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*Reading*

**HORIZONS**



**Spring 1969**



# *Reading* **HORIZONS**

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## *Editorial Comment*

### MAN AND HIS ENVIRONMENT

Edward A. Suchman, Professor of Sociology, presented at the University of Illinois a paper entitled "Man . . . Health Attitudes and Behavior." He pointed out that "man today may be viewed as the 'agent' of his own diseases . . . his state of health is determined more by what he does to himself than by what some outside germ or infectious agent does to him." Suchman contends that any change in longevity must now come through changing man's attitudes and behavior instead of protecting him against his environment. This concept is worthy of careful thought for it leads to the question, Is the proper study of man, man or his environment?

In the remediation of the disabled reader, can it be assumed that the individual is the "agent" of his own disability and that organismic and psychological factors are greater determiners of his maladjustment than factors in his environment from which he should be protected? Should teacher and psychologist focus their attention upon the individual, his goals, and his attitudes rather than upon where he lives and how much money he has to spend? Is it the individual or is it his culture which requires modification?

The individual, when adequately stimulated and "turned on," can, in spite of an unfortunate environment, learn to read and to achieve academically. Such individuals frequently hunger for knowledge and thirst for understanding. They, like Lincoln and many others, want to "amount to something." Their drive to achieve pays off in spite of poverty, and other detrimental and environmental conditions. Surely, whether blighted by birth or scarred by environment, the individual is the prime object of study. He must determine whether he will go the high road or the low road.

Homer L. J. Carter  
Editor



# THE UTILIZATION OF WAKING HYPNOSIS FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF READING AND COMPREHENSION SKILLS

*Reverend Joseph B. Tremonti, C.S.V.*

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Some educators have two somewhat unsupported ideas concerning hypnosis. The first is that hypnosis is dangerous; the second is that this branch of psychology does not fall within their jurisdiction. The education profession engenders people who are intensely interested in everything and capable of mastering new knowledge. More harm with ignorance of hypnosis can be done than by the intelligent use of the forces of suggestion.

## **Purpose**

The purpose of this article is to present this branch of psychology in education so that the educator can see the evidence, evaluate it, and determine whether this psychology is worthy of use to him.

## **Historial Evidence**

Let us look into the history of hypnosis, which precedes our Bible, up to the present time, examine the writings of the men of the disciplines that have worked with hypnosis, and determine whether there is any danger in the state and, if not, modify that concept.

It was in 1775 that Mesmer (1) first published his theories and discoveries regarding "animal magnetism." Since that time the number of offerings in popular and scientific literature on hypnosis has reached thousands of books and articles. However, popular misconceptions remain prevalent, and hypnosis is considered awesome and mysterious, something of which the average person is curious, but fearful. Hypnosis, like medicine, sprang from magic. While medicine has lost its stigma and has become respectable, hypnosis is still regarded as akin to witchcraft.

It is a strange fact that in the thousands of years that hypnosis was used, by whatever name it may have been called, there was not one authenticated case history of any harm or danger caused by it, per se. A wise man once stated, "It is much easier to ignore the obvious than to renounce the traditional." Thus, thousands of persons all over the

world are hypnotized daily without harm, yet the method is considered dangerous simply because the Svengali-Trilby myth has been perpetuated.

Platonov (2), an associate of Pavlov, has used hypnosis for over 50 years in over 50,000 cases, and reports in one of the most remarkable books written on hypnosis: "We have never observed any harmful influence on the patient which could be ascribed to the method of hypnosuggestive therapy, presumably leading to the development of an 'unstable personality, slavish subordination, weakening of the will, increase of suggestibility, pathological urge for hypnosis, etc.' "

Grinker (3) long ago stated: "The so-called dangers from hypnotism are imaginary. Although I have hypnotized hundreds of times, I have never seen any ill effects from its use. Berheim, Liebault, Ford, Wetterstrand and a host of others who have practiced suggestive methods in thousands of instances have had similar experiences."

However, an infinitesimally small number of dangerous consequences following hypnotherapy have been reported. These isolated cases have been brought to the attention of the laity and of the profession by the one dissenting voice in the initial approval by the council on Mental Health of the AMA (4) that contends that hypnosis is a dangerous medical tool.

An evaluation of these cases reveals that it is not the hypnosis, which was involved, but many other variables. Personal bias, operator attitude, hearsay evidence, and the lack of documentation contribute to the claims that hypnosis is dangerous.

One dissenting voice, a psychiatrist dealing with emotionally disturbed patients, was unable to determine that the dangerous consequences of his psychotherapy were due to hypnosis. There has been no evidence of any harm or danger to any one of the thousands of students that have participated in experiments with hypnosis in the schools and universities throughout the world. The reports indicate that students have benefited emotionally and have improved their learning capacity.

Hypnosis, in one form or another, has long been an educational tool. Classroom teachers use hypnotic principles when they attempt to relax their students before starting a difficult assignment. Athletic coaches who motivate their teams by delivering pep talks are utilizing another form of hypnosis. Instructors who use audio-visual aids or dramatize a situation are employing additional hypnotic techniques. Because suggestion is a frequent concomitant of the teaching process, it is likely that many educators have unwittingly used some form of

hypnosis in many of their most successful pedagogical efforts. We hear no words of complaint or cries of danger in these hypnotic situations or when the identical state is achieved in the church or in religious contemplation.

Isn't it time that this nebulous ghost of the danger of hypnosis be exorcised and laid? The educator may then no longer use this as an excuse for failing to learn the scientific techniques of this branch of educational psychology for the mutual benefit of student and teacher.

#### **Definition**

At this point let us define and understand what the state of hypnosis is and is not.

Hypnosis is generally defined as a state of consciousness characterized by a heightened responsiveness to suggestion. (5)

Suggestion can be defined as the uncritical acceptance of an idea. It is the process by which sensory impressions are conveyed in a meaningful manner to evoke altered psychophysiologic responses. One cannot necessarily equate suggestions with hypnosis. The acceptance of ideas by suggestion must be differentiated from logical persuasion. Persuasion and suggestion are not interchangeable terms. Hypnosis, then, is a state of consciousness in which the individual has bypassed his critical factor and is engaging in selective thinking. He may accept or reject any suggestions given to him in any form. Those suggestions which he feels are beneficial, he will accept, and those suggestions that he feels will be detrimental to him, he will reject. Unfortunately, much that has been written on the subject has been written by observers who have looked at the subject from the outside, rather than by people who have experienced the state.

#### **Problems**

At this time, let us examine some of the problems the educator and the student face in their daily endeavors to teach and to learn, diagnose the causal factors if possible, examine the literature of the research with hypnosis in these areas, and evaluate the results. We will then be able to determine in which areas hypnosis has been shown to be effective, which areas need further research and how this modality could be included as a valuable teaching aid the educator would be able to use for the benefit of his students and himself.

Let us consider the situations which most often provoke tension between teachers and pupils. "Disorder" in the halls, noise in the classrooms, "wisecracks" muttered to a companion, pushing or punching a

neighbor, inattention in the classroom and a thousand other similar trivialities which frequently bring the teacher and pupil into antagonism with each other. These disciplinary problems are faced by all teachers at some time. Adequate studies of the relation of disciplinary problems to the moods, emotional poise, health, and effectiveness of the teacher are not available.

Poor concentration, lack of attention, and other undesirable study habits often handicap students whose intelligence test scores indicate that they should be earning superior grades.

Lack of motivation is a factor. The difference between an excellent student and a poor one is often as much a matter of interest as of intelligence. Students need motivation to attain the desire for knowledge that can be derived from school.

A person is motivated to learn when he has the active attitude of desiring to learn. Everyone knows from common experience that the active desire to develop a given motor skill, to establish the easy recall of certain data, or to understand a given functional relationship, plays an important part in determining the speed and efficiency of the learning. Motivation influences directly the intensity of the effort that the student will put forth to learn. It determines the singlemindedness, the unity of attention, that he is able to give to the task. It mediates the amount of fatigue or discomfort he is willing to undergo in the process of learning. A student with high persistence and strong motivation generally does well with his work. Often, what he lacks in mental ability is compensated for by his purposefulness. On the other hand, some bright students do poorly in their work because they have little interest in the learning process and no strong motivation to succeed academically.

Lack of reading skills and lack of comprehension are important factors in a student's learning ability. No skill is more important to an individual from the first grade through his entire life than his ability to read correctly and understand what he reads. The student with bad reading habits is handicapped throughout his academic life.

Test anxiety is a common phenomenon which afflicts most students at some time. Many students who have studied the material and are well prepared when they enter the examination situation, become nervous and frightened, tense up, then are unable to recall the material studied, make minor errors, forget essential data and make poor scores on their tests.

The student with special disabilities such as speech defects, lameness, poor vision or hearing, mental or physical weakness are faced

with additional problems. The feeling of neglect, the loss of social status, and increased tension in their families make their adjustment to the learning situation doubly difficult. They are tormented daily by their sense of differentness or inferiority in the vast number of situations in which they are not able to fit easily or adequately.

Students and teachers face numerous problems in their efforts of teaching and learning. Hypnosis can be used to help alleviate some of the problems.

### Technique for Solving the Problems

The technique is repeated suggestions like these: you are motivated by long range goals; each time you sit down to read or study, your mind will be so concentrated that you will be able to retain all the material you study; anything which may have bothered you in the past—distractions of any kind—will merely roll off you like water off a duck's back; each time you take an examination or test you will be able to recall the preceding suggestions. Prior to test time tell the student to take three deep breaths, close his eyes and tell himself that he will remember everything he has studied—it works. (6)

Higgins (7) cites a case at Parks College of a student who became so upset about pending examinations that he developed cramps in his stomach and legs and, on the day before exams, developed functional blindness. Higgins hypnotized him into believing that he would make an A or B on all his exams. The boy regained his sight within an hour and achieved an excellent record on all tests.

Higgins' technique is a simple one—he has the student sit in a relaxed state and focus his attention on some monotonous sound, such as a ticking of a clock. This puts the student into a light trance; then he suggests self-relaxation by a posthypnotic suggestion or signal. He suggests that when he wakes up he will be able to help himself overcome the fear and panic by some device such as taking a breath. If this does not get results, then he uses what he calls revivification. He takes the student back, via a deeper trance, to the time when the examination panic began. After he finds the source of the trouble, he plants a posthypnotic suggestion that when the student panics he is to recall that he is no longer the little second grader that flunked the spelling exam. It usually works.

