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*Reading*

# HORIZONS



Spring 1970



# *Reading* **HORIZONS**

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## *Editorial Comment*

### WHY TEST?

In accordance with an act of the Michigan State Legislature, tests designed to measure achievement in the areas of vocabulary, reading, English expression, and mathematics are being administered to children in grades four and seven throughout the state. The tests are given on two consecutive days, and an investigation of social and economic factors of students participating is being made. The purpose underlying the study of the performance of children in grades four and seven has apparently not been made clear to school administrators, teachers, and parents.

Well constructed tests are objective, reliable, and valid. They must be administered, scored, and resulting data interpreted by individuals with a background in psychometrics. In this evaluation physical, psychological, and sociological factors must be considered. Scores mean nothing aside from the conditions under which they were obtained. For example, one does not effectively predict the possible speed of an automobile by pointing out that when observed it was traveling 15 miles per hour. Neither should one evaluate the reading performance of children on the basis of insufficient and unreliable data.

Tests are instruments which are employed to accomplish a purpose. Objective data can be helpful to psychologists, educators, sociologists, and specialists in the life sciences. Reading teachers, therapists, and clinicians will be interested in studying and interpreting data resulting from tests administered to such a wide sampling. Inferences can be helpful to school administrators, parents, teachers, and students. Militant critics, however, and those individuals who wish to discredit our educational system at all levels may have an opportunity to do so. They will probably accentuate the negative, eliminate the positive, and find what they want to find.

Homer L. J. Carter  
Editor





# BUT HOW DOES IT SOUND?

*Louis Foley*

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In preparing for an eventual business or professional career, there is one basically important area which appears to be largely overlooked. Educators everywhere are perennially concerned with methods or devices for improving the teaching of reading, which is generally accepted as the most useful of all "tools" for continued learning. Prominent people in business and industry emphasize the importance of "communication," which is usually understood to be in the form of writing. Little attention seems to be given, however, to the elemental skill without which reading and writing must rest on a weak foundation: the ability to *speak* well. Schools and colleges do give courses in public speaking, and many students have found these very profitable, but they have the disadvantage of beginning at the wrong end. The basic matter is one's *private* speaking, the quality of his ordinary conversation in everyday affairs. There is where occurs the formation that makes the difference. And it is not to be had by "taking a course."

To anyone who is at all observant or sensitive to implications, a speaker may unconsciously communicate a good deal besides his intended "message." Obviously there is the matter of vocabulary. The mere fact that he unhesitatingly employs a certain word or turn of phrase may reveal much about his background of knowledge and experience. His natural choice of terms may indicate an attitude or a prejudice. The structure of his sentences will show how well he sees an idea as a whole, whether he thinks straight through a statement or whether his thoughts are put together on slipshod patterns. These are elements of the real *content* of what he has to say. Inseparable from that in the total effect, however, is how he actually says it—the way his words sound as he utters them.

No doubt all of us are affected by certain voices which we find more or less pleasant than others, perhaps because of some seeming resemblance to ones that were familiar to us in our childhood. For better or for worse, the peculiar *timbre* of a person's voice is something beyond his power to change. It is amazing how we instantly recognize—over the telephone, for instance—voices that we may not have heard for years. Nevertheless *any* voice, whatever its particular quality, can be made easier to listen to, and much more pleasant in its effect, when one simply pronounces his words correctly and distinctly. This has to be done easily, as a matter of course, without strain, not distracting attention by "making a production of it."

Too often people's efforts to improve their speech have missed the point entirely. It is *not* a matter of picking out certain words and saying them in an affected manner copied from an unfamiliar dialect, or from the snobbish distortions of people who are trying to "show off." This mistaken notion was thoroughly exemplified by teachers of "Speech," after World War I, when there was a considerable vogue of aping British ways. They drilled students in the telescoping or jamming-up of a certain number of words which in this country have been less corrupted in their spoken form. So in the midst of sentences otherwise in natural American accent, *circumstances* would become "circumstnces," *secretary* would be "secretry," and so on. It would have been wiser to work on words which English people enunciate *more* distinctly than Americans are likely to do—*La-tin* not "Latn," or *Mar-tin* not "Martn"—or the ability to say quickly and yet completely such phrases as "What are you doing?" or "Where are you going?" not "Whatch do-un?" or "Wheh go-un?"

Any person of ordinary intelligence who truly desires to make his speech more pleasing and effective can achieve vast improvement by applying a few simple principles. Of course it is a discipline which has to be strictly maintained until habits are so well established that they require no conscious effort. It has to become part of one's way of life. Everyone has constant opportunity for practice, which can be done silently in one's mind as well as audibly, or with the aid of a tape-recorder, though such equipment is only a convenience not a necessity. It is important, however, to exercise oneself especially in complete sentences as well as with individual words. In the first place it is necessary to see very clearly just "what the thing is all about."

What makes the difference between clean-cut and sloppy pronunciation is the treatment of *syllables*, which are the real units of speech, not "words" as such. Now unfortunately, as it may appear, English is naturally spoken in a way which seems very peculiar from the point of view of other languages, and which lays it open to easy corruption as other languages are not. We put a strong stress on accented syllables, and allow the unaccented ones to subside into a blur. This, incidentally, is the principal reason why people make so many mistakes in spelling. Whatever so-called "vowel" we write in an unaccented syllable, it tends to bog down to "uh," and in the most careless speech it easily disappears entirely. *Grammar* is pronounced simply "gramr," and only in a longer form where the accent shifts, *gram-matical* or *grammarian*, do we see why there is an *a* in the second syllable; likewise in these the *first* *a* subsides into "uh." In extreme contrast

is the utterance of French, in which all syllables are equally distinct, are pronounced separately, and whenever possible begin with a *consonant*, whereas in English *Ca-na-da* becomes "CANuhduh," or *Ma-da-ga-scar* becomes "MADuhGASKur." Needless to say, the rather hectic, galloping manner of English speech which sets it apart from other tongues is not going to be changed. What we can do, however, is to keep from exaggerating it.

The limit in mistreating syllables is leaving them out altogether, and this is precisely what causes many of the crudities of speech that we hear every day. It distorts *real* into "reel," *family* into "famy," *accidentally* into "axdently," *usually* into "uzhly," *power* into "par," *parents* into "pairnts," *water* into "wahr," *winter* into "winr," or *government* into "guhmnt."

What we call "words" are often rather artificial divisions of thought. Generally we think and speak in phrases, clauses, or whole sentences. It is in these natural groupings that the neglect of syllables really shows up. Instead of *out to* (or *at*) *the lake*, the careless speaker says "out thlake"; for *look at the book*, "look tuh book"; for *put it in the car*, "put-t-nuh car"; for *listen to her*, "lissn toor." Possibly the commonest example is the wearisome corruption of *going to* into "gonnuh." Complete elimination of the last-named blemish might be a good starting-point for anyone who realizes that his speech is not what it should be, and who "means business" about making it less offensive even to only slightly sensitive ears.

