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Reading

HORIZONS



Winter 1969

Reading **HORIZONS**

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Editorial Comment

Teacher Preparation and Pupil Achievement

In the field of education it has been assumed that raising the educational level of teachers is directly related to the improvement of pupil achievement. Metzner, in the October issue of *Phi Delta Kappan*, discredits this assumption when he points out that, "Regardless of what criteria are used, the irrelevance of the amount of teacher training to teaching success becomes increasingly evident the more one consults the pertinent research." In substantiating this statement he cites seventeen apparently well-designed and controlled investigations.

Is teacher preparation worthless? No one should make this assumption. Metzner has called attention, in a vigorous manner, to the fact that no possible training can bring about academic success in an impossible situation where there is little hunger and thirst for classroom achievement. Motivation is an essential ingredient of success. The home, the neighborhood, and society have determined unconsciously for the child that which is important for him. He, encouraged by many of his peers, accepts the values of *his* world.

The remedy for this situation requires more than a prescription. A renaissance is required, and this may not come about in a purely rational manner. Can and will our country modify the social and educational environment of the child so that he can see the value of education and be willing to put forth and sustain effort in its attainment? This can only be accomplished when parents, teachers, and society have determined the aims of education and agreed upon the importance of achieving them. In the meantime, we need dedicated and consecrated teachers who are vigorous leaders and who can modify their attitudes in a changing society. Our country needs men and women who are not dismayed by the realities of a confused world.

Homer L. J. Carter
Editor

GRAMMAR WITH GRACE

Louis Foley

BABSON INSTITUTE

In a charming story of travel and adventure in the wilds of Africa, "A Safari Back to Innocence," Anne Morrow Lindbergh speaks of visiting the African wilderness as a "return to reality." She adds that, "like all truth, it illumines areas beyond the one on which it is focused."¹

Her remark interested me because this truth, as I see it in matters of language, has become ever more evident to me over a period of many years. Thoughtful investigation of any particular question of correct usage, trying to see how and why the phenomenon operates as it does, will seldom fail to bring a deeper insight into other details not obviously related. This principle will be found to apply, I believe, whenever one takes the trouble to look carefully into "how the thing works." It comes into play in the study of well-nigh any "moot point" as to what is or is not good English in speech or writing. "Controversial" matters have a way of ceasing to be controversial when one learns enough about them.

This idea might be clearly illustrated in even such "mechanical" aspects of writing as spelling or punctuation, which are very likely to turn out to be something more than merely mechanical when their function is better understood. To bring out the point, however, I choose deliberately an example which probably most people would dismiss off-hand as an unlikely one: the question of the "split infinitive." It is a subject which has been endlessly discussed, but nearly always viewed very superficially with no perception of its true inwardness.

By "splitting" an infinitive we mean, of course, inserting a word or words between the *to* and the body of the verb. English enjoys the dubious distinction of being the only language in which an infinitive *can* be "split," for in any other language it is naturally complete in a single word. If one thinks of it objectively, it seems curious that we should conceive it otherwise. As a mere grammatical appendage, the *to* is logically as much an integral part of the verb-form as the *-d* or *-ed* which marks the past tense. To be sure, any student of Old English knows that the true Anglo-Saxon infinitive was one word, and that the "to" was used with a gerund or verbal-noun object, as in expressing

1. *Life* magazine, October 21, 1966, p. 97.

purpose, a quite different construction. The confusion, however, came about so long ago and so irrevocably that it is irrelevant to modern usage.

It has left us with an anomalous situation. While actually the apparently separate words of an infinitive form a unified idea, yet for practical reasons we can not write them solidly together. All definitions of verbs in any dictionary are inevitably in infinitive form, as the verb being defined is by implication. Yet if the *to* which is an organic part of it were not omitted in the alphabetical listing, all the verbs would have to be listed under *T*!

Before the nineteenth century, examples of split infinitives were exceedingly rare, not because of subservience to any "rule" but simply because the idea of doing such a thing did not occur to people accustomed to writing in English. Yet it is not difficult to see how the practice of splitting began to creep in. It must have come about through a desire to get away from a certain kind of awkwardness in word-order which seems to have contributed as definitely as anything to the air of stiffness that we feel in much of the older writing, particularly in formal statements. So "splitting" happened because a writer would sense something wrong about a traditional pattern, but not recognize what the trouble really was. Not quite grasping the true principles of sentence-structure, he tried to get rid of a symptom instead of attacking the underlying malady.

As a familiar example of the kind of stiff formality in question, we may notice the call to confession in *The Book of Common Prayer*: "And although we ought at all times *humbly to acknowledge* our sins before God, yet ought we *chiefly so to do* when we assemble and meet together . . ." For another we may observe the wording of the First Amendment of the Constitution, "the right of the people *peaceably to assemble* . . ."

It is amazing how long this sort of strained word-order was pedantically inculcated as "correct." Surely that is exactly what led to the splitting of infinitives as a would-be escape from what was rightly felt to be artificial language. Typical of the way the matter was treated in handbooks is this example from a college text which was widely used a generation ago:

- Wrong: In order *to adequately present* my claim, I ask
for the privilege of an interview.
Right: In order *adequately to present* my claim, I ask

for the privilege of an interview.²

Thus, with no hint of explanation, the splitting of infinitives was ruled out. Offered no alternative but the “right” form given here, it is easy to understand why many people (including some teachers of English) were aroused to rebellion against what naturally struck them as an arbitrary rule. Quite as completely as the “wrong” form, the proposed correction missed the point.

This is a good case to show the limitations of the conventional pigeon-holing of words in parsing or diagraming. An adverb is classified as a “modifier of the *verb*,” whereas, if we view the thought-pattern realistically, we see that what the adverb modifies is *the verb plus its object*. So, in this text-book example, what “adequately” modifies is the indivisible phrase, “to present my claim.” Naturally therefore the adverb follows it: *to present my claim adequately*.

The fundamental principle of word-order which makes it graceful and easy to follow is that each element should be as close as possible to whatever else is closest to it in thought—which is the same as saying in grammar. Thus a verb and its object stick together, and the adverb follows—after we already have in mind *what* action it describes. When some separation of closely-related elements is inescapable, we choose as by instinct the arrangement which causes least interruption. The way this system works can be shown by a simple example:

He considers each plan thoughtfully.

He considers thoughtfully each plan which is submitted to him.

In the latter version, the adverb “thoughtfully” slips in ahead of the long phrase forming the object, which would otherwise separate it awkwardly far. Moreover, if “thoughtfully” were held to the end, it would appear to mean the way the plan was “submitted to him.”

The question of split infinitives was brought to my serious attention a good many years ago by the pronouncements of George O. Curme of Northwestern University, who seemed to have made more or less of a lifetime hobby of defending them as “useful” or “necessary.” In fact, as a prominent apologist for the split infinitive he became more widely known than for anything else he ever did. In at least one obituary, he was mentioned as “noted champion of the split infinitive.” Evidently he convinced many people. Now, for purposes of analysis, we may consider what appears to have been a favorite example, which

2. *A College Handbook of Writing*, by George B. Woods, Doubleday, Page and Co., (1922) p. 71.

he evidently took to be a conclusive demonstration. To prove that a split infinitive may be "quite necessary," he compared two sentences:

He failed *completely* to understand the question.

and

He failed to *completely understand* the question.

According to Professor Curme, "it is obvious that the meaning of the second expression is entirely different from that of the first, and . . . the split form is needed in order to convey the impression of partial understanding."

Actually, it is not "obvious" at all that the two statements are different in meaning. The first,

He failed completely to understand the question,

is ambiguous. If we heard it *spoken*, we might be sure of what is meant, but as a written sentence it is not clear. Emphasis on *completely*, with momentary hesitation after it, would make it seem to modify *failed*. Otherwise it echoes the old-fashioned stilted style which we noticed earlier, rebellion against which must have caused blundering into split infinitives.

Well-worn paths of idiomatic expression, in keeping with the basic principle of word-order, will take care of the situation quite naturally. According to the meaning intended, it is either:

He *completely failed* to understand the question.

or

He failed to understand the question *completely* (or to understand the complete question, or the question in its entirety).

In the second sentence it will be observed that *completely* modifies not "failed" but *to understand the question*, which is as truly a unified idea as if it were a single word. So a little open-minded study of the split infinitive illuminates the whole business of normal placement of modifiers, the basic principle of word-order which is part of the well-developed system of our language. But it can shed light on other things as well.

