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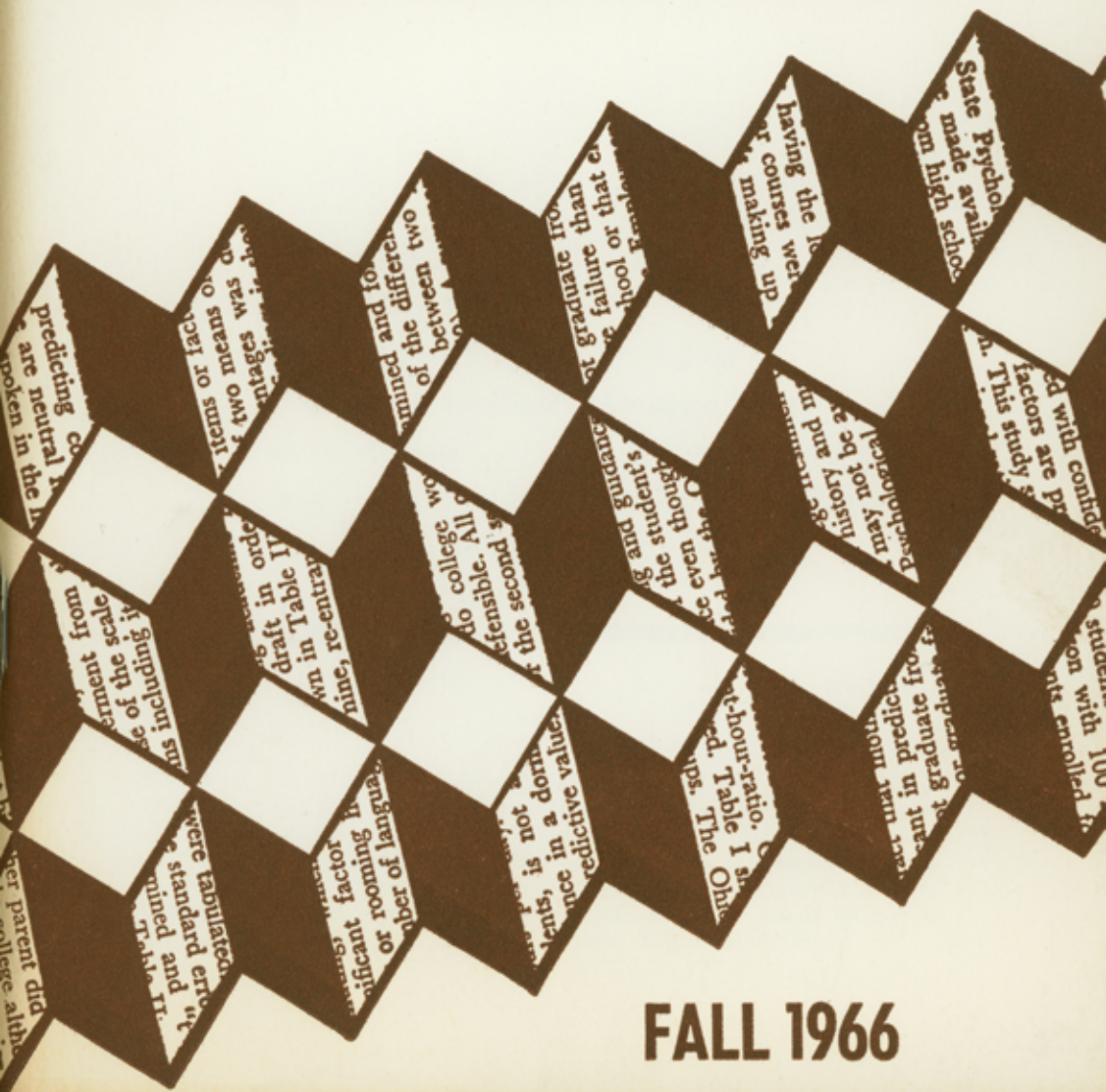
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Reading

HORIZONS



FALL 1966

Reading **HORIZONS**

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Editorial Comment

TEACHING OR "JUST TEACHING"

Some theorists in education proclaim that disabilities in reading are only "a phase in the child's development" and that teachers of reading should accept children as they are and live with them. This sentiment has some merit but is, nevertheless, misleading. The role of the teacher like that of the physician and psychologist is active, not passive. The teacher does something, not only with children, but to them. He is more than a benevolent nurse or baby-sitter. He is a benefactor.

Effective teachers of reading have in mind instructional *aims* and *objectives* which they share with, but do not impose upon, their students. They have plans, designed with the help of their pupils, to accomplish specific goals. They seek to bring about changes in attitudes and growth in reading achievement. They know the needs of their children and strive to help their boys and girls fulfill them. They are more than companions. They are leaders.

The successful teacher selects materials to accomplish specific objectives. His children do more than just read, work with machines, and do exercises. What is done is done for a purpose. "Busy work" is not a part of his program. Instead children and teachers write, design and construct their own materials. Many books are utilized and all materials have for teacher and child a definite purpose. They are an effective means to an end.

Capable teachers, with the cooperation of their students, follow procedures to utilize materials in their pursuit of their objectives. They employ many approaches, many methods and many techniques, for they know there is no one way to teach reading. They have procedures which are designed to help their students. They are in control of the learning situation at all times and they do more than "*just teach.*" They *stimulate, inform, and guide.*

Homer L. J. Carter
Editor

UP WITH THE SPELLDOWN!

Louis Foley

Not long ago there appeared in the newspapers an Associated Press photograph of a happily smiling boy holding in front of him a huge loving-cup. It was a pleasing picture because it looked genuine. The boy was straightforwardly posing to be photographed, not taking part in what Al Smith called "baloney," a picture ostensibly showing the actual bestowal of an award, but artificially posed afterward, with people looking a little foolish because this was not the real thing, and most people are not good actors.

It was Robert A. Wake of Houston, who had just become champion speller of the United States by winning the 39th annual National Spelling Bee in Washington. He had come out on top by spelling "sachem" and "ratoon." The latter he admitted that he had guessed, never having heard of the word—any more than most of us ever did.*

The idea of a "spelling-bee," or what used to be called a "spelledown," does not seem to be anywhere near as popular as it once was. Probably many modern educators would scorn it as hopelessly old-fashioned. It does, however, involve some principles which we might do well to take very seriously. Like athletic games, it shows how a contest can lead people to develop skills to a high point, by supplying *motivation*. Much more than apparent natural aptitude (which is hard to find out about anyhow), motivation or the lack of it is what determines success or failure of students on any level of their educational career. Once a sufficiently ardent desire is awakened, the mere difficulty of learning can make it even more "fun."

It shows that children *can* learn spelling if they just work at it. Childhood is the time to learn it. As someone well said long ago, correct spelling is not a virtue, only a necessity. There is something pathetic about a grown person having to give any conscious thought to spelling except once in a long while—as may happen to any of us about some item of common knowledge which for the moment eludes us.

All the basic aspects of language, spoken or written, have to be absorbed by continually meeting them, hearing or seeing them clearly, using them again and again until they are thoroughly built into our daily living. This means *drill*, which may be had to a large extent unconsciously, but not enough without formal training. Now "drill," it seems, is a bad word for some people. They might call it "parrot

* e.g., *The Christian Science Monitor*, June 10, 1965, p. 1.

learning.” But the only thing wrong with a parrot’s learning words is that he doesn’t know what they mean. And parrots have nothing to do with spelling.

Of course mere spelling is not an end in itself. Unless a person has something important or interesting to write, how he might spell is of little consequence. It would hardly be possible, however, for anyone to become unhesitatingly dependable for the spelling of all sorts of words without becoming thoroughly aware of the natural relationships among them and among the ideas for which they stand. The physical forms have instant meaning for him; he recognizes easily *why* words are spelled as they are. There always is a reason, even though in some cases it may not seem so good as it once did. The simple but profound and far-reaching fact about people who “can’t spell” is that they do not really know the words. Along with whatever else it demonstrates, the achievements of children in spelling contests appear to indicate that our much-maligned English spelling is not such an obstacle in education as would-be reformers take it to be. It just isn’t “all that hard.”

Spelling “phonetically” has meant strange things to some people. An amusing example is the title of a watercolor view of Harvard College by Parson Jonathan Fisher, who was graduated from that institution in 1792. In what has been spoken of as his “phonetic spelling,” he labeled the picture “Harvurd Hal.”

Anyone with a true feeling for the ways of English spelling should know that *Hal*, a common nickname for Harold (or even for Henry as in “Bluff King Hal”), is no more pronounced like *hall* than “pal” sounds like *pall*. It is a subtle but real part of our system that doubling a *final* consonant is different from doubling a medial one! And as for “Harvurd,” if the artist had in mind the local pronunciation, and wished to be genuinely phonetic, he might better have simply omitted both *r*’s.

