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Winter 1964

Reading **HORIZONS**

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Editorial Comment

Teachers need a challenge to excellence—academic and professional excellence. To meet this challenge, one must excel in the perseverance of worthwhile goals, love of truth and service to mankind. If one is to surpass, he must achieve those things which in themselves are most excellent. The contributions of John F. Kennedy are eternal symbols of such excellence. His life was spent in one single pursuit—service to all men irrespective of their creed, race or economic status.

Academic and professional excellence, however defined, cannot be displayed in ivory towers apart from our troubled world. It must contribute to the welfare, success and happiness of children, parents and our fellow men. It must not be evaluated only in terms of years spent in school nor only by the number of learned societies to which one belongs. Even advanced degrees without reinforcement by research, constant reading and study can become obsolete. Perhaps they too should be renewable like a driver's license and not be dependent upon past performance. The true test of academic and professional excellence is the use to which it can be put. What services to mankind can it render? What has been accomplished with it?

Academic and professional excellence cannot be developed rapidly and with ease. Who can prescribe the number of courses and the number of degrees essential for its attainment? Excellence is an integration of knowledge, experience and many academic skills and is the result of purposeful living and productive effort. Man's achievement quotient is the ratio of his performance to that which is expected of him and should be more than a one-to-one relationship. Excellence is achievement over and beyond the requirements of the task and its responsibilities. The reward of excellence is bestowed upon man because of his ability to create by his labor that which is needed in his time and that which is altogether wholesome and good. It is guaranteed to no man nor is it always recognized.

Homer L. J. Carter
Editor

IN MEMORIAM, J. F. K.

Charles Allen Smith

Western Michigan University

Two thousand years ago a man who called himself Koheleth said in the book of Ecclesiastes: "To everything there is a season, and a time to every purpose under the heaven." What happened in Dallas this afternoon makes it impossible for us to go about our business in the ordinary way.

Nothing that can be said will mitigate the shock or soothe the grief we feel. I suppose we must all take refuge at last in the words quoted by Abraham Lincoln in the Second Inaugural: "The judgments of the Lord are true and righteous altogether."

In thinking about three things which are close to this group this evening—our love for President Kennedy, death and what it means, and the brotherhood which fraternities and sororities stand for—I have been thinking about a nineteenth century English poet, Alfred Tennyson.

Tennyson had a very close friend. His name was Arthur Henry Hallam. He was the son of a great English historian. Tennyson loved Hallam deeply. In fact, he said of Hallam that he was "more than my brothers are to me." And then, while still a young man, Hallam died. Tennyson was heartbroken. He went through an agony of grief, and out of this agony he wrote a great poem. "In Memoriam, A. H. H." It is a long poem made up of many short lyrics, and it tells the story of Tennyson's pilgrimage through the valley of despair.

At first, Tennyson says, he was resolved that he would grieve forever. It were better, he says, "to dance with death and beat the ground" than that the victor hours should say, "Behold the man that loved and lost, and all he was over-worn!"

But in his pilgrimage through grief Tennyson found that this, to the normal man, is impossible. No normal person can dance with death and beat the ground forever. Eventually he came out upon a more wholesome plateau where he could take a solemn pleasure in the fact that he had had the opportunity for such a friendship, even though he must lose his friend.

(Taken from a speech delivered impromptu to the Mid-American Pan-Hellenic, Interfraternity Council Conference on that infamous day, November 22, 1963.)

I hold it truth, whate'er befall,
 I feel it when I sorrow most
 'Tis better to have loved and lost
 Than never to have loved at all.

But this was not the brightest plateau that Tennyson attained to. At last he came to the happiest conclusion of all—the solid assurance that he had not lost his friend. His friend would be with him forever.

Thy voice is on the rolling air.
 I hear thee where the waters run.
 Thou standest in the rising sun,
 And in the setting thou art fair.

What art thou then? I cannot guess.
 But though I seem, through storm and shower,
 To feel thee, some diffusive power,
 I do not therefore love thee less.

My love involves the love before.
 My love is vaster passion now.
 Though mixed with God and Nature thou,
 I seem to love thee more and more.

Far off thou art, yet ever nigh.
 I have thee still, and I rejoice.
 I prosper, circled by thy voice.
 I cannot lose thee though I die.

John F. Kennedy has left us many things of himself that will never die. He was—and this should be of especial importance to us all—a symbol of youth and its leadership. He wasn't the youngest president we have ever had—I think he was next to the youngest—but with his bright grin and his touseled hair he looked like the image of youth and its promise.