As in the case we have just examined, most often a split infinitive is the result of a misplaced adverb which clearly belongs elsewhere. It may, however, result from some other kind of clumsiness. For instance, it may be caused by loose use of words without attention to their meaning. A typical example is a statement by an educator that "inability to *satisfactorily measure up* to the expectations and demands of his parents or teachers" may cause a child to have excessive worry

and fear.³ Now what can “measure up” mean unless it is to be *satisfactory*? The idea would be completely expressed by saying “to satisfy the expectations . . .”

Sometimes a split infinitive betrays befuddlement in the grammatical structure of a sentence. Thus a newspaper review of a play stated its theme as that of “a poor boy who married a wealthy girl but refuses *to simply be her husband*.” This sounds as if *being* her husband implied a contrast with some other idea—say having been, or becoming, or remaining. If “simply” means anything at all, it must be a matter of being *simply her husband*.

A firm offering investments for savings used as an argument to win clients the claim that “people who accumulate a reserve fund are unlikely *to ever commit suicide*.” This sounds as if the writer had forgotten the meaning of “suicide”—as if that act could be committed (by the same persons) frequently, only once in a while, or not ever! The trouble seems to be that the negative is in the wrong place; *are never likely* would make more sense.

One time a distinguished editor wrote me: “Originally I was a stickler for all the rules, I was ‘pure.’ Gradually, in an effort to get vigor, I relaxed from the rules and went in for the vernacular, even for practices which theretofore I regarded as ‘vulgar’ . . . I prefer to deliberately break rules—and just *see* how I split that infinitive—which is one of the practices you would *have done with*.”

Considered by itself, this quotation would be an unfair representation of the author, who has demonstrated his ability to write extremely well. Here, however, he illustrates the common misunderstanding of the nature of “rules.” At the end no doubt he thought he was violating a rule against “ending a sentence with a preposition.” What we *call* “prepositions” in English are not always really such at all. Without official recognition, we make up compound verbs by piecing out simple verbs with adverbs or prepositions, to express a truly unified idea which *could* be expressed by a single word—in this case *abolish*.

As for his split infinitive, the idea of “deliberation” belongs with *prefer*; he *deliberately prefers* to break rules. When people have that attitude, however, it usually shows simply that they have never understood *why* correct forms are as they are, and therefore assume that they represent mere conformity to arbitrary “rules.”

3. *Journal of the N. E. A.*, February 1931, p. 50.

The old-time stiff word-order continues to appear occasionally, as in a recent reference to “the medical profession’s unwillingness *publicly to admit* errors and shortcomings.”⁴ A leading university seeks to give its students the kind of education which “will prepare them better to serve their country in time of need . . .” Does this mean “better prepare them” or “prepare them to serve their country better”? The ideas are not quite the same.

“Even within large groups,” writes a professor of education, “individuals were assisted in the manner and at the time which enabled them most quickly to assimilate the skills and knowledge of greatest import to them.”⁵ For the attentive reader there arises here a question which perhaps the author himself could not answer without hesitation. Is “most quickly to assimilate” an echo of the stilted style of old-fashioned “dignified” statements, showing the influence of much reading of that sort of material? Or is it simply the result of conscious or unconscious avoidance of a split infinitive, without seeing why? Does the sentence mean “most quickly enabled them” or “enabled them to assimilate most quickly the skills and knowledge”? Between the one and the other meaning there is the difference between a rapid method of instruction and rapid reaction as the result of instruction, whether the latter be fast or slow.

As a symptom of confusion of ideas we may notice what is surely one of the earliest split infinitives to be found in any writing which is at all well known. It occurs in the last stanza of Burns’s *Cotter’s Saturday Night* (1786):

“Who dared to nobly stem tyrannic pride.”

Can anyone imagine the *stemming* of anything as being done “nobly”? Surely it is the *daring* which is noble. The poet would have had his iambic rhythm just as well by saying:

Who nobly dared to stem tyrannic pride.

The singer of Scottish songs was evidently under somewhat of a strain in writing “literary” English.

Confident statements by “authorities” of one sort or another must have operated to make a good many people (including some teachers of English) timid or hesitant about voicing any objection to a split infinitive wherever it may appear. They are overawed by pronouncements uttered pontifically in popular books of reference. An outstanding example is the comment in *Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary*:

4. *The New York Times Magazine*, October 30, 1966.

5. Raymond P. Perkins, in *The Phi Delta Kappan*, November 1966.

“The splitting has been widely objected to, but it sometimes is desirable or necessary, especially to avert ambiguity.” This statement has remained unchanged through different editions over many years. In a rival publication which came along later, *Webster’s New World Dictionary* (1958, p. 1408), we find what looks like a re-write of the same proclamation: “Despite the objections of some people to this construction, many writers use split infinitives where ambiguity or awkwardness would otherwise result.” Here it is interesting to note the shift of emphasis; instead of being “widely objected to” the splitting is opposed only by “some people.” The implication seems to be that any objection is merely a hopeless rear-guard action by a few old-fashioned characters obviously behind the times.

At any rate, the reference to “many writers” is simply unrealistic. In comparison with the number of places where, for the same alleged reasons, infinitives *might* have been split but were not, the actual incidence of splitting is so small as to be utterly out of proportion to all the discussion it has brought about. Occasionally it does seem to become a sort of mannerism with an individual, but on the whole it occurs rather seldom even in the writing of those who care least for what they take to be “rules” or established “correctness.” And it is exceedingly difficult to make out a case for *any* split infinitive as “necessary to avert ambiguity.”

The amusing part of it all is how, all this time, the split infinitive has so completely escaped recognition for what it really is. It has been a red herring across the trail if there ever was one. Being conspicuous, because unnatural, it has attracted attention as if it were something important in itself, whereas it is merely an incidental by-product, a symptom of something wrong somewhere—not always the same thing. The way it has been generally treated might be taken to show the fallacy of a negative approach. With words falling in their naturally proper places, according to our well-developed system of word-order, and with decent respect for their honest meanings, there is no need to worry for fear of splitting an infinitive. The occasion can hardly arise.

IS LIP MOVEMENT REALLY SO BAD?

Blanche Phyllis Zink

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Few issues concerned with the complex art of teaching reading have remained controversial for as long as the topic of lip movement during silent reading. Educators do not seem to be in agreement concerning this phenomenon which most teachers in the elementary school have observed. Some reading specialists support the theory that lip movement may be an aid to comprehension in the lower grades, but that it may be a deterrent to comprehension in the intermediate grades. Other specialists, who are equally gifted in the diagnosing and handling of reading problems, feel that lip movement is a desirable, developmental learning reinforcement activity and that its elimination should not be prematurely precipitated. What relationship is there, then, between lip movement and reading achievement? Do good readers have a higher incidence or a lower incidence of lip movement than do poor readers? Do boys use lip movement to a greater degree than do girls? Does the difficulty of the material make a difference in the amount of lip movement? Before attempting to answer the above questions, one should consider the findings of research in this area.

The topic of lip movement during silent reading probably did not appear in the psychological literature until some time during the nineteenth century. In the main, these early studies were somewhat introspective in nature; that is they were simply the conclusions drawn from the writers' experiences and theories. Some of these early investigators conducted interviews in which several persons were asked whether they spoke to themselves while thinking and reading. Most of the subjects responded affirmatively. The investigators concluded, therefore, that some kind of lip movement is necessary in silent reading and in thinking.

Around the turn of the century investigators became somewhat more skillful in the gathering of objective evidence. These studies, considered crude according to present-day standards, nevertheless indicated that lip movement is an aid in obtaining meaning from the printed page. However, these findings have not been acceptable to all teachers of reading. There have been those who feel that lip movement is an acquired habit, fed and fostered by teachers in phonics and in oral reading.

Thus, changes in the methods of teaching reading have appeared. The emphasis has been shifted from oral reading to silent reading as

a means of diminishing the problem of lip movement. It is felt by many teachers that lip movement impedes reading speed and should, therefore, be eliminated. There arises, then, the problem of determining the proper grade level at which the emphasis on silent reading should begin. If silent reading is to be emphasized at grade four, might it not be better to emphasize it at grade three, or two, or one? These theories were manifest in the introduction in the mid-thirties of the non-oral method of teaching reading, which eliminates oral reading in grades one and two. The new method, however, did not solve the problem of lip movement. It was found that the children who were taught by the new non-oral method had more lip movement during silent reading than should be expected, since the suppression of lip movement was one of the main factors of the new method.

Various explanations have been offered for the failure of the non-oral method to eliminate lip movement. Some writers feel that the teachers who first employed the new method were not sufficiently trained. Others note the failure of the new method to employ the pupil's mastery of oral language as an aid in reading instruction. Still others deny the idea that silent and oral reading are separate processes and object to the disregard of the possible benefits to be derived from oral reading in grades one and two.

