question with which this paper is concerned is: In teaching the child to read before the age of six, does one increase the risk of damaging his eyes, perhaps for life? The review of the literature searched for the answers to the questions when should children be taught to read. The age was established to be younger than the age of six. Whether the

updating was desirable was discussed. Having established an assumed basal age at which reading can be taught, several questions arose: (1) What is the most economic age to teach children to read? (2) What is the most natural age in terms of their personal interests and needs? (3) Could other subjects be taught more profitably at preschool age? (4) Will teaching children to read before the age of six contribute to an advance in the rate at which so-called school myopia takes place; that is, when one submits young and immature eyes to the strain of the close work involved in reading from the age of two to five, what risk is run of permanently damaging eyes? Researchers in this area are duty bound to collect comprehensive optometric data as one of the important facets of their studies and have each child pass the modified clinical test before he begins to read. There is little experimental evidence dealing with changes in children's eyes between the ages of two and five years with or without the imposition of the task of learning to read.

Howards, Melvin, "An Interpretation of Dyslexia—An Educators Viewpoint," *Reading Disability and Perception*, George D. Spache, editor, Proceedings of the Thirteenth Annual Convention, International Reading Association, (Part 3) 13:8-15.

Dyslexia is a syndrome of communication problems, mainly receptive. Estimates of the incidence of dyslexia or strephosymbolia by practitioners in this "new" art of reading diagnosis and correction have increased from 2 percent of the population three or four years ago to some estimates today of 20 to 30 percent. The diagnosis, labeling and resultant behavior of parents, teachers or friends in response to the new label produce altered behavior on the part of the person so labeled or diagnosed. In other words, people have a tendency to behave in accord with the perceptions others have of them. The author reported three basic areas which should be investigated: (1) Who does the diagnosing? (2) What is neurological damage as related to dyslexia, or specific learning disability? (3) What is the corrective program?

Johnson, Marjorie Seddon and Roy A. Kress, "Readers and Reading," *The Reading Teacher* (April, 1969), 22:594 and 608.

Two oft neglected common-sense ideas in the field of reading are: (1) a reader is one who reads, (2) one learns to read by reading. Each individually and the two in combination have

profound implications for reading instruction and in fact for the total school curriculum, and home life. Unavailability of time and relegation of reading to the bottom of the barrel are compounded by inaccessibility of material. These and many other factors combine to discourage reading. High scores on achievement tests do not give evidence that an individual is a good reader—the fact that he reads and does it well gives the evidence. Learning about reading or learning how to read may not be either learning to read or the path to becoming a reader.

McClurg, William H., "The Neurophysiological Bases of Reading Disabilities," *The Reading Teacher* (April, 1969), 22:615-621.

From research, clinical studies, observations, and more precise diagnosis the bases of potential and real reading disabilities appear to stem from intersensory malfunctioning, or developmental lags within the neurophysiological fields. Psychological, sociological, and educational factors play variable roles as secondary causes of reading retardation. Symptoms of reading problems appear early in some children while in others the weaknesses may go undetected until they have trouble in symbolization and abstraction. Leaving the child on his "own" until he outgrows his difficulty is wishful thinking. Schools will come closer to reaching their educational goals when they provide for diagnosis, preventive, corrective, and remedial services.

Miller, Wilma H., "Home Prereading Experiences and First Grade Reading Achievement," *The Reading Teacher* (April, 1969), 22: 641-643.

In this investigation there were some prereading experiences that the lower-lower class children had had little opportunity to participate in. They were especially lacking in the opportunities to take family trips and did less well than did middle class or upper-lower class children in many of the items related to visual and auditory discrimination. Home prereading experiences were found to be related to children's reading readiness but not to first grade reading achievement, possibly because of the influence of teacher personality and skill. The results of the statistical analyses for significant difference in home prereading experiences indicated that middle class children had participated in the greatest variety of activities and lower-lower class children in the least variety. This seemed to indicate that middle class children might be the best prepared for beginning reading.

O'Connor, William J., "The Relationship Between the Bender Gestalt Test and the Marianne Frostig Developmental Test of Visual Perception," *Reading Disability and Perception*, George D. Spache, editor, Proceedings of the Thirteenth Annual Convention, International Reading Association, Newark, Delaware, 1969, (part 3) 13:72-81.

In order that the child harvest his intellectual and educational potential he must successfully develop four basic psychological functions or abilities: (1) sensory-motor, (2) language, (3) perception and (4) higher cognitive processes. These four abilities are thought to unfold in a definite sequential order with each interdependent upon the other. The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between two clinical instruments, the Bender Gestalt Test using Koppitz developmental scoring system and the Marianne Frostig Developmental Test of Visual Perception. Both tests are standardized and both attempt to measure perceptual functions. Findings indicate that there is a positive relationship between the scores on the Bender Gestalt and the Frostig. Both the Bender Gestalt and Frostig tests were related to the Harrison Readiness Test. This suggests the possibility of using the Bender Gestalt in the classroom as a "rough" screening for perceptual readiness. Children who perform poorly on the Bender could then be given a Frostig test. It is not suggested that the Bender replace the Frostig or Readiness tests, rather it is suggested that they might make good companions.