One item which deserves special attention is the vowel *u*, in places where it is correctly pronounced like the pronoun "you." In many words, of course, even the worst speakers take care of it well enough, as in *use*, *abuse*, *excuse*, *cure*, *cube*, or *human*. Yet in a considerable number it comes in for negligent treatment. Even before dignified audiences, we sometimes hear lecturers not *introduced* but "inter-dooed." *Reduce*, *illusion*, and *institution* often degenerate similarly. Anything from "literatoor" to "lit-t-chr" passes frequently for *literature*. But where this vowel *u* suffers worst is in unaccented syllables. There it almost disappears entirely, so far as some people are concerned. *Regular* will be corrupted to "reglr," *particular* will slump into "pticl," *accurate* will bog down into "acrut," *perpendicular* will slip into "perpndiclr," *temperature* becomes "tempechr," *manufacture* will be jumbled into "manuhfakshr."

Originally the combination *ew* represented quite logically the sound of *e* as in *get* plus the sound of *w*. For centuries, however, it has been equivalent to *u*, as in *few*. As a rule no one thinks of pronouncing it

otherwise. *Hew* is not confused with *who*, or *mew* with *moo*—any more than people confuse the cat and the cow whose respective calls are so named. Yet *new* and *knew* get warped into “noo.” If nobody confuses *use* with *ooze*, *mute* with *moot*, or *pure* with *poor*, then surely there is no need to make *due* or *dew* sound like “do.”

If a person allows himself to hurdle syllables *at all*, the thing soon becomes a habit which shows in every mouthful of words that he utters. It makes a profound difference in the *rhythm* of one's speech. Instead of the pleasing cadence of well-spoken English, there is a harsh jolting effect. The whole tone will become less agreeable. A different “atmosphere” is created.

On the positive side, anyone who will take the trouble to cultivate clean-cut pronunciation will accomplish a great improvement in the effect of what he has to say. His hearers may not realize just what it is that makes his speech better, but they will find him easier to listen to. In any kind of business situation, surely this is a very practical matter. You can hold people's attention if they *like* to hear you talk.

A person who has well-established habits of clean-cut enunciation in his ordinary, everyday speech has the best kind of basic preparation for occasions when he is called upon to speak in public. The first obligation of anyone addressing an audience is to make himself *heard* . . . easily, without any special effort on the part of his listeners. This does not call for shouting. Distinctness of utterance counts for far more to make easy listening than having a “strong” voice or merely increasing the volume, which tends to make the words *less* distinct. This is true because of a peculiarity in the ways of our language. Whereas in French, for instance, emphasis is given by stressing consonants so that the emphatic word is more sharply defined than usual, in English the stress goes on the accented vowel and the consonants are dimmed. Notice how a person says “*damn*” when he is really angry; all the force goes onto a dragged-out “a.” If someone is yelling across a field at the top of his lungs, it will sound the same whether he says “bat,” “cat,” “rat,” “fat,” or “sat.” The people who speak the most loudly are not necessarily by any means the easiest to understand.

There is something to be said for the moral aspect of good speech. Making one's words crystal clear is a way of showing consideration for those who are expected to listen. It is a means always at our command, day after day, to contribute toward making this world a pleasanter place in which to live.

# THE READING THERAPIST AND PARENT CONFERENCE

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Parent conferences are vital and can play a decisive role in the success of the remedial reading program. As the reading therapist confers with parents he has the opportunity to explain the nature of the corrective program and also the particular remediation being provided for their child. This encourages the parents to an understanding of both the program and the child's reading problem. The therapist also gains a better concept of the whole child, the emotional atmosphere of the family, and the total home environment as it relates to the child's reading problem. Ultimately and of greatest importance are the advantages to the child which evolve from the conference between the reading specialist and his parents.

The conference is of utmost importance to the parents of children who have reading disabilities, for these mothers and fathers need to be informed so that they might better understand their children's problems. The initial conference may serve as a means of explaining the corrective reading program to the parents and the reason for selecting their child for remediation. Every effort should be made to establish friendly relations with the parents so that the remedial work being carried on with the child will be given positive reinforcement in the home. The reading teacher should strive to end the first conference with the way left open for continued cooperative communication.

Subsequent conferences may serve to inform the parents about their child's progress or lack of progress and the vital role which they play in contributing to his success in reading. The goals of the parent conference begin to be realized as the reading specialist is able "to help the parent and to get help from the parent in a mutual effort to understand the child and the conditions that are preventing him from reaching his potential reading ability."<sup>1</sup> As the parents begin to sense a genuine interest and respect on the part of the reading specialist they will feel they can meet on common ground with him and honestly discuss their child's problem.

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1. Strang, Ruth. *Diagnostic Teaching of Reading*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1964. p. 237.

At the time of the second conference those conditions which are adversely affecting the child's growth in reading should be brought tactfully to the parents' attention while the therapist is in direct contact with them. The reading teacher can no longer accentuate only the positive factors operating in the home but must bring clear understanding to the characteristics of the home that are not good for the child, providing good rapport has been established.

In conferring with the parents the therapist must be truthful and honest, "but at the same time be courteous, understanding, and empathetic."<sup>2</sup> At all times the reading specialist must maintain a sensitivity to the way parents are thinking and feeling. He must be cautious in his approach and avoid technical terms unless he explains them clearly. Neither should he talk down to the parents, but explain in everyday language the information he has to offer about their child. He must be careful not to condemn, blame, or expect the parents to do all of the adjusting. The therapist must be humble. He must be real. He must be matter-of-fact. The conference has real value for the parents when they can come away with a good understanding of how the reading specialist is attempting to help their child; and are able to perceive their vital role in helping to alleviate his reading problem.

The conference offers a valuable opportunity for the therapist to learn about the child in his total environment. It is important for him to know about the child's home and neighborhood and to understand conditions which may be preventing him from achieving in reading. The therapist can also become aware of positive conditions which exist and give special emphasis to them in providing reading therapy for this student.

The reading conference provides the opportunity whereby the reading specialist may both offer and obtain information about the child as well as learning pertinent information which may come up incidentally. To initiate the conference he may wish to inform parents about the reading program and how it will benefit their child. He could show the parents some of the materials and briefly acquaint them with some of the techniques and methods he uses to make reading meaningful and enjoyable to their child. At this time an example of the child's work could be shown and an explanation as to what was being emphasized in his therapy sessions.

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2. Heffernan, Helen and Vivian E. Todd. *Elementary Teacher's Guide To Working With Parents*. West Nyack, N. Y.: Parker Publishing Company, Inc., 1967. p. 107.

At this point in the conference the parents will usually begin to offer information about their child and this opens the way for the therapist to ask some questions. It is important to the reading teacher to know whether or not the child has responsibilities in the home, the kind of discipline he receives and how he reacts to it, the amount of rest he gets each night, what he does for fun at home, his friends in the neighborhood, and what he has to say about his reading class at home. Most parents will be honest in answering these questions if proper rapport has been established with them.

During the course of the conference the therapist may learn about the general feeling of the family, what they expect of the child, his place in the family, their aspirations for him or their lack of concern. The reading teacher will become aware of modifications to be made in his therapy sessions and may also suggest changes to be made in the home as the parents strive to help with their child's reading problems. In addition, the teacher will have the opportunity to counsel and help this student make adjustments to those circumstances which cannot be changed. As the reading teacher learns to know the child in both his home and school situations he can plan more effective ways in which to work with the child.

One of the greatest values growing out of the parent-therapist conference is to the child. He gains a greater feeling of security in knowing that his parents and teacher are so very interested in him. He realizes that this reading class is planned exclusively for him and becomes aware of his reading disability in a more positive way. The conference helps to build a clearer understanding between the child and his parents. It seems to break down a barrier concerning his problem so that they are able to work together in a compatible way.