In spite of the objections to the non-oral method of teaching reading, few studies of any consequence followed. During the forties there was considerable interest in the non-oral method, but little research was conducted. Perhaps the difficulties involved in measuring lip movement contributed to the lack of significant research in the area. At any rate, it was not until the late fifties and early sixties that adequately controlled studies of lip movement were made.

In order to provide answers to the questions posed earlier, and in an attempt to determine whether or not inhibitory measures should be taken to suppress lip movement accompanying pupils' silent reading, the writer conducted an investigation of the reading habits of average fourth graders, including those with high reading achievement and those with low reading achievement.

In the experimental design used by the investigator to test the hypotheses, the dependent variable was the electric activity recorded from skin-lip electrodes during a routine of reading silently easy and difficult material. The independent variables were: the level of difficulty of the reading selections, the level of reading achievement, and the sex role. Easy material had a readability level about one year below the pupil's reading level; difficult material had a readability level

approximately the same as the pupil's reading level.

The level of reading achievement was determined by the pupil's score on the reading comprehension subtest of the *Iowa Tests of Basic Skills* for grades three to five. Pupils of average intelligence (IQ's of 90 to 110) were given this reading test. Good readers had a reading level at least one year above grade placement. Poor readers had a reading level at least one year below grade placement.

IQ scores for the subjects were in the 90 to 110 range, as determined by the *California Short-Form Test of Mental Maturity* for grades four to eight. This group test appeared to be adequate, since its use was confined to establishing IQ limits.

Fourth grade pupils were chosen for this study for the following reasons: (1) younger children could hardly be expected to have reached the maturational level necessary for the study; and (2) the fourth grade usually marks the beginning of an intensive program of functional and recreational reading activities.

The experiments were conducted in rooms designed for electroencephalography. The instruments were not in the same room as the subject. However, the subject could be kept under continuous observation through one-way glass. Verbal communication was made possible by the use of an intercommunication system.

When the subject had entered the room and had been told something of the nature of the experiment, he was allowed an opportunity to become somewhat accustomed to the testing situation. After the electrodes had been attached, the subject was provided with reading materials at both levels of difficulty, according to his level of reading achievement.

After the subject had completed this practice session, he was allowed to leave the testing room for approximately fifteen to twenty minutes. The second session, on which the major calculations were made, was then conducted. After the subject had again become relatively accustomed to the testing situation, he was presented the new reading materials. The two reading selections, at easy and difficult levels of readability, were randomized in order to eliminate a possible order effect. The subject simply drew a slip of paper on which the numeral 1 or the numeral 2 was written. The numeral 1 corresponded to easy material and the numeral 2 designated difficult material. The numeral which appeared on the slip of paper which the subject drew from a box determined the order in which the selections were read.

The following points constitute the findings of this study:

1. The level of reading achievement showed significant relationship

to the incidence of lip movement. The observed *F*-value for the level of reading achievement was significant at the .01 level of confidence.

2. The difficulty of reading material showed significant relationship to the incidence of lip movement in both good readers and poor readers. The observed *F*-value for the level of difficulty of material was significant at the .05 level of confidence but not at the .01 level.
3. The differences in the incidence of lip movement between girls and boys were not statistically significant.

The following limitations were recognized as exerting some effect on the study of its results:

1. Only schools for white pupils in middle status neighborhoods were included in this study. If schools representing other social levels had been used, the results might have been different. Pupils from other racial and ethnic groups and those from small towns and rural areas might have affected the results of the study had they been included. The amount of time required for the individual electromyographic tests made it unrealistic to include enough additional pupils to represent these groups for this study.
2. The number of fourth grade sections included in the study may be a limiting factor. Although fourteen sections in five elementary schools were included, one cannot be certain that the findings would be the same if more schools in other geographically distributed communities throughout the United States had been used.
3. Although teaching materials and curriculum organization were controlled, there was no adequate means of controlling the teacher variable. Varying amounts of time, if any, which teachers spent in attempting to control lip movement in their pupils during silent reading may have affected the results of the study.
4. The results of the study might have been different if the pupils had had a longer period of time to become accustomed to the testing situation. The electrodes, though not uncomfortable, may have brought about varying amounts of apprehension in the pupils.
5. The reading selections used in the study imposed some limitations. The degree of difficulty and the nature of the subject matter may have favored or handicapped certain pupils.

On the basis of the data presented in this study it is possible to state that lip movement probably occurs during all reading of elementary school pupils, since, in no case did the lip movement "scores"

during relaxation exceed the lip movement “scores” during reading. It was further demonstrated that lip movement increased among both good readers and poor readers when the difficulty level of the reading material was raised. One may conclude, then, that the increase in lip movement may be the result of an attempt to read material which is in some way too difficult for the reader. Lip movement may, therefore, be considered a symptom of a reading difficulty, or lip movement may be an aid to the reader when confronted with difficult material.

It would seem that the advisability of direct attempts to eliminate lip movement is somewhat dubious. Lip movement *per se* cannot be viewed as detrimental to reading; rather, it appears to be a symptom of a reader's not being able to grasp the content of a reading selection without difficulties. Nothing in the present study, however, indicates definitely that lip movement actually constitutes an aid toward better reading comprehension.

The foregoing conclusions of this study have pointed up the need for additional research on the subject of lip movement during silent reading. When sufficient evidence regarding the nature and function of lip movement has been made available, problems concerning the methodology of reading instruction as it pertains to lip movement can be attacked purposefully.

There is a need also of the acknowledgment on the part of educational writers that their directives to teachers with respect to the elimination of lip movement are based on unsubstantiated theory and that these directives may represent only a peripheral attack on the fundamental problem of lip movement.

CASE STUDIES OF THE INFLUENCE OF READING ON ADOLESCENTS

Fehl L. Shirley

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In a study of the impact of reading on the concepts, attitudes, and behavior of adolescents, it was found that students exhibited varying responses from ambiguous, general, indifferent reactions to highly significant dimensions of self-involvement. Some subjects stated that no specific selection had influenced their concepts, attitudes or behavior; the responses of these students were frequently vague and appeared to disclose an indifferent attitude toward reading. On the other hand, the verbalizations of others appeared to reveal empathy and intense participation in their reading which, sometimes, led to re-oriented goals and actions implementing these goals.

Methodology

Students representing these extreme patterns of high and low influence were selected for case study by a quantitative and qualitative analysis of responses to a questionnaire. Out of four hundred and twenty responses, the reports of ten high school students with the highest number of influences and ten students with the lowest number of influences were examined. From this study, ten protocols representing the extremes in influence from reading were chosen.

The criteria for the selection of the five subjects of high influence are given below:

1. Evidence of a combination of concept, attitude, and behavior influence.
2. Statements disclosing the development of:
 - a. Self understanding,
 - b. Understanding of self in relation to others, and
 - c. Understanding and empathy for others.
3. Statements showing decisions formulated.
4. Statements revealing self-observed action taken by the subject regarding decisions formulated.

Since the aim of this investigation was to ascertain the impact of reading on the individual personality, the student's observations of his self image and behavior were of primary concern. The self observations might be of a positive or negative nature.

The criteria for the selection of the five cases of low influence were:

1. Assertion by the student that no specific book, story, poem or article had influenced his point of view, attitude or behavior.
2. Vague, general statements about the influence of reading.

Information pertinent to the impact of reading on the adolescents of this case study was obtained from questionnaires, interviews, counselors' records and teachers' observation and rating scales.

Through the questionnaire the students reported how books, poems or articles affected their attitude—tendency to act in a certain way—their ideas or behavior. As Strang¹ says, "Only the individual knows how he thinks and feels and what experiences mean to him" (p. 11). In Gestalt psychology, the individual responds to the "situation-as-perceived." The person himself knows how an event is immediately experienced. Therefore, the individual himself was asked to report any changes in concepts, attitudes, and behavior that he had noted as a result of reading.

The same information requested on the questionnaire was asked the students selected for case study in interviews that took place eleven months later. The twofold purpose of the interviews was elaboration and validation of the findings of the questionnaire. After the interviewee had responded freely to the same questions of the questionnaire, the investigator read from the individual's protocol the responses which the subject had written the previous year. The student was asked to comment and elaborate, if he wished, on his previous answers.

At the end of the interview, each subject was requested to respond freely to the question: "What kind of a reader am I?" After he had reacted to this question, he was requested to complete the following check list, evaluating himself as a reader:

What Kind of a Reader Am I?