Exam jitters is regarded as a serious problem. Higgins estimates 20 to 25 per cent of all high school and college students experience severe temporary emotional disturbance at exam time. The rate is higher in college, because so much more is at stake. Exam panic some-

times leads to suicide and breakdowns, as well as to failures. Hypnosis or auto-suggestion, as a means of therapy, has unlimited potential.

The emotions play a vital and important role in the life of a student. Prescott (8) writes, "If mild emotions are tonic, stimulating and contributory to a zest in life, such is not true of strong unpleasant emotions." Cannon (9) devotes an entire chapter to the "emotional derangement of bodily functions." He shows the physiological effects of strong emotions resulting in digestive disorders, heart diseases and circulatory difficulties and derangements of glandular functions.

Jacobsen (10), at the University of Chicago, has worked for some years on the problem of the cases of frequent and upsetting strong emotions which are found among students and the possibility of avoiding the continuance of strong emotions by extended practice in progressive relaxations. He writes: "Since conditions of nervousness, including highly emotional states, have been found to involve muscular contraction, it seemed quite logical to look in the direction of relaxation for a means to treat these nervous conditions."

Prescott (11) states, "It would be interesting to find out whether young children in preschool, kindergarten or elementary grades can be taught this technique of progressive relaxation. If it were possible they might be fortified to withstand better the later anxiety and turmoil which they will experience, and a training in the genuine control of the emotions would be feasible."

Kroger (12) states, "Most children go into hypnotic states readily." The techniques involved can be taught to everyone from the age of five on up. Krippner (13) states that 90 per cent of the college population can achieve the state so that it will be beneficial to them in various ways.

In this state, all the senses are more acute and there is a greater awareness of the total environment. The individual is always conscious of what is taking place and can recall everything that transpired while in the state. He may or may not have amnesia for the events depending on his own desires in this matter. The general picture of a hypnotized person is one with his eyes closed, his respiration slow, his limbs heavy and his movements lethargic. He may appear asleep; however, this is not the case. The EEG (14) readings of a person in the deep state of hypnosis are identical with the readings of a person fully awake and not those of the sleep state. There is another state of hypnosis in which the individual has his eyes open, his respiration normal, his movements rapid and accurate, his mind sharp, clear and alert. This state is called waking hypnosis. In this state the mind and body

can function at its best, and is the state the writer prefers in educational work. It is a state which everyone achieves at least twice a day, just prior to dropping off to sleep and a short time before awakening.

It is interesting to note, that in this age of enlightenment the tremendous advancement in communication, the arts and sciences, there appears to be considerable misconception of this subject.

Almost every person, upon opening his eyes after termination of the state will remark, "Was I really in hypnosis? I was conscious all the time; I knew everything that was going on; I have had this same feeling many times before." These statements are made in wonderment and almost disbelief, even though the subject has been told exactly what he would feel and experience in the state.

Some literature states that hypnosis can be utilized as a tool to improve the ability to learn. The student can benefit in an increased ease of memorizing, a heightened ability and motivation to learn. A heightened state of motivation, attention and concentration mobilized by post-hypnotic suggestion increases performance to different degrees and in varied areas.

C. L. Hull (15), one of the great leaders in the exploration of learning theory, was one of the pioneers whose outstanding work in the direction of bringing hypnosis out of the fields of clinical and abnormal psychology and subjecting it to more rigorous scientific experimentation. In his book, *Hypnosis and Suggestibility*, Hull demonstrates "a remarkable and detailed conformity of the phenomena of hypnosis to the known experimental characteristics of ordinary habituations." He summarizes the experimental evidence that "There is some striking experimental evidence which . . . tends strongly to confirm the clinical observations that hypnosis facilitates the recall of childhood and perhaps other remote memories." Various other tests found that recall, under hypnosis, was definitely superior to that of the normal state.

Scarf and Zamansky (16) used hypnosis to reduce the time required to identify a word exposed tachistoscopically. In this experiment, the word recognition thresholds of 24 college students were lowered, through hypnotic suggestion, by an average of ten per cent.

Two experimentors in this field measured the effects of hypnosis on the reading ability of ten college students. In the experiment, 20 five-letter words were flashed on a screen at low levels of illumination. Measurements were made of the candle power needed to recognize each word as it was flashed on and off. In the hypnotic state, the subjects scored the greatest recognition improvement of those words which had previously required the most illumination.

With 21 high school students, Eisele and Higgins (17) have reported favorable results with the use of hypnosis for calming examination anxiety, for improving study habits, and for increasing concentration. Ambrose (18) has successfully used hypnosis with children exhibiting learning difficulties.

Krippner (19) reports excellent results in his work with students in improving study habits, removing test anxiety and improving motivation and interest.

Salzberg (20) reports, "It was found that both hypnotic and post-hypnotic suggestion led to better performance whereas waking suggestion led to poorer performance." Hypnotic and post-hypnotic subjects tended to improve more as tasks became more complex "such as counting, abstraction and memory."

Fowler (21) found that more than a year and a half after his experiments with several classes of students, many of the subjects were coming into his office and informing him that they were able to concentrate deeper and longer, remember more, read faster, and generally continue to enjoy the benefits they believed were theirs as a result of his hypnotic suggestions and the remediation in reading. They were quite definite in their beliefs.

A series of experiments was conducted in which the subjects were tested twice in the waking state and twice in the hypnotic state on a great variety of performances in which speed of reading and comprehension were included. Students were given definite hypnotic suggestions of ease, confidence, motivation, and increased ability. Many of the differences proved significant! A 32 per cent increase in speed of tapping and 43 percent decrease in fatigue; a 20 percent increase in aimed dotting; 22 per cent time saved in cancellation of letter. Subjects made 5 times as many errors in waking state; subjects were more than twice as efficient in the post hypnotic state. A 30 per cent increase in the drawer finding test, and an increase of 23 per cent in digit span was evident. In memorization there was a 47 per cent improvement in meaningful symbols.

#### **Hypnotic Benefits for Learning**

Post hypnotic suggestions:

1. Can increase psychomotor speed and endurance and decrease physical fatigue.
2. Can increase both span of attention and duration of attention as well as routine clerical performance.
3. Can increase speed of learning.

4. Can increase speed of association, mental alertness, concentration and mental efficiency.
5. Can heighten accuracy of perception.
6. Can improve the application of abstract abilities.
7. Can improve reading comprehension.

The students in the hypnotic test groups showed and listed a variety of concomitant results:

1. The ability to think more clearly.
2. The ability to understand other people better.
3. The ability to accept disappointments more easily.
4. More frequent reading of curricular and extra-curricular materials.
5. More interest in attending all classes.
6. Increased ability to control temper.
7. Nervous tension was eased.
8. More peace of mind.
9. More attention to academic homework.

Most students can achieve this state and benefit by it. It is possible for them to achieve the state by the utilization of tape recordings or records which can produce the state and then give specific instructions for that purpose. We have made a series of tape recordings which teaches the student how to achieve the state by himself. There is a specific tape on achieving the concentrative state while studying or in the classroom, a tape for facilitating memory recall for the material studied, and finally a tape on the technique of taking tests. These tapes have been utilized for several years in the Clinic with students from the first grade through post-graduate level and have exhibited the results shown above. They have been used also in several schools with selected students who were having trouble in school or were failing. They have been able to improve not only the attitude of the students, but also their grades. The therapeutic effect of the relaxed state solves most of the student's problem without the need of special counseling or psychotherapy. When the subject is an emotionally disturbed child, then the use of hypnosis aids us in identifying the cause of the trouble and in alleviating it in a much shorter period of time.

Comprehension is essentially reading for meaning. Comprehension is basic in developing an appreciation of what is read. Comprehension is an indispensable means of getting pleasure from reading. Comprehension skills, rather than word perception skills, distinguish good readers from poor ones.

If the high school student is to get the maximum from his courses, it is no longer enough for him to be able to recognize words and under-

stand their literal meaning. Now he is asked to do specialized reading in science, mathematics, and social studies: he is introduced to some of the greatest works in our literary heritage; he must learn to grow through reading as well as in reading. To do this he needs help in the final step of growing in reading. It is not enough to hand him an anthology of good works and say to him, "Read." Most students need specific help in learning to interpret the significance of unexpressed ideas, to determine the author's purpose, to judge the motives of the characters and the validity of statements of opinion, to understand figurative language, and to recognize and challenge biased writing. They need help in learning to reflect upon what they have read. (22)

#### **Summary**

In summary, then, we are reminded of three basic principles:

1. Reading is a process of experiencing, thinking, and learning; growth in reading is a continuous process that begins long before the child enters school and extends throughout his active life; although children follow the same general pattern of development in reading, they advance at varying rates and encounter different types of difficulties.
2. The goal in the teaching of reading for learning and thinking is to make the child less and less dependent on the teacher and more and more self-sufficient. To achieve this goal the child must learn how to use the entire range of references: dictionaries, almanacs, encyclopedias, and supplementary books and materials.
3. The interests of young people are as varied as the young people themselves. They are the product of many interrelated factors—intelligence, general maturity, home background, geographical location, past experiences, cultural opportunities. These interests vary in kind, diversity, and intensity. Happily, they can be kindled, sustained, enriched, redirected, and heightened through skillful guidance.

#### **Conclusion**

Finally, hypnosis has been shown to be an effective aid in the educative process. By utilizing the waking state of hypnosis, we can achieve even greater results than in the sleeping state. Although it is not necessary for the teachers to take special courses in hypnosis to utilize it, such courses would be helpful. Teachers can achieve the results desired by the utilization of tapes or records in the classroom and the student can utilize these tapes or records in the privacy of his home.

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# DROPPED OUT OR KICKED OUT?

**Bruce A. Lloyd**

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The school drop-out problem is real and has been with us for some time. Unless proper, effective corrective measures are taken and all who teach do something positive, the difficulty is likely to not only remain, but grow worse. Most educators and many interested laymen are concerned with the fundamentals of this deplorably wasteful situation, but it would appear that the real causes are little known or understood (3).

Educational researchers who have studied the problem seem to agree that students who drop out of school give "acceptable" reasons for this action simply because only "acceptable" reasons assures them that they will be allowed to do so. The preponderance of excuses falls in the category of financial need. This is an "acceptable" reason, therefore students usually are given permission to drop out of school so that they can go to work and help support the family. But it has been discovered (3) that such reasons are merely excuses and are not the real causes of the student's desire to leave school. Further investigation has revealed that the predominant force motivating many pupils to leave school is the single, vital factor that almost all of what they do in class has little or no meaning. There is no significance or purpose to being in or remaining in school.