Our spelling is and must be governed, however, by other considerations as well as by mere phonetics. Often it is easily explained by “family” reasons. Thus the second “a” of Harvard comes out clearly in the adjective *Harvardian*, with the shift of accent. Similarly the word *grammar*, which not infrequently gets misspelled “grammer,” and which phonetically could as well be written *grammor*, *grammir*, *grammur*, or *gramr*, brings out its latent second *a* in *grammatical* or *grammarian*.

Recently I read a high-school graduate’s composition which referred repeatedly to the “Peace Core.” One may wonder if he

associates it with the “hard core” of certain organizations. Certainly he must not be a very attentive reader, for the established spelling has appeared often enough in public print. Of course our word *corps*, adopted long ago from French, owes its “p” to the 16th- and 17th-century scholarly fad of inserting “etymological letters” into words as reminders of their ancient ancestors, in this case the Latin *corpus* (body), a corruption of which gives us “corpse.” Such tinkering was not intended to affect the pronunciation, and seldom did.

When the “etymological” *p* was inserted into the French word *temps* (formerly *tems*) as a reminder of Latin *tempus*, it had no effect upon the sound, any more than the *b* put into our *debt* and *doubt* (from French *dette* and *doute*) to recall their remote Latin ancestors. Yet the *p* which is silent in *temps* comes into play in all words derived from it, which we have adopted and anglicized as *temporal*, *temporary*, *temperature*, and others. So the *p* in *corps* fits it into the “family” pattern of *corporal*, *corporate*, *corporation*, or *corporeal*.

Sometimes the bookish people who revamped various common words, several centuries ago, guessed wrong as to their derivation, as in putting the *d* in *admiral*, from French *amiral*. In some cases the alteration seems entirely pedantic, as in giving the *l* to *salmon* (from French *saumon*) in honor of Latin *salmo*—an “l” which has never been pronounced except by foreigners who had learned the word by reading without ever hearing it. It is easy to make fun of such examples, or even worse ones that may be found, but all such taken together form no very important part of our language, and few of them indeed will be found among the words most commonly misspelled. Now and then, after all, the pedantic alteration of words may have rendered some useful service by making it easier to associate words of related origins, to appreciate fundamental meanings, and thus to master vocabulary in ways hardly possible without such understanding.

Recently an educator spoke of “how a native-born illiterate forms the plurals of [*sic*] *cats*, *dogs*, and *horses*.” With apparent scorn he referred to the books “such as say, ‘Many plurals are formed by adding -s or -es,’ ” for which he has no use. “This is the sort of nonsense which has been foisted on people for generations. Our friend, the illiterate, gets on just fine, and he has no idea of what an *s* is.”**

Now the “plurals” which he cited have long been familiar to anyone who has looked into phonetics as applied to English. They are the classic examples to show what appear as three distinct methods

** John F. Gummere, headmaster of the William Penn Charter School, in *CBS Bulletin*, June 1966, p. 9.

of pluralization when one considers the words purely from the point of view of *phonetics*. The “books” which he despises, however, were not speaking from that point of view, and did not need to do so.

If the illiterate had “no idea of what an *s* is,” he would be even less likely to know the much less used letter *z*. The practical fact is that the *-s* or *-es* ending is simply a flexible visual indication of the plural. The pronunciation takes care of itself as it has to do. After the voiced consonant *g* of *dog*, for instance, the voiceless quality of *s* is impossible, just as the “*z*” sound would be after the voiceless *t* of *cat* or the *k* in *duck*. The “*z*” value of a final *s* is a common phenomenon, not only in plurals but in verb forms such as *is*, *has*, *does*, *goes*, et cetera, and so with a single *s* between vowels as in *rose*. Having seen a great deal of “illiterate” writing, I do not believe I ever saw *cats*, *dogs*, or *horses* misspelled. That is just not the sort of mistake made by a person sufficiently literate to be unself-consciously writing *at all*.

During the late nineteenth century there was a great vogue of the humorous device of misspelling to represent crude pronunciation of uncultivated people. What seems not to have been thought of was that those same people, if they had occasion to *write*, would not have been likely to misspell the common words in question, however they might distort them in actual speech.

In that kind of “fun” writing, it was standard practice to write *was* as “wuz.” This is not only something which the uneducated person would not think of doing; it is not even a criterion of pronunciation. Most of the time, in everyone’s speech, *was* is an unaccented syllable, a mere connective; it loses all vowel value and subsides into a mere “wz.” Only when it becomes emphatic does it have its full theoretical form: “That’s what it really *was*.”

Here we touch upon what seems the most profound peculiarity of the English language as compared to any other. That is the hectic galloping manner of our speech, with heavy stress on accented syllables and relative or even complete neglect of all others. As our words are actually spoken, the “vowels” of unaccented syllables constantly tend to subside into a mere “uh,” and may disappear entirely. Our loose syllabication permits the grabbing off with an initial syllable of a consonant which logically introduces the following one. The more careless speech is, the more completely this distortion operates, until words (and whole phrases) are telescoped into jumbled shapes. How far this process can go can be seen clearly in such simple examples as “par” for *power*, “wah-r” for *water*, or “pairnts” for *parents*.

With our habitual playing-down of unaccented syllables, with their “vowels” losing all vowel quality, it is easy to see why many words are often misspelled. *Phonetically*, it would make no difference what “vowel” appeared in the unaccented syllable. A good example is *separate*, which has long been a favorite pitfall in spelling contests. We have noticed how, in the case of *grammar*, the reason for the second “a” comes out clearly in related words where the accent shifts. For *separate* there is no such reference, for that fatal second syllable remains obscure throughout the “family”—*separable*, *separation*, *separatist*.

Our allegedly “cockeyed” spelling does, however, have a real and reasonably reliable *system*, in which the accent plays an important part. Doubling or not doubling the final consonant of an *accented* syllable marks the quality of the preceding vowel, one way or another. We see how it works by comparing *cured* and *occurred*, *hoping* and *hopping*, *scraping* and *scrapping*, *preferred* and *persevered*. When a syllable is *not* accented, there is no reason for doubling: *interred* but *entered*, *excelled* but *canceled*, *fitted* but *benefited*, *shipped* but *worshiped*, *propelled* but *traveler*.

Unawareness of this well-established system accounts for a very large part of the most common misspellings by people using words they *think* they “know.” When a person misspells such a word as *anthropomorphic* or *psychotherapeutics* or *polygonaceous*, the probable reason is that he has no familiarity with the realm of thought to which it belongs. But the myriads of technical terms, continually being augmented by the creation of new ones, are no problem for the specialists who need and use them, and have little to do with the characteristic errors of people who spell badly.

No doubt the importance of correct spelling can be exaggerated, but rightly or wrongly it is commonly taken as a criterion of a person’s education. And misspelled words can be very revealing as to a writer’s background. At any rate, a youngster who has acquired a built-in dependability in spelling will have formed habits of accuracy which may well carry over into more important things. Instead of drifting with the tide of happy-go-sloppy speech and writing which continually besets us, he will have had a basic part of the preparation for belonging to the select company of those who truly *own* their “own” language, as well as for learning other languages, as it is becoming increasingly necessary to do in our modern world.

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IMPORTANT INSIGHTS INTO THE READING OF SOCIAL STUDIES TEXT

James A. Wright

In a broad sense, the world is a stage and social studies is the recorded drama of man's struggle for survival in an ever-changing environment. Man's own implacable desire to improve continuously his situation provides the plot, or underlying theme. The social studies text defines people's basic needs and the activities through which they meet their needs. It describes the antagonistic forces affecting human behavior. Only the guidance of an expert teacher makes it possible for a young reader to interpret and appreciate the inherent drama of social studies.

Possessing a reasonably complete understanding of the scope and sequence of the interpretative skills employed in appreciating the drama in stories, a teacher may logically analyze and classify those skills required for full comprehension and appreciation of social studies selections. Basically both sets of skills are one. Contrary to the opinion of some reading specialists, reading in this content area does not make demands upon the reader which contrast from those of a properly directed basal reader lesson. Concentrated study is demanded of any reading matter which is to be thoroughly understood and appreciated.

Often the social studies content is indistinguishable from that of a basal reader selection. And, excluding the fact that one is intended to promote reading skills, the young reader's general purposes are identical for both texts. When reading either stories or social studies, the student might profitably adopt the attitude that the page is the stage.

Grasping Main Ideas

At the base of the hierarchy of interpretative skills is that of grasping the main ideas. For it is only in its relationship to a main idea that a detail is perceived as relevant or important. Skill in finding the main idea in a paragraph or longer selection, and not mistaking a detail for the main point, is a crucial ability if the author's organization of thoughts is to be understood. The proficient author provides titles, subtitles, topic sentences, key words, illustrations, diagrams, maps, and other literary devices which identify the main ideas. The proficient teacher guides the young reader in the practice of recognizing these clues to the author's classification of information.