An example of parent involvement in a child's reading problem is that of Mrs. Blank who explained to the therapist that she had been attempting to help her eight-year-old son with reading at home. She spent one hour each evening with him and would instruct him to stop and sound every word he missed. She had him do this repeatedly until she felt he had memorized it. After reading a selection she proceeded to quiz him for comprehension and was discouraged to learn that his understanding of the story was practically nil. Each of their evening sessions terminated with both the mother and child being very frustrated. The therapist commended the mother for her interest in helping her son and recommended several less difficult books that she might use at home. She also explained kindly to the mother that it would be better to work with her son only fifteen minutes each eve-



ning in order that it remain a pleasant experience. The therapist explained how important it was to keep a reading experience meaningful and enjoyable so that her son could experience success which would lead to a desire to read more. It was pointed out that it would be better to supply unknown words so that more meaning could be obtained from the story. Later they could return to the unknown words and determine their meaning by the use of contextual clues, which was also explained to the mother. At a later conference the mother had much happier experiences to share and the therapist was prompt to commend her and inform her that her son had improved both his attitude and his performance in reading.

The reading therapist cannot successfully conduct a corrective reading program without the parent conference, for "the whole child comes to school and brings the influence of the home with him."<sup>3</sup> The conference is essential for both the therapist and parents as they share information and discuss the child in the home and the school situations. The parent conference is indispensable to effective and real remediation of the disabled reader.

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3. Ibid., p. 103.

# TRAINING DEVELOPMENTAL READING TEACHERS—A PROPOSAL

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Many “how to study” courses, courses for training developmental reading teachers and books on the subject are merely inspirational and moralistic when they should be more realistic or relevant (a word that is becoming an irrelevant word) to the real world of school. Study habits and skills teach students to jump through hoops, most of which should not be there at all. Or, in other words, hoops which tend to stifle attitudes and negate their original purposes, i.e., standardized tests. One encounters the frustrations of either trying to change the entire system or teaching students how to beat the system. A recent statement by one of my black graduate students that “all teachers should be trained for teaching in Urban Ghettoes” has significant meaning for reading teachers. The implication is that all teachers should be understanding and should know themselves as well as having various other human relations skills. If one can survive in the ghetto, he can survive anywhere. We ought to be providing the prospective developmental reading teacher with more than the traditional “how to teach reading” lecture course.

Walter Pauk’s, *How to Study in College* (4) and other similar materials outline an excellent how to study course. I suppose a traditional course in training developmental reading teachers would be concerned with the contents of such a book. Also such courses are organized around one of the many textbooks and workbooks in the area of developmental reading. Consider the contents of the majority of college developmental reading courses (5). I propose a new model for a developmental reading course for teachers.

It is my contention that the content of reading and studying may be best taught through the use of what I call a “crash course” in reading and studying. Such a “crash course” can be taught during the period of five one-hour sessions. In such a course I have found that I am able to teach an entire reading and study course to my students. In other words, I teach the entire curriculum, covering such things as the contents of *How to Study in College* (4) and the other areas of flexibility in reading, etc., in the period of five days. All of the gimmicks, handouts, etc., are presented to the students during the five-day crash course.

During the rest of the course in preparing developmental reading teachers, I feel that it is necessary, among other topics, to have discussions of the teaching act. Carl Rogers, in his recent book, *Freedom to Learn* (6) outlines many of the techniques and methodology which may be utilized. As a matter of fact, I would recommend using Rogers as the sole textbook. I recommend that the reader rush right out and buy Rogers' book now. This article is not complete without it. We reading teachers don't read enough anyway.

Some of the other components of such a course are as follows:

1. Invite some recent dropouts, upward bound students, or merely students who have been "turned off" by high school, to your class to discuss their experiences with your students in an honest straightforward manner. This experience sometimes awakens prospective and experienced teachers to conditions which might otherwise not be discussed in such a class.

2. Recent books concerned with the secondary and elementary schools today such as books by Leonard (3), Holt (1), Kozol (2) and others would be appropriate reading for students for the purpose of building a basis for discussions about the experiences that children have in our schools.

3. Rogers (6) has much to say about the free atmosphere that should prevail in such a course if developmental reading teachers are to be successful. The college professor should practice facilitating the course in such a manner that the students will be eager to emulate him when they return to their pupils.

4. Practical work with pupils is probably the most valuable component. When the crash course has been completed, urge the students to develop their own materials and *try them out* on some pupils. During the school year, classes are readily available and teachers usually welcome fresh ideas. During the summer months, it may be more difficult, but it can be done. One of my students ran an advertisement in the local paper and gathered together 20 fifth graders for a five-day course.

5. Class discussions can be facilitated easily by a close scrutiny of some of the revered theories and practices in the reading field. I feel that each student should develop a philosophy of reading based on study and discussion of the issues. This can be done only in an atmosphere of freedom as described by Rogers. The fear of the professor and grades can be overcome when we realize that no one has a monopoly on knowledge in the reading field. Some questions which might be raised to facilitate discussions are as follows:

1. Is it necessary to teach flexibility in reading, or are students generally flexible in their reading rate anyway?
2. Should students be allowed to read anything they choose, including “dirty books” or should teachers control the reading materials in a class?
3. Should we teach students short-cuts or hoop-jumping (such as text reading techniques, taking lecture notes and examsmanship) or should we attempt to change the system?
4. Are standardized tests worth the effort or are they so poor that we should rely on unobtrusive measures or diagnostic teaching?
5. What place do machines and gadgets have in a reading program?
6. Is it possible to assign a “reading level” to a book or are readability formulae a sham?
7. Can students attain higher grades by becoming speed readers?
8. How do we turn students on to reading?
9. How important is the personality of the teacher in a reading course?
10. What should be the content of a developmental reading course?—or, why read?

During any course, especially in education, where teaching is the major topic, course evaluations are the means for the professor to obtain feedback concerning the success of his endeavors. Two such evaluations are included here of a course including the above components. The first is from a forty-five-year-old teacher who had taught for twenty years. The second is from a beginning teacher.

#### **Older Teacher**

“My basic philosophy was not changed, but was enhanced and verified by the course. Because of the general approach of the instructor—fluid and free and pragmatic, I think I have become less anxious about experimenting, less rigid in regard to choice of reading matter and more accepting in general of human beings both in and beyond the reading situation.”

#### **Younger Teacher**

“As a result of the course, I did become familiar with the kinds of things one teaches in a developmental reading course. Although the more important discovery was Rogers’ *Freedom to Learn* and the

application of Rogers' techniques to the course. I appreciated particularly the inconspicuous position of the professor and the opportunity to work on a project of interest to me rather than wasting time memorizing a textbook for some inane objective exam, etc. We had the option to reject. *Freedom to Learn* has been and is probably the most significant event to occur to me since I began graduate work in education—much of which, unfortunately, was insufferably dull, rigid and routine. I do not think I will ever stand in front of a class without thinking of facilitation of learning and that students are people—they, too, would like to *be treated as people*, as I have felt I was treated in this course—with responsibility for my own learning.”

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# A LOOK AT LINGUISTIC READERS

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NEW HAVEN, CONNECTICUT, PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Linguistics, as it relates to reading, has generated much interest lately among educators. Although linguistics is not a new science, its recent focus has captured the interest of the reading specialist because both the specialist and the linguist are concerned with language.