There are probably two basic reasons why school experiences have little or no value to the drop-outs or potential drop-out: (A) courses of study do not fit the present or proposed circumstances of the student, and/or (B) he obtains little or nothing from his reading in school (2). The curriculum problem is receiving the attention of experts and progress is being made, (4) but the second problem, reading, remains.

Reading is a problem because of the progressive requirements it demands of the student. The problem exists because many teachers concentrate on the mechanics of reading rather than on reading for meaning or comprehension. This erroneous emphasis usually begins at the first grade level and tends to remain about the same throughout the elementary grades. Unfortunately, all too few reading instructional programs are found at higher grade levels.

Generally the mechanics of reading have consisted of a superabundance of oral reading with little or no attention given to the meaning of what is read. Some ill-informed teachers erroneously assume that if pupils can pronounce words, they automatically under-

stand what the words mean. Those teachers usually fail to realize that oral reading is a skill distinct from silent reading because it calls forth and draws upon different reading skills possessed by the student (5). Actually, an individual who is reading orally is so busy concentrating on proper pronunciation, enunciation, phrasing, and voice quality that he can seldom attend to the meaning of what he has read (1). Most pupils, and for that matter many adults, cannot read orally and *at the same time* concentrate on the meaning of the passage. If adults have this difficulty, we can well imagine the problems facing the pupil.

A change is called for. To overcome this problem, teachers should stress oral reading only when it is necessary for students to *share* a thought with others. It should be used when there is only a single text available. Certainly, it should not be used as a method of teaching pupils to read for meaning.

Another important consideration about oral reading has to do with the fact that it is a skill little used in the present, modern, everyday lives of most people. Just about everywhere one comes in contact with others who are reading, it will be noted that the reading is silent. On the bus, train, or airplane readers read to themselves. In the home, in business, and wherever adults read for meaning or to understand what they read, that reading is silent. Imagine what would result in a library if everyone read orally as taught in school.

Of course, some oral reading is necessary. Teachers may have pupils read orally to find word attack problems or other reading difficulties. But the time expended is comparatively short. Actually oral reading is such a little used skill that teachers should spend less time on it and not force pupils to become proficient at it. Furthermore, the major emphasis of reading instruction should be on silent reading because only in this way do pupils learn to understand what they read and obtain meaning from reading.

It is the contention of this discussion that if pupils were taught to read for meaning, if comprehension instead of mere word calling were stressed, and if all readers grew up with a real understanding of this concept, then school would have more meaning to them and there would be fewer school drop-outs. If pupils were taught from the beginning that words have meanings, that individuals read to understand what the writer is saying, that reading is not only "talk written down," but thoughts expressed in a different manner, then probably much of the drop-out problem would be solved. If all students were taught to realize that understanding the printed word is the single, most

important reason for reading and that the writer is trying to say something, then the orientation of these students would be different from what it has been in the past. If they had this different orientation, they would grow up with the knowledge that thoughts and ideas are to be obtained from reading and that real reading does not consist of mere glib word pronunciation with proper phrasing and intonation.

It is believed that students must be taught the skills of silent reading as soon as possible and the sooner the better. It is also believed that because our schools stress textbook knowledge, students must know how to read for meaning. If they know how to do this and can have successful experiences in reading and at school, it will be a key factor in all efforts to keep students from dropping out of school.

Of course, it must be admitted that poor reading proficiency is only one of several factors causing pupils to leave school. There are others such as family background, aspirations, and physical and mental immaturity to be considered. Moreover, adverse and negative emotions rising from school requirements are not to be overlooked. But academic inertia is the chief cause and such failure usually stems from poor reading achievement.

Therefore, if teachers would teach pupils to read for meaning, to read to understand what the writer is saying, to not be satisfied with oral parroting, then those students would grow up with a much greater appreciation and understanding of the real nature of reading. As a result, they would become better students. If they understood more of what they read, then school would have greater meaning to them. If school had such meaning, then many students would realize how valuable it is to them and they would probably strive to stay in school longer. If they tried to remain in school and made a real effort toward that end, then part of the school drop-out problem would be solved. And isn't this just what most of us want? But if teachers fail in their task, aren't they in fact forcing students out of school? And isn't this just what most of us do not want?

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# HIGH SCHOOL REMEDIAL READING OR BLOOD, SWEAT, AND TEARS?

*Robert Sandell*

*HASTINGS PUBLIC SCHOOLS*

There are some students in most schools who are neglected. These students are generally termed slow even though their problem may originate from a lack of intelligence, a lack of mental content, or a lack of motivation from parents, teachers, and society. Even though the problems in reading that these students experience stem from different problems, they are generally lumped together and given to one teacher in one class because they have all been classified as remedial students.

How can we teach the child whose reading is not up to the level necessary for a successful school career? Many of these children are from home environments entirely different from our own. Many have a set of values that will shock or disgust the easily offended. Some of the students are complete discipline problems and many of these students are trying to hide their failure behind a veneer of indifference or aggressiveness.

The self-concept of many of these children is also found to be extremely poor. They have managed to do poorly in most areas throughout school and when they enter this year's class they cannot see why it should be any different.

It is the writer's opinion that the only way a teacher is going to teach these students reading or any other subject is by establishing good rapport with the child and by helping the child build his self-concept. These students must be shown that they are worthwhile and that the teacher feels that they are worthy of teaching. Until this is accomplished it is almost senseless to try to give a concise program for reading improvement to the child.

The teacher must be prepared for difficulties, a slow pace, and many heartbreaks along the way. Many of these students have learned for years that failure is their way of life and that the teacher is their natural enemy. It is no easy task to correct this outlook.

How can the teacher show the student that he is really interested in him and wants to help? Probably by accepting the child as he comes to the teacher instead of trying to make the child over into the teacher's image of a nice little student. A teacher can attempt to make changes

in the student but Heaven help the teacher who tries to make a change before the child has accepted him as someone worth listening to.

It is almost impossible for some teachers to like a student who comes into their classrooms with soiled clothing, using a vocabulary which is neither grammatically or socially acceptable, and who looks at the teacher in such a way that the teacher is sure that the student is planning the most torturous and involved death he can possibly find. But the teacher *must* accept him. As soon as the teacher launches into a lecture on the necessity of bathing regularly and using the proper care for teeth and breath, and condemns students who do not conform to these regulations, the teacher has lost all hope of ever really communicating with this child.

It has been pointed out by many people that the educator should, at all times, be a model of the good and clean and holy so that all the students may see him and emulate him. The only trouble with this philosophy is that too many educators place themselves on such a high plane that the socially, economically, or intellectually deprived student no longer sees him as a model, but sees him rather as a stuffy figure who is trying to demonstrate that he feels superior to the child.

Is it bad for the students to know that the teacher can lose his temper and get upset about things? Is it bad that the students know that their teacher gets frustrated, or sometimes might not dress in sartorial splendor? Perhaps for the type of students we are dealing with here, it is better that they know he is human rather than think that the teacher spends all of his spare time polishing his halo. A refusal to discuss or answer personal questions may be pedagogically correct according to some educators, but it does nothing for the deprived student except make him see his teacher as someone who does not even wish to communicate with the child.

All right, what if we accept the child as he is and do not try to hide our true selves from him? Isn't he still going to be insulted with the remedial materials and procedures that will be used in trying to help him improve his reading?

No! Not if the teacher has placed the student on an adult basis before he begins. This is not to say that the child should be allowed to do only what he wants when he wants, but that he should have some choice in how things are done and he should also be charged with the responsibility of helping himself in reading. It is not enough to say that we are going to improve his reading, we must also make him want to improve. Until we get this attitude we can do nothing.

How can we help establish this attitude? The child must know

that the teacher realizes he has a problem and wants to help him improve it. Don't expect the child to come up and say "I have a reading problem, help me." The teacher must be willing to assure the child that it is a problem that can be overcome. With some students, this realization is never gained, and the student does not make any progress because he feels that he is unable to improve.

Compromise is also a good technique to use when working with students of this type. The teacher should be willing to exchange something that the student wants for something the teacher wants. The deprived child has too many times been told that he will have only what someone wants him to have.

If the child is willing to exchange proper conduct for the privilege of sitting next to a window, make the trade. It might destroy the neat little pattern of chairs but it will gain the attention of the child. If the child is willing to exchange four days of study for one day of student directed activities take the student up on it! Isn't it better to have four days of work and one day of relaxed activity than it is to have five days of attempted work with constant strain because of the failure of the student to respond? The exchange still gives the teacher the control because he still has the authority to change the conditions if the student reneges on his part of the bargain. But on the other hand, it gives the student a feeling that the teacher is willing to take the student's feelings and desires into consideration when the program is being planned.

After rapport is built between the student and the teacher; after the student improves his self-image; after the teacher and the child start working as a team; then the teaching of reading can take place. If the child realizes that everything that is being done in the class is for his benefit his attitude will change and the student will make a determined effort to improve.

Isn't it doing something good for the child to help him change his attitude? Wouldn't it be nice if we could have every student who enters our classes in the fall with a poor attitude leave with an attitude in the spring like the one expressed by the following tenth grader?

I like English because we have a cool teacher. And I meen real cool. He dosen't give us the scope (magazine) went we want it but he sure has some good books in his class. hes good about leding us sit by the windows. but if we dont do our work or pay attention we can't sit by the windows. Hes being good about leding us listen to records today. We can sit anywhere in class we want. Hes the best teacher in the school.

None of this is a lye. He cool.

A teacher can feel proud of a student like this, not because the student has said nice things about the teacher, but rather because the student has developed an attitude that the school is not a prison and that he is not going to be unsuccessful in everything he does! It all comes down to the belief that the teacher can be the most important factor in any reading program. If the teacher and child begin to function as a team and if the teacher shows an interest in what the child is doing, the teacher has begun the teaching of reading.

# D.E.L. LONELINESS

*Wendy Archambault*

It isn't only longing for your laughter,  
Or glancing at your pictures steady stare.  
It's knowing that the days are passing faster,  
And place between us time we'll never share.

It's missing all the time we spent just talking,  
Or looking at an evening sky that's clear.  
It's trying to fill an empty hour of walking.  
It's saying, "Self, it's only been a year."

To know the pain of too much understanding,  
Is something that I'm feeling everyday.  
It's not that I feel love is too demanding,  
It's that you know the things I cannot say.

