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Reading

HORIZONS



WINTER 1967

Reading **HORIZONS**

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Editorial Comment

GRADUATE STUDY IN READING

Reading as with any form of human behavior involves the whole individual. Physical, psychological, sociological as well as educational factors are to be considered in any study of reading performance. Consequently, the mature student will select a graduate school where a multiple disciplinary approach to the study of the individual will be utilized. This means that the graduate student will be encouraged to do work in several departments and not be restricted only to the school of education. Experiential background in one discipline is not sufficient for the specialist in reading.

A graduate school should be selected because of its faculty and not necessarily because of the lucrative fellowships and scholarships which may be available. Your major professor should be a nationally recognized leader who has made a unique contribution in the field of reading. He should do more than dispense second-hand information provided by more vigorous and productive scholars. Select your professors because of their well-designed and well-controlled research. Become a disciple of a creative leader who is well known for his professional books, stimulating articles and thought-provoking lectures. Avoid instructors who are satisfied with what they have done for they will never be known for what they could do.

The graduate degree is more than a union card. It should never be granted merely upon the accumulation of credits. Instead, graduate study involves mastery of a field of specialization and the ability to create new knowledge and a new pattern of thought by an integration of the old from several fields of learning. The continued validity of a graduate degree should depend not upon past performance alone but upon one's present ability to produce and to create.

Homer L. J. Carter
Editor

THE SELF CONCEPT AND ITS RELATION TO SPEECH AND READING

Dorothy Edna Smith and Katharine G. Butler

One of the most exciting prospects in our search for excellence in the teaching of reading is emerging from the field of psychology. By now it is axiomatic that our efficiency as teachers is inextricably bound up with the psychological aspects of the individual student. All of us have been told over and over again to Pay Attention To The Individual. As a matter of fact this admonition has become so universal that it now has attained the status of being called by its initials: PATTI.

The most troublesome problem connected with this, however, is that everyone has many "selves." For example, Suzanne who may seem cooperative, compliant, and efficient to her mother, may seem shy, a tattletale, and officious to her schoolmates, and she may appear to be a holy terror to her younger brother. Which of these views is right? Perhaps all of them. Perhaps none of them. And, perhaps it does not matter. Psychological research is beginning to indicate that the "self" which is an important and relevant factor in learning is the one the person himself perceives. The self *concept* the individual has—his own judgement of what kind of a person he is—is probably the self that learns easily or with difficulty.

We have all seen, at one time or another, evidence of this principle. If Billy drops his glass of milk in the lunch line at school and is called clumsy, then at home he stumbles over the dog when he is hurrying to the TV set and his mother calls him clumsy, and later he tears his best trousers on a protruding nail on a construction site near his church and is called clumsy—all occurrences which might easily have been fortuitous—Billy himself begins to think he is clumsy. And, the chances are, from this point on he will *be* more clumsy.

Most authorities in the speech correction field agree that this principle holds for stutterers. They say that everybody stumbles in his speech at some time or another, particularly during the first few years of speaking, and that the ones who are told to stop stuttering, the ones who end up believing that they stutter, constitute the bulk of the people who have a serious stuttering problem.

Some Questions

The apparent importance of self concept to behavior is raising many questions, questions of vital interest to teachers of reading. Is

there a relationship between a child's self concept and his communication skills?(1) Does one have an effect on the other? Would a child with a reading disability have greater ego strength than one with a speech difficulty? Would a pattern emerge if the two groups were judged in relation to each other? If a pattern emerged, which direction would it take? Children with a reading defect can hide their lack from the casual observer, whereas children with a speech problem announce their difficulty to the world every time they talk. What effect would these facts have on their self concept?

The Purpose of the Study

In order to get some answers to these questions the authors decided to investigate the relative self concept of speech defective children, reading defective children, and those children who can speak and read fluently.

Procedure

Ninety-seven children who were between the ages of 8-0 to 10-11 were tested. Socio-economic levels and urban-rural ratios were roughly approximate to the 1960 census.

Schools in Kalamazoo, Michigan and San Jose, California were contacted, and children of the appropriate ages were selected at random from these schools. Approximately half of the population came from each community. No attempt was made to divide the children equally as to sex, and the proportions were found to be 58 boys and 39 girls. All but four of the children were in the second, third or fourth grades, and those four were in the fifth grade.

The three tests were administered to all of the children, and when the speech and reading tests were scored it was found that 33 children who had no speech defect were at least six months retarded in reading, 26 children who read at grade level or above had articulation difficulties, and 38 children who had no speech problem read at grade level or above. This last group was used as controls.

The Draw-A-Person tests were scored on the Haworth-Normington Sexual Differentiation Scale(5) and the level for each subject was determined. The Chi² formula was then applied to the data to ascertain if there were significant differences among the three groups.

The three tests administered to all of the children were the Detroit Silent Reading Test II, Form A, the Bryngelson-Gillespie Speech Test, and the Draw-A-Person Test, scored on the Haworth-Normington Sexual Differentiation Scale as a Measure of Self Con-

cept. The first two of these tests are well known and more or less self-explanatory, but the third test might be more meaningful with a description.

Draw-A-Person Test

There have been many methods used in the attempt to assess self-concept; personality inventories, check lists, teacher rating scales, and analysis of projective material, among others. One of the quickest and easiest ways of eliciting submerged levels of self image is by the use of the Draw-A-Person technique. Tunnelle, an artist, once said, "The artist does not see things as they are, but as he is." Karen Machover's(4) extensive research has substantiated this thesis. Among the many other people who have conducted studies in this area, Hammer(3) suggests that one's felt or subjective psycho-maturational age tends to be projected, and Fisher and Fisher(3) found a relationship between the femininity expressed in females' figure drawings and their psycho-sexual adjustment.

Some authorities in the area of self concept have used the Draw-A-Person technique as a method of measurement. Haworth and Normington developed a Sexual Differentiation Scale which permits analysis through the child's portrayal of female and male figures, and provides a developmental index of psycho-sexual maturity. Normal children reveal a gradually increasing ability to differentiate the sexes by means of this visual-motor task.

For the Draw-A-Person test the child is asked to draw a male and a female figure, one on each side of the paper. The Sexual Differentiation Scale assigns ratings to the drawings of 1, 2, 3, or 4. According to the scale, children with a rating of 4 have an excellent self concept, and those with a rating of 3 have a better than average adjustment with themselves. The rating of 2 is considered inadequate, and anyone with a rating of 1, it is presumed, does not perceive himself as being worthy of consideration.

Test Results

Using the first two tests, the Detroit Silent Reading Test and the Bryngelson-Gillespie Speech Test, the ninety-seven children were divided into the three groups mentioned earlier. Thirty-three of the children were at least six months retarded in reading and had no speech defect. Twenty-six children who read at grade level or above were found to have articulation difficulties, and thirty-eight children read at grade level or above and evidenced no speech problem.

The Sexual Differentiation Scale was applied to all of the children's drawings, and the frequencies for each group were determined. The obtained frequencies show that the control group (the children who read and speak adequately) were most heavily concentrated in the Sexual Differentiation Scale Level 3, indicating good self concept. The speech disability group was mainly at the Sexual Differentiation Scale Level 2, and the poor readers scored at the two lowest levels, 1 and 2.

The lowest category on the Sexual Differentiation Scale, Level 1, which indicates inability to make any distinction between maleness and femaleness, included less than 3% of the control group, 7½% of the speech defectives, and 42% of the reading defective children. Minimal differentiation (Sexual Differentiation Scale Level 2) was recorded by 13% of the control group, 69% of the speech defectives, and 45% of the poor readers. Sexual Differentiation Scale Level 3, wherein one figure is more clearly differentiated than the other, was reached by 23% of the speech defectives, but only 6% of the defective reading group. This contrasts with 71% of the control children. No child in either of the two experimental subgroups was able to differentiate clearly both figures (Level 4), whereas 13% of the control group made this distinction.

Some Conclusions

The results of this study support the conclusion that children with speech disabilities have an inadequate self concept. The mean of their Sexual Differentiation Scale scores was 2.25. Even more conclusive is the evidence that poor readers have a greatly diminished self concept. The mean of their scores was 1.59. The so called "normal" children—those with adequate speech and reading abilities—tended toward a good concept of self, with a mean of 2.93.