He was a symbol of courage. Back in the eighteenth century a poet named Thomas Gray in his "Elegy Written in a Country Churchyard" said:

Full many a gem of purest ray serene
 The dark, unfathomed caves of ocean bear.
 Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,
 And waste its sweetness on the desert air.

This may be splendid poetry, but, in my opinion, it is poor philosophy. Gray was looking at the graves of the poor illiterate

peasants in the cemetery of the little English village of Stoke Poges, and he was thinking of what some of these poor illiterate peasants might have been if they "had had a chance." Here, he says, is perhaps "a mute, inglorious Milton"; there is "a Cromwell, guiltless of his country's blood."

I do not believe there are any "mute, inglorious Miltons" in the cemetery at Stoke Poges. The trouble with Gray's philosophy is that part of being a Milton is functioning as a Milton. Gray is asking, "What chance did these poor, illiterate peasants have?" I would answer: What chance did Milton—blind, bereft and disillusioned—have? What chance did Abraham Lincoln have? What chance did John F. Kennedy have?

President Kennedy grew up in a Massachusetts which was still used to seeing in its store windows the signs which read: "Help wanted. No Irish need apply." He was permanently injured, physically, as a youth. His health was shattered during the war. He belonged to the wrong religion for him ever to become president of the United States, according to all our history. And, perhaps the greatest disability of all, he was born to fantastic wealth. But he became president. He was, and will always remain with us, a symbol of courage.

This is a time when we are liable to feel crushed by the problems which we face. We are liable to think that the threats which hang over our heads are greater than anyone has ever known before. In this connection I should like to quote a part of an editorial which appeared in *The Kalamazoo Gazette*, a Michigan daily newspaper. This editorial is describing the state of the world, and here is just a brief selection from it.

The last age was the age of the maritime supremacy of Great Britain. The present is that of the extension of power by land. In the New World, as in the Old, any one must be struck by the singular parallelism at present exhibited by the two great rising Powers of either hemisphere. Russia, the great military power of the Old World, has of late been rapidly extending her frontiers. North, south, east, and west simultaneously has she been pushing forward her outposts. Finland, Poland, Bessarabia, and the Persian provinces have felt her appropriating hand; and now she is mustering the whole forces of her immense empire, with the daring project of marching over the crumbling empires of the East, and of bidding defiance to the banded strength of Western Europe. In the New World the United States has been progressing in a similar manner, though in a different spirit. Russia conquers by her massive battalions and her Machiavellian

diplomacy, America by her roving pioneers of civilization. Thus the great despotic Power of the Old World, and the great democratic one of the New are embarked on a career of conquest.

The reason I wanted to quote this is that it is a part of an editorial which appeared in *The Kalamazoo Gazette* for a day in April in the year 1854—one hundred and nine years ago! I think you will agree that it is a pretty accurate summation of what we think of as the great threat that hangs over our heads today. Even our gravest crises have been lived through before. There is comfort in the words of an unknown Anglo-Saxon poet of fifteen hundred years ago: "That was o'erpassed. This will pass also."

In this hour we must firmly admonish ourselves that it is easy to hate, and often, as now, it is hard to love. The death of John F. Kennedy should dedicate us with new zeal to the ideals he lived and the good things he left us. This would be the working out of the ancient concept of victory in death—which is the symbolism of the Christian cross.

And now we must accept what is, at this moment, the hardest truth of all: The world belongs to the living.

Charles Allen Smith, an associate professor at Western Michigan University, wrote the script for a color movie which won a national citation for industrial films in 1960. His weekly radio show was selected for a national award as one of the top ten in its class in radio and television. He is co-author of "The Metropolitan Transportation Dilemma," published by the Society of Automotive Engineers. Mr. Smith is also a popular after dinner speaker.

SOME OBSERVATIONS OF PERCEPTUALLY IMPAIRED CHILDREN IN TWO APPROACHES TO READING

Joan Chapman

Kalamazoo Public Schools

Reading is one problem facing children having perceptual lags in their development. Some children may reveal clinical evidence of brain injury while others merely show uneven developmental patterns on psychological tests. These children cannot respond to the usual methods of instruction presented during their early school experiences. The regular educational materials and methods are inappropriate for them and must be adapted to meet more primitive learning needs.