In a story, details derive their significance in the light of the plot. Likewise, in the social studies text the details are significant only as they relate to the main situations. The following basic exercises provide practice in reading to find main ideas. More importantly, they permit a pupil to understand how an efficient reader attacks a selection and hunts for the main ideas.

WANTED

Main Ideas

1. Find the main word in the title.
2. Rewrite the title as a telling sentence.
3. Rewrite the title as a question.
4. Find the main word in each subtitle.
5. Make up subtitles.
6. Find topic sentences.
7. Make up topic sentences.
8. Rewrite the topic sentences as questions.
9. Write a subtitle for each paragraph.
10. Write subtitles for groups of paragraphs.
11. Rewrite the subtitles as telling sentences.
12. Rewrite the subtitles as questions.
13. Answer your own questions.
14. List your answers as topics. (outline form)
15. Write a summary. (Who, What, Where, How, When, Why)
16. Summarize the problem or conflict.
17. Summarize the solution to the problem or conflict.

Through discussing the results of the student's bounty hunt with him, the teacher guides the pupil toward the ultimate ability of accurately summarizing a social studies selection. Teacher and student should share a diagnostic attitude which will reveal the inadequacies of the first attempts. While some early summaries may contain unimportant or irrelevant details, others might be too brief or vague. However, the logical sequence of skills on the wanted poster has guided many of our intermediate-grade students at Myers School toward facility in composing full, accurate summaries.

Skills 1 through 12 can be used to formulate a most useful study guide for any social studies selection. Or, the skills may be used in

various combinations. No other single experience has greater potential for improving the ability to interpret and appreciate social studies text than that of preparing a study guide. A teacher need only refer pupils to the permanent list of activities and advise them which combination of skills would seem most appropriate for the particular selection of the day.

In compliance with the sound principle that comprehension exercises must be provided in logical sequence, instruction should begin with an explanation and demonstration of a specific skill. Exercises for independent practice should begin with liberal clues to guide the learner, and clues should be gradually removed as more and more independence is achieved.

Perceiving Relationships of Significant Details

The ability to note important details is closely related to that of grasping the main idea. Somewhat meaningless when considered in isolation, significant details clarify and amplify the main ideas of the selection. Therefore, it is necessary that the young readers be able to distinguish the relevant from the irrelevant and the important from the unimportant. They should learn to differentiate between details which merely offer interesting sidelights and those which support the main idea. Fake dialogue, often inserted in an attempt to make the text more readable, must be recognized as irrelevant.

A perception of the relationship between the main point and the supporting details is a vital prerequisite to comprehension. In addition, an understanding of the interrelationships among the details is also required. When a reader has the ability to sense relationships of time order, enumeration of facts or examples, cause and effect, and comparison, he is no longer assailed by jumbled isolated facts. Instead, he recognizes the concreteness of that which would otherwise seem too abstract, and he derives the author's pattern of thought.

The following activities serve well to provide practice in appreciating the relationships of significant details. As prescribed for the placard of activities for hunting main ideas, the skills may be assigned in various combinations to fit the pattern of the text.

WANTED

Important Details

1. Find the signal words.
2. Tell what detail follows each signal word.
3. Tell what kind each detail is.

4. List the important details.
5. Tell what main idea the details explain.
6. List the important events in time order.
7. List the examples beneath the author's statement.
8. List the facts beneath the author's conclusion.
9. List the causes and effects. Label each.
10. Tell what the author has compared.
11. List the details of the comparison.

Examples of Signal Words:

Time Order—first, then, soon, meanwhile, next, earlier, recently, suddenly, before, after, at last, finally, later.

Facts or Examples—besides, moreover, and, also, in addition, another, furthermore, nor, but, still, yet, however, although, nevertheless, while, though.

A Cause—because, since, when, if due to, as, in order to, so that, as a result of, on account of.

An Effect—therefore, so, so that, consequently, hence, as a result, as a consequence, eventually.

A Comparison—before, after, some, others, then, now, once, today, but, while, than, like, as though, although, unlike, as.

Further practice may be provided by the following additional sequence of exercises:

1. Time Order
 - a. List the important events in order as they happened.
 - b. On what page and in which paragraph does the part about . . . begin?
 - c. Find the paragraphs which tell about . . .
 - d. Which pages tell about . . . ?
 - e. List the steps in the process mentioned in the selection.
2. Statement—Examples
 - a. How many examples of . . . does the author give?
 - b. List the examples of . . . given by the author.
 - c. How does the author make you understand . . . ?
 - d. On page . . . how many examples of . . . are given?

- e. What examples does the author present on page . . . ?
3. Facts—Conclusion
 - a. What is the author's conclusion?
 - b. How many facts does the author give to prove his conclusion?
 - c. What are the facts the author gives to prove his conclusion?
 - d. What important facts does the author present on page . . . ?
 - e. Why does the author present the important facts found on page . . . ?
 4. Cause—Effect
 - a. Find pairs of facts in which one fact caused the other. Write the second fact, then the word *because*, then the fact which caused it.
 - b. Read the assigned section in the social studies text then list
 The important effect, or result, stated by the author.
 The important effect, or result, stated in your own words.
 Examples or proof of the effect if any are given.
 Causes, or reasons, which brought about the effect.
 Any further effects we might expect in the future.
 - c. Arrange cause and effect details in chart form, (e.g., natural resources—occupations, location—modes of transportation, weather—clothing, seasons—occupations, housing, clothing).
 - d. Find the important changes which take place in the selection. Describe each change and tell what was the cause.
 - e. Describe the cause or causes of the problem mentioned. Next, list the causes which brought about the solution to the problem.
 5. Comparison—Contrast
 - a. What has the author compared with . . . ?
 - b. What has the author said . . . is like?
 - c. What has the author said . . . is not like?
 - d. What has the author compared?
 - e. In how many ways has the author compared . . . and . . . ?

Drawing Valid Conclusions

The most significant interpretative skill is that of evaluating what is read and making inferences based on sound judgment. These inferences provide the reader richer meaning as well as greater appreciation.

Only through inferences can characters and scenes come to life or a full awareness of the importance of factual data be realized.

The inferential thinking required for valid conclusions is initiated in the primary grades. In the social studies lessons, this thinking ability should be consistently nurtured through experiences which call for reasoning from facts to conclusions concerning how the basic human activities are carried on at each community level. The student must be guided to select relevant facts leading to valid inferences regarding reasons for and consequences of behavior, past and future conditions or events, steps in a process, and the like.

Whether reading social studies or a story, appreciation of content is always increased when the reader (1) judges the author's purpose, (2) considers the relevance of the facts presented, (3) appraises the moods, motives, and traits of the characters, (4) reckons those events omitted by the author, (5) anticipates what should happen next, (6) visualizes images of comparison, (7) infers humor, (8) interprets implications, (9) perceives the author's style, (10) discerns opinions, (11) confirms validity, and (12) discovers generalizations. The reader's ability to think on the inferential level may be promoted through the practice motivated by the following exercises.

WANTED

Thoughtful Conclusions

1. Why did the author write the selection?
2. What subjects do the facts tell about?
3. Why did each character behave as he did?
4. What events did the author leave out?
5. What do you think should happen next?
6. What comparison did you think about?
7. What was the funniest incident? Why?
8. What do you know which was not stated?
9. What style of writing did the author use?
10. Which ideas were only opinions?
11. Could the events really have happened?
12. What is the central idea or theme of the selection?

Further systematic guidance in making judgments and drawing conclusions may be found in the following sequence of thought-provoking questions and directions. Especially with inferential questions, a

discussion of wrong responses provides an excellent opportunity for skill development. However, the teacher should gradually transfer the responsibility of posing questions onto the pupil himself, equipping him with a growing independence in the capacity to read between the lines. This capacity leads logically to an attitude of inquiry concerning the purpose, quality, and accuracy of all that he reads.

1. Judging the author's purpose or viewpoint
 - a. Why did the author write the selection?
 - b. How did the author feel about the topic?
 - c. How did the author want you to feel as you read the selection?
 - d. Did the author have a worthwhile purpose? Explain.
 - e. Did the author succeed in carrying out his purpose? Why not?
2. Considering relevance
 - a. The assigned section tells the reader facts about what subjects? Why did the author include this section?
 - b. Find as many details as you can about . . . and list them.
 - c. On what pages will you find answers to the following questions?
 - d. In what way can the knowledge of the given details help a person?
 - e. Use the index to find answers to the following questions . . .
3. Appraising moods, motives and character traits
 - a. Find descriptions, conversations, events, and any other clues which show what kind of person the main character is. Make a list of the character traits.
 - b. Choose a character you like in the selection, and describe him.
 - c. Choose a character you dislike, and tell why.
 - d. Describe the main character as he was in the beginning of the selection and at the end. What is the difference? Why was there a change?
 - e. Why did each character behave as he did? Find sentences in the selection which support your answer.
4. Reckoning action or events omitted by the author
 - a. What events did the author leave out when he wrote the selection?
 - b. What happened on page . . . which the author left out as he wrote the selection?