Statistical analysis reveals that there is a highly significant difference in self concept, as measured by the scale, between normal children, those with a speech problem, and those with a reading problem. Each one of these three groups is significantly different from either of the others.

The analysis also indicates that among speech defectives, the greater the ability to differentiate on the Sexual Differentiation Scale, the higher the reading level. Children with reading problems reveal a lowered Sexual Differentiation Scale level correlated with depressed reading scores. There was no statistically significant relationship

between the number of articulation errors exhibited and the ability to read at or above grade level.

The findings of this study would appear to substantiate the belief that a child's perception of himself is a vital aspect of at least two of his communication skills; speech adjustment and reading adjustment. It also seems to be significant that children with covert difficulties (reading problems) have lower self concepts than children with overt difficulties (speech problems). Perhaps this could mean that the open acknowledgement of the disability, whatever it might be, could render it less harmful. Whether this is true or not, it is surely true that reading therapists must recognize their dual responsibility. Although there is no evidence to show whether poor self concept is a cause or an effect of poor reading, the correlation between the two is so great that there can be no doubt that the goal of the therapist should be to improve the self esteem as well as the communication skill.

Shakespeare's Iago in *Othello* said, "I've never met a man who thought well enough of himself."

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GREEN LUMBER, AN INTRODUCTION TO FAILURE

John Brewster

As a comparative newcomer to the study of the problems of reading instruction, I have that frustratingly inadequate feeling that goes along with having many, many questions and very few answers. Many of my questions are concerned with "why." Why is it that this child with adequate mental capacity, physical health, experiential background and stable environment fails to learn to read? I'm aware, of course, that many answers are available in the volumes and volumes of current literature, but I haven't dug them all out for evaluation. Somehow, I expect I'll be a little late in getting around to them all. And so far now, my answers will be confined primarily to observations.

The first "observation" concerns a farmer I once knew. Let me tell you the story as I have learned to relate it.

Once upon a time there lived a farmer who desired to build a house. Being a very frugal man he took his chain-saw and tractor to the forest on his farm to cut trees for the lumber. Now this man selected only the very soundest and straightest of trees because he realized the value of quality material. After the logs had been cut and the limbs removed, this very methodical farmer took his logs to a saw mill to have them sawed into lumber. When the lumber had been cut and planed, he began to build his house. Being a very precise farmer he followed his plans without deviation. When he was finished, he had a very beautiful house. It was square and plumb and it shone with its coats of clean, glossy paint. But after a few months a door began to stick and then a window and in a short time not one of the doors and none of the windows would work and even the paint began to peel.

Now this very frugal, methodical and precise farmer was also very ambitious and followed a carefully planned schedule, for it was only in this way that he could accomplish all of his work. When, after the lumber had been cut, he found himself to be behind in his schedule, he reasoned that the lumber would not require the time-consuming curing process. As he saw it, if he built the house correctly and was careful to do a good job of nailing and bracing, there could be little or no warping. But, the proof of his judgment is in the house. As the green lumber dried and aged, it turned and twisted, pulling nails and screws and warped what might have been a sound structure.

Our poor farmer, though wholeheartedly trying to do the very

best job, was nevertheless guilty of an error in judgement. The pressure of the schedule was allowed to take precedence even though he knew of the dangers of using green lumber. Do teachers, like the farmer, sometimes try to build with green lumber in order to meet a schedule?

The other illustration I have to make may also serve to illustrate this point. It has to do with a boy named Bill. Bill is one of those children who cause me to ask "why."

Bill seems to adjust in my remedial room quite readily. He is not surprised to find himself there. I can imagine him saying to himself, "What's all this fuss about remedial reading? You're gonna teach *me* to read? Fine! Go ahead." And away he goes to sharpen a pencil, get a drink or tease a neighbor; anything to put off this threat of a new and inevitable failure.

Bill is a failure in reading. He knows it and he figures everyone else does too, but he finds ways of compensating. He doesn't let on that grades mean anything to him anymore. He laughs at D's and E's when he's with the other kids. He has found out about oral reading too. He thinks, "The thing to do is not to stop if you don't know a word, put something in there just as if you knew what it was. Don't stop and try to figure the thing out. They'll know you don't know. Just keep going and get it over. Then no one will bother you again for a week or so."

Bill is in the second semester of the fifth grade, ten years and three months old, of high average mental capacity. His independent reading level is about 1.5; his instructional level, 2.5 and his capacity level, 5.0. In interviews he is quiet, polite and wants very much to please. His father is a factory worker and he and Bill hunt and fish together. Mother is a homemaker, and apparently a very good one. Bill is well dressed, well fed and well thought of by both parents. Mother and Dad have a real respect for education and teachers. They try "not to interfere" with the teachers' work. They are sure the teacher "will do the right thing for Bill."

In the fourth grade there were lots of interesting science projects, but Bill didn't get far with them because most of them depended upon independent reading of resource material and there just wasn't anything worth reading at his reading level. He felt "pretty bad about that," he said.

When we confer with his other teachers we hear that, "He was a good boy, but he just fooled his time away," or "He could have learned to read, he's just a lazy boy," or "He just wouldn't learn

the vowel sounds." In the first grade his teacher commented, "He had trouble with his readiness work, but we had already been on readiness for six weeks. We couldn't stay there forever, so during the seventh week we started reading. He didn't want to read then and I don't think he ever will."

His kindergarten teacher told Bill's parents, "Bill is a little immature. He depends too much upon me. His drawings indicate poor eye-hand coordination. He is never able to finish his readiness work." When Bill's mother asked if maybe he should stay another year in kindergarten the teacher advised not, since she felt Bill would have "outgrown his problem" by next fall.

In a diagnosis of Bill's oral reading, we find not a pattern of strengths and weaknesses, but a confusion of error types from one day to another. He makes practically all of the errors. He clips off the ends or the beginnings of words; word attack skills are practically nonexistent; he continually makes wild guesses at words and repeats himself constantly. Some days he will omit words, some days he doesn't. He confuses b and d and b and p. Consonant blends confuse him. For all of his errors, his comprehension appears to be quite good. He has become an expert at analyzing illustrations and story plots from the scanty information he gets from his reading.

Bill, like all too many boys, started school with two strikes against him. Strike number one was his age when he started kindergarten. He was four years and eleven months. Bill was not only several months in chronological age behind the other boys but add to this the fact that boys, in general, tend at age five to be twelve months behind girls in biological development and we see that Bill is starting his long career in school almost a year and a half inferior in development to at least fifty per cent of the class. If that isn't bad enough, Bill, though alert and interested in the world about him, is rather dependent upon mother and in a kindergarten class of thirty, he is fearful and insecure. Strike two!

It would be hard to determine precisely when strike three was called. It may have been before Bill left kindergarten. But, I think perhaps about seven weeks after he began first grade, the pitcher let the ball fly and sometime later Bill, the batter, and his own most critical umpire, called strike three. It was all too hard for him while it seemed so easy for others. Bill had been introduced to failure and he accepted it as his way. Perhaps the carpenter was trying to build a workable structure from green lumber.

FUTILITY

Civilization:
Has man's mind at last conceived
his self-asylum?

Earth has many faults:
A few are of natural cause;
All the rest are born.

Life was simple, once.
Now there is but chaos—why
did God let man loose?

Robert Meacham
Sixth Grade
Newton Parrish
Owensboro, Kentucky

WHAT TO DO UNTIL THE TEACHER ARRIVES

Mary Ruth Loughrin

Preparing the child for schooling, the greatest experience of childhood, can be an exciting and rewarding experience for the parents. While the child is under their almost exclusive control in the pre-school years, they can initiate their own Head Start program instilling habits and attitudes in the child by simple methods, lovingly and patiently taught.

From the time the wee one comes into the home, parents should speak to the child in full sentences and in a conversational manner as they would to adults. While the mother is doing her housework, she can chat with the infant who will comprehend a great deal of what she is saying from the inflection and tone of her voice. "Baby talk" should not be encouraged. When the child begins to toddle to the kitchen and asks for "Wa, wa," the parent should hand him a drink of water saying, "Here is your drink of water." If the parents repeat the child's garbled pronunciation, the child believes it is acceptable; this hampers the development of good speech patterns. Similarly, sentence sense can be developed by parents who ask questions of the child which require a sentence for an answer. Parents should assist the child by stating the full answer and waiting for the child to repeat it.