This surge of interest in linguistics becomes evident when one sees that a total of forty-four articles on linguistics are listed in the Education Index for July, 1965 to June, 1966. The number of articles on linguistics written for educational journals has been increasing ever since.

This interest has been sharpened to some degree by the publication of Chall's book *Learning to Read: The Great Debate* (1). Her finding that the code-emphasis approach yields better results in beginning reading stages has bolstered the cause of linguists and many school systems have begun to use linguistic readers for reading instruction.

How can linguistics be related to the teaching of reading? Linguistics is the study of the structure of the English language and its study enables the pupil to discover how spoken language is set down in writing. The printed symbols (words) are viewed as a code and, according to the linguist, breaking the code involves analyzing the basic speech patterns of our language.

In a linguistic approach, most words presented in reading are phonemically regular and fit a particular pattern. The assumption is that once the underlying system is discovered, it is easier to break the code. Thus the pupil spends the initial learning period on the smallest letters and learns first how to combine consonants and vowels into almost infinite numbers of three and four letter words.

In order for children to perceive the phoneme-grapheme (sound-sight) relationship, the linguistic approach emphasizes the teaching of the letters of the alphabet as a beginning procedure. Since consonant sounds are not pronounced in isolation in normal English, the linguistic tool of presenting minimal pairs (words which differ only in one consonant or vowel) is used. Thus, a word such as *fat* can be easily contrasted with words such as *cat* and *sat*. Irregular words which do not follow a pattern are introduced as sight words.

Since the initial emphasis is on the decoding process, illustrations which usually accompany story text are often omitted in beginning

reading materials. Some linguists feel that illustrations are too distracting to the decoder. Once this process has been mastered, pictures are used and concentration is now placed on the improvement of understanding.

Some confusion has existed concerning the relationship of phonics to linguistics. Although both terms have been used interchangeably at times, the linguist is quick to point out the basic difference. According to the linguist, phonics instruction involves having youngsters learn rules in isolation which they cannot always apply when asked to figure out unknown words. This is avoided with the linguistics approach since the youngster, from his study of phonemically regular patterns, discovers underlying language structures in a systematic manner.

Then, too, the problem of phonic blending is also avoided since the decoder becomes aware of the sound represented by a letter as he analyzes the difference between two similar words. Letters are not sounded in isolation and then blended to make a word.

Basal readers, because they employ the look-say or whole word method, have been criticized by linguists. Their chief criticisms center around the fact that the whole word method emphasizes meaning immediately and often lacks the needed interrelationship between writing and speech. Linguistic reading materials have not, however, proven superior to the conventional basal reader. Sheldon and Lashinger (6) conducted a study with 465 first-grade children in 21 classes which evaluated the effects of a basal reader program, a modified linguistic approach, and a linguistic approach. Comparison of pre-and post-test scores revealed that no one of the three approaches was more effective in teaching beginning reading.

In recent years several book companies have published linguistic readers. Some of the popular series currently in use are: the Merrill Linguistic readers, (2) the Lippincott Basic readers, (3) the S.R.A. Linguistic readers, (4) the Miami Linguistic readers, (5) and the Harper & Row Linguistic readers (7). What are some of the similarities and differences between these readers and typical basal readers? A descriptive analysis of some of the salient features of each series is presented in Table I.

Analysis of Table I reveals that with the possible exception of the Lippincott Basic Reading Series (which more nearly resembles the typical basal reader), the skills development rationale has many similarities. The Merrill Linguistic readers use no illustrations to accompany story text whereas all the others do. The greatest weak-

TABLE I  
DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF FIVE LINGUISTIC READERS

Name of Series	Skills Development Rationale	Illustrations and Content	Materials Used	Evaluation
Basic Reading Series (Lippincott)	Introduces short vowel sounds, then selected initial consonant sounds (not involving clusters), then demonstrates how letters are brought together by presenting words in lists, and then in stories. Irregular words are introduced by sight method.	Attractive cartoon-like illustrations in color. Multi-ethnic content employing both realistic and fanciful stories.	1 Primer 6 Readers Accompanying workbooks Phonics Guide	Tests for skills mastery in teacher's manual.
Linguistic Readers (Merrill)	Emphasis on the perception of minimum contrasts in words which fit regular spelling patterns i.e. mat-fat, mat-met, etc. Words introduced in the first four readers belong to the first major set of spelling patterns: consonant-letter(s)-vowel-letter-consonant letter(s).	No illustrations. Content consists of short sections dealing in large proportion with animals.	My Alphabet Book Six readers and accompanying workbooks.	Informal testing techniques suggested.
Miami Linguistic Readers (D. C. Heath)	Presentation of sound-symbol correspondences introduced in spelling patterns rather than in terms of individual letter-sound correspondences. Language-oriented with a usage of natural speech patterns and attention to aural-oral control.	Black and white cartoon-like illustrations. Stories have varied themes. Many animal stories typifying problems in moralistic fashion. Content cross-cultural.	2 Big Books Readiness Book 15 Level Books 5 Plateau Levels Accompanying seatwork booklets.	Informal testing techniques suggested.
Basic Reading Series (S. R. A.)	Skills development follows consonant-vowel-consonant pattern representing one-to-one correspondence between a letter and a sound. Exceptional words introduced by sight method.	Multi-ethnic illustrations (not corresponding to text at beginning levels). Content varied.	Alphabet Book Alphabet Wall Chart Alphabet Flash Cards Word Pattern Charts Six Readers Accompanying Workbooks	Eight especially developed tests and a manual for their use included.
The Linguistic Readers (Harper & Row)	Vocabulary including letters which represent speech units in a patterned and consistent way are introduced in a controlled manner. Words including unpatterned speech units introduced by sight method.	Attractive multi-ethnic illustrations. Content varied and appealing.	Readiness Workbook 3 Primers 4 Readers Accompanying Workbooks	Informal testing techniques suggested.



ness in all the linguistic readers seems to be a lack of provision for evaluation of those reading skills which have been mastered by the pupil and those which have not. Other than informal techniques suggested in the teachers' manuals, a systematic program of evaluation (an extremely important part of any reading program) is not included.

Although not as extensive as those found in the different basal reading series, there are several special features contained in these linguistic reader programs as well as supplementary materials available for both teachers and pupils. The Lippincott series has a fairly extensive section dealing with suggestions for enrichment, a good bibliography for use of audio-visual aids as well as a list of collections of related stories and poems. The Miami Linguistic readers also contain in the teachers' manuals suggestions for enrichment and many suggestions for the development of language readiness skills inasmuch as these readers were originally developed to teach reading to bilingual children enrolled in the Dade County schools in Florida. The Harper & Row Linguistic Readers publish a supplementary device called "Word-Go-Round" which is a word wheel to teach word analysis skills through linguistic principles. The S.R.A. series is accompanied by the BRS Satellites which is a boxed set of supplementary reading selections.

#### **Concluding Remarks**

The biggest difference between the linguistic readers and the traditional basal reader series is in the area of skills development rationale. Whereas linguistic readers employ the use of minimum contrast and consistent patterns in developing a sense of regular sound-symbol relationships, initial vocabulary used in most basal reader systems is usually based on frequency of use rather than strictly syntactic and morphological considerations. These methodological considerations result in story content which is quite different. Here the reader will wonder if "The fat cat sat on the mat" is more appealing than "Oh, look. See baby run."