- c. How much time elapsed during the omitted parts?
 - d. Where in the selection has the author left out an event?
 - e. How do you know the author left out an event?
5. Anticipating outcomes
- a. What do you think will happen next? Why?
 - b. What will each character do? Why?
 - c. What problem do you anticipate?
 - d. What might be the solution to the problem?
 - e. After reading only the title, subtitles, and beginning paragraphs, write questions you think are answered in the selection. Read the selection and then answer your own questions.
6. Visualizing comparisons
- a. As you read the selection, what comparisons did you make in your mind?
 - b. Did this selection remind you of one of your own experiences? Explain.
 - c. Did you read about another character who had a similar experience? Explain.
 - d. List what you know about the main character and compare him to another you read about.
 - e. Did this selection remind you of any other problems or conditions you know about? (analogies)
7. Inferring humor
- a. What was funny about what happened on page . . . ?
 - b. On page . . . what is meant by the word . . . ?
 - c. What was the funniest incident? Why was it funny?
 - d. Why was it funny when . . . ?
 - e. What was funny, even though the selection was not humorous?
8. Interpreting implications
- a. What does the author mean by the title?
 - b. Change the title into a question, then answer the question.
 - c. What did you think when you read . . . ?
 - d. What clues told you that . . . ?
 - e. What important facts do you know which are not stated directly by the author?

9. Perceiving literary style
 - a. What style of writing does the author use?
 - b. What did you like about the author's way of writing? What did you dislike?
 - c. Which selection did you like best in the unit? Why?
 - d. Find figurative expressions. Tell what they mean.
 - e. Did the author stir your thinking? Explain.
10. Discerning opinions
 - a. Find three statements of opinion. Which key words tell you that you are about to read an opinion?
 - b. Rewrite the opinions in order for them to appear as facts.
 - c. Find an example of a superstition, then find an example of a belief based on facts.
 - d. What facts does the author offer to support his theory?
 - e. Find an opinion and tell how it might be proved or disproved.
11. Confirming validity
 - a. Was this a "true to life" story? Explain.
 - b. Could the situation have happened in our community? Why?
 - c. What would you have done in the main character's place?
 - d. What do you know about the author? Does the author know the topic well? How do you know? Is the author wrong in any of his facts?
 - e. Does it seem that the author has left out some important facts? What are these facts? In what way are these facts important?
 - f. Have some important facts changed since the selection was printed?
 - g. Does the author draw valid conclusions from the facts?
 - h. Are the statements expressions of fact, or inferences?
 - i. Does the material contain any unstated assumptions? Can you accept these assumptions?
 - j. Have you changed your mind about something after reading the selection? Explain. What facts disagree with what you thought you knew?
12. Discovering generalizations
 - a. What kind of situation is described?

- b. What kind of person was . . . ?
- c. What kind of people are the . . . ?
- d. What did you learn from this selection, which can help you in your daily life? What did you learn that will help you understand others?
- e. What generalization can you draw from this selection? What evidence do you find in the selection to support this conclusion? (Explain to your students that generalizations can apply to everyone or everyone in a certain area.)

Through selecting, correlating, and evaluating facts found in the social studies selection, the young reader formulates an inferred summary or generalization. This reorganization of the content is a genuine experience of discovery. In addition to reading stories to reorganize the content in the form of a moral, a student should often practice formulating generalizations based upon factual data.

Social studies, like other content areas, has its unique framework of basic concepts and generalizations. The authors and editors have tried to present these in sequential order throughout each series of textbooks, proceeding from simple to complex and from concrete to abstract, (e.g., helping others is fun and makes us feel better. Postmen, policemen, and other community workers are very important. Our dreams for the future should include a sense of personal responsibility for making the world better for all people.) An appropriate sequence of generalizations provides an integration of new ideas which acquaint the student with the world from his perspective, letting him know what it offers and what it expects of him as a responsible citizen. A teacher lacking an awareness of the basic understandings presented in a particular text could possibly reduce the reading to vague descriptions.

The value of the social studies text is determined by the ability of the reader and the guidance of the teacher. In the hands of an unthinking reader, the book is not valuable. In the hands of a highly motivated, clear-thinking, well-guided student, the book is invaluable.

James A. Wright is principal of the Myers Elementary School in Grand Blanc, Michigan. He is President of the Flint Chapter of the International Reading Association. Readers of this quarterly will undoubtedly remember his article, "A Taxonomy of Thinking Skills for Young Readers," which appeared in the Fall 1965 issue.

"SHARING TIME" IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Diane Brooke

One day, while I was sitting in the yard, I overheard parts of a conversation that went something like this:

"Yes, they do it the first thing every morning for about 30 minutes."

"In Sherry's class they have it for 10 minutes after lunch. I guess it's to give the teacher a breather from lunch."

"Mark really enjoys it. Every evening he hunts up something to take. Sometimes he gets so desperate. Like yesterday, he resorted to taking his sister's birthday doll to show the class."

"My Bobby doesn't like to take things to school. His teacher makes all the children bring at least one thing during the week to tell the class about. Usually, I wind up hunting something for him to take."

"You know it can be a pain. If Mark forgets to set something out to take for the next day, it's up to the rest of the family to help him dig something up. This little episode usually puts us behind, too!"

"You know what gets me. Every day Sherry comes home and tells me about all the new toys and things her friends got. Then she expects me to run right out and buy them for her."

Questions to Ponder

The longer I listened to this conversation, the more aggravated I became. Is this the purpose of what is supposed to be a free expression period for the children? Are we forcing children to get up and "show and tell" about things they don't want to? Are we stressing material assets? Are we shaming children for their lack of material goods? Is it the parents we are stimulating or is it the children? Are we allowing a nonsense period, a time to kill period, or does it serve a good purpose?

I think these questions need to be answered. I have become tense more than once when I have heard the words "Show and Tell" or "Sharing" mentioned. I am never sure what new method some teacher has projected upon his class.

Sharing—Good or Bad?

The basic idea of a time to "share" and discuss ideas, I believe to be a very good one. Children, especially in the early grades, delight

in telling about their personal experiences. In many instances, the child's environment provides him with ideas about which he is concerned and interested, and he would enjoy telling. Often children are taken to places of interest outside their environment, and so they have new and different experiences to think about and share with their fellow classmates. Children can be stimulated and enriched in many new areas by hearing their enthusiastic peers expound on their findings and experiences.

Not only is this a time when children should be able to relax and really enjoy sharing, but there is so much that can be taught. This time, if well spent, can be of great value to the teacher.

The worth of this experience depends entirely upon the planning, organization, and the objectives the teacher has set up. If it is to be used merely to fill in time and not to meet the needs of the children, we can stop right here. But, if it is to have a meaningful purpose, we must go on and investigate our objectives and decide how we can best attain these objectives and meet the needs of each individual.

Developing Language Needs

The development of the proper use of our language is one of the most important goals in our education system. Boys and girls need many different experiences in the area of language development. They need to learn how to organize their ideas so that they may present them in an interesting and understandable way. A sharing period is one very good way to aid in proper language development.

What are some of the goals the teacher could hope to achieve:

1. Develop speaking skills.
 - a. Aid in proper pronunciation, enunciation, and articulation.
 - b. Develop voice control.
 - c. Develop ease and poise in front of an audience.
2. Develop growth in independent thinking and acting.
3. Develop self-confidence.
4. Learn to ask and answer questions.
5. Learn to consider the interests of the group.
6. Build vocabulary.
7. Widen interests and background of the class.

Values for Children

The needs of children are countless and encompass all areas of endeavor. One very important need children have is to have people around who are concerned enough to listen to them and answer their questions. Sharing time is, at least, one time when the children can feel that they have the undivided attention of the *teacher* and classmates.

Children can gain many worthwhile skills from sharing their ideas and experiences. Some are:

1. Increasing their power in expressing ideas.
2. Developing self-confidence.
3. Widening their range of interests.
4. Learning to face an audience.
5. Discovering the joy and satisfaction of sharing with others.
6. Learning to ask and answer questions related to the material presented.
7. Learning how to select and prepare their contributions.
8. Making their contributions interesting to the group.

Values for Teachers

Sharing can enrich the children in many areas. It can aid the teacher in developing language skills. It is also a method which enables the teacher to observe and gain real insight into her children's personalities and behaviors.

Here are some values of sharing time for the teacher.

1. Provides teachers with countless opportunities to gain an insight into the child's world of thinking and feeling.
2. Discovers the children's interests and needs.
3. Helps children to use their ideas in new and more creative ways.
4. Develops new activities out of the individual ideas of the class.
5. Creates a deeper understanding between teacher and pupil.
6. Clarifies misunderstandings and misconceptions children might have.
7. Creates a meaningful learning situation.