Insistence by the parents that the child identify objects and persons by their proper name will enlarge greatly his vocabulary and sense of discrimination. The parents set the example: "Pick up the book, please," rather than, "Pick that up." When the child says, "Look at them," referring to some birds in the yard, the parent can say, "Those robins certainly are busy seeking worms." The constant admonition should be, "Call everything by its proper name." This extends to naming other children and adults by their proper names, both in conversation about them and directly to the persons themselves.

A child not only needs to be spoken to, but parents should encourage the child to express himself verbally and they should afford the opportunities and occasions for such expression. One such occasion is the evening meal. Parents should lead the conversation at the evening meal when the whole family is present. Each child should be asked questions which enable a child to tell of the important events

of the day. Care must be taken not to discourage the child by interruptions from others and a belittling of what the child considers of importance.

Another occasion for the child to express himself is at the family "conference." Too often the family conference is dramatized as a formal tribal meeting with solemn statements by adults who grant "equal time" to the young ones in a patronizing, superficially democratic manner. But the conference can be simply the mother or father addressing the child before the receiving of company into the home, before the shopping tour, before visiting the ill or handicapped person, before choosing an expensive piece of play equipment, or similar situations. "Children, we are going . . .," "We expect that you will . . .," "The situation will be . . .," "Do you think you should . . .?" "If so, why?" After the event, a discussion with their parents of their behavior gives them further opportunity to verbalize. When a child has conducted himself in a proper and polite manner, the parents should recognize this achievement. A warm hug and a smile in addition to "How proud I was of the way you acted . . .," will raise his self esteem and build his confidence in meeting new people or strange situations. He seeks parental approval above all and to substitute object rewards such as candy or toys confuses his personal sense of values.

Books from the public library are an easily available source for vocabulary enrichment of the pre-school child. When the parent reads an illustrated story, rhyme or poem to the little one whom he is holding on his lap, physical and emotional rapport between reader and child develops and the printed words take on significance and meaning to the child because they tell a story. The reader should relate an illustration to a particular word or sentence. He should name the animal in the picture as a horse, moose, or cow and ask the child to find other objects in the illustration. The reader should then ask "Think" questions. "Why was the little duck so happy?" "Why did they go to the grocery store instead of the drug store?"

After a parent has read a favorite story to the little one, the child will likely look at the book by himself and more often than not will want to "read" the story to his parents or to another brother or sister. The child begins to look upon his storybooks as his friends. The child becomes aware of why his parents enjoy reading the daily newspaper, magazines and books. He realizes that those strange little symbols say something.

Parents can assist a child to create his own books with pictures

taken from magazines or catalogues. Usual groupings are the family book, the house book, the color book, or any subject book containing pictures related to the one subject. This type of activity will assist the child in organizing his thoughts and working independently of the parent.

In addition to grocery shopping with the mother, trips to the library, and overnight visits to relatives, there are other activities to give the child further experiential background. These experiences include excursions to the lake, public swimming pools, museums, the zoo, or any outing of interest to the family.

The pre-schooler's participation in these activities is dependent upon the willingness of the parents to schedule the time ahead, to consider with the child some of the observations to be made on the excursion, to expend the physical effort necessary to the experience, and to sacrifice their personal interests to the child's betterment.

Drawings, paintings or clay models made by the child to depict what he did and saw will enable him to express himself through the art media. Hand puppets made from stockings, using buttons for eyes and red crayon for the mouth and black crayon for the nose and eyebrows provide a means for dramatic play which will stimulate the child's imagination. Monologues and dialogues occasioned by use of hand puppets often will delight and surprise the parents.

If a child continues to speak about a particular enrichment activity, the parent should tell the little one that he will write the story on a sheet of paper for him and then let the child illustrate it. No attempt should be made to make the child learn to read the tale by himself. If a family newspaper is printed, the story would be good front page material. The child's illustration could serve as the wire photo.

All of the above mentioned projects deal with the development of the pre-schooler's facility in vocabulary and comprehension. These abilities are most important, but they do not stand alone. During all the years that the parents are making the child familiar with the spoken language, other habits and attitudes must be inculcated. The child needs to learn obedience; kindness; affection; respect for other persons' property; self esteem; pride of family, religion and country; respect for authority; acceptance of responsibility and the value of needs over wants. The opportunities to develop these attitudes and acquire habits arise many times during the pre-school years. They can be brought about directly and indirectly. Unless the child is taught these traits in conjunction with teaching him to verbalize well, he will be emotionally immature.

All through life people have short-range and long-range goals. Short-range goals can be planned and executed in a small amount of time, such as marketing or getting to the dentist's or doctor's office on time. Long-range goals take much planning, time, patience and perseverance. For parents, their most valuable long-range goal is the proper rearing of their children. The pre-school years are but the beginning, and if the parents have done their best to prepare the child for schooling and meeting new persons and situations in life, they can only hope that they have taken all the necessary precautions while waiting for the teacher to arrive.

ANOTHER HAT FOR THE SPECIAL READING TEACHER

Lucille Larzelere

The special reading teacher functions most successfully if he is one who can wear many different hats. He may be required to wear more than one at a time or to change them rather quickly with the ease of a magician. He is versatile and flexible in this accomplishment. However, there is one hat in particular to which we would like to give attention in this article. It is a hat that is deserving particular attention because it is a year around necessity and should be worn in any season. It is indispensable to the reading teacher who works with retarded readers. The purpose of this article will be to describe the hat and to suggest that it would be more serviceable if it were more adequately designed and constructed.

How Many Hats Does the Reading Teacher Wear?

Perhaps we should first take a look at the hat wardrobe of the average reading teacher. We know that one of the first hats which he acquires is the rather common type which usually accompanies the A.B. or B.S. degree. It is the elementary or secondary teaching certificate which is recognized as a basic. Then there is the little model which is obtained when the teacher adds the understanding and knowledge which qualify him as a special reading teacher. He soon learns, however, that to function with real effectiveness, he will need to change his headsize just enough to be able to fit into the public relations cap. This one is particularly appropriate and useful when introducing reading programs into new schools or when meeting with teachers, principals, or parents. Mention should be made of some of the other hats which the reading teacher will find necessary to don from time to time and for which he will want to allow room on his hat shelf. These might include the part-time administrator number, or the less interesting one designed for clerical work, or the one styled for graduate students. The teacher often finds it difficult to obtain the last mentioned one and the fit is frequently poor because of limited procurement time or unavoidable distractions.

What Is the Special Hat?

There are others, but it is time now to examine the one hat which deserves the special attention previously described. It is acknowledged

that the wearing of the several hats is not an easy task and because there is concern to wear them properly, the significance of the one hat can be sadly minimized. The hat to which we refer is that of counselor. There are those who will immediately say that the reading teacher is not a counselor or that we have counselors to wear the counselors' hats. This is true, but we cannot overlook the fact that the special reading teacher finds himself in a position to be most effective wearing this hat and is always called upon to do so whether ready or not. Just as the teaching of the reading process cannot be isolated from the psychological and emotional condition of an individual, so reading therapy cannot ignore the need for skillful treatment of these aspects of the case.

Why Is the Reading Teacher Able To Wear This Hat Effectively?

There are several reasons why the special reading teacher is in a most favorable position to counsel his students. Because of the very nature of his work, he has a close personal interest in the student. He has seen the student operate in a group. He has worked with him individually. He has established a relationship of mutual respect and trust. He is himself a person who is understanding and acceptant. He likes young people. He has a warm friendly personality and good self-understanding. These are qualities which, hopefully, the counselor and the reading teacher will both possess. Therefore, it can be a great advantage when the reading instructor and the counselor are the same person. It almost becomes imperative that the reading teacher wears the counselor's hat beneath the others.

Can there be any question as to the need for counseling the retarded reader? Here is a person whose self-image and feelings of personal worth usually fall within the lowest percentiles on a personality test. He needs help to like, accept, and respect himself. Because he has an unlovely view of himself, he views others negatively. All of this must be considered in the remedial process.