The teachers' manuals which accompany linguistic readers, for the most part, are not nearly as comprehensive as those which accompany most basic reader series. Fewer teaching suggestions are offered in the manuals of linguistic readers for enrichment and follow-up activities. Suggestions and ideas for developing comprehension skills are sketchy in the linguistic manuals, as are evaluative techniques for reading skills mastery.

Teachers and administrators must consider these factors when

selecting materials for reading instruction. Although the limited research which is now available does not substantiate the claim that the use of linguistic materials will yield the best results, the linguist offers some valuable information to the teachers of reading—specifically in the areas of phonology, dialectal influences and the acquisition of language.

We need to study how the existing instructional dichotomy in reading during the beginning stages can be modified. We also need to consider linguistics in its broad view and not to construe it as merely a decoding process. If greater stress is given to linguistic principles during the beginning stages of reading instruction, it might be feasible to retain some of the plausible techniques, supplementary materials and devices suggested in basal reading programs. An eclectic approach in the hands of an enthusiastic and linguistically-oriented teacher can prove invaluable in developing competent readers.

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# ECHOES FROM THE FIELD

*Joe R. Chapel and Ronald A. Crowell*

One of the most valid criticisms of traditional teacher training programs is the inability to place students in actual practice teaching situations at a time in their training when the experience would be most meaningful. Often the student takes a class in the methods of teaching reading in his sophomore or junior year and then does not make any application of this learning until the last part of his senior year when student teaching takes place. Even though many classes in education encourage visitation and observation, the experience is sporadic and incomplete.

The Teacher Education Department at Western Michigan University is experimenting with a new program aimed at eliminating this problem. It is the intention of the program to allow classes in methods and student teaching to occur simultaneously. The students in this program are juniors who are taking three classes: Teaching of Reading, Teaching of Social Studies, and Teaching and Learning. During the same semester these students are observing or teaching two full days per week. During the first part of the semester the students are observing and are developing background in methods of teaching. Within the semester they are given an opportunity to participate and finally to teach. Ample time is provided for them to discuss their teaching problems with their professors and school personnel. In terms of enthusiasm, ideas produced by students, questions generated in classroom discussions, and effectiveness with teachers, the program is indeed promising.

Western Michigan University, along with other Teacher Training Institutions, is attempting to provide more varied, extensive, and meaningful teacher education programs. If the future teacher has had an opportunity not only to talk about reading and observe reading but actually teach reading and discuss its problems with specialists, it is believed that the student will be better trained.

# DID YOU SEE?

*Dorothy J. McGinnis*

"The Right to Read—Target for the 70's"? A reprint of this address by James E. Allen, U. S. Commissioner of Education, can be found in the November 1969 *Journal of Reading*. Here is a challenge to every school board, administrator, and teacher in the country.

Robert E. Shafer's "What Can We Expect from a National Assessment in Reading"? The article is published in the October 1969 issue of the *Journal of Reading*.

"Dyslexia: A Discussion of Its Definition"? This interesting article by Richard B. Adams appears in the December 1969 issue of *Journal of Learning Disabilities*.

*Strategies for Adult Basic Education?* The papers in this volume, edited by Joseph A. Mangano, present an overview of the psychological and sociological characteristics of the undereducated adult. Teaching methods and materials are discussed. This is the eleventh volume in the Perspectives in Reading Series and can be ordered from IRA, Six Tyre Avenue, Newark, Delaware.

*Issues in Language and Reading Instruction of Spanish-Speaking Children?* This bibliography by Rosen and Ortego includes the most recent references on the topic. It is available from IRA.

*Handbook for the Volunteer Tutor* compiled and edited by Sidney J. Rauch? Available from IRA, the book outlines principles, practices, and methods for tutors who will be working with individuals of all ages.

The 1969 Claremont Reading Conference Yearbook edited by Malcolm P. Douglass? It can be ordered from the Claremont Graduate School in Claremont, California.

"Reading Methods: A New Turn"? This article by Frank J. Guszak sets forth a program for preparing undergraduates to teach reading. All professors charged with the responsibility of undergraduate teacher preparation programs should read this article which appears in the November 1969 *The Reading Teacher*.

# WE SUGGEST

*Eleanor Buelke*

Lederman, Janet

*Anger and the Rocking Chair*

New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1969. Pp. 63.

Prime consideration of affective education is relatively new for classroom teachers in the public schools. Realization that many learning disabilities of cognitive dimensions are underwritten by correspondingly severe emotional conflicts has left educators groping for new and different solutions to old and familiar problems of teaching and learning. During recent years, writers of implications of research in the fields of psychiatry and psychology have approached the bench of pedagogy with recommendations, increasingly more specific, regarding techniques and procedures for classroom practice. From institutes and research centers devoted to helping people toward insights about themselves come suggestions for innovations in use of time and personnel to provide therapy for disabled learners. In some schools, specialists are employed to implement these programs for individuals, or groups of students. In others, teachers must seek and use their own resources, as they explore beyond the surface explanation of children's behavior. Through independent reading and study, teachers can help develop and direct their individual capacities to empathize with children, providing "the necessary emotional booster that will enable them to travel the uncharted interpersonal world with more ease and comfort."<sup>1</sup>

In this new book, *Anger and the Rocking Chair*, Janet Lederman demonstrates the establishment of believable and touching communication with her students. What she describes, dramatically, in powerful prose-poetry, illustrated with photographs, graphically moving and alive, are techniques of Gestalt Therapy in a classroom context. The kinds of things she has done in her work with negative, angry, hostile children, "ought to be done by every teacher in every classroom, whatever the social class represented by the students, whatever the intelligence level or academic performance of these students."

Communicating through language, she helps children to become aware of what they are doing. Through creative art, she makes them aware of their existence in the world about them. Through timely,

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1. Nicholas Long and Staff, "Helping Children Cope With Feelings," *Childhood Education*, (March, 1969), 367-72.

skillful use of her camera, she builds their awareness of their success in acting upon their worlds. Using patience, and withholding censure, she helps pupils discover new ways of responding to school, allowing them to work their own ways out of chaos, chaos created by their own chaotic contacts with each other and their world. Through dramatic dialogue, her children learn about both sides of a situation, or explore other possibilities of behavior more appropriate than anger, or resentment. Through the process of creative writing, children learn to deal with their very own fears, fantasies, and family personae. Together, she and her pupils “touch each other’s worlds.”

The Epilogue of the book expresses the author’s philosophy in her own gentle, yet commanding, imagery:

. . . . There is no conclusion to education, there is only a process, and the process has no conclusion.

A process of emerging education.

An experimental approach to learning.

The integration of the “I” and the “educator.”

The “I” as the creator, I, creating an environment for discovery.

The when, where, and how of learning.

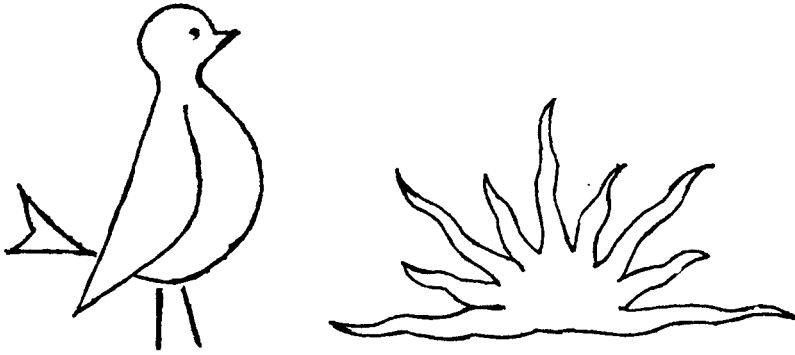
Cooperative living . . . The child and the adult. . . .