-1. The indifferent reader who is uninterested and gets little or no pleasure from his reading.
-2. The observer type of reader who judges and criticizes the author's ideas or the character's actions.
-3. The participator who places himself in the position of one or more characters in the story and lives the part.
-4. The synthesizer who gets a new idea or concept from his readings.
-5. The synthesizer who achieves a better understanding of him-

self and his own strengths and weaknesses.

-6. The decision maker who has made a decision regarding future action.

The attitudes of the observer and the participator are similar to those of Squire's² qualitative analysis of the self-involvement reactions of his fifty-two adolescents (pp. 201-209). The other attitudes of the synthesizer and the decision maker evolved from a content analysis of the student's responses to the questionnaire.

The responses to the above check list showed varying patterns of reaction, as one student remarked:

(The spelling has been corrected in all the student's reports that follow.)

No one can actually maintain the role of an observer without at times becoming the participator, or in order to criticize the character's actions, one must say, "If I were the author's character I would (or would not) have done such an action; therefore, I believe the action is not (or is) realistic." I also get new ideas and concepts from my reading which often relate to myself.

The students' free responses to the question—"What kind of a reader am I?"—came closer to revealing more significant information regarding the subjects' reading attitudes and habits than the specific responses on the check list. One student wrote:

Well, for one thing, I'm a very slow reader. Whenever we had tests, my teachers couldn't believe it. They thought I must have been stalling, because I have a high stanine . . . but, of course, the stanines come out of reading comprehension. And I'm a very slow reader. I plod along, reading word after word, and it just takes me forever . . . I'm an interested reader. I mean, I don't read books because I have to make book reports on them. I mean I read what I want . . . I'm kind of an escapist in literature, though . . . I like to take things that will sort of just pick me up and carry me away.

Examples of Reported Maximal Influence from Reading

Case 1

A high school junior whose response disclosed maximal influence from reading commented as follows:

Before reading "If" by Kipling I didn't try to act in a certain way. After reading it I tried to almost live by this poem. But after reading *The Catcher in the Rye* I started doing what

I wanted to and didn't worry about making other people happy as much as I used to. In the past year or so I have been reading as much about Philosophy as I have time for and this has brought me to believe that the schools I have attended have not been doing their job of teaching me the way they should. Now I also realize that there is a great deal I want to learn and just not enough time to learn it all.

In "If" the whole mood of the poem influenced me. It almost quieted my whole spirit. *Catcher in the Rye* made me laugh and cry at the same time. It showed what most teenagers are going through. I think the personality of Holden influenced me because he wasn't a snob and wasn't afraid to be honest. He made me see that you only have to live with yourself and I now look at the people whom everyone likes and they seem to be shallow and without a true personality. By reading such books as the *Story of Philosophy* I have found even more that you have to be yourself. In this case I think the philosophers themselves and not what they thought is what influenced me most. I read *Catcher in the Rye* because my mother and teacher told me I shouldn't. My dad however said it was great and told me to go ahead and read it. I am reading philosophy because I feel dissatisfied with life and reading it gives me a reason to be dissatisfied. It also puts me in with a group of people older than I am and I have more fun with them and they make me feel like I'm worth something.

In the interview a year later, the student felt that the world was not as idealistic as pictured in the poem, "If." She mentioned that she would still enjoy reading the poem, but she could never live by it as she had previously stated. Also, her reaction to *Catcher in the Rye* had changed. She now feels that one cannot go around just being oneself. One has to conform to a certain extent so one can achieve something much greater. ("You have to get along with people." "You have to understand them." "You have to fit in with them.")

The subject's responses a year later gave evidence of growth. Her replies were thoughtful and showed greater maturity. Her verbalizations disclosed continued high influence from reading, but she had developed a new emphasis in readings in the areas of political science and current events.

Case 2

Another case revealed a high school senior who reported a strong negative reaction after reading books on the theme of naturalism. Her

comments on the questionnaire were as follows:

After reading *McTeague* by Norris and *The Grapes of Wrath* I became mildly depressed. These novels were written by naturalists and I seemed to give up many things that were a challenge. The novels were depressing and hopeless and that is how I began feeling toward everything.

After reading so many books of the same nature, I began to lose my drive and want for challenge. I would give up easily at things I usually stuck to. My personality hit a new low in soberness. Things didn't seem quite as jolly as before. I was told that I hardly laugh any more. Before starting the project on Naturalism, I was active in many things. But afterwards I lost interest in most of my extracurricular activities. These results are extreme but that is how the books affected me.

In her free responses during the interview a year later, the subject confirmed the above reaction of depression after reading books on the theme of naturalism. However, the influence on her attitudes and behavior was not as severe. She was reading more objectively, and her emotions were not so intensely involved with the characters that she didn't understand the author's meaning. As was revealed with the previous case study, this student also showed more maturity in her verbalizations a year later.

Examples of Reported Minimal Influence from Reading

Case 1

An "Honors" student who had been in accelerated classes in high school reported little influence from reading. She wrote on her questionnaire:

I'm sure that sometime during my life I have read something that influenced my point of view, behavior or attitude but I can't remember exactly what materials. Poems and magazine articles have a tendency to do this more than books. These articles make me think about whatever the situation was about. I usually don't do that much reading so when I prepare to read it's usually on class time. I feel like reading was a task and unless I enjoyed it, I really don't get that much out of it. Since most of the reading I do is in class, afterwards we discuss it and I voice my opinion on it.

In the interview a year later, the girl gave vague, general responses about the influence of reading specific materials on her concept, attitude and behavior as she did on the questionnaire. She said that students in "Honors" programs did not read as extensively and did not possess

as advanced a vocabulary as teachers assumed. She commented as follows:

I know some people have had a better background in English than I have. But I know that a lot of teachers, you know, think just because you are higher—more intelligent than the rest of the students—they think, well, she's read a lot and she does a lot of reading outside. But I know there are a lot of people in "Honors" English who don't read that much . . . and their vocabulary is really low.

Case 2

Another high school student reported little influence from reading. He wrote on his questionnaire:

I believe that your attitude or behavior may be changed by reading, but I do not think I have had my personality changed. I definitely believe it can change your point of view.

I think there are too many constantly moving things going around a person that affect his personality, so that a book you read is merely of someone else, or something, and doesn't change you too much, or permanently.

In the interview, the boy confirmed what he had written on his questionnaire. He asserted that no book, story, poem or article had influenced him. "I don't think I've been affected by any books," he declared.

Review

Interesting distinctions were noted between the five cases of high influence and the five cases of low influence. The five students of high influence reported more total influences, more materials that had influenced them, and also more self-involvement reactions.

It would appear that the students of the case study who were highly influenced usually continued to be highly influenced—if not by the same materials—by other books, stories, poems or articles they had read. The five students of low influence continued to report little or only moderate influence from reading.

There appeared to be no significant difference between the two groups in intelligence as measured by the Otis Beta test and reading ability as measured by the California Reading Test. This relationship was also confirmed by a comparison of the influence reported by the fifteen most intelligent and best readers and the fifteen least intelligent and poorest readers as measured by the group tests. However, for the entire sampling of four hundred and twenty students, there was a

slight, positive relationship between the total influences reported and intelligence, vocabulary, and comprehension, a finding which was not supported by the ten case studies.

Implications

The case study method might be used to explore further the dimensions of influence from reading. A content analysis of the verbalizations of those individuals who appear to be maximally or minimally influenced from reading might shed more light on the influence of reading on personality development as well as on the thinking process involved in reading.

Further investigation is recommended on the elements in the content of literature that influence adolescents adversely. One case study disclosed a reaction of hopelessness and depression after reading materials of a naturalistic nature.

The influence of reading on the personality at various stages of child and adolescent development might be pursued. Some of the case studies of this investigation showed more mature development when interviewed a year later.

It is recommended that teachers be alerted to the effects of reading on personal development. Attempts should be made to implement a reading/discussion program to develop understandings of the ways characters in books have worked out solutions to personal problems. Discussion of the varied reported effects of reading on individuals in a class may help participants realize that others have similar problems and may also help these individuals gain self-understanding and insight.

References

1. Strang, Ruth, *The Adolescent Views Himself*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1957.
2. Squire, James, "The Responses of Adolescents to Literature Involving Selected Experiences of Personal Development," Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of California, Berkeley, 1956.

ECHOES FROM THE FIELD

Joe R. Chapel and Ronald A. Crowell

Now in its third year, the Kalamazoo County Reading Therapists Organization is meeting four times during the current school year. The members of the group are full-time reading teachers, most of whom are involved in federally funded reading programs or teach under the state reimbursable programs. The organization, which now has members from all of the school districts in the county, was formed as a vehicle for the sharing of ideas and methods and the discussion of current issues of interest to remedial reading teachers. The organization has been enthusiastically accepted and supported by the county reading therapists.