Oliver, Marvin E., "Looking at Word Pictures," *The Reading Teacher* (February, 1969), 22:426-429.

Good literature paints word-pictures. The imaginative story or poem leads the reader into a world of mental images described by the writer. Reading is a process by which the communication is made from writer to reader. The writer paints a word picture. The reader logically must interpret the word picture in order to receive the writer's intended communication.

Potter, Rachael, "The Art of Questioning in the Literature Lesson," *The Reading Teacher* (February, 1969), 22:423-425.

Questioning in the literature lesson should not be used merely to find out if the students know and understand what they have been reading. Together with exercises and discussions they form the means by which students are led to

appreciate literature. The author illustrates a way to teach poetry in order to develop sensitivity to feelings expressed. Can the same idea be extended to the study of all literature?

Ramsey, Wallace, "A Pilot Study on the Use of Videotaping in Reading Remediation," *Journal of Reading* (March, 1969), 12: 479-482.

This pilot study explored two possible uses of videotaping in remedial reading: feedbacks on teaching strategies and evaluation by the students of their performance. The findings support these conclusions: (1) Children become quite accustomed to being videotaped and eventually perform about as they would if videotaping were not being done. (2) The value of videotaping of children in remedial reading and subsequent viewing of the tapes with their teacher is not very marked in terms of influence on their short-term aims in reading achievement. (3) Remedial reading teachers seem to be able to profit to an appreciable extent from viewing videotapes of remedial reading sessions they have conducted. The influence of the viewing of the tapes on their subsequent teaching behavior is substantial. (4) Videotaping equipment of the type used in the study presents technical problems that prevent making tapes of excellent quality that can be easily utilized in situations other than the clinical situations. (5) Videotaping of remedial reading sessions with other equipment could result in the assembling of a library of tapes for training either undergraduate or graduate students for clinical reading instruction.

Riendeau, Betty, "Since Children Are Creative—Involve Them in Reading," *The Reading Teacher* (February, 1969), 22:408-413.

A creative child according to the author is one who accepts himself and learns social responsibility in that order. Since he is naturally curious, he examines his environment—he sees, hears, feels, smells, and tastes. He organizes his thoughts and communicates his ideas through speech, through painting and coloring to name but a few of his tools for self expression. He is any child in any classroom who is involved in his education.

Robertson, Jean E., "Kindergarten Perception Training: Its Effect on First Grade Reading," *Perception and Reading*, Helen K. Smith, editor, Proceedings of Twelfth Annual Convention, International Reading Association, Newark, Delaware, (part 4) 1968, 12:93-99.

It is assumed in this paper that selected activities in perceptual training could have a beneficial effect on first grade reading and that some children are ready for direction. The activities could be classified with Sheldon's phrase "pre-book learning and oral language development;" but nevertheless they are activities which attempt to accelerate the development of skills associated directly with known perception problems of first grade reading programs. The remarks in the paper are confined to some of the aspects of auditory perception and to the impact of oral language development on perceptual development.

Rubin, Joseph B., "The Stage is Set—Language Experience Begins!" *The Reading Teacher* (February, 1969), 22:414-418+.

The author describes his preparation for language experience approach to reading. Youngsters learn self direction skills. The teacher assumes a new position where an emphasis is placed upon a transferring of the learning responsibility from the teacher to the child. The aim is to raise what education is aiming to do for the child to the level of consciousness within the child himself.

Schubert, Delwyn G., "Diagnosis in Severe Reading Disability," *Heading Disability and Perception*, George D. Spache, editor, (Part 3), 13:29-37.

In spite of many suppositions, theories and investigations, the relationship between neurological impairment or brain damage and severe reading disability remains undetermined. A number of leading authorities in reading believe that neurological impairment is seldom if ever a cause of reading disability. The contention that neurological impairment is a major cause of reading problems is without support at the present time.

Sheldon, William D., Franga Stinson and James D. Peebles, "Comparison of Three Methods of Reading: A Continuation Study in the Third Grade," *The Reading Teacher* (March, 1969), 22: 530-546.

This study confirms the findings of the research of the first and second grade studies that not one of the three approaches to reading instruction—the basal reader method, linguistic instruction or the modified linguistic, is entirely successful in teaching all children to read. Secondly, it is apparent that survey tests are useful for identifying potential reading failures at the

beginning of grade one. Confirming the findings of two previous studies, it appears that the responsibility for effective instruction rests with the teacher.