The flow of in and out contracting and expanding.

One generation flowing into the other.

Getting through the impasse, transcending the status quo.

In some measure, and in a very real sense, is this not what the American dream of education is all about? Indeed, is this not what must prevail if there is to be *one* world, one *better* world, a *sane* world, or *any* world at all, for future mankind?



## ROUND ROBIN

*Dorothy E. Smith, Editor*

Dear Readers,

Your editor is departing from the usual contents of Round Robin in order to share with you an article which appeared in the Chicago Tribune on January 29, 1970. The title was, "Chicago Pupils Lag Far Behind National Norms in Tests," by Peter Negronida, and the lead-in to the article was as follows:

Here are the highlights of 1968-69 test scores for the Chicago public schools, presented to the board of education yesterday:

1. On a city-wide basis, the city's school children fell further behind national test norms than they had been before.
2. On a school-by-school basis, white schools had markedly higher test scores than black schools.
3. School officials cited lack of money, inexperienced teachers, and socio-economic factors as reasons for the discouraging results.
4. Supt. James F. Redmond indicated that school principals might be judged on how well their pupils learn.

Tests focused mainly on reading and other verbal skills, and on arithmetic, and were administered to students in the first, third, sixth, eighth, ninth and eleventh grades. In all but one grade level they fell below the national median of 50 in reading scores, and their percentile ranks ranged from the 45th percentile to the 28th. During the year '66-'67 the children were below the national average, but they slipped even farther behind last year.

Interestingly enough, there was one group which surpassed the national average, and this was the first grade children. They measured up to the 56th percentile. How they lose their impetus and begin to decline while attending successive grades, merits some study.

In general, predominantly white schools had higher scores than predominantly black schools, although there were four elementary schools with 90% or higher black enrollment who topped the national average, and thereby topped significantly the city wide average.

All of the above facts deserve intensive study by educators, and another fact which emerged has what might be even greater potential interest: The one brightest spot was in the performance of four federally funded child-parent education centers specializing in intensive education for pre-school through second grade children. They all had first grade reading readiness scores above the city-wide average, and two of the four topped the national average. The people involved were predominantly black, and in the low socio-economic group.

Aside from all of this important information, there is an ethical or professional question arising from the testing program, and the publishing of the results. The fourth point listed at the beginning of this article states that school principals might be judged on how well their pupils learn. Do you agree that this would be a reasonable criterion? Should each school system, or each teacher for that matter be judged by standardized tests that are "plugged into" the national percentile ranking for those same tests? Would you, as a teacher feel this was fair? Would you, then, happily accept a job in a school system which had many disadvantaged children? If you did, might you be tempted to "teach to the tests"?

Pertinent to testing considerations is the Editorial at the beginning of this magazine. The editors would be most interested in hearing your views on this subject. We will be glad to share your thoughts with our readers in the next issue of *Reading Horizons*.



# TEN-SECOND REVIEWS

*Blanche O. Bush*

"There is no higher nationwide priority in the field of education than the provision of the right to read for all . . ."

James E. Allen, Jr.

Allen, James E., "The Right to Read—Target for the 70's," *Journal of Reading* (November, 1969), 13:95-101.

United States Commissioner of Education Allen proclaimed his belief 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 limit of his capability.

Bartolome, Paz I., "Teachers' Objectives and Questions in Primary Reading," *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1969), 23:27-33.

One way of ascertaining the state of teaching reading-thinking skills in the schools is to study and analyze the questions posed during the reading lessons. This study was undertaken to examine and categorize the questions posed by teachers in relation to the objectives for primary reading classes.

Berger, Allen, "Speed Reading: Is the Present Emphasis Desirable?" *Current Issues in Reading* (Nila Banton Smith, Editor), International Reading Association (1969), 13:45-70.

Whether the present emphasis on speed reading is desirable is a personal matter. Emerging from this survey are certain desirable practices which should be encouraged: (1) Use of the eye examination, (2) More formal testing procedure before and after instruction, (3) Cooperation of commercial firms, corporations and college and university reading centers in providing information about their programs.

Clymer, Theodore, "How Good Is Research in Reading?" *Current Issues in Reading* (Nila Banton Smith, Editor), International Reading Association (1969), 13:1-17.

Research in reading has been conducted for nearly one hundred years. Always the quality of this research has been questioned by some who have believed that it should be greatly improved in design, control and statistical techniques. Others believe that great improvements have taken place in reading research and that it is pretty good at the present time. The article by this author and the pro and con viewpoints presented by Walter J. McHugh and James C. Creive provide interesting food for thought on this topic.

Connor, Marjorie, "Elementary Reading Teachers and the School Psychologist," *The Reading Teacher* (November, 1969), 23:151-155.

The importance of the elementary teacher is again emphasized. It is not only she who notices the lack of academic progress but it is she who distinguishes the behavioral differences that point to emotional troubles. It is she who has the everyday evidence of other problems available for observation. Her early identification enhances the chances for a favorable prognosis.

Courtney, Leonard, "Are We Really Improving Reading in the Content Fields?" *Current Issues in Reading* (Nila Banton Smith, Editor), International Reading Association (1969), 13:18-33.

The three reports cited frame quite well the possibilities and the difficulties involved with efforts to improve reading in the content fields. It is difficult to organize, sustain, and empirically evaluate any program which permits such a wide variety of almost uncontrollable variables. It was pointed out that there are subjective optimistic signs. There is a gradual shift in teacher attitude, marked by growing interest in the problem of reading skills and reading improvement, among all junior and secondary school teachers.

Criscuolo, Nicholas P., "Seven Crucial Issues in Reading," *The Reading Teacher* (November, 1969), 23:156-158.

To identify specific issues in reading the Status of Reading Programs Committee of a Connecticut Association for Reading Research sent out questionnaires to all members. The seven

crucial issues identified were: (1) Reading in kindergarten should be provided for those ready, (2) The determination of whether a child has a reading disability should involve the concerted effort of the teacher, principal, reading specialists, guidance counselor, psychologist and school nurse, (3) Reading materials in content areas should be carefully screened before purchase so that it fits the needs of the children, (4) The reading consultant should be involved with the programs for perceptually handicapped children as a part of the learning disability team, (5) An investigation should be held to determine how many people are working in reading who are not certified in this area, (6) Para-professionals with proper indoctrination could be used effectively in a supportive role, and (7) Pre-service and in-service programs need to be improved.

Goodman, Kenneth S., "Analyses of Oral Reading Miscues: Applied Psycholinguistics," *Reading Research Quarterly* (Fall, 1969), 5:9-29.

The author presents a theoretical argument that reading must be considered a psycholinguistic process. In the discussion of this process, the reader is viewed as a user of language who processes three kinds of information, grapho-phonetic, syntactic and semantic as he reacts to the graphic display on the page. In comparing unexpected responses in oral reading to expected responses the psycholinguistics reading is revealed. A taxonomy of cues and miscues in reading is presented for the depth analyses of oral reading phenomena.