Sharing in Kindergarten

"I found a bird's nest on the way to school . . ."

"I didn't come to school yesterday because I went to the dentist . . ."

"My mother said we could get a dog."

"Look at these pretty leaves I found . . ."

These are typical examples of sharing in Kindergarten. Children are delighted to get up and tell all about the very exciting things they have done, or found, or gotten.

At this stage, anything the child wants to contribute in class should never be refused. He needs to build confidence in himself and gain the recognition of his peers. The key words should be *praise* and *encouragement*.

The teacher may want to stimulate the children's power of observation and inquiry by asking them specific questions. Hopefully, these questions will stimulate them to find the answers and share their observations the next day. The questions may deal with science, social studies, music, art, language arts or the specific interest of that child.

Sharing does play a very important role in the lives of Kindergarten teachers.

Sharing in the Second Grade

The first thing a teacher usually does at the beginning of the school year is to become better acquainted with her class. This is an excellent time to begin a sharing time.

At first, many of the children might need some extra encouragement. A well prepared and informed teacher can have ready some possible questions dealing with the children's interests. This will help to encourage some responses. If this is conducted in a relaxed atmosphere and the children find only praise for their contributions, they will gain satisfaction and begin to enjoy and look forward to this time.

When the children have begun to take a real interest and show real enthusiasm, it is time for the teacher and pupils to develop standards they should follow during sharing time. These standards depend primarily upon the *maturity*, *needs*, and *interests* of this particular class.

If the above is done properly, the teacher then should not need to take an active part. She can sit at the back of the group. This does not mean that she can take roll, put grades in the grade book, or make out seatwork for the afternoon's math lesson. She is an active

listener and should serve as a *guide* while the children *conduct* the period. It is the teacher's job to keep discipline, to clarify any misconceptions, and help children in expressing their ideas clearly.

The children should be able to plan their own procedure. They may want to choose a chairman to lead the period. The chairman may change every day, or maybe, only once a week. They may decide just to write their names on the blackboard and the first name is the first person to share.

As the children grow and mature, they may add many of their ideas during teacher-pupil planning. These ideas usually deal with the various content areas and can be discussed during that time. It should be the discussion of the children.

When sharing as a class, it is best to have the entire class sit together on the floor or rug. If the group is small enough, they might prefer to sit on chairs arranged in a semi-circle or circle. This way everyone's attention is focused on the speaker. There is also less distraction than if the children would remain at their desks.

The topics for discussion should be considered. Because of the variety of interests, these are going to vary considerably and should be based at least partially on the following criteria:

1. Needs of the class.
2. Needs of the individual child.
3. Economic area.
4. Social standards, background, and needs.
5. Home environment.
6. Maturity level of the individual.

In some classrooms, "sharing time" may be considered very successful if two children give an account of what happened on their way to school or at the dentist's office. In another, half the class may have ideas and experiences very pertinent to what the class is studying in the various content areas. This will clearly show the maturity level of the class as a whole and of each individual.

If there is ever any question as to whether a child should be allowed to share whatever it is he has brought in it is not up to anyone but the teacher to decide. Only the teacher can decide if it is important to this particular child, at this time, to express himself. She may not always follow the standards set up by the class. Flexibility in meeting the individual's needs is very important.

Time is another item to consider. This should be decided by the class but kept flexible. If on Monday, there are several very interesting ideas being discussed, then you should be able to feel free enough to continue. Then again, if you feel it is time wasted, the period should be cut short. Sharing can only be as effective as you want to make it.

The standards set by the class should be guided by the teacher and follow the criterion previously suggested. An example of some possible standards set up by a second grade might look something like this:

Second Grade Standards for Sharing

1. Things you talk about should be interesting to the class.
2. You should be prepared. You should know what you are going to say before you start.
3. If you have a story from the newspaper, you should be able to read and discuss it.
4. Any ideas concerning things we have studied or will study are good to share.
5. If you have a *very* special toy or something very interesting happened to you, you should talk it over with the teacher first. You can also write an original story about it. Then you can read it to the class.

The standards should be changed as the class matures and their needs change.

Sharing in the Fifth Grade

Sharing in the fifth grade has usually taken on a new name. It can be a current events time or a hobby time. It might even be based on the various experiences and trips the children take. Some teachers might prefer to incorporate much of it into science, social studies, language arts, music, and other content areas, and discuss the children's contributions at that particular time.

Regardless of the form it takes, the most important thing is—is it meeting the criteria set up for this grade level and maturity level? Are you developing the necessary skills?

If the answer is “yes,” then you should concentrate on keeping it a useful tool. If the answer is “no,” then a critical evaluation should be made and steps taken to put it back on the right track.

Suggestions for the Teacher

Teachers can gain a great deal of information from these various forms of sharing experiences. In order to remember these important details, it might be useful for the teacher to have a small pad of paper or filing cards on hand to jot down items that may be of value in extending activities or working on specific skills during the language arts period.

Many times children will need help in expressing themselves. The teacher might ask questions such as:

What is this you have to share with us?

Would you like to tell us something about it?

Jimmy has something very exciting to tell us.

Are there any questions the rest of us would like to ask about it?

Many problems will be alleviated if the class has set up standards and follows those standards.

The effort of every child should be praised, so that a feeling of self-confidence may be established.

Problems that Could Arise

In any classroom situation, there are many problems that could arise. Here are three common problems and what a teacher might do to handle them.

A child who is unsure of his contribution, or continually becomes confused or nervous in front of the group might need extra help from the teacher. She may allow him to come in early and explain to her what he would like to say. Through guidance and a few extra hints on how to organize his thoughts, he may be more willing to make contributions.

The shy, embarrassed child might be brought out by sharing in a small group instead of in front of the entire class. An alert teacher might be able to create an interest group on "just his favorite subject or book." After the shy child has gained confidence in a small group, he might then be encouraged to contribute in front of the entire class. But, by all means, he should not be forced.

There is also the case where one child or several children monopolize the entire period everytime you have a sharing period. If these children are meeting the standards set up by the room, they should not be stifled. If they are not, they should be asked politely to sit down. Also, they might be encouraged to further develop or investigate their ideas and present them at a later date. These people might also be asked to do special projects in the different content areas and pre-

sent them during that time.

They could be teamed up with a shy person and work on some mutual area of interest to share with the class.

Variations of Sharing

Sharing can involve many different areas and take on many forms. The teacher may use the following suggestions to substitute for a sharing period or use them in addition to a sharing period.

1. Books: Children love to tell about the books they have read or even read aloud certain parts. A teacher can have oral book reports or written reports.

During an oral report the class can ask pertinent questions to check the child's reading comprehension. For written book reports, a variety of types should be available from the very easy (draw a picture of your favorite part) to harder, more thought provoking questions (who was your favorite character and why?).

2. Original Stories: Many times children want to tell interesting things they did the night before or over the weekend. Many times, when one person tells something interesting, 29 more children, all of a sudden, discover they have something just as exciting to tell. Original stories sometimes helps to solve this problem. If their news is that necessary, they can be asked to write a story about it. Then they may read it to the class or it can be posted on the news bulletin board for all to read if they like.

3. News: A news time is usually fun and informative no matter what the grade level. Many times you have too much news. Some ideas on this line is to:

- A. Choose a new person every day to bring in an interesting article and discuss it.
- B. Choose groups to present the news for one day or one week, or once a week for a longer period.
- C. The upper grades might want to be more creative by producing a real news program with the announcer, microphones, and commercials.

Conclusion

"Sharing Time" can be very useful to the teacher in gaining insight concerning her students, learning their interests and desires, and finding

their weak points and problem areas. Through using this tool, the teacher can build language skills, improve speech, encourage organization of thoughts and widen knowledge and interests.

Sharing is established by first setting up standards based on a set of criteria for the grade level and maturity level of the class. It should be kept flexible and grow and develop as the children grow.

There are many values in sharing, but many pitfalls if it is not handled properly. With careful planning, organization and insight, these will be quickly worked out.

References

1. Dawson, Mildred, *Language Teaching in Grades One and Two*. New York: World Book Company, 1957, pp. 58-59.
2. Strickland, Ruth, *English is Our Language*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1950.

Diane Brooke is an elementary teacher in the Kalamazoo Public Schools. She received her Bachelor's degree at Indiana University in 1965 and is now engaged in graduate study at Western Michigan University.

DID YOU SEE?

Dorothy J. McGinnis

"Dyslexia: Two Points of View," by Richard L. Carner which appears in the *Academic Therapy Quarterly* for 1966? The article presents, through a case history, the points of view of both the parents and child toward a severe reading disability and outlines the school's role in recognizing and helping the dyslexic child.

Zimmerman's and Allebrand's study, "Personality Characteristics and Attitudes Toward Achievement of Good and Poor Readers," published in Volume 59 of the *Journal of Educational Research*? They investigated the personality characteristics and attitudes toward achievement of two groups of school children differentiated in reading ability. The major differences between the two groups appeared to be more in the area of personal rather than social adjustment.