It's not just straining when I think I hear you,  
Or reading twice each letter that you write.  
It's missing all the thrill of being near you,  
It's coffee down the street alone each night.

It's loving you though you may soon forget me,  
It's knowing that you never will forget.  
It's loving you as well as letters let me.  
Though lonely now, we'll feel no true regret.

# ANOTHER DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

*James A. Wright*

*EAST LANSING PUBLIC SCHOOLS*

I suspect if we taught preschoolers to speak many would not learn nearly as well as they do in their own independent manner. The very young child learns to speak when he wants to, in the way he wants to, because he wants to. Above all else, he does not become anxious about what he can not understand or can not do. He does not worry about making mistakes. He does not worry about being wrong. He does not fear an extrinsic evaluation of his progress. He meets only success.

This healthy attitude changes abruptly for the young child when he enters school and becomes accustomed to the superimposed standards of progress. He is forced to relinquish his choice of what knowledge he is to accumulate, and he must exhibit each bit of learning in a prescribed fashion before he is exposed to the next. The technique of discovering for himself, which served him well in his "developmental speaking program" is denied him in his developmental reading program. His ears become filled with an endless drone of rules, reasons, and remonstrations.

An independent exploration of the unknown is replaced by an attitude of dependency when a youngster ventures forth on the road to reading via the basal reader approach. In fact, in many cases the teacher also abandons any notion of exploration and relies completely upon the basal reader guidebook. Too often the result is a distorted view of the reading act itself, on the part of both the teacher and the pupil.

The independent reading program attempts to regain the freedom the youngster experienced when he learned to speak. Analogous to surrounding a youngster with interesting talk and encouraging him to speak is the procedure wherein we surround the pupil with interesting reading material and encourage him to read, with an emphasis on the independence he once employed when learning to speak.

Further indictment of the basal reader approach is found in answers to the following questions:

1. Are members of a reading group sometimes taught what they obviously already know?
2. Do members of a reading group sometimes need modified instruction?

3. Do members of a reading group sometimes fail to find the lesson meaningful and challenging?
4. Do members of a reading group sometimes fail to exhibit independence?
5. Do members of a reading group sometimes fail to exhibit interest and satisfaction?
6. Is it detrimental for a youngster to force himself to follow along at a pace much slower than his own silent reading rate while a member of his group reads orally—and often haltingly?
7. Is the mental health of a child sometimes injured when he is placed in a group that can be labeled?
8. Do individuals proceed at a varying rate of progress in the process of learning?
9. Are different individuals entitled to different interests, motives and curiosities?
10. Does the way a teacher interacts with a child affect how he feels about himself and how he feels about learning?

**Method**

In brief, the method includes (1) planning the activities for the reading period (2) holding individual conferences (3) arranging group conferences about books and stories read (4) directing group instruction in particular skills (5) seeing that each child has made a worthwhile choice for a learning situation (6) providing opportunity for the pupils to share what has been read.

The pupil activities which teachers have found workable require that the children first understand the independence they must assume. The teacher and pupils plan together and decide the manner in which the reading program is to be sustained. Successful teachers have found the following activities appropriate once the independent approach has been initiated:

1. Selecting a book or story
2. Reading independently
3. Writing about what was read
4. Having an individual conference with the teacher
5. Reacting to the reading with an independent follow-up activity
6. Engaging in a group activity directed by the teacher

7. Engaging in a group activity not directed by the teacher
8. Recording progress
9. Sharing what has been read
10. Evaluating reading skills

### **The Individual Conference**

The individual conference provides the best opportunity for concentrated instruction in word recognition and comprehension. It also furnishes an excellent occasion for nurturing a genuine appreciation for good literature. Consequently, those teachers who have used the independent approach feel the instruction is effective or ineffective according to the teacher's ability during this brief, intensive, personal contact. However, the one to one relationship between pupil and teacher is considered to have a "tremendous" potential for learning.

In general, the teacher's attitude should be one of guiding a student's ever increasing recognition of meaning clues. Both teacher and pupil should adopt a diagnostic posture. A record of the youngsters specific inability while analyzing unknown words and his particular inability while reorganizing the structure of the selected reading matter provides an indication of instructional needs of the individual.

The guidance offered to improve or diagnose a pupil's ability to analyze unknown words could take the following form, based on words from the selected text.

Make a list of words which you did not know and tell what clues helped you figure them out.

How is this word pronounced and what does it mean?

What is the root of this word?

Unlock the meaning of this word by telling me the meaning of its prefix, root, and/or suffix.

The word starts like *chicken* and ends like *train* so it must be what word?

The word starts like what other word?

The youngster progresses through assignments of gradually increasing difficulty, controlled by the length and readability of the selection, the type of questions posed, and the prescribed format of the anticipated responses. Meanwhile, teacher guidance should be commensurate with the student's instructional level, insuring a constant challenge but only an appropriate number of errors.

Questions are used to provoke thinking. A student answers the particular questions and verifies his answers by referring to that part

of his selected reading which confirms his ability to comprehend what he has read.

The following exercises serve as examples of one teacher's techniques used while implementing an independent reading program. The questions referred to in the third exercise of each assignment sheet appear at the end of this article, and are taken from a prominently displayed wall chart.

Each student was given a dittoed copy of the respective assignment and did the exercises independently.

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Name .....

- I. Read "Sent by Mail." pp. 89-93.
- II. Vocabulary. Be sure you can pronounce these words and know their meanings. Write down the definitions and pronunciation of the starred words. Write a sentence for each of these words. Be sure you can also use the other words in sentences.
 

notion	brimming	Harlem
farewell	*miracle	groomed
*penetrated	*beckoned	*parcel
Manhattan	Meriden	colonies
*distinguish	*derived	bidding
*public	relatives	
- III. Answer these questions from the chart. Be sure you use complete sentences. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13, 15, 16.
- IV. Prepare a part for oral reading.
- V. Sign up for a conference (group or individual).
- VI. Hand in ditto and work stapled together.
- VII. After your conference record the date of the conference on your file card.

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Name .....

#### Independent Reading of Library Books

- I. State the purpose or reason for reading the book. This may be a question you want to answer.
- II. Vocabulary. Keep a list of the words you didn't know or found interesting. Write their definitions and try using them in sentences.

- III. Select some questions which pertain to the book and answer them. Do as many as you feel pertain to the book (minimum of 5). When you finish, keep this paper filed in your notebook.
  - IV. Practice a short part of the book you would like to read orally.
  - V. Sign up for an individual conference. Bring the book and your paper with vocabulary and questions to the conference.
  - VI. After the conference, record the title and author of your book and the conference date on your file card.
  - VII. Remember to keep your own record by putting your paper with the vocabulary and questions in your notebook. Include any special comments you'd like to make about the book.
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### *Wall Chart*

#### HOW WELL DO YOU READ STORIES?

- 1. What is the main word of the title?
- 2. Change the title into a question.
- 3. Who is the main character?
- 4. Who are the other main characters?
- 5. What was each doing before trouble started?
- 6. What made the trouble start?
- 7. What was the trouble?
- 8. What made the trouble stop?
- 9. How did the story end?
- 10. What is the main character like?
- 11. Who was the bad character?
- 12. What did you like about the story?
- 13. What was funny?
- 14. What is the main idea of the story?
- 15. Make up a new title.
- 16. Make up subtitles.
- 17. Make sentences from your subtitles.
- 18. Could this story really happen?
- 19. What lesson does this story teach?
- 20. Retell the story but make it short.

Ultimately an independent examination of an author's style and credibility may be assigned the young reader. An enhancement of the appreciation of all forms of writing could be the anticipated, logical result. Uppermost in a teacher's mind should be the pupil's increased love of reading and the development of the cluster of critical thinking skills required of a maturing reader.

# ECHOES FROM THE FIELD

*Joe R. Chapel and Ronald A. Crowell*

One of the outstanding reading conferences in the nation is held annually at the Reading Clinic of Temple University. The theme of the conference this year (the 26th annual) was Thought-Language-Reading. The southwestern Michigan area was represented by Mrs. Dorothy Smith of Western Michigan University.

Mrs. Smith reports that the conference was informative and relevant for reading clinicians and reading teachers. She gives us the following report.

The program, practices, and materials for reading instruction were considered for all educational levels—elementary, secondary, colleges, and adult. The entire program this year was flavored with a substantial taste of linguistics, in theory and in practice.

One of the keynote speakers was Dr. Kenneth Goodman from Wayne State University. He stated that language is much more than words; that language has system. A word means what it means because of the context. We can have grammar without meaning but not meaning without grammar. Language is rule governed and children have control of these rules by the time they go to school. Most children, by the time they are three years old, have mastered the inflections of the English language. He concluded that we must learn how the child intuitively knows the language system so that we can teach language and reading more appropriately—therefore, more effectively.

Another keynoter was Dr. Coleman Morrison of City University of New York. Dr. Morrison is a well known researcher in the field of reading. His major point was that research shows there is little difference in achievement or attitude of children who have learned to read with the language experience approach or the basal reader approach. However, the range of ability is much greater with the language experience approach. He feels that content should control vocabulary rather than vocabulary controlling content.

The last major resource person was Dr. Carl LeFevre, author of *Linguistics and the Teaching of Reading* (and an alumnus of WMU). He also stressed a linguistic approach to beginning reading through the use of teaching words only in the context of a sentence—never in isolation. He seemed to have two major remarks regarding the current practices of teaching reading through a linguistic procedure; (1) teachers do not sufficiently understand the sound-symbol relationship and (2) such linguists as Fries and Bloomfield do not belong in the field of reading because they are scientific specialists, not practitioners.

The conference lasted five days and included, in addition to these general sessions, plenty of time for discussion and idea sharing with the participants.

Mrs. Smith's general reaction to the conference was that the understanding of linguistics is very important to the teacher since thought-language-reading are integrated elements. However, linguistic principles should be incorporated into other reading programs rather than superseding them.

# DID YOU SEE?

**Dorothy J. McGinnis**

*Developing Attitude Toward Learning* by Robert F. Mager? This small book is published by Fearon Publishers of Palo Alto, California.

Raymond E. Laurita's article, "Is Remedial Reading Necessary." It appears in the Fall 1968 issue of the *Spelling Progress Bulletin*.

The following new publications from the International Reading Association?

*Forging Ahead in Reading* edited by J. Allen Figurel.

*Ivory, Apes, and Peacocks: The Literature Point of View* edited by Sam Sebesta.