The September meeting was directed by Mrs. Velta Nichols, the director of the Coldwater Schools Reading Program. Mrs. Nichols demonstrated and helped the therapists produce "teacher made" teaching aids. The November meeting was entitled "Using ITA as a Remedial Technique" and was organized by Mrs. Fran Baden, Mrs. Betty LeRoy, and Mrs. Greta Ryan. The January meeting was chaired by Mrs. Jean Hightower and was concerned with the use of linguistics as a remedial procedure.

The meeting to be held in April will be a luncheon meeting. The program will be "A Bag of Tricks for Remedial Techniques," under the direction of Mary Drew, consultant for the Allyn and Bacon Publishing Company. Mrs. Drew formerly was the language arts consultant for Wayne County.

The group has now been enlarged by the addition of reading therapists from both Van Buren and St. Joseph counties. Mrs. Fran Baden, the elementary consultant for the Kalamazoo County Intermediate School District, indicated that any interested full-time remedial reading teacher may attend the meetings and join the group. Inquiries may be addressed to her at the Intermediate School District Office, 508 East Dutton Street, Kalamazoo, Michigan 49006.

DID YOU SEE?

Dorothy J. McGinnis

"Accent on Listening?" This informative article appearing in *Today's Education*, October 1968, features activities designed to help students in grades 3 to 12 become more skillful listeners.

"Studying Literature Should Be A Pleasure, Not A Challenge" which appears in the same issue of *Today's Education*? Read it and determine whether or not you agree with the author's thesis.

"Corridor Libraries" by Helen Grauel? This article, published in *Today's Education*, October 1968, shows how the St. Louis City public schools transformed the corridors of their schools into well-lighted avenues of books.

B. F. Skinner's book, *The Technology of Teaching*? Reviewers have said, "Free of the rhetoric of exposé in its delineation of the sources of educational failure, it also offers solutions that are independent of the personal charisma of the teacher . . . (it) holds more of direct value for education than any other available volume of comparable readability."

"The Area Learning Center—A Regional Program for School Children with Learning Disabilities" appearing in the September 1968 issue of the *Journal of Learning Disabilities*? This article will be of special interest to many of our readers because the Area Learning Center is located in Grand Rapids, Michigan.

"A Study of Entry Age and Readiness for First Grade?" Published in the September 1968 issue of the *Journal of Learning Disabilities* it attempts to answer the question, do children who are judged to be at a disadvantage starting kindergarten because of their age and over-all maturity profit from postponing their entrance into kindergarten for one year.

"The Teacher Preparation Myth: A Phoenix Too Frequent" in the October 1968 *Phi Delta Kappan*?

Harold Taylor's book, *The World and the American Teacher: The Preparation of Teachers in the Field of World Affairs*? His analysis of the problem and challenges facing American teachers at all levels cannot help but stimulate you.

WE SUGGEST

Eleanor Buelke

John Dixon

Growth through English

Reading, England: National Association for the Teaching of English, 1967. Pp. x + 121.

. . . to look beyond the minimum possibilities of literacy to the profounder possibilities of a considered and extended exploration of experience, permitting slower realization and more individual, personal growth. . . .

A view such as this confronts teachers of the arts and skills of language in *Growth through English*. Some teachers may react passively, according respect; others may turn away fearfully, feeling insecurity; still others may respond actively, experiencing inner excitement, as the author points out the wider vistas of live language in optimum operation. Insignificant in size and appearance, this small book encompasses and generates ideas of wide and deep significance. In it Mr. Dixon has undertaken the task of reporting and interpreting main points of agreement reached by participants in the Dartmouth Seminar during the summer of 1966. He has brought concepts from the seminar into realistic relevance for professionals engaged in planning, developing, and teaching programs concerned with our English language.

The writer begins by defining dimensions of English teaching. He proceeds from the historical images of *skill-centered* and *cultural heritage* models to a current model which focuses on *personal growth*. In a program where personal growth occurs, teaching of our language is built on language in operation from day to day. Language and its meaning originate with the pupil. They serve human purposes when they are his own, not handed to him by the teacher. "Language is learnt in operation, not by dummy runs." Pupils internalize and share encounters with life as they participate in both dialogue and monologue; as they express themselves in speech, drama, and writing; and as they multiply their experiences vicariously through literature.

If language is truly to "operate" in the classroom, teachers must understand the processes involved in developing its mastery. They must be aware of their pupils' potentialities, problems, and limitations. From this vantage point, and with respect for the pupils, wherever they are in their language development, teachers should build on the method of language learning by which the children have already accomplished so much. As they move together freely from spoken to written forms, from dialect to standard English, from dialogue to

monologue, language is adapted to new roles, new situations, and new levels of experience faced in the classroom.

In an analysis of class activities, Dixon makes a plea for organizing them with the purpose of effecting insight into experience, using them as means to a worthy end. When they become ends in themselves, he suggests, they evolve into mere “parlour games.” Talk, reading, and writing that bespeak personal reaction and effort, focusing on the pupil’s internalized experience, can combine to bring new learnings into living relationships with the old.

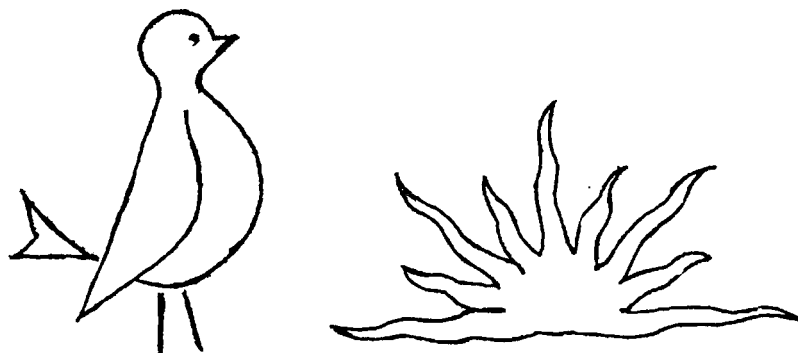
When the author states that the body of knowledge in a language curriculum is not a “package to be handed over” to pupils, but, rather, it is a representation of what teachers hope pupils will discover and build for themselves, he poses difficult choices for teachers. For guidance in making these decisions, he proposes familiarity with modern linguistics as a frame of reference to judge when, and in what direction, discussion of language in class may be developed.

Demands for programs and systems of knowledge reflect a need by teachers for order and sequence in their daily work. Classroom method “that nudges and encourages pupils” to take the initiative in organizing learning experiences can be compatible with underlying patterns of development. It is noted that linguistic patterns of development are not simple, linear progressions. Growth in one area of language, or typical of one domain, does not *replace* another; it *occurs simultaneously* with other areas, in both cognitive and affective domains. While detailed knowledge and analysis of psycholinguistic patterns of growth are in short supply, such information as is available can help teachers to develop their insights into continuity in language instruction.

In both the *skills* and *cultural heritage* approaches to English instruction, examination and testing practices greatly influence the curriculum. These philosophies of education also affect the school structure in which the curriculum is taught. Changes from traditional approaches to the modern, developmental approach mean more than changes in the central activities of the classroom. Changes in the relationships of teachers to pupils, of pupils to pupils, and of individual and group learnings to class learnings may also be inferred. These lead to changes in the classroom itself, perhaps even the school as a whole. Further, careful study of these implications concerning changes for schools, for teachers, and for institutions of higher education which train these teachers, is demanded and deserved.

Artful and skillful teachers of language who dare to fix their gaze and their sights beyond the “minimum of literacy” to the “extended

exploration of experience” are cutting across a range of disciplines to make both knowledge and expertise available to their classes. Their curriculum is organized with prime considerations for the subject: experience; the medium: language; and the goal: a new and satisfying, personal order to life, as it really is for the individual learner.



ROUND ROBIN

Dorothy E. Smith, Editor

In this issue we are continuing with the Annotated Bibliography of Books for Junior High School Retarded Readers. As you will remember, this bibliography is provided through the kindness of Mrs. Mary Small, Remedial Reading Teacher at Northeastern Jr. High School, Kalamazoo, Michigan.

She precedes this section with the following statements:

"Any of the three series of short story collections which I examined would be useful in a classroom library. All contain stories designed to appeal to a wide range of interests. The format of the *Teen-Age Tales* series makes it perhaps the most attractive to students.

The series books are generally quite short and include some titles at or below third-grade reading level. These books are generally most suitable for students who are severely retarded in reading or for students who need to experience the satisfaction of reading an entire book but who might not attempt a longer book."