Two other closely related questions may be asked: Can the reading teacher counsel?, followed by, Should the reading teacher counsel? We believe that the answer to both questions is, Yes, if—In other words, the reading teacher can and should counsel if he has received some training in counseling during his preparation as a reading teacher. He should counsel if he recognizes that he is limited just as any counselor is limited. There are some problems which, when properly handled by the counselor or the reading teacher, are referred to other persons having special training and skills. But what of the

people who seem to naturally possess the qualities of personality and the understanding required of a good counselor? It is true that there are these people just as there are those who given any amount of training will never be able to counsel competently. The latter should probably be neither a reading teacher nor a counselor but the former will be able to perform even more successfully with training and with knowledge of the philosophy, methods and techniques of counseling which have proven to be most effective.

It may be concluded that no matter how knowledgeable a reading teacher may be about reading, he is not really accomplished unless he knows how to meet the student who needs to express aggression, hostility, fears of inferiority, self-doubt, anxiety, or other intense feelings which often accompany reading retardation. Many will feel that we already expect the reading teacher to be versatile and skilled in the wearing of his many hats and now we are asking for something more. However, it is fairly apparent that he can't and shouldn't avoid putting on the counselor's hat. It is equally apparent that further thought should be given to finding ways to prepare and assist the teacher so that he may wear this very important hat more comfortably and effectively.

THE EFFECTIVE REMEDIAL READING PROGRAM

Marilyn Nederveld

An effective remedial reading program is one that is directed by a highly trained remedial instructor and has gained the cooperation and support of teachers, administrators, and parents. The effectiveness of such a program is achieved only by long range planning in which everyone involved is made cognizant of the aims and objectives of the program.

A remedial reading program is developed when a need for it exists. Teachers may experience a need for a special reading program as a result of meeting with failure in instructing certain students by conventional methods. Administrators may feel a need for a remedial reading program after studying comprehensive plans to improve classroom instruction in reading. Encountering the demands of a technological age, the public may express a desire for such a program. Nevertheless, once the need is established, the good school system takes immediate action.

Initial Planning of the Program

Planning may begin by securing a reading teacher who is well equipped in three areas of the remedial program. That is, a teacher who knows how reading can best be taught to all children with provision for the slow progress cases; one who is trained in clinical work to the point where she can study with success all but the most extreme cases of reading difficulty; and one who is qualified and experienced in teaching poor readers so that she can do this work or show others how to do it. A person so trained fits into the plans of any particular system and is of value in all these different ways.

Because of the specialized training and experience of the reading teacher, she is often asked to organize the entire remedial reading program, or at least most of it. While accepting the responsibility, she nonetheless consults the administrator in her planning. She feels it is important not only that the administrator be made aware of all aspects of the program, but also that he support it and be willing to cooperate in interpreting its aims and objectives to others.

The Development of the Program

The actual organization of the remedial reading program involves

the consideration of many factors. The remedial teacher must determine the goals of the program, the criteria for selecting students, the methods and materials she will use, the method she will employ in introducing the program to the faculty, and the manner in which she will assign the students to the program.

The Criteria for Selecting Students

The first thing the remedial reading teacher does is to establish the criteria for selecting the students for the program. In her mind arise three types of students that might qualify for instruction. The first type is a student whose reading achievement is below his grade placement and below his chronological age, but at his mental age. The second type is a student whose reading achievement is below his reading potential but at grade level. The third type is a student whose reading achievement is below his grade placement, his chronological age, and his mental age. Which type of student would benefit most from remedial instruction? The first type of student, although not achieving up to grade level or chronological age, is already working up to his capacity. He would not gain enough to merit individual help in the remedial situation. The second type of student, although not working up to his potential, is working at grade level. He does not pose a problem as such in the homeroom. The classroom teacher, with the benefit of inservice training, could do much to assist him. The third type of student is reading below his grade placement, his chronological age, and *his mental age*. He is not benefitting by conventional methods of classroom instruction and yet has the capacity to achieve. Certainly, this type of student would gain most from her remedial instruction. He would be given first consideration.

Methods and Materials

Obviously, the methodology the remedial reading teacher uses will be essentially different from that of other reading instruction. A remedial reader is a retarded reader, and he must learn skills faster than he would in a regular classroom. If he is to learn faster, the teacher must be completely familiar with successive stages of reading skill, in contrast to many classroom teachers who concentrate instruction more narrowly, even with heterogeneous groups. Thus she must drive directly and rapidly for the development of the reading skills which are normally the outgrowth of a more leisurely paced classroom program. In addition to this, she will seek to adapt her instruction to the interests and the goals of the individual student.

Much of her effort may be devoted toward building success for students who have repeatedly experienced failure by conventional classroom methods.

The materials she will utilize in instruction will also be of a different nature than those utilized in the comprehensive classroom. Books must be available which are low in reading difficulty and more advanced in interest appeal. Many book companies are now publishing materials which are either original stories with the factors which contribute to reading instruction controlled, or are rewritten, simplified versions of well-known stories. Desiring to stimulate curiosity and to create success, the remedial teacher will select a wealth of materials on a variety of ability levels and interesting topics.

The Creation of a Desirable Climate

The remedial teacher is concerned with creating a desirable climate in which the program can begin. While it is necessary to inform the teachers of the specific goals and objectives of the program, it is also important to establish good relations with them. The remedial teacher might strive to accomplish this through a meeting, designed to introduce the program to the faculty. At the meeting, the remedial teacher herself, or perhaps a visiting consultant in reading, would acquaint the faculty with the goals of a remedial program, the criteria by which students are selected, the methods and materials utilized in the program. Teachers would also be familiarized with their duties with respect to the program. Following this, a get-acquainted period, of perhaps a week or two would begin. During this time, the remedial reading teacher would initiate an attitude of friendliness and cooperation. She would strive to be truly sympathetic with the difficulties that teachers experience. If she made suggestions, she would be certain they were highly practical and welcomed by those to whom given. Hopefully, channels of communication would be established as a result of this get-acquainted period.

The Assignment of Students to the Program

The assignment of students to remedial instruction is the remedial teacher's next concern. After receiving a recommended list of students from the classroom teachers, the remedial teacher will begin interviewing, testing, and compiling data to help her determine who would benefit most by remedial instruction. Many factors will be considered. The student's physical, mental, emotional, and social maturity will be appraised. After careful evaluation, the remedial teacher will

notify the classroom teacher of the students who have been accepted into the program.

Scheduling the students will involve trying to assign them to times which will not cause them to miss too much basic instruction in the homeroom. The remedial teacher may discuss the scheduling problem with the pupil's classroom teacher who may be able to make some program adjustments for the child's convenience.

The Inception of the Program

Diagnosis of the Students

After the inception of the program, the remedial teacher makes a more detailed diagnosis of the pupil's reading disabilities and a much more elaborate inquiry into possible causative factors. She has additional need for information since the pupils are strangers to her.

The complexity of the diagnostic procedure she uses will, of course, depend upon the facilities that are available to her. To help herself become better acquainted with the student, she might use an interest inventory. She would obtain a knowledge of the student's reading ability through an informal reading inventory and by reading achievement test scores. She will perhaps administer an individual intelligence test to find the student's mental age. In addition to this, tests to evaluate physical coordination, dominance, vision, and hearing may be given. The teacher supplements these findings by obtaining information from the classroom teacher and from the parents. All of this information she then records and keeps for each student in an ordinary file folder. As time goes on, she adds to this file a record of all progress that is made during the instructional period and comments about the student's mental, physical and emotional growth. In this way, the remedial teacher is provided with a valuable guide for remedial teaching.

Instruction of the Students

Certainly the remedial teacher's time must not be "spread thin" if results are to be clearly perceptible. In the beginning she may desire to work in the most serious spots, selecting students who exhibit the greatest need for instruction. By meeting these students every day, she will be able to arouse enthusiasm and to observe the progress made. Depending on the type of training needed, the number of students meeting in a group might vary from two to five. Extreme cases may need to be seen individually. As the program progresses, she will strive to extend her services to a greater number of individuals.