*A Decade of Innovations: Approaches to Beginning Reading* edited by Elaine Vilscek.

*Perception and Reading* edited by Helen K. Smith.

*Evaluating Books for Children and Young People* edited by Helen Huus.

*Critical Reading Develops Early* by Dorris Lee, Alma Bingham, and Sue Woelfel.

*Evaluating Reading and Study Skills in the Secondary Classroom* by Ruth Viox.

"The Improvement of Reading Ability Through A Developmental Program in Visual Perception" written by James N. Lewis and published in the November 1968 issue of the *Journal of Learning Disabilities?*

Martin Kling's report entitled "Some Relationships Between Auditory and Visual Discriminations" in the September 1968 *California Journal of Education*.

# WE SUGGEST

*Eleanor Buelke*

Kenneth S. Goodman, Editor

*The Psycholinguistic Nature of the Reading Process*

Detroit: Wayne University Press, 1968. Pp. 343.

Developments and research in linguistics and related fields have provided the background of knowledge and rationale from which new insights and new emphases in the teaching of language processes are emerging. Learning in this area appears to be exceedingly complex, much more so than teaching methods of the past several decades reflect. Presently, scholars from various disciplines are engaging in empirical and theoretical investigations into the relationships between children's developmental patterns of language and cognitive learnings. In one conference, called for consideration of this increasing body of new knowledge, a well-known linguist points out some of the dangers of designing new teaching strategies when he states:

. . . the major impact that linguistics has had upon schools in the past is to sweep through them with one fad after another, causing no end of confusion and havoc. . . . Most of the research that we see measures the effects of these rules over a very short time span . . . before we can look at the applications of any such technique, we have to have the research programs that see what happens over the years. . . .<sup>1</sup>

From a symposium at Wayne State University, presentations of research and theoretical schema by linguists, psychologists, and educators interested in a psycholinguistic approach to the teaching of reading, have been published in a volume entitled *The Psycholinguistic Nature of the Reading Process*.

In the opening paper of the book the editor states that to understand the extremely complex psycholinguistic process the language and systems of language that make communication possible must be understood. He believes that no theory of reading, reading learning, or reading instruction can be successful if it excludes any aspect of this process. He also draws some interesting, sharp distinctions between *recoding* processes, by which a reader reconstitutes oral language from graphic sequences and patterns, and *decoding* processes, by which a

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1. William Labov, *The Reading Process*, pp. 95 and 96. Bethesda, Maryland: National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1968.

reader derives meaning from the recoded graphic input. Further, he maintains that, "Reading is not reading unless there is some degree of comprehension and therefore at all stages of instruction there must be concern for ultimate decoding of written language."

The next four presentations deal with perceptual aspects of reading. Kolers reports experiments to gain insights into these aspects and, in particular, the way readers organize their perceptions. He suggests reconsideration of present beliefs and practices in reading instruction based upon misconceptions of visual perception in reading. Jones writes that, despite the fact that modern reading instruction seems to be built around "the word," the word and the sentence are not really the units through which spoken language is perceived. More research is needed to determine the natural, perceptual units of spoken language, the relationship of these units to written language, and just what psychological principles are involved in the transfer. Hansen and Rodgers define psycholinguistics as a study of ways in which the features of language, the immediate stimulus situation, and the child's behaviorial history control can effect the child's perception and assimilation of written materials. Their study concerns computer research undertaken in a quest for better ways to construct and sequence beginning reading curriculums. Carterette and Jones report studies designed to discover how patterns of perceptions arise and to test possible relationships between the new work in structural linguistics and language behavior of children and adults.

Experiments set up to explain the disparity between advanced language development in children and their cognitive development are described by Anisfield. Inferences from his research suggest that present recognition procedures used to measure competence may place obstacles in the way of a child's performance, interfering with his manifestation of competence, or might be recognized as tapping different aspects of competence.

After a careful, linguistic study of spelling-to-sound relationships, Weir and Venezky conclude that teaching of reading based upon these relationships is only as good as its base. They imply that such relationships are more consistent, and more complex, than they have been thought to be. They suggest that the morphemic and syntactic patterns already a part of a child's language habits be put to use in design of reading materials.

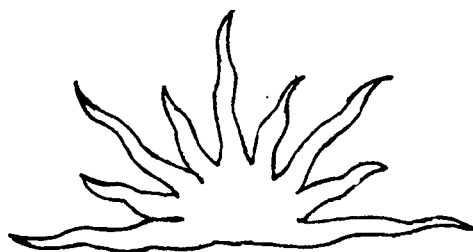
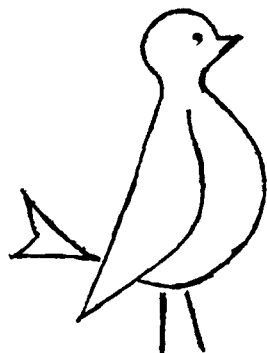
An instrument for syntactical analysis of children's compositions, described in detail by Everetts, and a study to help discover how grammatical structure affects comprehension difficulty, reported here by

Bormuth, may help teachers in ranking readabilities of written materials and in the selection and pacing of reading materials to children's language competencies.

Ruddell deals with an attempt to gain insights into related factors in early reading instruction and in language variables of children. Data collected in the first year of the study are inconclusive; adequate evaluation is dependent upon continuing longitudinal studies in realistic classroom settings.

It is likely that the reader's interest will be piqued by Olsen's examination of the validity of statements made by publishers and producers of materials for teaching beginning reading which, it is claimed, are based on linguistics, linguistic knowledge, or linguistic method. His conclusions indicate that there is a need for better integration and utilization of linguistic knowledge in reading instruction, that this area needs more well-documented research, and that classroom practitioners need more help in understanding linguistics and the application of linguistic principles.

Classroom teachers and other professional workers with children in the language arts areas who are committed to the human aspect of *means* as well as *ends* will appreciate the final presentation by LeFevre. Here, he makes a strong case for a multidisciplinary approach to language and to reading, which he sees not as ends in themselves, "but communicative means to personal and social maturity, to the ultimate ends of education and of humanity itself, in fact."



## ROUND ROBIN

*Dorothy E. Smith, Editor*

Here, below, is the final section of the Annotated Bibliography of Books for Junior High School Retarded Readers, by Mary Small, Remedial Reading Teacher at Northeastern Junior High School, Kalamazoo, Michigan. Everyone who works with junior high school students will recognize the unique quality of Mrs. Small's annotations and the wide range of the types of books listed.

### MATERIALS FOR THE RETARDED READER IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL: AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

By Mary P. Small

#### Section III

Except for the anthologies in Holt's *Impact Series* and the SRA Pilot Library, which are suitable for a classroom library, and Scholastic's *Word Mysteries and Puzzles*, which some students may enjoy doing on their own, the materials listed in the section on textbooks and workbooks have a place in an individualized reading program primarily as sources of exercises and lessons from which the teacher may draw in developing lessons on specific reading skills. For this purpose, Smith's *Be a Better Reader: Foundations* and Gainsburg's *Advanced Skills in Reading* appear to be the most useful.

## TEXTBOOKS AND WORKBOOKS

Abramovitz, Jack, gen. ed. *The Follett Basic Learnings Program: English*. Chicago: Follett, 1966.

Heber, Harold L. *Learning Your Language/ One*. (Grade 7)

—————, and Florence Nolte. *Learning Your Language/ Two*. (Grade 8)

A program comprising six booklets at each level designed especially for slow learners. Lessons are based on short reading selections preceded by a vocabulary list and reading directions and followed by comprehension, vocabulary, and composition exercises. The selections, which are generally good, include reprints of stories, poems, biographies, essays, full-length novels, and a drama. Longer selections are divided into two or more lessons. The development of reading and language skills is stressed. Workbook format.

Brooks, Charlotte, gen. ed. *Holt's Impact Series, Level 1*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1968.

Brooks, Charlotte, and Lawana Trout. *I've Got a Home*.

Trout, Lawana, and Allan D. Pierson. *At Your Own Risk*.

Stull, Edith G. *Cities*.

—————, *Larger Than Life*.

A language arts program for junior high school students who are "turned off as far as education is concerned." Each of the four paperbound anthologies includes a variety of selections related to a general theme. The selections are good; and the books, illustrated with black and white photographs, line drawings, and reproductions of works of art, are handsome. The teacher's guides contain detailed lesson plans in which the development of concepts related to the unit theme and basic comprehension of the rhetoric of literature are emphasized. A recording and a classroom library of paperbacks for independent reading are available for each anthology. (Because students should find these books quite attractive, it would be desirable to have copies available for individual browsing.) The lesson plans should be quite useful in specific cases but, I suspect, only if the teacher is fully aware of the implications of the over-all scheme according to which they are organized. The teacher should have previous acquaintance with a sophisticated analysis of literary rhetoric, such as Percy Lubbock, *The Craft of Fiction* (London, 1921), or E. M. Forster, *Aspects of the Novel* (London, 1927).

Charry, Lawrence B., and Harold L. Herber. *Word Puzzles and Mysteries*. Scholastic, 1967.

A paperbound book containing cross-word puzzles, word games in the areas of English, social studies, and science, and word “mysteries” in which the student supplies the missing articles (or conjunctions, prepositions, etc., as directed) in short selections. The teacher’s edition includes suggestions for using the exercises and an answer key. Cartoon type illustrations. (Except for the cross-word puzzles, the “games” are essentially workbook exercises and therefore may be of limited appeal to students who do not enjoy testing themselves in this area.)

Gainsburg, Joseph C., and others. *Advanced Skills in Reading*. New York: Macmillan.

Book 1. 1962. (Grades 7-8)

Book 2. 1962. (Grades 7-8)

Book 3. 1964. (Grades 9-12)

A series intended for developmental reading programs in junior high and high school. The emphasis is on how to read various types of material analytically, and the approach is primarily rhetorical. Books 2 and 3 treat in a more sophisticated manner the skills developed in the preceding book or books. (An interesting and rigorous approach; these materials, however, are probably too difficult at the indicated grade levels for students with reading problems. The teacher, however, will find many useful suggestions for lessons.)

Hodkinson, Kenneth, and Joseph G. Ornato. *Wordly Wise*, Books 1 and 2. Cambridge, Mass.: Educators Publishing Service, 1967.

A vocabulary workbook. Each of the 30 lessons contains a list of about 12 words and a series of exercises which students are to complete after having studied in the glossary the meanings of the words on the list. Answers are given at the end of each lesson so that students may check their own work. (Of limited use and appeal.)