Gunn, M. Agnella, "Speed Reading: Is the Present Emphasis Desirable?—Con Challenger," *Current Issues in Reading* (1969), 13:79-84.

The author believes that emphases on increasing speed unquestionably is desirable if it contributes to the development of readers who not only read rapidly but understand the material read.

Harris, Albert J., "The Effective Teacher of Reading," *The Reading Teacher* (December, 1969), 23:195-204.

Unless we are willing to make the teacher merely an assistant to teaching machines, the improvement of teaching must be a major element in educational improvement. Recent research has amply demonstrated that differences among teachers are far more important than differences among methods and materials in influencing the reading achievement of children.

Johnson, Barbah Lea, "Maximum Teacher Effectiveness," *The Reading Teacher* (November, 1969), 23:126-131.

The effective reading teacher knows a child's growth process through knowledge of his emotional, social, physical and intellectual development. He perceives a child's learning process as a dynamic function in which he plays an active part in establishing his store of knowledge. He understands a child's reading process as a sequential series of continually developing phases of communication skills that pervade his life.

Kollaritsch, Jane, "Organizing Reading for Detailed Learning in a Limited Time," *Journal of Reading* (October, 1969), 13:29-32.

A functional approach to textbook study for students who are pressed for time is discussed. This method of notetaking is essentially one of recording section headings of chapters and notes for each paragraph. The student must be able to condense the paragraph and state the main idea in his own words by suggesting the content of each paragraph without listing the details. Since there is not much writing involved the notes are manageable in size. This method reinforces many of the basic study skills and facilitates efficient review.

LaConte, Christine, "Reading in Kindergarten," *The Reading Teacher* (November, 1969), 23:111-120.

Although kindergarten children are generally considered by their teachers as not yet ready to read, these same children are being exposed to mass instruction in reading readiness and beginning reading skills. The teachers seem to be unaware that their classroom practices are inconsistent with their attitudes. If attitudes may be inferred from practices, it is possible that

kindergarten teachers are more amenable than they have ever been before to the notion of reading in the kindergarten.

Lam, Charlotte Darwin, "Pupil Preference for Four Art Styles Used in Primary Reading Textbooks," *The Reading Teacher* (November, 1969), 23:137-143.

Sometimes illustrations are realistic, sometimes they are a product of imagination, sometimes they are allegorical or symbolic. The problem of this study was the determination of the type of art preferred by second grade pupils when given a choice of four major art styles of illustration used in primary reading textbooks. Results indicate that second grade children rate realistic art as first choice.

Langford, Ken, "Building A Sight Vocabulary Using Learning Theory," *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1969), 23:15-16.

This article describes a procedure for helping the child to master—over learn and speed up recognition of—a basic sight vocabulary. The author used this method with very low achievers to establish the routine rather than to validate the method. This method is a "whole" word method but it should not be taken to mean that it is proposed in place of the phonic methods. It is a method to be used where the teacher thinks it is appropriate. Materials and the procedures are also presented.

Lehrman, Sara, "What Is a Good Children's Book?" *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1969), 23:9-10.

According to Makarenka, a famous philosopher of Soviet Union, only books which pursue the aim of creating and nurturing an integrated human personality are unquestionably useful to children. Another criterion is humanism, real artistic literature has always defended the best ideals of mankind. A book for children should pursue educational aims but not a narrow-informative goal, or the development of the imagination only. The special style of a children's book consists of simplicity of story, strict logical sequence and absence of confusing "arty" words. Some of these guideposts for good

children's literature are not orthodox, the author states, but all are worthy of consideration by the professional educator.

Lindeman, Barbara and Martin Kling, "Bibliotherapy: Definitions, Uses and Studies," *Journal of School Psychology* (1968-1969), 7:36-41.

Bibliotherapy is defined as an interaction between the reader and certain literature which is useful in aiding personal adjustment. A review of the literature includes a discussion of its uses in mental hospitals, with maladjusted individuals, and in the classroom, with retarded, gifted, and average students. Bibliographies are suggested for bibliotherapeutic purposes from the primary grades through college. Some studies are presented which support these uses. It is concluded that bibliotherapy can help meet the developmental needs not only of young people in the classroom but also of some maladjusted individuals.

Manzo, Anthony V., "The Request Procedure," *Journal of Reading* (November, 1969), 13:123-126.

The effect of questioning and purpose setting on reading comprehension has been explored many times, however, it is noted that there has been no research to test the efficacy of teaching students to raise questions independently and set their own purpose for reading. The Request procedure was designed to improve the student's reading comprehension by providing an active learning situation for the development of questioning behavior. The teacher encourages the student, in a specified manner to ask questions about textual material and to set his own purpose for reading.

McBride, Vearl G., "Speed Reading: Is the Present Emphasis Desirable?" *Current Issues in Reading* (Nila Banton Smith, Editor), International Reading Association (1969), 13:71-78.

The belief of the writer is that the topic under discussion is misnamed. It should be: Speed Reading—Why have we waited so long? To those who think you have reason to question, who doubt that rapid reading should or could be taught effectively to human beings whose minds have developed a

highly complex machinery even beyond thinking machines, the writer suggests that YOU do some rethinking.

McCutcheon, Beth A., and Eugene E. McDowell, "Intralist Similarity and Acquisition and Generalization of Word Recognition," *The Reading Teacher* (November, 1969), 23:103-107+.

It is noteworthy that all words are not equally difficult for beginning readers to learn. One factor affecting the difficulty in learning to read a list of words is the discriminability of the words composing the list. This discriminability is related in part to the intralist similarity of the words composing the list. The variety of letters contained in a list of words defines the extent of one dimension of intralist similarity.

Meacham, Merle L., "Reading Disability and Identification: A Case Study," *Journal of Psychology* (1968-1969), 7:26-28.

An account is given of how the school psychologist and teacher can utilize parental help in alleviating reading disability when the parents are seen as highly nurturant and the youngster as strongly identified with the parents. The study involved enlisting the parents' help as tutors and then using their reinforcing characteristics to change the reading behavior of the children.

Michelson, Norma I., "Meaningfulness: A Critical Variable in Children's Verbal Learning," *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1969), 23:11-14.

It is the hypothesis of this article that one aspect of future research might profitably be concerned with an examination of meaningfulness and its effect on children's verbal learning. This may well have relevance to curricular and instructional consideration in the teaching of reading and may be a necessary first step in re-examining current ideas of the relationship of content to reading achievement. It would also appear to be an important consideration in the teaching of reading to disadvantaged children for whom the meaningfulness of the material might well be a critical variable in learning to read.

Niensted, Serena A., "Meaninglessness for Beginning Readers," *The Reading Teacher* (November, 1969), 23:112-115.

The author concluded that a child may have trouble realizing that printed language is separated into words, that words can be isolated from spoken language, that isolated words read from the page must be reassembled into ideas. The things done in reading classes are sufficient for most to get meaning from the page. For the rest it would help to break the task into its component parts, diagnose what the child cannot do, and set for him tasks to lead to the desired act.

Reed, James C., "Children's Figure Drawing: A Clue to Reading Progress," *The Reading Teacher* (November, 1969), 23:132-136.