SHORT STORIES

Reading-Incentive Series. Edward G. Summers, ed. St. Louis: Webster Division, McGraw-Hill. (rd 3-7)

A collection of short stories written to appeal to junior high school students and organized according to subject or theme. A glossary is included in each book. The teacher's guide contains a summary of each story, teaching suggestions, and short bibliographies of titles for follow-up reading. Titles include the following:

Mystery in the Sky (rd 3)

Swamp March (rd 4)

Full Speed Ahead (rd 5)

Venus Bound (rd 6)

To Climb a Mountain (rd 7)

Stories for Teen-Agers. New York: Globe. (rd 4-6)

Collections of short stories and sketches suitable for junior high and high school. Most of the selections are reprinted or adapted from teen-age magazines; a few excerpts from books are included. Each selection is preceded by an introduction apparently designed to motivate the student and to lead him to read for specific purposes. Comprehension questions on each selection are included at the end of each book along with "quiz exercises" to be done after the student has completed the entire book. The teacher's guides contain a synopsis, teaching suggestions, and an approximate word count for each selection, and answers to the exercises. The series includes the following books:

Gershenfeld, Howard. Book A (rd 4)

Gershenfeld, Howard, and Ardis Edwards Burton, eds. Book B (rd 4)

Burton, Ardis Edwards, and Joseph Mersand, eds. Books 1 and 2 (rd 5-6)

Teen-Age Tales. Boston: D. C. Heath. (rd 3-6)

Collections of short stories and sketches suitable for junior high and high school. Most of the selections are adapted from popular magazines. Comprehension questions and a word count for each selection are included at the end of each book. The teacher's manuals contain teaching suggestions and exercises for each selection and bibliographies of other easy reading with mature content. The series includes the following books:

Heavy, Regina, and Harriet L. Stewart, eds. Books A, B, and C (rd 3)

Strang, Ruth, and others, eds. Books 1-6 (rd 5-6)

BOOKS IN SERIES

The Deep-Sea Adventure Series. San Francisco: Harr Wagner. (rd 1-5)

An attractively illustrated series of simple, fast-moving, and informative short novels. Comprehension questions on each chapter and a complete vocabulary list are included at the end of each book. (A "very popular series . . . adult appeal"—Strang.) Titles, by James C. Coleman and others, include the following:

- The Sea Hunt* (rd 1)
- Treasure Under the Sea* (rd 2)
- Submarine Rescue* (rd 2)
- The Pearl Divers* (rd 2)
- Frogmen in Action* (rd 3)
- **Danger Below* (rd 4)
- **Whale Hunt* (rd 4)
- Rocket Divers* (rd 5)

The Morgan Bay Mysteries. San Francisco: Harr Wagner. (rd 2-3)

A series of short, simple mystery stories designed for use as supplementary readers in grades 2, 3, and 4, and as remedial materials for grades 4 through 9. Comprehension questions on each chapter and a complete vocabulary list are included at the end of each book. The teacher's handbook contains synopses of the books and suggestions for using them, answers to the exercises, and a comprehensive vocabulary list. Titles, all by John and Nancy Rambeau, include the following:

- The Mystery of Morgan Castle* (rd 2)
- **The Mystery of the Marble Angel* (rd 2)
- The Mystery of the Midnight Visitor* (rd 3)
- The Mystery of the Missing Marlin* (rd 3)

Pacemaker Story Books. Palo Alto, Calif.: Fearon Publishers. (rd below 3)

A series of very short paperbound books designed especially for the mentally retarded and the slow learner in grades 5 through 12 but recommended also for use as remedial material. The teacher's manual contains synopses, teaching suggestions, and exercises for each of the titles listed below.

- The Fire on the First Floor*
- The Clubhouse Mystery*
- Catch Tom Rudd!*
- The Haunted House*
- Over the Rickety Fence*
- **The Man Without a Memory*

Pacesetter Books. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston. (Reading level unknown)

A series of short novels with slight plots designed as easy-reading-high-interest material. (Inferior to virtually all of the trade books listed previously and more difficult reading than the series books

* Titles marked with an asterisk are annotated on pages 92-93.

listed in this section.) Titles include the following:

*Ellis, Mel. *Sad Song of the Coyote*.

*Place, Marian T. *The Frontiersman*.

*Silverberg, Robert. *Planet of Death*.

Reading-Motivated Series. San Francisco: Harr Wagner. (rd 4)

A series of short adventure novels. The story takes up about half of each book; the remainder of the book contains factual material related to the setting of the story and study plans for each chapter of the story and the supplementary material. ("A popular series . . . of special appeal to junior high schools."—Strang) Titles, by Helen Heffernan and others, include the following:

**Desert Treasure*

**The Mysterious Swamp Rider*

The Secret of Lonesome Valley

* Titles marked with an asterisk are annotated below.

BOOKS IN SERIES—ANNOTATIONS

Coleman, James C., and others. *Danger Below*. San Francisco: Harr Wagner, 1962. 97 p. Fiction. (rd 4)

Dan discovers that the sunken ship he has been hired to salvage contains a case of smuggled diamonds. (The Deep-Sea Adventure Series) (Boys)

Coleman, James C., and others. *Whale Hunt*. San Francisco: Harr Wagner, 1962. 98 p. Fiction. (rd 4)

Dan and Carlos run into sharks, a killer whale, and a ghost ship while they are at sea taking photographs of whales for Marineland. (The Deep-Sea Adventure Series) (Boys)

Crosher, G. R. *The Man Without a Memory*. Palo Alto, Calif.: Fearon, 1966. 44 p. Fiction. (rd below 3)

Linda and Paul follow a man who has lost his memory and find that he is also being followed by two crooks. (Pacemaker Story Books)

Ellis, Mel. *Sad Song of the Coyote*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967. 127 p. Fiction. (Reading level unknown)

Mark Strand, son of a game warden, kills coyotes for bounty until he finds a more satisfying way of earning money for his college education. (The best of the Pacesetter Books. Conservation theme stressed.) (Pacesetter Books)

Heffernan, Helen, and others. *Desert Treasure*. San Francisco: Harr Wagner, 1955. 309 p. Fiction. (rd 4)

Steve and his Cousin Dan set out to find the gold mine their grandfather discovered just before he died and uncover a smuggling operation. The second section of the book contains information on the life, geology, history, and use of the Mohave Desert. (Reading-Motivated Series) (Boys)

Heffernan, Helen, and others. *The Mysterious Swamp Rider*. San Francisco: Harr Wagner, 1955. 314 p. Fiction. (rd 4)

During the Revolutionary War, a man named Canolles, who refuses to fight under either the American or the British flags, and his band of "swamp riders" fight their own battles with the British in Virginia. The second section of the book includes information on life and customs in the colonies at the time of the Revolutionary War. (Reading-Motivated Series)

Place, Marian T. *The Frontiersman*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967. 128 p. Fiction. (Reading level unknown)

A fictionalized account of Billy Dixon, who ran away from home to become a bull-whacker, a buffalo hunter, and an army scout. (Objectionable portrayal of Indians as nothing more than savages.) (Pacesetter)

Rambeau, John and Nancy. *The Mystery of the Marble Angel*. San Francisco: Harr Wagner, 1962. 90 p. Fiction. (rd 2)

Ham Clark buys an old Cadillac hearse and finds that it may have something to do with a \$90,000 robbery. A marble angel provides a clue to the mystery. (The Morgan Bay Mysteries)

Silverberg, Robert. *Planet of Death*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967. 125 p. Fiction. (Reading level unknown)

Roy Crawford is framed for murder on the planet Velliran. He escapes life imprisonment by joining a group of space scientists who explore the terrifying tropical jungles of the "planet of death." (Grotesque science fiction) (Pacesetter Books)

TEN-SECOND REVIEWS

Blanche O. Bush

The learners of today and, indeed, tomorrow may very well be attempting to cope with forces outside our ken or range of understanding. Hence, the reading process must be that of assisting students to become potent, independent readers, as much at home as possible with the reading matter confronting them in the many disciplines. —H. Alan Robinson

Adler, Belle, Norma S. Rees, Blanche L. Server, Beatrice Stockers, "Implications of Vowel Diphthong Distortions," *Exceptional Children* (September, 1968), 35:51-55.

Clinical records of 42 children with functional articulation disorders characterized by vowel and diphthong distortions were studied to reveal any peculiar features of this group. The data studied were speech patterns, sex distribution, intelligence, interaction between intelligence and sex, position in the family constellation, duration of therapy and personality factors. The findings showed evidence of a characteristic speech pattern, an unusually high proportion of males to females, and personality factors tending to include immaturity, anxiety, poor body image, organicity, insecurity, distortion of reality and repressed aggression.