The book, *The Teaching of Reading* by Witty, Freeland and Grotberg? It was published in 1966 by D. C. Heath and Company. In this book the results of research are presented and related to classroom instruction in reading. Throughout, the emphasis is placed on reading instruction as a sequential process associated with interest and need.

The 1965 *Review of Educational Research*, volume 35? In it Joanna P. Williams discusses the present state of reading research. She points out that since 1958 there has been a renewal of interest in the theoretical analysis of the basic reading process. Another new development centers on techniques of instruction, especially within the context of programmed instruction.

"A Study of the Validity of Delacato's Theory of Neurological Organization," by Robbins which appeared in volume 32 of *Exceptional Children*. The purpose of this study was to test the theory of neurological organization. Both normative and experimental data from normal second graders were used to test six null hypotheses deduced from the theory. The results failed to confirm the validity and practicality of the theory.

"Effective Reading for the Socially Deprived Child," by Graff and Feldman published in volume 31 of the *Journal of Rehabilitation*?

It describes an approach to teaching the socially deprived child how to read. Particular emphasis is placed upon interaction between teacher and child through the creation of rapport and the use of a variety of instructional materials designed to fit into the child's experience and to stimulate his interest, attention, and motivation to learn.

The interesting article in volume 19 of *The Reading Teacher* entitled "Self-Social Constructs of Achieving and Nonachieving Readers?" The findings of this study by Henderson, Long and Ziller suggest that retarded readers are characterized by a relatively high degree of dependency.

WE SUGGEST

Eleanor Buelke

Veatch, Jeannette

Reading In The Elementary School

New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1966. Pp. ix-535.

Under the aegis of teachers and writers such as the author of this book, opportunities for improvement of reading instruction are being made ever more available to classroom instructors. *Reading In The Elementary School* proposes, describes, and details piquant patterns for teaching children to read which differ greatly from prevalent practices. In Jeannette Veatch's own words, "Herein is presented a way of teaching reading that has certain major characteristics that set it off from current practices." Other books about reading have also contained bold, imaginative approaches to teaching in this field. Few have been based upon such a sound, research-oriented philosophy.

While recent research, experimentation, and thinking concerning operative forces which shape intelligence, behavioral integration, problem solving skills, and creativity have altered previously conceived views and beliefs about the nature of man, relatively little of this new knowledge has been translated into methodology and adapted for use in elementary school classrooms. It has been suggested by some psychologists that:

. . . behavior may be regarded as being determined to varying degrees by two different sets of factors: external in one instance and internal in the other.¹

Severe external constraints operate to restrict the number and breadth of behavioral determiners, thus limiting the individual in his potential variability of behavior.² Good education is not merely a frayed rope of incidence, loosely knotted with haphazard hope and happenstance. Rather, it is a cognate concatenation welded together by careful study and formation of generic understandings and relationships. In the reading program proposed by Veatch, she recognizes the need for

1. Ludwig Immergluck, "Determinism-Freedom In Contemporary Psychology: An Ancient Problem Revisited," *American Psychologist*, 19 (April, 1964), 278.

2. *Op. cit.*, p. 278.

constant awareness of complex events and factors affecting human growth and learning.

Examination of research about intellectual development in children highlights the following:

. . . at each stage of development the child has a characteristic way of viewing the world and explaining it to himself. The task of teaching a subject to a child at any particular age is one of representing the structure of that subject in terms of the child's way of viewing things. The task can be thought of as one of translation.³

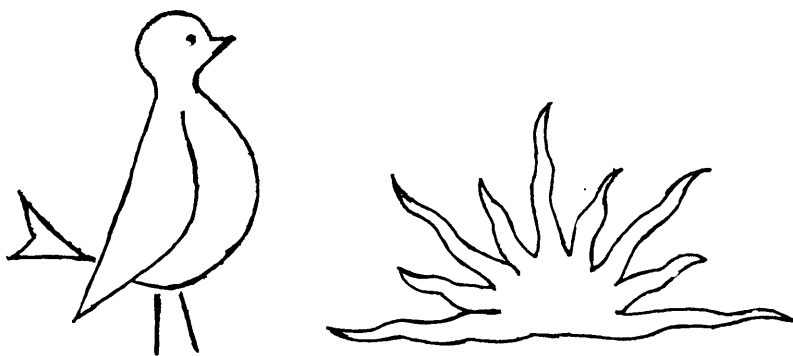
In this book Veatch suggests that intellectual development inherent in the task of learning to read occurs most efficiently during human interaction, between child and teacher, and among children involved in purposeful, group activities. She makes the basic assumptions that reading instruction depends centrally upon a variety of materials with literary merit; that it calls for the use of children's own speech, in various ways, at all levels; that it employs the incentive factor of pupil-selected material; and that it reaches a peak, or climax, in the individual pupil-teacher conference on a one-to-one basis. In discussion of these assumptions, the author is cognizant of the limitations and possibilities of the many external and internal factors which can be just the rich resources the knowledgeable, creative teacher needs, seeks, and uses to encourage and to accomplish learning.

For the elementary teacher who has questioned the value of homogeneous grouping practices, strictly controlled vocabularies, over-emphasis upon extrinsic rewards for learning, artificial motivational techniques and devices, and evaluation solely by teachers, much of real practical worth is included in this volume. Guidelines for grouping indicate reasons, as well as methods, for classroom practice. Ways and means of developing vocabularies, with no ceiling except the child's own language experiences, are illustrated. Open-ended, problem-centered, creative reading lessons and activities which promote independent learning for its own sake are presented and explained. Evaluative processes which help a child to look at himself, and where he stands in relation to expected learnings, are developed and explored.

For all teachers who, as members of their profession, are in quest of humanness, beauty, and knowledge, the major premises of this book offer much of a thought-provoking nature. Teaching is a human act, so methodology that puts children and their adult teachers together as human beings will help them to grow and to strengthen each other.

3. Jerome S. Bruner, *The Process of Education*, p. 33. New York: Random House, Inc., 1960.

Beauty is a major force for good in the world, so ways in which the most beautiful of books can find their way into classrooms will promote the effectiveness of this force. Knowledge is crucial in our world, to be seized and loved for itself and for what it can do for the one who possesses it, so the presentation of the proper means toward its acquisition must be limited only by time, space, and brains. "There are no limits to being human, to loving beauty, to cherishing knowledge."



ROUND ROBIN

Dorothy E. Smith, Editor

Title I, Title III, Upward Bound and Head Start are all phrases which are finding their way into our professional educational jargon. Within the last few years more government sponsored programs have been initiated in the field of education than ever before since public schools came into being.

Teachers—and the public—are asking more and more how worthwhile these programs are. The expenditure of time, thought and money has been prodigious, and will undoubtedly increase before it becomes stabilized. We need to know if they are worth the cost.

We thought you might be interested in hearing about one such program. Jack Hamilton, Director of Head Start for the Kalamazoo Public Schools, provided us with the following information:

Dear Editor:

It was in January of 1966 that Head Start was instituted in Kalamazoo, and after six months of planning, organizing, and teacher training, the seven week summer session for four year olds began. The criteria used for choosing the children included those whose parents were on ADC or Welfare; those whose older brothers and sisters had a history of poor adjustment to school or who had dropped out; and those whose parents gave them little attention. We found the latter more often if the child either had eight or ten siblings, or if he was an only child. Another important criterion was the family's attitude toward education.

There were sixteen teachers, seven student aids, and over twenty volunteers. The volunteers were eleventh grade high school students. Mr. Baskerville, the counselor at Central High School, recommended the seven boys who became student aids. They were chosen on the basis of potential leadership and on their apparent need for the

status of a chosen leader. Six of the boys were Negroes. This was one of the most successful corollaries to the program. All of these boys started out by keeping their distance from the children but within the first week they were utterly involved with them and their problems. They all want the opportunity to work in the program again.

We see Head Start as having a dual purpose. We provide disadvantaged children with a great many experiences they otherwise would not have, and we "sell" the parents on the worth of education. Sometimes it seems to us our greatest contribution is in changing the attitudes of parents. We had two home-school social workers who made home visitations. They discussed with the parents their child, his welfare, and what the school was trying to do for him. Their attitude was always sincere and friendly concern. Their goal was primarily to give the parents a positive outlook toward school. These workers found that the parents' attitude toward education changes when they are convinced that somebody cares. Special invitations were made to the parents to come to school and to go on trips with their children.

We have found that four year olds are at precisely the vulnerable age for us to make an impression on their parents, for they are still vitally concerned with their children. At later ages the parents often lose control, and ultimately, interest.

Ours is the only school system outside of Detroit which has been doing anything of consequence with a pre-school program. We began in 1963, in a house on the north side of Kalamazoo with fifteen youngsters. The next year the program was financed through the Office of Economic Opportunity, and this year we will also be financed by Title III of the Elementary Education Act. We are the only program of this kind in Michigan under Title III, and perhaps in the nation.