Children who have severe reading problems frequently show striking deficiencies in copying Bender Gestalt figures and other simple geometrical forms. Some investigators have implied directly or indirectly that the reading disability may be a reflection of a basic space-form deficit. The assumption is that children who have difficulty in analyzing simple geometrical forms sufficiently well to be able to reproduce them well also have difficulty in analyzing more complex visual configurations such as words or letters. In this study the hypothesis was tested that children who differ in copying ability would not differ in reading ability. This supports the contention that deficiency in form perception, per se, is not a unique correlate of severe reading problems.

Rowland, Thomas, "Cognitive Development in Children: A Structure—Process Approach," *Psychology in Schools* (1969), 6:55-58.

In order to make some realistic appraisal of the child's linguistic development at the beginning of his educational encounter the educational psychologist needs to recognize that literacy begins to develop from birth and for most children follows a general continuous pattern which eventually facilitates their mastery of the language requirements. Discontinuity in the developmental continuum may well result in failure.

Rushmore, Mary Lee and John C. Scope, "Upward Bound at Hofstra University Changes 'No, I can't' to 'Yes, I can'," *Journal of Reading* (November, 1969), 13:119-122+.



The philosophy of the Upward Bound program developed a non academic informally structured classroom. Attendance was voluntary. Although no assignments were given, students were encouraged to borrow classroom material to read independently. The "action" in the classroom revolved around general discussions and some writing and oral reading.

Ryan, Ellen Bouchard and Melvin I. Semmel, "Reading As a Constructive Language Process," *Reading Research Quarterly* (Fall, 1969), 5:59-83.

The authors review the evidence for the thesis that reading, like speaking and listening, should be considered as a language process. Reading, it is postulated, is not a matter of sequentially pairing visual forms with auditory forms which are then interpreted like speech, but rather the correspondence between printed and spoken messages are seen to be based more on meaning. Scientific evidence to support that materials will affect the attitudes of children in a given direction is as yet scant. There is some evidence that reading stories containing materials designed to influence attitudes, followed by discussion and reaction, can produce change in children's attitudes.

Samuels, S. J., "Word Recognition and Beginning Reading," Research by J. Wesley Schneyer, editor, *The Reading Teacher* (November, 1969), 23:159-161+.

The objective of this review was to present research findings which may prove useful to the teacher. In the context of this review, word recognition means the ability to go from the printed symbol to the sound of that word, i.e. when the student sees DOG he says DOG. The studies suggest the following conclusions regarding learning to read words: (a) letter name knowledge has no positive effect, (b) letter-sound training has a facilitative effect depending on method or reading materials used. Various strategies can be used in word recognition such as: sight words, unusual characteristics of words (i.e. short word is cat, long word is house), word shape, context, and phonics.

Schneyer, J. Wesley, "Effects of Reading on Children's Attitude," *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1969), 23:49-51+.

While considerable research has been done on mechanical and fundamental aspects of reading, research on the effects of reading is quite sparse. One explanation for the lack of investigation on the impact of reading on children may be the difficulty of disentangling the variables involved, including the nature of the message, the structure of the situation, the reader's previous experiences, and his personality and value system. This article was concerned with one aspect of this problem, the effect of reading on children's attitudes and concepts.

Seymour, Dorothy Z., "The Difference Between Linguistics and Phonics," *The Reading Teacher* (November, 1969), 23:99-102+.

The main difference between a linguistic and a phonic approach to reading instruction is that phonics gives primacy to letters and seems to place spoken language under their control, whereas linguistics points to the priority of speech and demonstrates that writing is merely a way of recording that speech by the use of symbols. The child who is taught reading from a linguistic point of view is led to understand that a person who can speak can also learn to read and write. He knows that he will be in control of the symbols he uses to represent his language. The symbols will not control him.

Shafer, Robert E., "What Can We Expect from a National Assessment in Reading?" *Journal of Reading* (October, 1969), 13:3-8+.

A national assessment of education has begun. During 1969, science, citizenship, writing, literature, social studies, music, mathematics, reading, art, and vocational education will be assessed. Perhaps the greatest danger of a national assessment in reading may be found in the pleas of many who after the results become public, will wish to restrict the curriculum to those objectives and specific areas which were included in the assessment and which they feel can successfully be measured. A further danger will be that what is considered difficult to assess will not be considered as worth having.

Thorn, Elizabeth A., "Language Experience Approach to Reading," *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1969), 23:3-8.

Language experience programs in reading were developed in

response to demands for more meaningful language instruction. In them, reading is taught as a part of a total language program which brings out the interrelatedness and interdependence of listening, speaking, reading and writing. A successful school language program builds on the same learning patterns that operated at the pre-school level when the child was developing his own system of learning. A language experience program serves two major functions. It enriches and extends each pupil's experience and it promotes for each facility the use of oral and written language.

Twenty Year Annotated Index to the Reading Teacher, 1948-1967, Edward G. Summers, editor, International Reading Association, Newark, Delaware, 19711.

Articles are classified in 28 categories by volume, year, and date. It is interesting to note that the focus of the journal as a publication for reading teachers has been maintained throughout the 20 volume years. Over half of the articles published have as their major focus reading instruction, development of reading skills and instructional materials. The remainder are on topics closely related to the teaching of reading. This index is an excellent resource for teachers.

Ullmann, Charles A., "Prevalence of Reading Disability as a Function of the Measure Used," *Journal of Learning Disabilities* (November, 1969), 2:556-558.

Various screening standards are used for the identification of children with reading disabilities. One of them, years below normal grade for age, is convenient and apparently simple. This is an inconsistent measure which results in a misleading picture of the prevalence of reading disability. The prevalence so found is predetermined mainly by the measure used and this fluctuates widely in significance from grade to grade. Other measures, the author believes, give a more conservative estimate of the prevalence of disability and they may be more significant. There may be reason to re-evaluate some reading research.

Warner, Dolores, "The Role of Pupil Judgment in Reading Instruction," *The Reading Teacher* (November, 1969), 23:108-111.

In this study the hypothesis tested was that there would be no difference in reading achievement between pupils involved in a reading program in which pupil judgment was encouraged and pupils in a reading program in which pupil judgment was not so specifically encouraged. It was found that significantly greater gain between pre- and post-testing was made by the experimental group over the control group.

# READING DEMONSTRATIONS AND WORKSHOP

Sponsored by  
Reading Center and Clinic  
Western Michigan University  
Kalamazoo, Michigan

**General Theme:** Diagnosis and Treatment of the Disabled Reader

DATE	TOPIC
Tuesday, June 30	Identification and Selection of the Disabled Reader
Tuesday, July 7	An Allopathic Approach to Remediation
Tuesday, July 14	A Homeopathic Approach to Remediation
Tuesday, July 21	Utilizing Language and Experiences of the Child
Tuesday, July 28	Counseling Parents of Children with Reading Disabilities
Tuesday, August 4	Early Prediction and Treatment of Reading Failures

These demonstrations, which are an integral part of the course, **EDUCATIONAL THERAPY IN READING**, 587, make use of a child, his parents, and his teacher. Several members of a clinical team participate.

All demonstrations begin promptly at 1:20 and continue until 2:10 p.m. A discussion period will follow each demonstration.

Visitors are invited to both the demonstrations and discussions.

The class meets on Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday from 1:20 to 2:10 p.m. All meetings are to be held in Room 2302, Sangren Hall, West Campus.