Parker, Don. *SRA Pilot Library*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1963.

Pilot Library IIa. Grade 4. (rd 2-7)

Pilot Library IIc. Grade 6. (rd 4-9)

Pilot Library IIIb. Grades 7-8. (rd 5-12)

Each of the three Pilot Libraries includes 72 selections published

in separate booklets. The short selections are excerpts from books recommended for children and young adults. A Teacher's Handbook, Student Record Key, and Key Booklets are available. (The material in Pilot Libraries IIc and IIb should be useful for students reading below grade level in junior high school.)

Parker, Don. *The SRA Reading Laboratory*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1957.

A multilevel developmental reading program for use in the upper elementary grades, junior and senior high school, and college. It is based on graded reading selections followed by comprehension and vocabulary exercises, which the student corrects himself. A Student Record Book is included. (Probably quite useful for some students reading below grade level; I gather, however, that students tire of this material.)

Smith, Nila Banton. *Be a Better Reader* (2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1963.

Books I, II, III, IV, V, and VI. (Grades 7-12)

A series of six text-workbooks prepared for use in a developmental reading program in junior high and high school. The emphasis and the format of Books I through III is similar to that of *Be a Better Reader: Foundations* (described below). In addition to sections on reading in the content areas, Books IV through VI include lessons on such reading skills as previewing, skimming, finding main ideas and main topics, etc. (Good material and a sound approach. *The Foundations* books in the same series may be more appropriate for retarded readers in junior high school.)

Smith, Nila Banton. *Be a Better Reader: Foundations*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1968.

Book A. (rd. 4)

Book B. (rd. 5)

Book C. (rd. 6)

A series of three text-workbooks designed for use in a developmental reading program in the upper elementary grades or in a remedial program in junior high or high school. The emphasis is on development of the special skills required for reading in science, social studies, and mathematics; and the approach is derived from Smith's analysis of the various patterns of writing—e.g., classification pattern, cause and effect pattern, etc.—used in books on these subjects. Lessons are based on short selections of textbook type

material in science, social studies, and mathematics. In addition, there are lessons designed to reinforce the basic reading skills. (Could be highly useful with junior high school students reading below grade level, particularly if material from the students' own textbooks is also used in the lessons. In order to avoid communicating gross misunderstandings to the students, the teacher should have at least a nodding acquaintance with formal logic. Most good college freshman rhetoric texts contain enough information on logical analysis to keep the teacher from going too far astray.)

Turner, Richard H. *The Turner-Livingston Communication Series*. Chicago: Follett, 1965.

*The Television You Watch.*

*The Phone Calls You Make.*

*The Newspapers You Read.*

*The Movies You See.*

*The Letters You Write.*

*The Language You Speak.*

A series of six "low-reading-level text-workbooks" recommended for use in grades 8, 9, and 10. Each book contains 23 lessons, a final examination, and a glossary of some of the more difficult words in the book. Each lesson includes a brief reading selection followed by a series of comprehension and vocabulary exercises and questions designed to elicit the student's opinion and evaluation of various topics related to the theme of the book. The reading selections within each book form a loose narrative with teen-agers as the main characters. One of several Follett programs designed especially for inner-city disadvantaged, or unmotivated teen-age students. Teacher's guide available. (A practical approach which may be useful—although hardly exciting—for some students reading below grade level.)

#### LISTS OF MATERIALS FOR RELUCTANT OR POOR READERS

Dunn, Anita E., and Mabel E. Jackman. *Fare for the Reluctant Reader* (3rd ed.). Albany, N.Y.: Capital Area School Development Association, 1964.

Lists, with brief annotations, titles suitable for reluctant readers in grades seven through twelve, including trade books, series books, abridgements, adaptations, paperbacks, school editions, magazines, and newspapers. Trade books are grouped in three grade-level

categories—grades 7 and 8, grades 9 and 10, and grades 11 and 12—and within these categories are organized according to subject (animal stories, sports stories, etc.). Reading level is not indicated. Author and title indexes.

Emery, Raymond C., and Margaret B. Houshower. *High Interest—Easy Reading for Junior and Senior High School Reluctant Readers*. Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1965.

Lists, with brief annotations, titles suitable for reluctant readers of junior and senior high school age. Trade books are organized according to subject—adventure, biography, informational, etc. Also included are series books, reading improvement materials, and a sample interest inventory. Approximate reading and interest levels by grade are indicated for each title or series. Appears to be based to some extent on Spache's *Good Reading for Poor Readers*. Author and title indexes.

Spache, George D. *Good Reading for Poor Readers* (rev. 1964). Champaign, Ill.: Garrard Publishing Co., 1964.

Lists, with brief annotations, titles suitable for poor readers of junior and senior high school age as well as a smaller number of books for younger children. Trade books are organized according to subject (family life, sea, America, etc.), and reading and interest levels by grade are indicated for each title. (Spache warns that "the estimates of the interest levels are rather optimistic," a judgment with which I would agree.) In addition, there are lists of adapted and simplified materials; textbooks, workbooks, and games; magazines and newspapers; series books; book clubs; and programmed materials. Chapters on reading interests, bibliotherapy, and use of readability formulas are included. Author and title indexes.

Strang, Ruth, and others. *Gateways to Readable Books* (4th ed.). New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1966.

An annotated list of over 1,000 titles, including trade books, reading texts and workbooks, books in series, adapted and simplified editions, and simplified dictionaries. Trade books are organized according to subject, and many recent titles are included. Reading level is indicated for each title or series; in addition to author and title indexes, there is an "Index to Grade Level of Difficulty." The majority of titles are fifth-, sixth-, and seventh-grade levels of difficulty. Extremely useful.

A number of other lists which may be of interest to reading teachers

are contained in the following publication:

U.S. Office of Education. *Book Selection Aids for Children and Teachers in Elementary and Secondary Schools*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1966.

A sixteen-page circular in which general book lists, specialized book lists, and periodicals which review books are described. Price is indicated. Includes a directory of publishers. (Available from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 20402; catalog No. FS 5.230.30019; price 15 cents.)

The reading teacher at the secondary level should also be familiar with the following book, which is extremely useful:

Carlsen, G. Robert. *Books and the Teen-Age Reader*. New York: Bantam Books, 1967.

A discussion of the reading interests of teen-agers at various stages of their development. An annotated bibliography is included in chapters on the adolescent novel, the popular adult book, significant modern literature, the classics, poetry, biography, nonfiction, and reading for the college bound.

# TEN-SECOND REVIEWS

*Blanche O. Bush*

Reading without purpose is sauntering, not exercise.  
More is got from one book on which the thought settles  
for a definite end in knowledge, than from libraries  
skimmed over by a wandering eye. —Bulwer

Asher, J. William, "Comment on Spelling Achievement following i.t.a. Instruction," *The Reading Teacher* (November, 1968), 22:153-156.

According to the results of experiments by Mazurkiewicz (1966) and Mazurkiewicz and Lamana (1966) children taught by i.t.a., as compared to t.o.—taught children, seemingly drop precipitously on their word study skills from mid term to the end of the year in the first grade and are poorer in punctuation and capitalization in a creative writing sample at the second grade. The i.t.a. children seemingly are superior in word reading and word study skills at mid term in the first year and are inferior in spelling at the end of the first grade while superior in number of running words, spelling, and number of polysyllable words at the end of second grade. There seems to be no theory to account for these phenomena.

Barbe, Walter B., "Reading and Language in the Instruction of Young Children," *Education* (September-October, 1968), 89:18-21.

More important than setting an age at which children should be taught to read, is establishing a philosophy which allows for individual differences. Acceptance of each child as a unique individual and adapting educational procedures to meet his needs, rather than attempting to make him fit the mold, will likely result in earlier teaching of reading to many children. The nongraded elementary school seems to offer the best opportunity to meet these highly idealistic and difficult goals.

Blau, Harold and Harriet Blau, "A Theory of Learning to Read," *The Reading Teacher* (November, 1968), 22:126-129+.

This article reports on a new and interesting alternative in which the visual modality is deliberately suppressed or blocked, initially at least, instead of being reinforced. The basic theory

involved is that, in some cases, learning to read may be literally cut off or short-circuited by the visual modality rather than merely obstructed.

Chall, Jeanne S. (reviewed by Shirley De Leon) "Learning to Read—The Great Debate," *Children's House* (Fall issue, 1968), 11:20-22.

Chall's study concentrated on the methods of beginning reading instruction. It includes definitions of methods, interviews with leading proponents of the different approaches, observations of these methods being used in schools, and analyses of readers, workbooks and instructional manuals from the two reading series most widely used in the United States in the late 1950's and early 1960's.

Chambers, Dewey W., "Signposts for Creative Teaching," *The Instructor* (October, 1968), 78:57+.

Research in the field of creativity is still new and doubts exist as to the validity of some findings but most authorities agree that certain practices can encourage creative thinking. The following are examples of such practices: (1) Less emphasis on conformity, (2) Flexible scheduling, (3) Provision for time, (4) Less emphasis on group work, (5) Less dependence on panaceas, (6) Wise use of tests, (7) Less stress on sex role, (8) Reasonable use of the closed question, (9) Flexible teacher attitudes.

Colvin, Charles R., "A Reading Program that Failed—Or Did It?" *Journal of Reading* (November, 1968), 12:142-149.

Is "failure" a relative term? This article gives an account of an investigation which tried to avoid contamination of the subjects under study but failed. The author's view is that reading research of the experimental control type should constantly be checked for group contamination (Hawthorne effect) before implications either positive or negative can be made.

DeCarlo, Mary Rossini and Donald L. Cleland, "A Reading In-Service Education Program for Teachers," *The Reading Teacher* (November, 1968), 22:163-169.

An in-service education program geared to the needs of teachers can have a salutary effect upon teachers, can develop

a positive attitude toward reading supervision and teachers will not resist change. Desirable effects upon pupil attitude toward reading and interest in reading did occur as an outcome of the behaviorial changes effected by teachers in an inservice education program. Improvement in teaching of reading in the intermediate grades did occur with the better interpretation of instructional materials in current use in the school district.

Diederich, Paul B., "The Transition from Juvenile to Adult Books," *The Education Digest* (October, 1968), 34:46-48.