During the current year we will be working with 180 youngsters, at six different schools. All of the children will be provided with a hot lunch each school day. We are planning to continue the practice of taking the children on many trips. Some of them have never been to downtown Kalamazoo, even though they live six or seven blocks from the center of the city. We take them to dairies, fruit farms and airports. We give them a ride on an escalator and we introduce them to policemen and firemen. Their experiential background is widened immeasurably.

The entire program is highly successful, we think. We are especially grateful for some unexpected gains, such as the maturation of the

student aids, the interested involvement with the medical and dental professions, and the growth we could see in parental attitudes.

Jack Hamilton

TEN-SECOND REVIEWS

Blanche O. Bush

No other human being is necessary to the reader at the moment of reading. He can take his book with him to the jungle or the desert, on the ocean, or the mountain top. He can select his company at will, and rid himself of it by a turn of the hand. It is potentially an inexhaustible resource. All ages of history, all countries, all varieties of human beings, and even of animals and feelings, hopes and fears, conquests and failures, victories and defeats, the real and the ideal, all are available at the turn of a page for the reader's contemplation and understanding. —Anonymous

Burnett, Richard W., "Reading in the Secondary School: Issues and Innovations," *Journal of Reading* (April, 1966), 9:322-328.

In comparing issues and innovations in teaching reading in secondary and elementary schools, the author finds that on the secondary level the issues are more obscure and far less hotly contested than at the elementary level. Innovations in high school reading appear to be fewer and not so colorful or dramatic. Furthermore, research studies in high school reading are exceeded by elementary school research studies at a ratio of about six to one.

Courtney, Brother Leonard, "The Relationship Between the Oral and Silent Reading of College Students," *Minnesota Reading Quarterly* (February, 1966), 10:50-55.

On the basis of the findings from this study the following conclusions, according to Courtney, appear to be justified. (1) The achievement of groups of students in silent reading will frequently provide some clues to the quality of oral reading which may be expected of them, (2) Oral reading continues to improve at a decreasing rate during the college years, (3) The sexes become equalized in oral reading behavior on entrance to college, (4) The great range in oral reading scores among college students is exemplified in some freshman students achieving no better than sixth-grade pupils. More men than women tend to be below although differences are not significant.

Dagliesh, Alice, "Books and Experience—Books for Young People," *Saturday Review*, June 25, 1966.

Several thought provoking questions relative to children's books were presented by the author: Isn't it more important to be energetic about planning whatever is vital for children instead of spending a good deal of time discussing "Sociological implications" in children's books? Do we sometimes forget reality in our haste to get a mirror of every kind of experience into books? Are there school boards today who think the small child's learning experience should be bounded by a desk and a reader? A list of books for young people is included.

Duker, Sam, "Needed Research On Individualized Reading," *Elementary English* (March, 1966), 43:220-225+.

It is the purpose of this article to suggest some significant questions concerned with individualized reading where research might yield useful answers. Twenty-five specific questions having to do with the effectiveness of individualized reading which could usefully be made the focus of research studies are suggested.

Dykstra, Robert, "Auditory Discrimination Abilities and Beginning Reading Achievement," *Reading Research Quarterly* (Spring, 1966), 1:5-34.

A number of conclusions relative to auditory discrimination abilities and beginning reading achievement were drawn by the author from this investigation. (1) Girls were significantly superior to boys in auditory discrimination skills and superior in reading achievement after a year of instruction. (2) In view of the relatively low relationships found between auditory discrimination abilities as measured by the instruments used in this investigation and success in learning to read, the first grade teacher should not expect that the development of auditory discrimination is sufficient to insure success in mastering the reading tasks.

Ellinger, Bernice D., "The Genesis of Creativity," *The Reading Teacher* (April, 1966), 19:493-497.

To investigate the relationship between selected factors

in children's home environments and their creative thinking abilities, tests of creativity were administered to 458 fourth grade pupils. Statistical analysis of the data showed the relationship between selected factors in home and creative thinking scores to be significant. The families of highly creative children involved their children in family activities to a greater extent than did the families of low creative children.

Ellinger, Bernice D., "Literature for Head Start Classes," *Elementary English* (May, 1966), 43:453-459.

Children's literature, Ellinger points out, can provide a prolific source of materials in the scheme of the Head Start teacher. It can give insights into common experiences, extend experiences that children have had, introduce new experiences in a meaningful way, stimulate creative expression and help children distinguish between fact and fancy. A list of books which were found to be helpful in Head Start classes was included.

Flaherty, Rose and Howard B. Anderson, "Boys' Difficulty in Learning to Read," *Elementary English* (May, 1966), 43:471-473.

Observations have shown that more boys than girls experience difficulty in learning to read. Many reasons have been offered as to the causes of male retardation in learning to read. The wise selection and use of books and other instructional materials, and careful grouping within classrooms and schools should help to promote a more challenging curriculum for boys.

Furth, Hans G., "A Comparison of Reading Test Norms of Deaf and Hearing Children," *American Annals of the Deaf* (March, 1966), 111:461-462.

In May 1959 a comprehensive survey of the reading ability of deaf children was done by Wrightstone, Aronow and Moskowitz. The findings confirmed what earlier investigations found—that the typical deaf make slow progress in linguistic competence. The author stated that the low reading level of the deaf does not constitute a reading deficiency but linguistic incompetence. The sooner this fact is realized the sooner we shall

be able to face the reading problems of deaf children and their full implication.

Graff, Virginia A., "Testing and Reporting Procedures for an Intensive Tutoring Program," *The Reading Teacher* (January, 1966), 19:288-291.

This article reports on procedures developed to carry through an intensive testing program and ways of using the resulting scores to ensure quick and efficient assignment of the tested subjects to appropriate reading therapy groups.

Hahn, Harry T., "Three Approaches to Beginning Reading Instruction—ITA, Language Arts and Basic Readers," *The Reading Teacher* (May, 1966), 19:590-594.

This project was designed to examine the relative effectiveness of three approaches for beginning reading instruction. From the findings of this investigation, no significant differences in reading attitudes were evidenced. ITA and language arts pupils wrote freely and extensively throughout most of the school year. ITA and language arts approaches had significantly higher scores than the basal reader approach on the Word Reading Test. Language arts and basal reader approaches provided significantly better spellers. On individual oral reading tests no significant differences were recorded for speed and accuracy. Studies which controlled such variables as intelligence, reading readiness, and socio-economic status failed to add much more useful information regarding the relative effectiveness of the three approaches.

Hanson, Irene W., "First Grade Children Work with Variant Word Endings," *The Reading Teacher* (April, 1966), 19:505-507+.

The findings of this study indicate that the teaching of generalizations concerning the use of variant word endings is possible and effective in the second half of first grade. The present practice of severely restricting the use of variant word endings in first grade reading materials is unnecessary since most first grade children are already familiar with reading materials which can conform more easily and naturally to English speech.

Harris, Theodore L., Wayne Otto, and Thomas Barrett, "Summary and Review of Investigations Relating to Reading, July 1, 1964 to June 30, 1965," *Journal of Educational Research* (June, 1966), 59:243-268.

A review of the literature on reading in the areas of sociology of reading, psychology of reading, physiology of reading and teaching of reading is presented. Each section has an extensive bibliography.

Heyman, Malcolm and Richard Holland, "Reading Improvement in the Industrial Arts Class," *Industrial Arts Education* (January-February, 1966), 25:48-49+.

Suggestions are offered as to how industrial arts classes can play their part in the all-important role of leading under-achievers back to the fruitful and rewarding experiences in school which have not been available to them because of poor reading skills. It is suggested that a shop program designed with reading as a main part of the class activity and with reading improvement as its ultimate aim can be implemented very easily. However, close coordination with a teacher trained to teach remedial reading is highly recommended.

Ilg, Frances L. and Louise Bates Ames, "Your Child May Be in the Wrong Grade at School," *Readers Digest* (August, 1966), pp. 56-60.

Recent studies at the Gesell Institute reveal that a great many youngsters would benefit tremendously if they were held back a year. Suggestions to parents relative to grade placement include: Don't regard it as a stigma on your child if he is held back. Remember that it is never too late to put your child in the proper grade. If a parent feels that his child is wrongly placed and if the school resists making a change, fight for your rights.

Justman, Joseph, "Academic Aptitude and Reading Test Scores of Disadvantaged Children Showing Varying Degrees of Mobility," *Journal of Educational Measurement* (February, 1965), 2:151-155.

Otis IQ's and Metropolitan Reading Test scores of 934 pupils drawn from 16 schools in disadvantaged areas of New York City were found to be negatively associated with degree

of mobility. Pupils who had attended only one school showed near average functioning whereas progressively poorer performance was associated with number of schools attended.