Consultation with Teachers, Parents, and Administrators

In addition to the time the remedial teacher spends instructing students, time must be available for consultation with teachers, parents, and administrators. Certainly if a program is to relate realistically and logically to classroom instruction, consultation with teachers is a necessity. Endeavoring to develop this important relationship, the remedial teacher conducts small group meetings in which she makes suggestions of methods and materials for helping and preventing reading difficulties too numerous for the program to handle. She demonstrates various reading instructional techniques. She assists teachers in making classroom adjustments for students who are receiving remedial training. Also, she takes time to interview parents, helping them to come to a better understanding of their child, and confers with her principal or supervisor concerning many aspects of the program.

Preparation of Materials

The remedial teacher has part of her time unscheduled for the discovery and preparation of materials both for herself and for other teachers. She considers this a major facet of the remedial program. Much effort and time is required both to explore and evaluate the many new materials constantly being developed in the field of reading.

Responsibilities of Teachers, Parents, Administrators

The remedial teacher is the most important part of the remedial program. The success of the program rests a great deal upon her ability to keep communication channels open and to engender enthusiasm for the program. She must not only prove her capacity for dealing with all phases of the program but must also convey to others that her first purpose is to give service. However, teachers, parents, and administrators can also affect the success of the program. The classroom teacher largely determines the student's initial attitude toward the program. She can inspire enthusiasm in it by expressing confidence in its ability to help them. She can cooperate by observing the scheduled times a student must attend the remedial classes. She can follow up any suggestions given by the remedial teacher. Finally, she can express appreciation for any progress made, realizing that what seems a little improvement for some children represents a real victory.

Parents, by understanding that the cost of such a program is more than paid for by a decrease of retardation in the school system, can

lend their encouragement and support. By accepting that the purpose of the program is to help children who badly need it, they can refrain from making unrealistic demands.

Administrators can cooperate by asking that all requests for services be made through them, thus releasing the remedial teacher for tasks that merit her training and experience to a greater degree. He can also strive to keep abreast of all planning and activity involved in the program and in this way interpret more effectively the overall purpose of the program to the faculty, the school board, and general public.

An effective remedial reading program then is the result of many factors. But perhaps most important, it is one which is capably directed by a teacher who has the benefit of specialized training and one which has gained the interest, support, and cooperation of teachers, parents, and administrators.

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YOUTH

A habit not yet formed,
A state not yet achieved.
Time aware but still stunned,
My mobility frozen.
Course changing,
Energy being released.
Attempting participation,
Doors unlocking.
Weather clear,
No road signs.

R. M. Higginbottom

ECHOS FROM THE FIELD

Lois VanDenBerg

The Secondary Reading Department in the Kalamazoo Public Schools is attempting a new dimension in its program. It is generally assumed that one person cannot adequately diagnose students with serious reading deficiencies. For this reason plans are being made to hold case conferences on certain students who have not made progress in reading. The conference will be a clinical approach to the problem with the hope of accomplishing the following:

- a. to attempt to determine the causal factors inhibiting reading
- b. to assist in the interpretation of the various standardized and informal methods of evaluation and to determine the need for further testing
- c. to compile all known information for the purpose of an objective diagnosis
- d. to plan a course of treatment which will tend to eliminate or modify factors inhibiting progress
- e. to develop an appropriate teaching approach to reading for individuals
- f. to enlist support of members of the staff to aid the particular students.

The conference participants will include Kalamazoo Public School personnel, and allied disciplines such as medical-psychiatric agencies who have had some contact with a particular case or who have specific training and skill to aid in determining the factors which have inhibited reading. These participants would aid in setting up an appropriate reading program.

The success of these conferences will depend upon the success of the student in his academic areas. The nature of the evaluation will therefore be long termed.

DID YOU SEE?

Dorothy J. McGinnis

The eighth annual summary of professional literature on junior and senior high school reading which appears in the November 1966 issue of *The Journal of Reading*?

The 1966 publication of *Teaching the Child to Read* by Guy L. Bond and Eva Bond Wagner? It is the fourth edition of this popular text published by the Macmillan Company.

The April 1966 issue of *The Personnel and Guidance Journal*? It contains an article by Ruth Strang entitled, "The Relationship of Guidance to the Teaching of Reading," in which she contends that guidance and reading have some aspects in common and suggests that there are advantages in preparing dual specialists—counselors who have acquired competence in working with reading problems and reading specialists who have competence in personnel work.

Corrective Reading by Miles V. Zintz? This 1966 publication by Wm. C. Brown Publishers offers many suggestions for the classroom teacher concerning the diagnosis of reading problems through the use of informal tests.

The code of ethics for reading teachers published in the October 1966 issue of *The Journal of Reading*? These ethical standards have been established by the International Reading Association and should be followed by professional reading specialists.

Hap Gilliland's *Materials for Remedial Reading and Their Use* published by the Reading Clinic of Eastern Montana College?

"A Social Studies Department Talks Back," published in the October 1966 issue of *The Journal of Reading*? This article presents many stimulating points of view.

The results of a study by Sister Mary Edward Dolan concerning the effects of a modified linguistic word recognition program on fourth-grade reading achievement? A summary of the study appears in the Summer 1966 *Reading Research Quarterly*.

"Troubled Children and Reading Achievement" by Juanita K. Stout? This interesting article appears in the 1964 *Proceedings of the Annual Reading Institute*.

Homer L. J. Carter's "Cooperative Study, the Clinic and the Classroom Teacher" which appears in the 1966 *Proceedings of the International Reading Association*?

WE SUGGEST

Eleanor Buelke

Macdonald, James B., and Leeper, Robert R., Editors

Language and Meaning

Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA, 1966. Pp. vi + 111.

For the educator who is "deeply concerned that the human aspects of schooling are often neglected," this small, paperback volume offers shared thinking of eminent scholars on such aspects of language and meaning. For the teacher who holds that teaching children to write and think well in their native language is "the only way of assuring that one says things right and courteously and powerfully *to oneself*," this publication makes available written discussion by distinguished consultants concerning such implications.¹ For the instructor who has had a gnawing suspicion that he is, in some way, responsible for countering "the loss of self, the dehumanization and depersonalization of people living in a technological society such as ours," these presentations focus attention upon newer concepts of knowledge and knowing.

A number of currently respected and prominent educational writers link language to man's development and effectiveness as a progressively intelligent, dynamic human being. Dr. Jerome Bruner writes that, "Language is a major instrument of thought."² Smith and Dechant believe that, "The symbol without the perceiving individual is meaningless."³ They also say:

Although the word symbol itself has no meaning it provides a focal point for concept formation, and comprehension certainly depends upon the adequacy and accuracy of one's concepts.⁴

Concerning the importance of meaning to communication, Paul McKee writes:

. . . obviously communication takes places only to the extent to which the receiver makes the meaning intended by the

1. Jerome S. Bruner, *Toward a Theory of Instruction*, p. 103. Cambridge, Massachusetts: The Belknap Press of Harvard University Press, 1966.

2. *Ibid.*, p. 104.

3. Henry P. Smith and Emerald V. Dechant, *Psychology in Teaching Reading*, p. 44. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1961.

4. *Ibid.*, p. 215.

broadcaster . . . and the degree of understanding for which a receiver should strive in his listening or reading is that which will enable him to satisfy the demands of the situation at the time and will serve him later as an effective tool in straight thinking and intelligent action.⁵

Papers presented in this book by six different authors concern the concepts of language, meaning, and motivation. The writer of the first paper, "Curricular Language and Classroom Meanings," suggests that curricular language might be too limited to face and solve problems or mysteries of language and meaning in the classrooms of today. Perhaps, educational activity, which is what curriculum is, in an actual sense, might be more adequately described and valued in reformulated aspects of curricular language. Presently, educational activity appears to be valued often in the light of technical, political, and scientific values. Viewed with consideration for aesthetic and ethical values as well, classroom learnings might become richer, more meaningful, socially and personally more significant for students and teachers.

In "Curriculum and the Analysis of Language," Mr. Phenix attempts to help teachers relate educational practices to theoretical philosophies through logical analysis and application to specific contexts. He indicates that analysis encourages respect for the subtle and complex nature of our language. Students in classrooms of analytically guided language teachers study words, not in isolation, but in relation to other words and to the structures and context in which they are used.