Puberty seemingly is the point at which average readers finally have to make a transition from juvenile to adult books if their reading interests are to continue. Stories concocted for juveniles are rejected as kid stuff but a surprising number apparently cannot make the jump to books written for adults. The most obvious difficulty is the vocabulary. Also adult books are full of non-literal statements and the young reader who takes them literally must often feel that what he is reading is nonsense. Other difficulties in adult books are long and complex sentences, complex characters, literary forms and devices, interrupted time sequences, and views contrary to one's own.

Eastland, Patricia Ann, " 'Read Aloud' Stories in the Primary Literature Program," *The Reading Teacher* (December, 1968), 22:216-222.

The stories read aloud by the teacher are an important part of the primary literature program. Care must be taken in the selection and presentation of these stories if they are to serve their intended educational purposes. Some 'Read Aloud' titles are listed in the order from the simplest to the more complex.

Ekwall, Eldon E., and Ida Bell Henry, "How to Find Books Children Can Read," *The Reading Teacher* (December, 1968), 22:230-232.

Classroom teachers often find it difficult to locate books for children which they can read independently. Most teachers do not have the time nor the experience to apply formulas to check the readability of large numbers of books. One solution to the problem is to use the standards defined in this article for an informal reading test and, in light of the test results, to assign

grade-level ratings to books. By cooperating with the school librarian, classroom teachers can give books markings that can be seen at a glance.

Fleming, James T., "Skimming: Neglected in Research and Teaching," *Journal of Reading* (December, 1968), 12:211-214+.

An increase in our understanding of the nature of skimming is essential. Studies are needed wherein materials representing a variety of content are presented to several age-grade levels of youngsters who themselves represent equally diverse backgrounds, aptitudes and levels of achievement. A thorough and systematic investigation of some of the issues raised in this article should substantially increase our capacity to assist in the development of a basic reading skill—a skill which to date has received little more than abundant lip-service, and little less than total neglect.

Ford, Robin C. and Janos Koplyay, "Children's Story Preferences," *The Reading Teacher* (December, 1968), 22:233-237.

The research reported describes the construction of a non-verbal test of children's story preferences and explores in a tentative way the use of the instrument to disclose story preferences among kindergarten, first, second, and third grade children, one group from an upper-middle class suburban school system and another group with a predominantly Negro, urban school district.

Hagen, Mary and Barbara Solfermoser, "Surveying A Community for Reading Materials," *The Reading Teacher* (December, 1968), 22:228-229.

Probably one of the most important products of this project is the sudden awareness of how much literature is available to everyone at all times if he but searches. This survey may help to eliminate frustration teachers feel when they must teach in schools with inadequate libraries or in schools where, all too often, textbooks are the only available source of information. The survey also makes the pupils aware of the tremendous number of sources for learning surrounding them. Because the sources are outside of the school, the students may well use them in accomplishing a lifetime education.

Hall, Maryanne, "Teacher Education in Reading," *The Reading Teacher* (December, 1968), 22:265-270.

The purposes of this experimental program were: (1) To provide planned correlation between the on-campus pre-service preparation in teaching reading and the student teaching; (2) To present student teachers with a variety of experiences in teaching reading at all grade levels in the elementary school; (3) To provide situations for observations, discussion, demonstration and participation with selected materials and techniques; and (4) To effect improved communication between the university and the public schools concerning students' preparation.

Harris, Albert J., "Research on Some Aspects of Comprehension, Rate, Flexibility and Study Skills," *Journal of Reading* (December, 1968), 12:205-210+.

Research on rate, flexibility and study skills has been conducted over several decades. Harris selected several significant studies for review. Reportedly it is evident that rate and comprehension vary according to groups tested, kinds of reading matter used, the measuring instruments, and purpose for reading. Most correlations have been positive but quite low.

Hildreth, Gertrude, "Reading with A Rational Alphabet: The Russian System," *The Reading Teacher* (December, 1968) 22:251-261.

The facts cited in this article confirm the conclusion that Soviet children learn to read their native language rapidly with ease, during the first year in school as the result of well organized lessons in textbooks supplemented by other forms of practice and reading experience. For teaching beginning reading, a consistent alphabetic code has the same advantages as an unambiguous numbers system or simple scheme for musical notation. With a consistent alphabetic code in which the letters and syllables "say their sounds," learning the mechanics and their application in meaningful, interpretive reading can proceed simultaneously. Methods of teaching beginning reading in the U.S.S.R. remain remarkably constant year-by-year.

Hill, Charles H., "Reading On the Reservation," *Journal of Reading* (November, 1968), 12:125-128.

Remedial programs at the secondary level inside the Yakima

Indian Reservation, even when they are well-financed, and well-staffed, leave much to be desired. The author raises serious questions about recent efforts to alleviate the reading problems of disadvantaged secondary students.

Hillerich, Robert L., "Linguistic Efforts in Reading," *The National Elementary Principal* (September, 1968), 48:36-43.

The purpose of this article was not to praise nor to condemn but to analyze and compare, to see where reading teachers and linguists might agree or differ and to suggest the reasons for their individual viewpoints.

Hurley, Oliver L., "Perceptual Integration and Reading Problems," *Exceptional Children* (November, 1968), 35:207-215.

This article reports an investigation of the relationship between reading and automatic sequential level skills. Even though the results were negative, these data are reported to (a) invite criticism of the procedure, (b) head off a line of investigation which does not appear to be fruitful, and suggest problems of sampling to other investigators who wish to pursue similar projects.

Johns, Jerry L., "Informal Techniques Aiding Diagnosis in Reading," *The Michigan Reading Journal* (Fall, 1968), 2:47-49.

Informal tests, based upon the reading materials used in the classroom and charts of faulty habits and difficulties observed when the child is reading, can provide the best basis for planning effective instruction. Tests, both formal and informal, represent a substantial part in diagnosing reading difficulties, but unless they are used in conjunction with observation, oral evaluation, cumulative records, and other evaluative techniques, serious error may and probably will result.

Kavanagh, James F., Scientific Editor, *Communicating by Language, The Reading Process*, Proceedings of the Conference, February 11-13, 1968, New Orleans, pp. 228.

In general the purpose of this conference was to understand the nature of reading. The following questions were discussed by various authorities: (1) Are we on profitable and sensible tasks in our research on reading? (2) What are the promising

lines of evidence? Are there some congruences among our findings? Or, are we asking such diverse questions and using such different methods that our results are not comparable? and (3) Finally, can we discover new questions and new directions for future research on reading?

Kirk, Edith Cohoe, "Physical Conditions for Reading," *The Reading Teacher* (December, 1968), 22:223-227.

The physical facilities of the school must provide optimum conditions for all children to read and learn. Children with slightly defective vision, especially if uncorrected, as well as those who are partially seeing, must often expend real effort to distinguish the reading matter. This article discusses the provision of adequate physical conditions in the classroom for all children, the normal and the partially seeing, identifying children with defective vision, and making special provisions for the partially seeing. Many school systems provide no special supervisor or other staff member to give assistance to partially seeing children. In such systems, this responsibility must be assumed by the regular teacher.

Kline, Carl L., Carolyn L. Kline, Marjorie Ashbrenner and Sandra Calkins, "The Treatment of Specific Dyslexia in a Community Mental Health Center," *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 1:456-466.

A major program for the diagnosis and treatment of specific dyslexia was established in the Marathon County (Wisconsin) Child Guidance Clinic. This paper reports the experience of the first year of operation of the Clinic and analyzes the first fifty completed cases.

Leigh, Teresa, "i.t.a. and Progressive Teaching Methods," *The Reading Teacher* (November, 1968), 22:148-152.

In British Infants' Schools, i.t.a. has been integrated successfully with modern progressive teaching methods associated with an eclectic approach to beginning reading. The most common practice with i.t.a. in British classrooms is an i.t.a. eclectic basal reading series with a definite look-say beginning, plus a language-experience approach and careful consideration of individual difference in the learning style of children.

Lorang, Sister Mary Corde, *Burning Ice: The Moral and Emotional Effects of Reading*, New York: Charles Scribners Son, 1968, p. 303.

This study is based on the results of a questionnaire sent to over 3,000 high school students in the United States, the Philippines, Guatemala and Tanzania in both public and parochial schools. The questionnaire covered these points: a listing of three books read, with "character liked best—why?" "character liked least—why?" and "did you like the book—why?" "What books or magazine or books have had a good effect on you? a bad effect?" This book not only correlates the information received but quotes many of the answers directly. The author concludes "we do have evidence that reading can effect socially acceptable or anti-social behavior."

Lowry, Heath W., "A Glossary of Terms—Linguistics," *The Reading Teacher* (November, 1968), 22:136-144.

This glossary is not considered by the author to be comprehensive, but is offered as a guide for the classroom teacher to use in his perusal of journal materials and/or teacher's manuals accompanying some of the newer publications being used in the classroom or college course. This list should at least serve to introduce the user to a linguist's basic vocabulary.

McCallum, Carol, "Non Graded Team Teaching," *Science and Children* (September, 1968), 6:42.

Another attempt to integrate team teaching into the curriculum has been undertaken by the Village Height Elementary School in the Cherry Creek School District near Denver, Colorado. For the first year of non-gradedness each teacher was relieved of teaching one subject matter area and each of the six teachers involved was a team leader or resource teacher in one subject area. A key part of the planning was that all children would have the same subject at the same time so that a child could be moved up or down the ladder of difficulty. There was no attempt to put "alikes" together.

Miller, Lyle L. and Robert N. Sawyer, "A Double Track for Developmental Reading in High School," *Reading Improvement* (Fall, 1968), 5:39-42.

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the potential

value of each of the developmental reading programs in the local school and to investigate the question of selective criteria which might be valuable in selecting students for one or both of the levels (Freshmen and Seniors) of the program. Nothing, according to the authors, from this study would provide any selective criteria upon which to exclude any student from participation in a developmental reading program. This program as presented to both the samples of seniors and freshmen was highly successful and the programs as initiated seem worthy of continued support.

Milligan, Jerry L. and William H. Crawford, "A Junior College Reading and Study Program," *Reading Improvement* (Fall, 1968), 5:23-29.

For the community college to have an effective reading and study skills program, the program must have some very clear-cut objectives. The authors suggest that the program should be designed to accomplish the following: (1) Identify pupils who can profit from the services offered; (2) Provide for faculty-wide cooperation and involvement; (3) Improve reading rate; (4) Provide appropriate instruction in spelling for those who need it; (5) Include instruction aimed at improvement of comprehension skill; (6) Include instruction aimed at improvement of listening ability; (7) Provide instruction in use of library and resource materials; (8) Provide instruction in basic writing skills; and (9) Work in cooperation with counseling services.