Kasbohn, Mary Crowley, "Remedial Reading Materials," *Elementary English* (March, 1966), 43:209-214.

A comprehensive list of materials used in the reading program of the Psycho-Educational Clinic at the University of Minnesota is presented. High interest and low reading level books are included as well as "Easy to Read" sets of library books.

Mason, George E. and Norma Jean Prater, "Early Reading and Reading Instruction," *Elementary English* (May, 1966), 43:483-489.

This summary is presented for the benefit of the busy teacher of reading who wants to investigate the background for this controversy of early reading and reading instruction. The studies and articles have been arbitrarily assigned to four categories. (1) Children who learned to read prior to school entrance without deliberate training, (2) Children who received deliberate training in reading prior to age six. (3) Children who entered school prior to age six compared with their older grade mates. (4) Reading readiness training for formal reading instruction.

Maxwell, Martha J., "The College Reading Laboratory," *Journal of Reading* (May, 1966), 9:402-405.

At the University of Maryland the goal of the Reading and Study Skills Laboratory is to assist the motivated student in adjusting to the academic demands of college. It also aids the faculty by providing a service to which students can be referred for improving their skills in subject areas and "plugging the gaps" in their backgrounds.

McCanne, Roy, "Approaches to First Grade English Reading Instruction for Children from Spanish Speaking Homes," *The Reading Teacher* (May, 1966), 19:670-675.

This study had two main objectives. The first purpose was to determine if there are differences in achievement in reading

English between first grade pupils who speak Spanish at home and are taught (a) by a conventional English readiness and basal reader approach or (b) by a modified teaching English as a second language approach. The second objective was to determine a specific sequence of skills appropriate for first grade children from Spanish-speaking homes who are learning to read in English and to identify appropriate materials and techniques for teaching these skills in a culturally integrated first grade classroom.

Mersand, Joseph, "Teaching the Slow Learner in English," *High Points* (May, 1966), 49:38-53.

An outline of the characteristics of slow learners and the methodological adaptations developed by Lass and Smerling is presented by the author. Included are a list of publications that are helpful in the study of the slow learner, suggestions for recognizing the slow learner and a description of the qualifications of the teacher.

Mitzel, M. Adele, "The Functional Reading Word List for Adults," *Adult Reading* (Winter, 1966), 16:67-69.

The primary difference between teaching adults to read and teaching children to read as discussed by Mitzel is in the immediacy of the adult need. Since an adult's reading needs are immediate and concrete, he should be taught those words that he may meet as soon as he steps out of the classroom. He should be taught these words in the context in which he will meet them. A reading word list of 5,000 words is included.

Moore, Robert E., "Science Fiction in a Junior College Reading Program," *Journal of Reading* (April, 1966), 9:329-332.

Junior College students who have reading problems are more likely to be interested in things mechanical than in the humanities, Moore avers. This may give a hint as to the kinds of materials which might tempt the student who does not like to read. The author conjectures that science fiction is interesting to these individuals. An appendix indicating readability scores on some typical science fiction is included.

Olson, Arthur V., "School Achievement Reading Ability and Specific Visual Perception Skills in the Third Grade," *The Reading Teacher* (April, 1966), 19:490-492.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between school achievement, reading ability and visual perceptual abilities as measured by the Frostig Developmental Test of Visual Perception.

Price, Uberto, "Developmental Reading for All College Freshmen," *Journal of Reading* (April, 1966), 9:333-334.

Freshmen at Appalachian State Teachers College in Boone, North Carolina, are required to take one quarter of reading sometime during the year, regardless of how well they read. The course is required and carries credit. It has been found that (1) the drop-out rate for students because of academic difficulty has been reduced, (2) the best readers make the greatest progress, (3) the better readers transfer skills from the reading course to other areas readily and (4) the lowest readers profit least.

Schmidt, Bernard, "Changing Patterns of Eye Movement," *Journal of Reading* (May, 1966), 9:379-385.

This investigation was concerned with what changes in the efficiency of eye-movement patterns take place as a result of specific training. The data obtained in this study indicate that eye movement patterns of the 190 subjects changed significantly during the reading course. Improvement in the basic physical aspects of fixation and regression as well as speed was noted.

Smith, Carl Bernard, "The Double Vowel and Linguistic Research," *The Reading Teacher* (April, 1966), 19:512-514.

Psychologists remind us that the learning process is cumulative and associative, that skills such as reading are developed by mastering one step or one unit, and building a new unit of knowledge on the old. In this way learning becomes meaningful and rewarding. The application seems evident for teaching reading. When a child is given a clue for identifying the written word, he must master that clue before he receives another. After he understands the use of the clue, like the

long vowel rule, he should be given a reading selection that will help him develop automatic recognition of applicable words. Mastery of the long vowel rule should come before the child is asked to differentiate among the long vowel key, the diphthong key and the irregular double vowel.

Stafford, Charlotte, "Reading for Deaf Children," *American Annals of the Deaf* (March, 1966), 111:463-466.

How many teachers of the deaf have felt, as the author did, that if only the deaf child could learn to read, all the wonderful world of books would be opened to him. The writer stated, however, that a guided reading lesson using a basal reader does not encourage love of reading. Oral reading is suggested for the deaf reader because he derives some benefit from the kinesthetic sensations of oral reading.

Usery, Mary Lou, "Critical Thinking Through Children's Literature," *Elementary English* (February, 1966), 43:115-119+.

A means for putting purpose into practice is suggested in the author's theory about one of the thinking processes. A model of the process is described and applied to an area of the elementary language arts curriculum. Critical thinking, one of the abilities commonly accepted as a part of the thinking act, is the focus of the study.

Winston, Ethna, "Foreign Students in Remedial Reading," *Journal of Reading* (January, 1966), 9:170-178.

Recent statistics show that in proportion to the total population, Howard University has the largest number of foreign students of any university in the United States. In this study, in spite of the language adjustment difficulties, resistance toward required remedial training and the need for unpredicted adjustment of traditional approaches to reading, many students reported benefits in their final evaluation of the program.

Woodring, Paul, "Are Intelligence Tests Unfair?" *Saturday Review*, April 16, 1966.

Though the possibility of occasional error in individual cases is real enough in all group testing, the question of fair-

ness to children from disadvantaged homes suggests a misunderstanding of the purpose of testing. It is understood that the intelligence test measures not innate but developed capacity. An intelligence test is unfair to a child from a poor home only in the sense that a scale which measures weight is unfair to the undernourished child. The test merely tells how much a child from an intellectually impoverished home is handicapped. The author stated that it is obviously true that any test requiring the use of language is culture bound but this is less true of intelligence tests than of achievement tests.

Yee, Albert H., "The Generalization Controversy on Spelling Instruction," *Elementary English* (February, 1966), 43:154-161+.

The purpose of this article is to clarify conflicting points of view regarding spelling instruction and to offer a critique of the problem. The debate centers on whether or not competency in spelling can be obtained through general use of spelling rules.

Zeitz, Frank, "i t a and the Below Average Child," *The Reading Teacher* (April, 1966), 19:515-518.

The below average child thrives on simplicity, Zeitz states, and is confused by complexity. The ideal system is one consisting of pure one-to-one correspondence between symbol and sound. Such does not exist in today's use of the i t a. It is the purpose of this author to point out the existing complexities so that a new dimension to the use of "i t a" might be realized.

PROGRAM 1966-67

HOMER L. J. CARTER READING COUNCIL
OF THE
INTERNATIONAL READING ASSOCIATION

Theme: *READING IN TRANSITION*

THURSDAY, OCTOBER 6, 1966

"A Clinical Approach to Problems of Reading Adjustment"

Dr. Roy C. Creager, Director, Kalamazoo Child Guidance Clinic

7:30 P.M. Student Center
Western Michigan University

THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 3, 1966

"Structured Observations, A Clinical Technique"

Homer L. J. Carter, Director Emeritus, and
Dorothy J. McGinnis, Director, Psycho-Educational Clinic
Western Michigan University

7:30 P.M. Student Center
Western Michigan University

THURSDAY, DECEMBER 1, 1966

"Planning A Reading Program"

Lois Dye, Leona Hefner and Dean Kissinger
Portage Public Schools

7:30 P.M. Student Center
Western Michigan University

THURSDAY, JANUARY 26, 1967

“The Psychologist Looks at Reading”

Stanley Kuffel, Psychology Department
Western Michigan University

7:30 P.M. Student Center
Western Michigan University

THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 23, 1967

“An Elementary Supervisor Looks at Reading”

Melvin Miller, Elementary Curriculum Director
Kalamazoo Public Schools

7:30 P.M. Student Center
Western Michigan University

THURSDAY, APRIL 27, 1967

“If It Weren’t For Those Words”

Diana Umstattd, President, Michigan Reading Association
Saginaw Public Schools

DINNER MEETING

6:30 P.M. Hillside Junior High School