Dealing with the affective domain in learning, the writer of "The Discovery of Felt Meaning" states that "thinking and problem solving always occur as felt sensing and not with only the given and verbal conceptual constructs." Utilizing felt sensing, a student needs to pay attention directly to what he is trying to say, or to any other purpose for which he is using language. Mr. Gendlin hypothesizes that there may be a direct relationship between creative people and the "sort of gentle attention and explication to their felt sensing reactions, as they read and think."

In "What Language Reveals," Walter Loban writes that language and action impart meaning and significance to human perception, emotion, volition, and thought. "They are the two crucial ways of

5. Paul McKee, *Reading*, p. 24. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1966.

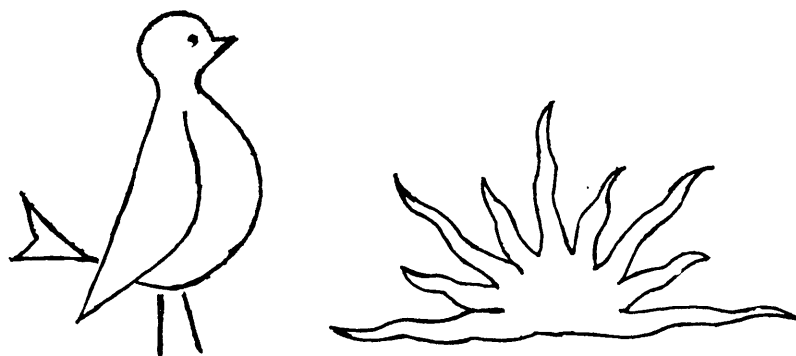
educating mankind.” As a culture or nation moves from a primitive state toward civilization, language gains in importance. The child’s oral language is an important link between him, the school, and his home and social environment. It is the single, most important resource with which the child comes to school, already equipped. Beginning with the child’s natural language, selected experiences which relate language to thinking and perceiving need to be emphasized in the language arts program. Language should be discovered for the fascinating “miracle” it is, and can become, for those who know its use for flexibility, modification, and manipulation of ideas.

The author of “Meaning and Thinking,” Mary Jane Aschener, ascribes importance to the role of language in the evolution of human intelligence. Man’s capacity for reflective thinking has paralleled his progress in making language an effective instrument of thought. She suggests that verbal language strategies to foster development of thinking abilities in students may be employed in great variety. Several descriptions of such strategies are described in some detail. Here a discerning and creative teacher may find promising and realistic approaches to curriculum patterns for helping students to adjust and shift their levels of thinking to meet the cognitive demands of a learning task.

Thomas Johnson discusses “Motivation: Some Principles, Problems and Classroom Applications” in the last section. Data from research described and reported by this writer indicate that what a teacher does in his classroom, what his characteristic behavior is, can have predictable, vitally important effects on pupil motivation and behavior. Much of a teacher’s behavior is manifested through the language media. Granting that motivational theory is applied to the classroom most effectively at the operational level, teachers need to use motivational techniques amenable to their control in the classroom setting. These might include language techniques based upon the classroom social system and techniques based upon solution of problems, or completion of tasks or activities.

Perhaps, in all aspects of language teaching, the teacher can serve the learner, and himself, best by being what Bruner calls “a day-to-day working model with whom to interact . . . a part of the student’s internal dialogue . . . a speaker of a language one shares with somebody.”⁶

6. *Op. cit.*, p. 124.



ROUND ROBIN

Dorothy E. Smith, Editor

If there is one thing that is not lacking in the field of reading it is theories on the causes of reading maladjustment. In our frenetic desire to create order out of chaos, we sometimes stop to wonder if there aren't more theories than there are reading problems.

Compulsively, we ride the pendulum swing of enthusiasm for a certain theory that seems to match our needs until it breaks down on a particularly thorny problem case. Then, predictably, we latch on to a theory that might be diametrically opposed to the first one, and ride it until *it* proves invalid, or at least, inadequate.

Theories are important. We cannot grow in knowledge unless we can hold some truths as self evident. And we cannot establish truth without testing possibilities. The providing of possibilities is the function of the theorist.

We need to remind ourselves, however, that a word of caution is in order. We must bear in mind that a theory does not need to be all-encompassing. Indeed, authorities in the field are suggesting that no one causal theory can possibly explain every incidence of reading maladjustment. It is probable that we will one day accept a multiple-causation theory.

However this may be, today we are being bombarded with theories, and these theories deserve to be explored by those of us who provide reading therapy. One of the currently more popular theories is that expounded by Carl Delacato. Eli T. Ross, director of a reading clinic in San Diego, describes it in the following letter. The presentation of his letter does not imply an endorsement of the theory. If you are interested in a more critical analysis, please refer to the Spring Issue of the *Reading Research Quarterly*.

Dear Editor,

Carl Delacato of the Chestnut Hill Academy of Philadelphia advances a new and exciting theory that the great bulk of reading problems stems from inadequate neurological organization from birth on. That is, the nervous system of the body as related to the language area of the brain is not functioning as it should. As strange as it may seem, the position in which a baby or young child sleeps may be symptomatic of a potentially poor reader.

An investigation of sleep patterns of the normally developed child is marked by distinctive characteristics which readily differ from the brain-injured child and of the neurologically underdeveloped child who has a reading problem. This same disoriented sleep pattern may be found in youngsters of pre-school age who later develop reading disabilities. This latter point is important since it serves as a vital clue in preventive remedial reading procedures before reading problems arise.

Also, it has been observed that some youngsters who appear to be righthanded and who should have a dominant right eye (the eye which is steadfast and predominantly influences seeing) may have instead a dominant left eye. We would expect right-handed people to be right-eyed and left-handed people to have a dominant left eye.

This eye-hand conflict seems to go pack and parcel with the neurologically under-developed youngster whose body sleep position is not normal.

Inclusively, Delacato found that with every severely retarded youngster with whom he worked, youngsters with whom normal remedial reading measures had failed, had such a conflict.

Delacato has shown where body sleep position of the sleeping youngster is properly set by the parent, and where the youngster has been retrained to develop a proper eye-hand coordination, reading problems can be thereafter corrected rapidly, in virtually all cases that previously would not yield to normally accepted remedial reading measures alone.

Essentially, the problem or challenge presented in dealing with correction as well as prevention of reading problems is one of assisting the neurologically undeveloped youngster, the one who does not have a dominant eye-hand pattern of coordination, to develop a dominant factor.

Why this seems to be a requirement for proper language functioning of a youngster, we can only theorize. A partial theoretical explanation can be found in obstetrical literature. It is a well known fact

that complex deliveries may cause oxygen starvation to the cortex area of the brain (the area that controls language). When the oxygen starvation is pronounced, obvious retardation can be readily predicted. In other instances, the oxygen deprivation may be ever so slight, but results in comparatively minor cortex underdevelopment which is not readily detectable.

This may be observed in sleep positions which deviate from the normal body sleep position. This would be a clue to neurological underdevelopment. Fortunately, where the cortex damage is slight, body positions can be developed through training which in time will lead to a dominant eye-hand feature, eliminating a potential language problem or assisting in correcting an already existing one.

Actually, the job of recognizing the slightly brain-damaged or neurologically underdeveloped child is an extremely difficult procedure. Even medical examinations using the electroencephalogram, a device used to record normal and abnormal brain wave patterns, may not reveal a deficiency. Often, only as the child becomes older, can we tell, if even then, by observation of behavior and learning patterns that a problem is present.

Confining ourselves to the child who is only slightly neurologically underdeveloped, not a true brain-damage case, we are now able to apply the remedy. It involves several fairly simple procedures which include, first, developing proper sleep postures that are typical to a left-handed or right-handed person, according to which side of dominance this youngster must develop. The parent is shown correct sleep patterns for his youngster and must shift the child's position while he is asleep. Additional treatment includes occluding (covering) the sub-dominant eye, forcing the youngster to use the dominant facilities. Certain activities are recommended such as shooting skill games which require use of the dominant hand and eye. The child is even taught to dress starting with the right or left foot, according to his preferred side. Of course, no attempt is made to switch left-handed youngsters to right-sidedness. If testing reveals his preferred side is left, then it is the left side which is trained for complete dominance.