Morency, Anne, "Auditory Modality Research and Practice," *Perception and Reading*, Proceedings of the Twelfth Annual Convention-International Reading Association, Newark, Delaware, Part 4, 12:17-21.

The purpose of this paper is to discuss and attempt to clarify the role of auditory perception, especially the functions of auditory discrimination and auditory memory, in the process of learning to read. The findings of this study support the theory that perception is a developing process in the early school years.

Morrison, Virginia B., "Teacher-Pupil Interaction in Three Types of Elementary Classroom Reading Situations," *The Reading Teacher* (December, 1968), 22:271-275.

This report is concerned with findings of teacher-pupil be-

havior occurring in three types of classroom reading situations: (1) The use of the same (single) reading or subject area text by the teacher and all pupils; (2) The use of multi-level texts in reading groups or ability-subject groupings; and (3) the use of supplementary and/or individualized reading materials by teacher and pupils in classrooms of elementary schools. The findings indicate that the use of multi-level and supplementary reading and subject area materials showed the greatest number of significantly positive aspects of classroom interactions in classroom activities. These findings support the knowledge that reading methodology must provide for the needs and interests of students to attain the goals of reading instruction—the desire and ability to read.

Olson, Norinne H., Arthur V. Olson, and Patricia H. Duncan, "Neurological Dysfunction and Reading Disability," *The Reading Teacher* (November, 1968), 22:157-162.

The conditions of alexia, dyslexia, mixed-lateral dominance, and strephosymbolia are but a representative group of the types of disorders having a neurological basis. They have been found to coexist frequently with more broadly classified neurological categories, such as cerebral palsy which may be accompanied by dyslexia, nystagmus, and/or mixed dominance (Kirk, 1962). The problem with these conditions lies in the inability to screen and to diagnose accurately. Diagnosis without prognosis and treatment has been a major criticism of the clinicians who attempt to determine the nature of a disability.

OzMon, Howard A., Jr., "Value Implications in Children's Reading Material," *The Reading Teacher* (December, 1968), 22:246-250.

This study was concerned with the values reflected in children's readers at the primary level and the relationship of these values to educational philosophy. The findings seem to indicate that a more pluralistic value structure in children's basal readers is in order, and that teachers need to be more critical of values presented in textbooks as perhaps reflecting only one point of view. This study also serves to highlight the pervasiveness of values throughout basal readers, and the need for educators to become more aware of the value structure and its philosophical implications.

Pauk, Walter, "Focus on Study Skills—Do College Students Use Shorthand?" *Reading Improvement* (Fall, 1968), 5:46-47.

The results of this survey point strongly to the inadvisability of learning a system of shorthand for the purpose of taking notes on college lectures with the intent of using the notes for immediate or later study.

Personke, Carl R., "The Listening Post in Beginning Reading," *The Reading Teacher* (November, 1968), 22:130-135.

Tape recorders and listening posts are becoming more and more available to the classroom teacher. To fail to use these valuable tools in the advancement of reading instruction, particularly in the primary grades, is to neglect an important tool of instruction. Meaningful independent activities, long the bane of the primary teacher who groups her reading classes for instruction, are made possible in a manner never before attempted. Furthermore, the activities provided, since they are related to understanding and conceptual growth, are more firmly supported by the research in language learning.

Porter, Sara, "Pictures in Reading," *The Reading Teacher* (December, 1968), 22:238-241+.

Understanding what is read is not always easy for elementary children, especially those who are slow learners or under-achievers. Obviously, one reason for poor comprehension is that the reader has not learned to visualize. Teachers aware of the importance of background experiences in reading can provide more frequently many types of visual aids and activities, since children cannot easily visualize what they have not had the experience of seeing. Also teachers will help children "see" what they are reading about by asking them to illustrate the ideas in pictures, murals, homemade movies, or pantomime. Other ways of helping are to have children follow directions, organize the facts in graph or tabular form, and make and read maps and charts.

Pyles, Audrey, "Test Review: Gilmore Oral Reading Test," *The Michigan Reading Journal* (Fall, 1968), 2:50-52.

The most important benefit which can be gained by administering this oral reading test lies in the original purpose Gilmore

set out to accomplish when he established this test. He wanted to provide those people concerned with reading instruction with a reading instrument by which to measure oral reading strengths and weaknesses for one individual. After determining the reader's oral reading ability the teacher can then continue the diagnosis and then employ appropriate techniques and material to aid this reader in improving his reading and comprehension ability and lessening, or removing, his weaknesses.

Rankin, Earl F., "Learning Disabilities—What's In a Name?" *Journal of Reading* (December, 1968), 12:215-218.

The writer has attempted to show some of the effects stemming from the terminological confusion about "learning disabilities" and has recommended uses of the term "minimal brain dysfunction" as defined in the Task Force One Report. It is believed that this would eliminate some existing confusion and would stimulate and encourage the kinds of inter-disciplinary thinking, research, treatment, and organizational efforts which will benefit children with these particular kinds of learning problems.

Rankin, Earl F. and Charlotte L. Thames, "A Methodology for Studying Children's Reactions to Stories in First Grade Readers," *The Reading Teacher* (December, 1968), 22:242-245+.

The primary purpose of this study was to try out a method of measuring interests in published reading materials, which might be useful for future research. Will first grade children merely give socially acceptable responses to an adult concerning questions about school related materials? Can they make meaningful discriminations among different questions and materials? Can they verbalize the reasons for their likes and dislikes? A secondary, but related, purpose was to see if there is a better reaction of first graders to a story from a phonics reading series than to a story from a basal reading series. In general, it may be concluded that first grade children can make meaningful discriminations indicating interests in first grade reading material.

Schiffman, Gilbert B., "Total Language Arts Commitment-Kindergarten Through Twelfth Grade," *The Reading Teacher* (November, 1968), 22:115-121.

The author states that there is nothing new in this county

program. It is the attempt of one school system to develop a total reading program with the focus and emphasis on prevention and not remediation. There will undoubtedly be numerous changes in concepts, approaches, and techniques in the next few years. Constant objective evaluation and flexibility in programming will result, it is hoped, in providing every pupil with a better chance to achieve to his fullest potential.

Schwartz, Elizabeth, "Slow Readers Can Enjoy Oral Reading," *Journal of Reading* (November, 1968), 12:139-141.

When junior high remedial students use the tape recorder to assist lower grade students, their own skills are improved. The use of the tape recorder has proved to be a strong motivating factor in the junior high school remedial reading classes.

Shankman, Florence V., "Games Reinforce Reading Skills," *The Reading Teacher* (December, 1968), 22:262-264.

Games can be used to reinforce many different reading skills. They are an incentive for learning vocabulary, phonics, word structure, and sight words. There are many things that a teacher can do in connection with games. She should encourage the creative efforts of the children to help them develop original games, riddles or puzzles to aid them in remembering certain words or principles in reading. If games are kept interesting and challenging, they can contribute a great deal.

Singleton, Carlton M., "Reading in Ghetto Schools," *Educate*, 1:38-40.

The most glaring and the most dramatic proof of educational disaster is the failure of ghetto children to learn to read. The language of the ghetto is a highly dialectic, highly colorful version of English. The language of the school is formal standard American English. If the language the child brings to school differs from that which he is asked to read, he has trouble learning to read. The school has not as yet been able to adapt its program to meet the needs of ghetto children. The right teaching is a triple play—the right teacher, the right materials and techniques, and the right environment.

Smith, Richard J. and Clinton R. Barter, "The Effects of Reading for Two Particular Purposes," *Journal of Reading* (November, 1968), 12:134-138.

This study found that using writing tasks at different cognitive levels to set purposes for reading did not result in differences in attitudes toward what was read or differences in retention of facts. Therefore, the implication is that teachers who use writing tasks at different cognitive levels to influence either of the two variables investigated in this study may be operating from a false assumption. The findings of this study do not support the notion that involving students with creative writing tasks about a reading selection has a negative effect on their retention of specific facts. Nor do the findings support the notion that students enjoy a selection more if they engage in creative writing about it than if they engage in noncreative writing about it.

Thomas, Ellen Lamar "Books Are the Greatest," *Journal of Reading* (November, 1968), 12:119-124.

Appropriate and available books plus a coach's salesmanship may be powerful stimuli in developing lifetime habits of reading. The author describes the theory on which Coach Sanford Patlake at the University of Chicago Laboratory School operates. Far from viewing his project as an added responsibility for a far-too-busy teacher, Coach Patlake regards it as an integral part of teaching physical education and coaching.

Torrance, E. Paul and Laura R. Fortson, "Creativity Among Young Children and the Creative Aesthetic Approach," *Education* (September-October, 1968), 89:27-30.

The authors report a study to evaluate different creative-aesthetic approaches to learning among preschool children in such basic areas as reading and mathematics.

Whipple, Gertrude, "Good Procedures in Selecting Schoolbooks," *The Reading Teacher* (December, 1968), 22:211-215.

When an adequate amount of reliable information about the books has been assembled, the next step is that of determining the general excellence of each book. For this purpose a

method is needed that will lead to critical evaluation and intelligent choice. First, each book may be given a general rating in light of careful and impartial consideration of all its ratings on specific characteristics. In making final choices, it would seem that a majority vote would not be as good as a consensus of judgment reached through discussion. Conflicting views which are expressed can usually be resolved through reexamination and further discussion.

Williams, Maurice and Sylvia Black, "Assignments: Key to Achievement," *Journal of Reading* (November, 1968), 12:129-133.

Underachievement, say these authors, is a result of poor assignments based on unreadable texts. They offer familiar solutions that bear reiteration. Establishing a worthwhile purpose for beginning the assignment, providing readable materials, developing vocabulary and word attack skills, and building study skills are the factors in a successful assignment.

Young, Virgil M. and Katherine A. Young, "Special Education Children As the Authors of Books," *The Reading Teacher* (November, 1968), 22:122-125.

During the 1965-66 school year, each pupil (except one non-reader) in a class of twelve educable children wrote two "books" as a culmination of a year-long writing program. The stories in these "books" were written in the children's own unique and unrevised wording and speech patterns. After the children had written their stories, they were typed on ordinary lithography paper, altered only by corrected spelling and punctuation and separating them into "chapters." The children then illustrated the stories, and a plastic spine was inserted to form them into a "book." While it cannot be said that a writing program such as this is a cure-all for poor readers, it can be said with certainty that elements of the program should be useful to any teacher, regardless of the group.