Alley, Gordon, "Reading Readiness and the Frostig Training Program," *Exceptional Children* (September, 1968), 35:68.

Significant differences in mean scores in favor of the experimental group were found when comparing two groups on a reading readiness measure after approximately eight months of visual perceptual training. The findings appear to support the author's hypothesis that the Frostig program is of benefit in a reading readiness program for culturally deprived kindergarten children to adjust for the limiting factors.

Ames, Ernest, "An Interdisciplinary Approach to Visual Reading Readiness," *Education* (April-May, 1968), 88:357.

Ames describes the threefold role which optometry may play in promoting visual reading readiness. Optometry's role in visual reading readiness consists of (1) early detection of visual-motor and perceptual delay, (2) remediation and guidance in the visual aspects of child development and (3) active, positive exchange and communication with all other behavioral sciences

that concern themselves with the child.

Bailey, Beryl Loftman, "Some Aspects of the Impact of Linguistics on Language Teaching in Disadvantaged Communities," *Elementary English* (May, 1968), 45:570-578+.

The purpose of this article is to report some of the findings of linguistics research in this area and to underscore the need for a specialized approach to the teaching of English in the schools that serve such students. The author proposed that teachers who work with non-standard speakers be required to have an introductory course in linguistics to alert them to the pervasive nature of some of the problems and to provide them with the minimum necessary tools for coping with some of them.

Betts, Emmett Albert, "Reading: Visual Motor Skills," *Education* (April-May, 1968), 88:291-294.

Dr. Betts discusses the importance of two recent studies of the contributions of visual-motor skills to perceptual readiness for reading.

Brittain, Mary M., and Clay V. Brittain, "A Study at Two Levels of Reading-Cognition and Convergent Thinking," *Education* (April-May, 1968), 88:321-323.

These authors explain a study of relationships between reading ability and cognition and convergent thinking at two grade levels. It was hypothesized that at an early grade level, cognition would be significantly related to reading ability but convergent thinking would not. At a later grade level, the correlation between reading ability and cognition would be rivalled by the relationship between reading and convergent thinking.

Calabria, Frances, "Reading . . . Not Just Books," *Grade Teacher* (April, 1968), 85:40.

Children will discover how to read fluently if invited to read whatever form of material interests them rather than being rigidly harnessed to books alone. The author suggests that students be encouraged to share their reading matter with the teacher, whether it be comic books, children magazines, advertising brochures, the sports section of the newspaper, pet manuals, directions for playing games, bubble gum wrappers or baseball cards.

Cameron, Jack R., "Read Critically or Join the Mob," *Journal of Reading* (October, 1968), 12:24-26.

In this article Cameron states that the need to balance emotional responses to literature with reasoned non emotional and critical reading is evident. The chief job of reading education in an age of media fallout is not to train people to read novels in front of a fire, attractive as such a prospect might be, but to make them critical readers in a world where emotional reading at the wrong time can amount to joining the mob rather than resisting it and will in the long run enslave a man rather than set him free.

Dykstra, Robert, "The Effectiveness of Code-and Meaning-Emphasis Beginning Reading Programs," *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1968), 22:17-23.

Chall defines code emphasis programs as those which aim at the beginning to teach the pupil mastery of the alphabetic code rather than expecting from him a mature reading performance. Meaning-emphasis programs are those which emphasize from the very beginning the necessity of reading for meaning, undoubtedly a more mature skill than mere code-breaking. Although, in general, this study supports Chall's conclusions concerning the superiority of code-emphasis program in beginning reading, a note of caution is in order.

Ebert, Don, and Marie Gaasholt, "Materials for Teaching Adults to Read," *Curricular Bulletin*—School of Education, University of Oregon (July, 1968) Vol. 24, No. 292.

This bibliography, which is arranged alphabetically by publisher, does not attempt to be a complete list of all the reading materials available for teaching adult reading. It was designed to be used as a resource guide in locating appropriate adult reading materials. No materials are included that are used for teaching grammar, spelling, vocabulary development or Social Studies.

Eggener, Helga, "The Race to Read," *Elementary English* (May, 1968) 45:609-610.

Pressure for early reading originates from shifting public opinion, parents of precocious children, commercial firms and some kindergarten and first grade teachers. The question essentially is not whether young children can be taught to read in kindergarten but whether this is the best use of a five-year-old's time. Today the emphasis in the kindergarten is not on preparing the child for first grade or looking to the next year, but rather

upon helping him to live richly and fully as a five-year-old.

Emans, Robert, "History of Phonics," *Elementary English* (May, 1968), 45:602-607.

This summary of the literature has shown that historically there has been much controversy centered around the teaching of phonics. Although phonics instruction is being given today, it is very different from what it was in the past. As a result there has been a tendency to discard phonics instruction at times, only to reintroduce it again later. Each time phonics has been returned to the classroom it usually has been revised into something quite different from what it was when it was discarded.

Eovodia, Sr. M., "Visual Memory Training" *The Pointer For Special Class Teachers and Parents of the Handicapped* (Fall, 1968), 13:13.

Visual memory is an important skill in learning to read. This ability to remember stimuli presented visually is essential to development of an initial sight vocabulary. The author stated that activities are designed to stress immediate, intermediate and extended memory functions.

Feitelson, Dina, "Teaching Reading to Culturally Disadvantaged Children," *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1968), 22:55-61.

When dealing with a fundamental educational problem like the teaching of reading to culturally disadvantaged school entrants, it might prove beneficial to try to break down the basic problem into a series of problems, which could be dealt with on a more direct level. Such an analysis might allow the seeking out and testing of specific solutions for each of the separate sub problems as a means of solving the whole problem.

Fleming, James T., "Oral Language and Beginning Reading: Another Look," *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1968), 22:24-29.

In confirming the relation between oral language and beginning reading, assumptions about both the nature of language and the nature of the reading act must be clear. The relation is not a simple one but properly interpreted and implemented it can serve as a solid base from which to plan effective and informed language arts reading programs. In particular, concern was voiced for a possible imbalance in teaching and testing which might occur primarily as a result of placing exclusive emphasis on "word meaning" or vocabulary activities.

Flood, Anne, "A Team Approach to Learning," *Pointer For Special Class Teachers and Parents of the Handicapped* (Fall, 1968), 13:28.

The author states, "Once a week our children like to play 'team work' as we call it." The pupils work in teams of two and each pair moves to a section of the room with plenty of space between groups. A fixed format is used which the children are able to follow easily. On written work each person on a team works with the other to produce only one paper when finished. The poor student always has a feeling of success with this type of activity. He learns from other children, sometimes after repeated failure with teachers.

Gluck, Suzy, "Reading: Basic for Adults," *Journal of Reading* (October, 1968), 12:33-36.

This article describes a pilot program for the "functionally illiterate" adult offered at the University of Southern California Reading Center. This course is geared to the students' likes and needs.

Goodman, Kenneth, "Linguistic Insights Which Teachers May Apply," *Education* (April-May), 88:313-316.

While the basic application of linguistic and psycho-linguistic insights to reading materials and methodology has yet to be made, there are some concepts about language and how it is used to convey meaning which can make a difference in the teaching of reading now. To teach reading effectively, Goodman states, linguistics must be integrated with knowledge of psychology, child development and actual practice.

Grant, Phyllis P., "Learning With a Camera," *Pointer for Special Class Teachers and Parents of the Handicapped* (Fall, 1968), 13:12.

It has been said that there is nothing like seeing your own picture or name in print to build up the ego. Pictures of items of interest were placed on bulletin boards. This photographic exhibit continued to change and periodically all the pictures were put up in a big show. In addition to having a stimulating class hobby the boys and girls derived many opportunities for oral and written language and developed learning activities based upon their own vivid experiences.

Henderson, Edmund H. and Barbara H. Long, "Correlations of Read-

ing Readiness Among Children of Varying Background,” *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1968), 22:40-44.

This study attempted to investigate aspects of primary education by exploring the relationship between certain non cognitive variables and reading readiness scores among children of varying background. The findings of this study support the broad view of readiness which must include social, emotional and experiential factors.

Kinder, Robert F., “Reading Specialists DON’T Need Training,” *Reading News Report* (October, 1968), 3:21.

Little or no specialized training is required in half of the states in the United States for those working as school reading specialists. This fact and some other revealing aspects of the complex problem emerged in a report of the findings of Kinder’s study on the national scene.

Kinder, Robert Farrar, “State Certification of Reading Teachers and Specialists,” *Journal of Reading* (October, 1968), 12:9-12+.