For about six weeks, the youngster undergoes this so-called pre-remedial preparation. Then, reading can be taught using several different techniques.

Strange? Odd? Yes, indeed! But the proof is in the pudding and Delacato seems to be proving his pudding.

If you have a youngster who has a reading problem that neither the school nor his special reading class has helped, neurological and

other physiological factors may be present and unknown to anyone. The field of reading and chemical neurology is very new and much remains to be investigated. Important is the fact that we are now alerted to causes of reading difficulties hitherto unknown.

Eli T. Ross, Director
El Camino Reading Clinic
San Diego, California

TEN-SECOND REVIEWS

Blanche O. Bush

Reading is not the act of saying the words on a page but a process of getting meaning from printed language. This basic tenet needs to be heeded from the day a child takes his first pre-primer in his hands. —A. Sterl Artley

Amble, Bruce R. and Siegmar Muehle, "Perceptual Span Training and Reading Achievement of School Children," *The Elementary School Journal* (August, 1966), 57:192-206.

To determine whether or not a reading program of over 5,000 phrases would help improve reading skills and be a useful supplement to regular reading progress, three experimental studies were conducted. The phrase training program was designed to increase perceptual span and help students develop habits of integrative phrase reading. Subjects were intermediate grade school children and remedial readers. Findings indicate that reading gains were consistent for low, medium and superior readers and were maintained in follow-up tests.

Barbe, Walter B., "A Personalized Reading Program," *Education* (September, 1966), 87:33-35.

In this article the nature and importance of a personalized reading program are discussed. The author believes that personalized reading gives the teacher adequate flexibility to provide effective instruction for every child.

Bennett, Margaret, "The Logical Extreme Reading Method," *Phi Delta Kappan* (October, 1966), 48:65-67.

For this study two new basal readers, one for low and one for upper grades, were created. The students were divided into three homogeneous socio-economic groups. It was assumed there would be no problem of differing reading abilities within the group since the children would be reading books that presented familiar, vivid life situations.

Bond, Guy L., "First Grade Reading Studies," *Elementary English* (May, 1966), 43:464-471.

The major goal of the investigation is to explore the effects

upon reading growth of various approaches to first grade reading under conditions that make it possible to compare findings among a group of individual studies. The major outcomes of the study can be separated into those dealing with (1) the improvement of instruction as a result of the combined study of the 27 individual projects, (2) the feasibility of such co-operative research, and (3) the testing of the application of new statistical models to such extensive and multivariant data which previously would have been too overwhelming to contemplate.

Bordeaux, Elizabeth Ann and N. H. Shope, "An Evaluation of Three Approaches to Teaching Reading in First Grade," *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1966), 20:6-11.

This study compared a basal reader approach, a basal reader plus intensive phonics approach, and a basal reader plus intensive phonics plus sensory experience approaches. Statistically significant differences were found among the three approaches on several achievement variables. First, if only the basal reader and phonics approaches were used, no differences were observed with white children but Negro children benefitted more from the phonics approach. However, if a choice were made from all three approaches the sensory experience approach appeared to be most beneficial for both white and Negro children. The study, according to the authors, emphasized the theory that the more varied experiences a child has, the more he will learn.

Cellura, A. Raymond and Earl C. Butterfield, "Intelligence, Bender Gestalt Test and Reading Achievement," *American Journal of Mental Deficiency* (July, 1966), 71:60-63.

This study was designed to clarify the relationship between Bender Gestalt performance and academic achievement. Specifically, it was concerned with the validity of the Bender Gestalt as a predictor of reading achievement among mildly mentally retarded adolescents.

Chandler, Theodore A., "Reading Disability and the Socio-Economic Status," *Journal of Reading* (October, 1966), 10:5-21.

After the writer examined the studies discussed in this article and many others, he raised these questions. Isn't the

I.Q. test basically an achievement test? Could not socially disadvantaged children have the ability to learn and yet show up poorly on standardized tests? What sort of learning tasks can we devise? Are there perceptual-motor-visual differences between socially disadvantaged children and average children? These and other significant questions will have to be answered before some of the socially oriented correlates of reading disability can be resolved.

Cleland, Donald L. and Lorraine C. Morgan, "The Role of Phonics," *Education* (September, 1966), 87:3-6.

The authors present a practical approach to the role of phonics based on two assumptions. Teaching phonetic generalizations inductively as the need arises and providing teachers with an instructional guide to serve as a tool of reference in teaching are necessary.

Dolan, Sister Mary Edward, PBVM, "Effects of a Modified Linguistic Word Recognition Program on Fourth Grade Reading Achievement," *Reading Research Quarterly* (Summer, 1966), 1:37-65.

Two samples of beginning fourth grade children were investigated to determine the effects of a modified linguistic word recognition program on reading achievement. Results indicate that the experimental group performed significantly better than the control group in most word recognition skills and reading abilities. Methods of teaching did not influence the predictive power of word recognition.

Durkin, Dolores, "The Achievement of Pre-School Readers: Two Longitudinal Studies," *Reading Research Quarterly* (Summer, 1966), 1:5-36.

The two longitudinal studies described in this report showed positive and statistically significant findings regarding the progress in reading made by children who learned to read at home prior to entering first grade. However, there was some indication that teachers did not always take advantage of this early start. Durkin concluded that kindergarten teachers ought to be prepared to offer appropriate help in reading both to children who are already reading and to those who are interested and ready to start.

Durkin, Dolores, "Teaching Reading to Young Children," *Education* (September, 1966), 87:37-41.

From some of the research findings relative to the recent trend toward teaching reading to young children, Durkin formulated significant questions which she believes must be asked and answered. Good education at any age level is an adaptive response to the children being educated. As the children change, so, too, must their education.

Ferrari, Lewis J. (Superintendent), "Anti Drop-Out Program—John, 17, was Reading at the Fourth Grade Level, But He's Still in School," *Education Age* (September-October, 1966), 3:40-42.

A program designed to keep potential drop-outs in high school proved to be so successful that plans are underway to continue it and if funds are available to expand it. Seventeen potential drop-outs were given help in remedial reading after school for one hour, three days a week for fourteen weeks.

Figurel, J. Allen, "A Reading Teacher Looks at Linguistics," *Education* (September, 1966), 87:25-29.

Figurel describes the perplexities in a teacher's effort to determine what linguistics contributes to the teaching of reading. Meaning has to take a back seat, he states, in the linguistic approach. Linguists say that the main task of learning to read is to be able to reproduce sounds of a language and to relate the melody of speech to the written page.

Frierson, Edward C., "The Role of Oral Reading," *Education* (September, 1966), 87:21-24.

The traditional uses of oral reading are reviewed along with some of the newer emphases such as (1) an experience reading approach for the slow learning and retarded, (2) diagnostic application of oral reading with emotionally disturbed, sensory impaired, and cerebrally dysfunctioning persons, (3) and use of oral reading skills of better students in activities designed to enrich their educational experiences.

Grotberg, Edith H., "Individualized Reading—A Symbol for Change," *Education* (September, 1966), 87:7-11.

Grotberg concludes that schools like individual reading because it permits changes in teacher-learning activities without requiring major changes in the school systems.

Hillerist, Robert L., "Bringing Together Children and Books—A Decentralized School Library," *The National Elementary Principal* (September, 1966), 46:32-35.

The decentralized library in the Glenview Elementary Schools is an outgrowth of experience, study and discussion of the purposes of libraries. Because they believe that the purpose of the library program is to develop an interest in and an enjoyment of reading, three necessary elements were considered: (1) An abundance of good books, (2) use of books, and (3) encouragement which brings together the children and the books. Every teacher, it was agreed, should assume the responsibility for promoting interest and enjoyment, as well as skill, in reading.

Holt, John, "How Young Children Learn," *Parents' Magazine and Better Homemaking* (September, 1966), 41:60-63.

If we adults, Holt avers, would let children find their own paths to learning, there would be fewer problem students. When youngsters explore the world in a way that is interesting and natural to them, they learn faster. When we try to make them learn the way we think they should, we merely slow them up. Children should be encouraged to ask questions and make discoveries. They should be freed from the pressure of competition which only stifles a child's capacity and urge to learn.