Smith, Nila Banton, "The Good Readers Think Critically," *Developing Comprehension Including Critical Reading*, compiled by Mildred A. Dawson, reprinted from publications of International Reading Association, Newark, Delaware, pp. 6-15.

This article has two objectives. First, to stimulate fresh thinking about the old topic of comprehension and second, to delineate the true fundamentals of meaningful reading, namely concepts, linguistic ability and the use of the thinking process.

Smith, Richard J., "Questions for Teachers—Creative Reading," *The Reading Teacher* (February, 1969), 22:430-434.

The purpose of the programs described was not to teach the viewers a new concept, but rather to stimulate thinking about a dimension of reading that observation suggests is being neglected in the classroom. An analysis of the content of the program and teachers' responses resulted in the construction of questions designed to provide teachers with criteria to determine the status of creative reading in their classrooms. It was posited that creative reading was neglected in most classrooms, although the teachers felt that this was not case.

Stauffer, Russell G., "Certain Psychological Aspects of Children's Learning to Read," *The Reading Teacher* (April, 1969), 22:634-640.

Language is a means of communication ordinarily thought of as being directed from person to person. Since the function of language is to communicate, teaching must be based on the functional use of language—to communicate. Linguists state that by the time children have acquired functional speaking vocabularies of 2,500 or more they have also expert phonological skill. Piaget said, "Learning is possible only when there is active assimilation." It is essential then with all of this linguistic and cognitive wealth in mind, with all of these psychological facts quite clearly established to weigh carefully reading instruction practices especially beginning reading. If this is done, one can understand readily why the so-called language experience approach is the most comprehensive and effective.

Stauffer, Russell G., "Teaching Critical Reading at the Primary Level," *Reading Aids Series*, Marjorie Seddon Johnson, editor, An International Reading Association Service Bulletin, Newark, Delaware, 1968, p. 55.

This publication describes in theory and in practice the fundamental premises on which critical reading rests. Each child must be taught how to use his intellectual faculties for sizing up information and reaching acceptable and workable conclusions. As described, this process can be taught by using well structured fiction that is planned to hold the reader's attention as well as provide plot development data and a timely climax outcome or conclusion.

Wakefield, Mary W. and N. J. Silvaroli, "A Study of Oral Language Patterns of Low Socioeconomics Groups," *The Reading Teacher* (April, 1969), 22:622-624+.

A study was conducted to determine whether there is a significant difference in speech patterns as measured by the Indiana Conference Scheme of 1959 among low socioeconomic Negroes, Spanish surname and anglo children entering first grade. The study attempted to gain insight into whether a difference, if it exists, is influenced more by ethnic or economic background of the children in these subgroups. It was found that the economic background seems a stronger influence on language than the ethnic background. The results of this study suggest that rather than concentrate on unique materials for these ethnic groups the school could focus on their general adjustment to the school environment.

Wardhaugh, Ronald, "The Teaching of Phonics and Comprehension: A Linguistic Evaluation," *Psycholinguistics and the Teaching of Reading*, Kenneth S. Goodman and James T. Fleming, editors, Selected Papers from International Reading Association, Pre Convention Institute, Boston, 1968, pp. 79-90.

The writer has been critical of two of the basic areas of reading instruction, the teaching of phonics and the teaching of comprehension. Phonics is not rejected but phonics without a linguistic basis is rejected. Neither is reading for meaning rejected—only the teaching of children to read for meaning when the teacher herself does not know how sentences achieve meaning. Again linguistics has something to say about sentence

meaning. Five principles for developing good materials and methods for teaching reading are: (1) They must be based on sound linguistic content; that is, on the best available description of language. (2) They must be based on a sound knowledge of the relationships and differences between sounds and symbols and between speech and writing. (3) They must be based on a thorough understanding of just what children know about their language as this knowledge reveals itself in what they can do in their language rather than in what they can verbalize about their language. (4) They must differentiate between the descriptive and the prescriptive particularly when the prescriptions are unrealistic. (5) They must recognize the important active contribution the learner makes in reading, both in trying to make sense out of the orthographic conventions of English and in trying to make sense out of sentences.

Zwerg, Richard L., "Perception Training Through the Reading Medium," *Reading Disability and Perception*, George D. Spache, editor, Proceedings of the Thirteenth Annual Convention, International Reading Association, (part 3) 1968, 13:127-133.

The real key to the success of this program was its motivation and the structuring the class set up, plus the freedom of the students and teacher to react within it. Systematic functioning permitted the teacher to devote more of her time and energies towards the individualized teaching and motivation of students. Reportedly it has produced significant results with an overwhelming percentage of students with severe perceptual involvement.