In twelve states representing a third of our school population there are no certification requirements for reading personnel and no plans to develop such requirements in the foreseeable future. At present only 23 states require certification of reading personnel. Improved state reading certification standards can protect the professional status of teachers and specialists and at the same time strengthen reading instruction for more children and youths.

Lehner, Andreas, “Letting Reading Make Sense,” *Journal of Reading* (October, 1968), 12:5-8.

Two peculiarities of this program implement the learning of educational decision making: no marks are given and no textbooks used. The absence of a traditional marking system helps enforce the honesty of a child’s choice, by removing what many feel is a phony system of motivating students. The children are persuaded as soon as possible to demand that reading make sense and to be impatient with the empty ritual of filling in blanks in somebody else’s questions.

Littrell, J. Harvey, “Teacher Estimates Versus Reading Test Results,” *Journal of Reading* (October, 1968), 12:18-23.

In a correlational study, Littrell finds teachers’ estimates of pupils’ abilities and interests in reading correspond roughly with

standardized test scores. Where there are differences, which is right? The author wisely refuses to speculate.

Moffett, J. Bryron, "Getting the Most from Weeklies," *The Instructor* (October, 1968), 78:125.

Weekly school newspapers provide children with opportunities to learn about important news events at their level of understanding. Moffett makes these suggestions for use. (1) Don't use the paper every week. (2) Don't ask the entire class to read the paper. (3) Don't send the paper home. (4) Don't neglect the paper designed for other grade levels. (5) Ally weekly paper experiences with other news media. (6) Appoint pupil experts to monitor the paper. (7) Clip paper for a school-wide resource file.

Morrison, Coleman and Albert J. Harris, "Effect of Kindergarten on the Reading of Disadvantaged," *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1968), 22:4-9.

This study of children with and without kindergarten experience is part of a larger one called the CRAFT Project which investigated progress in reading of disadvantaged urban Negro children in the New York public schools. Children in the study were taught to read by two approaches, Skills Centered and Language Experience. The Language Experience Approach developed reading materials from the experiences and verbalizations of the children and gradually moved into individualized reading. At the end of the first grade, twenty-one grade equivalent comparisons were made and all comparisons but one favored the kindergarten group.

Mortenson, W. Paul, "Selected Pre-Reading Tasks, Socio-Economic Status, and Sex," *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1968) 22:45-49+.

The purpose of this investigation was to determine how beginning first grade children differ in their performance on pre-reading visual and auditory discrimination tasks according to their socio-economic level and sex. On the basis of the findings these conclusions were made. (1) Differential performance on pre-reading discrimination tasks was closely associated with the socio-economic backgrounds of beginning first graders. (2) Performance on most of the visual and auditory discrimination tasks significantly favored the girls over the boys. (3) Although intelligence appeared to be related to socio-economic level, the re-

lationship between socio-economic status and performance on discrimination tasks remained intact when intelligence was held constant. (4) Differential performance on pre-reading discrimination tasks cannot be attributed entirely to any occupational level within a particular socio-economic level.

Neville, Mary H., "Effect of Reading Method on the Development of Auditory Memory Span," *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1968), 22:30-35.

A comparison of the effects of the reading method on the development of memory span suggests that both the increase in memory span and reading may be affected by the manner in which the child reads. Especially for children of lower reading aptitude, excessive oral reading may be detrimental in the development of auditory memory span, although the hypothesized associated drop in reading achievement was not found. Moreover it is silent reading practice rather than oral reading which appears to produce the relationship between auditory memory and word recognition.

Potts, Marion and Carl Savino, "The Relative Achievement of First Graders Under Three Different Reading Programs," *The Journal of Educational Research* (July-August, 1968), 61:447-450.

A random sample of 150 first graders was studied to determine progress under three different reading programs. Two were based on the teaching of sound-symbol relationships, the other emphasized whole word reading first. Four criterion tests were administered. Data were analyzed through analyses of covariance, using a standardized reading test as the adjusting variable. Results indicated differences among all three of the reading programs which were significant beyond the .01 level. The program which used the most intensive phonics training proved to be the most effective. The other program based on sound-symbol relationships was next in effectiveness and the one which emphasized whole word reading first was least effective.

Reading Report, "The Controversy About Dyslexia," *The Education Digest* (September, 1968), 34:51-53.

Dyslexia is perhaps the most difficult, the most controversial, word in reading today. However, the individual with reading difficulty, be he dyslexic, retarded, underachieving, or whatever, needs special help. Whether this help be in reading clinic, in the

classroom, or in special classes really makes no difference. The important concern is whether or not the child learns to read. At this point, the report asks, does validating or refuting this hypothesis of dyslexia really matter?

Robinson, H. Alan, "Reading in the Total School Curriculum" Presidential Address, *Reading, Lecture, Lectura Laesning Lesen—1967-1968 Annual Report*, International Reading Association, pp. 1-9.

Change is inevitable. We must change to keep pace with the times, as difficult as the path may seem. We are obligated, by our very calling, to accept all students on equal terms. We are obligated to help them, to the best of our ability, prepare for a world which none of us can foresee with much accuracy. One thing is certain, however, our field of specialty—communication—will continue to be the most important and, perhaps, most complex aspect of human development.

Rothrock, Dayton G., "Teachers Surveyed: A Decade of Individualized Reading," *Elementary English* (October, 1968), 45:754-757.

Results of a limited questionnaire survey over five Western Central states relative to individualized reading indicate that individualized reading has made an impression upon teachers. In actual practice it has probably been absorbed into the total reading program as a part of an eclectic plan for part of the year or part of the reading period. It has had influence upon materials and it has made teachers more aware of pupil differences.

Scott, Ralph, "Perceptual Readiness as a Predictor of Success in Reading," *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1968), 22:36-39.

This paper reports the results of a follow-up evaluation of children's kindergarten scores on an experimental Seriation Test and their second grade reading attainments. This test had two subtest scales Trial and Error and Operational. On Trial and Error tasks, children were permitted to manipulate illustrated cutouts and paste them in the test booklet. Operational items required children to mediate and then designate responses by marking the test booklet.

Simmons, John S., "The 'Stance' Approach in Responding to Literature," *Journal of Reading* (October, 1968), 12:13-17.

In this article, "The Rhetorical Stance," Wayne Booth con-

tends that writers cannot truly express themselves or persuade their readers until they honestly feel their role in the act of communication. Booth claims that a writer cannot write decently until . . . "he has found a definition of his audience, his argument, and his own proper tone of voice." Simmons drew from Booth's thesis that written or oral response can become clear and emphatic only when the writer or speaker senses the need to persuade, or to explain something to someone and when he has a clear notion of what direction his argument will take.

Stahl, Betty Lou and Zetta Ottenberg, "Organization of a Secondary Reading Program for a Middle-size City System," *Journal of Reading* (October, 1968), 12:27-32.

A coordinator outlines the functions of reading personnel for secondary programs in a middle-sized city system and describes the development of a specific program in one high school in Rockford, Illinois. Organization with a clear definition of the general plan of operation was considered to be the most important determinant of success.

Stauffer, Russel G. and May Dolores Durkin, "Does Sex Difference Affect Reading," *The Instructor* (May, 1968), 77:25.

In general, the authors' experience has been that while the girls are far ahead of the boys at the end of first grade, the difference is less marked the next year and the two groups are nearly equal by the end of the third grade.

Thurman, E., and N. Niesen, "How Parents Can Help," *Pointer for Special Class Teachers and Parents of the Handicapped* (Fall, 1968), 13:56-57.

Parents appreciate a teacher's help and diplomacy, and through combined efforts many of the children's problems can be overcome in an effective manner. Among the suggestions given by the authors are: (1) Help the child discover books by reading to him, asking questions about the stories, and talking about pictures. (2) Give him recognition for what he does. (3) Accept him for what he is. (4) Help him develop a feeling of responsibility. (5) Teach him that all work is honorable by helping him to become emotionally mature and by setting up realistic goals.

Tinker, Miles, "Suitable Typography for Beginners in Reading," *Education* (April-May, 1968), 88:317-320.

To achieve optimum legibility of printing for beginning readers, type, size and face, leads, length of line, ink and paper must be coordinated. In this article the discussion is based upon the available research plus consideration of classroom experiences and publishing practices.

Zaruba, Elizabeth A., "Objective and Subjective Evaluation at Grade One." *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1968), 22:50-54.

The purposes of this study were (1) to examine predictive values of three measures of reading readiness and maturity in September as related to first grade reading achievement in June, as measured by teacher evaluation, and (2) to compare relationships between reading achievement measured by the teacher evaluation with standardized test results. Findings suggest that careful teacher appraisal, based on multiple data, is a valuable tool for evaluating young children's reading readiness and achievement.