Horn, Thomas D., "Three Methods of Developing Reading Readiness in Spanish-Speaking Children in First Grade," *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1966), 20:38-42.

The primary purpose of the study was to compare the effectiveness of three methods of developing reading readiness in Spanish-speaking children in grade one. Differences in methods of instruction, differences between scores earned by boys and girls, and differences in the treatment groups (oral-aural English, Oral-Aural Spanish, and no oral-aural) were studied.

The need for developing suitable measures for assessing the capabilities, experiential background, cognitive functioning, and language levels of Spanish-speaking disadvantaged children is, perhaps, the most significant implication drawn from the findings of this research.

Hughes, James W., "The Myth of the Spelling List," *The National Elementary Principal* (September, 1966), 46:53-54.

Spelling lists, Hughes says, do not necessarily indicate the spelling needs of children. Use of study-test-study procedures in teaching such word lists can often result in gross inefficiencies in a learning situation. We can make spelling lists mean more to children by creating word lists which reflect the needs as indicated by the children's writing and vocal usage.

Kendricks William M., "A Comparative Study of Two First Grade Language Arts Programs," *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1966), 20:25-30.

The purpose of this study was to compare a language arts approach to beginning reading instruction with a basal reader approach. Among the differences observed, the traditional method appeared more effective (1) for developing the skills of deriving meaning from the written paragraph for males of all socio-economic levels and for middle class females, (2) for developing the listening ability of lower class females and (3) for developing speaking competence of both males and females in all socio-economic levels. The experience approach seemingly increased interest in reading in lower class males and favorably affected both males and females in writing. A curious finding was the superiority of upper class females in arithmetic when instructed by the experience approach.

Klare, George, "Comments on Bormuth's Readability: A New Approach," *Reading Research Quarterly* (Summer, 1966), 1:119-125.

John Bormuth's paper "Readability: A New Approach" is an excellent contribution, according to Klare, to the literature in this field. One of the surprising points to come from Bormuth's research is the value of counting letters per word as a measure of passage difficulty. A second point of interest is

Bormuth's finding relative to the value of using independent clauses rather than sentences as units in readability.

Krippner, Stanley, "Evaluating Pre-Readiness Approaches To Reading," *Education* (September, 1966), 87:12-20.

Krippner discusses the importance of pre-readiness factors in reading and refers to such well known people as Montessori, Delacato, Kephart and Frostig for verification of his views. Factors which the author associates with readiness are picture interpretation, speaking vocabulary, left to right orientation, quality of oral English, experiential background, desire to read, ability to attend to task at hand, ability to sense a sequence of ideas, ability to follow direction, and ability to handle books and related equipment.

Levin, Esther, "Beginning Reading-A Personal Affair," *The Elementary School Journal* (November, 1966), 67:67-71.

The personalized approach described by the author seemed to release unplumbed depths of interest, ability and individuality. Having a set of cards of words that were of interest and of personal need gave each child the feeling of possession and involvement that made reading something of unique importance. Many insights into the children's backgrounds, problems, and personalities were gained that would not have been possible otherwise.

Marita, Sister M., "Beginning Reading Achievement in Three Classroom Organizational Patterns," *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1966), 20:12-17.

The objective of the present study was to compare reading achievement under three classroom organizational patterns for reading instruction: a modified individualized plan, a three-to-five group pattern, and the whole-class "child-centered" approach. The author stated that the "whole-class" pattern in a child-centered context might be as meaningful an approach to the teaching of reading as either of the other two patterns. However, further in-depth study is essential since there is a real danger of this plan reverting to the traditional "whole class" approach.

Murphy, Helen A., "Growth in Perception of Word Elements in Three Types of Beginning Reading Instruction," *The Reading Teacher* (May, 1966), 19:585-589.

The timing and nature of phonics instruction is the most controversial area of beginning reading, according to Murphy. The purpose of this study was to compare the effects of a gradual approach to phonic instruction as outlined in a basal reader approach with a program of early teaching of letter names and sounds. Three problems were involved: (1) The relation of perception of word elements to sight vocabulary growth, (2) the effect of early teaching of a speech-based phonics program on reading achievement, and (3) the value of emphasis on writing.

Muskopf, Allan F., and H. Alan Robinson, "High School Reading—1965," *Journal of Reading* (November, 1966), 10:75-87.

This is the eighth in a series of annual summaries of the professional literature on Junior and Senior High School Reading. It covers reports published in 1965 as well as earlier reports which have come to the attention of the writers. Because of space limitations, the authors have tried to abstract parts of articles and chapters of books which, in their opinion, present findings of most interest to the majority of readers.

Pauk, Walter, "Reading or Studying, What's the Difference? Four Steps in the Study Process," *The Education Digest* (October, 1966), 32:49-51.

Pauk suggests four steps in studying: (1) The student should skim through the chapter and then question himself relative to material read, (2) take notes so that he is sure that he understands the material, (3) recall through self recitation, and (4) reflect, read critically. Pauk states that we must teach our students that a printed page does not yield up its meaning to the eyes, but rather to the mind that reads and rereads, puzzles and questions, recalls and recites, and reflects and recapitulates.

Quaintance, Brother William, "Critical Reading—As If There's Any Other Kind," *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1966), 20:49-53.

The author emphasized that (1) a critical reader must be

biased, not prejudiced which he would be if he had formed conclusions without supporting evidence, but biased when he has come to a sincere conclusion on the basis of his background experience with the subject in question; (2) a critical reader is willing to modify his present viewpoint; (3) and a critical reader is willing to involve himself in the consequence of a fact, once he accepts it.

Stauffer, Russell G., "The Effectiveness of Language Arts and Basic Reader Approaches to First Grade Reading Instruction," *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1966), 20:18-29.

The purpose of this study was to compare a language arts approach to beginning reading instruction with a basic reader approach. In general, the author concluded that the language arts approach to beginning reading instruction is an effective method. It produced excellent results in reading performance, in word attack skills, in spelling, in vocabulary development, in written communication, and in handwriting.

Stolarz, Theodore J., "Speed of Reading," *Education* (September, 1966), 87:30-36.

The author maintained that when we lose our concern for speed reading and learn to read smoothly for varied purposes, we will read with greater efficiency and enjoyment. He emphasized the need for using thought processes in reading.

Summers, Edward G., "An Important Resource for Secondary Reading," *Journal of Reading* (November, 1966), 10:88-102.

Reports of the last six annual conferences on reading of the International Reading Association are excellent resources for the secondary teacher. The Conference Proceedings review pertinent research on reading at both junior and senior high school levels. An excellent bibliography is included.

Sutherland, Zena, "Autumn Books for Young People—Legacy of the Four Hundred," *Saturday Evening Review*, November 12, 1966, 43-54.

Sutherland stressed that many children can't distinguish between good and bad books because they don't read enough.

A steady diet of second rate reading can be as harmful to the mind as poor food is to the body. A list of books for children from two years of age to adulthood is included.

Vilscek, Elaine, Lorraine Morgan and Donald Cleland, "Coordinating and Integrating Language Arts Instruction in First Grade," *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1966), 20:31-37.

The major objective of the cooperative endeavor between the Pittsburgh Public Schools and the University of Pittsburgh was to examine the effects and outcomes of two instructional approaches, the coordinated basal language arts approach and the integrated experience approach to communication in the language development of pupils in an urban setting.

Whitworth, Richard G., "Improving Reading Taste," *English Journal* (May, 1966), 55:569-577.

The three problems in developing students' reading taste which were rated as most important by Indianapolis teachers were: (1) Stimulating the student's desire to read, (2) guiding students so that the book selected will increase student appreciation and broaden experiences, and (3) building habits of selecting worthwhile books.

Witty, Paul A., "The Electronic Pied Piper—Enemy or Ally of Reading," *Education* (September, 1966), 87:42-47.

This article discusses the results of Witty's latest investigation of children's interests in relation to television programs and his conclusions based on studies during the past fifteen years. Suggestions for a constructive program of guidance at home and school for more effective use of television are presented.