Special instructional methods have been designed for brain-injured children and are discussed in the texts presented by Strauss(8) and Cruickshank(2). Reading instruction is individually designed to develop one or more areas of perception as well as instruct in beginning reading. The use of concrete, tactual learning aids are combined with adaptations of the reading materials in the teaching of reading. Such an approach to beginning reading is outlined in a study by Talmadge(9). Early learning may be approached through what might be termed a "part-to-part-to whole" method. That is, the various reading skills—word perception and analysis, auditory training, ability to deal with concepts—are taught simultaneously but as separate exercises. As the child shows his capacity for handling an increasing number of elements at one time, a greater number of skills can be pulled together into one lesson. This procedure of integrating the various elements used in reading is perhaps one of the most difficult educational assignments for these children.

The teacher of these children must have available a variety of approaches to reading in which the special educational techniques may be applied, systematically, and in which reading elements can be integrated.

It is the writer's purpose to describe a fifteen week reading program in which two remedial approaches were used with some perceptually impaired youngsters.

Description of Children

Eight children from Perceptual Development classrooms participated in the special reading instruction. Five were in their first year in the classroom, two in their second year, and one in his third year. As part of the criteria for placement in the special classrooms, it had previously been determined that the boys had average intellectual ability but were unable to learn and adjust in a regular classroom. They all happened to be boys, were between the ages of seven and eleven years, and displayed the behavior and learning characteristics commonly described for brain-injured children. In varying degrees, the boys were distractible, restless, "driven" in motor behavior, perseverated, had foreground-background disturbances, poor impulse and emotional control, and poor body concepts and self-image.

All but one child were retarded in reading; however, they all displayed reading characteristics which Strauss and Lehtinen(8) describe as being similar in "all of these children."

"Reading disability is characterized by absence of an adequate approach to new words and faulty recognition of familiar words, confusions of similar words and letters, omissions of words, phrases, and sentences with a general careless attitude toward the content of the material read. All these children show evidence of general disturbances in the classroom situation: distractibility, hyperactivity, and disinhibition as expressed in difficulty in conforming to the usual standards of group and classroom management."

The boys differed, observably, in the extent to which they were disabled in their reading by a visual or auditory perceptual problem. Four boys had well developed auditory perception but lagged in visual perceptual development. They had poor eye-hand coordination, making pre-writing and writing assignments extremely difficult and tiring for them. They did not seem to know *how* to look at visual stimuli to derive adequate meaning out of what they saw. Whether looking at a word, coloring a picture, or throwing a ball, their eyes were elsewhere than focused on the "target" or object of their goal.

Two of the boys had well developed visual perceptual skills but were handicapped by poorly developed auditory perception. Although their hearing tested normal, they did not seem to know how to listen. They seldom could remember what they heard and found it difficult to discriminate between sounds and to express or remember ideas. They responded equally to background noises as they did to verbal instructions which were often meaningless to them. These two boys were noticeably more hyperactive than the other six children.

The two remaining boys were about equal in perceptual skills: one was severely retarded in both perceptual areas; one did adequately for his age but had difficulty pulling together meaning from what he saw with what he heard.

The last four boys mentioned had better eye-hand coordination than the first group, but exhibited tension in their writing. They were, however, further handicapped by articulation defects for which they received speech therapy. They had difficulty hearing and reproducing the correct sequences of sound in enunciating and pronouncing words.

Whether their problem was in the visual or auditory perceptual area of learning, they all had one problem in common: integrating what they saw with what they heard or said into meaningful language experiences.

Method of Presenting Two Reading Approaches

Two remedial reading approaches—"A Visual-Visual Approach to Word Development," and the "V.A.K.T." (Visual, auditory, kinesthetic, tactual) process of word study(1)—were combined and presented as follows:

The Special Reading Program

Step I. PROJECTOR WORK (Visual-Visual approach)

- A. Project transparency slide onto chalkboard. Discuss picture, labeling objects in cursive writing over picture as children name.
- B. Children name words on chalkboard with projector turned off. Projector briefly turned on for "forgets."
- C. Words printed in manuscript on cards as children dictate them from chalkboard. Children check words on card with those on chalkboard for spelling.
- D. Children answer questions containing study words with complete sentences. Example: Teacher: "Do you wear—(show word card)—on your head?" Pupil: "No, I don't wear *shoes* on my head."

Step II. V.A.K.T. WORD STUDY

- A. Look at beginning and ending of word.
- B. Pronounce word aloud (whisper it), count syllables.
- C. Spell word aloud.
- D. Trace word on table with index finger in cursive writing. Correct errors in letter formation at this time.

- E. Write word on paper.
 - F. Compare written word with word on card.
 - G. Repeat process until word can be spelled and written correctly.
- Modification for Steps D and E for children with poor coordination.*
- D. Spell word with cut-out letters onto flannel board; trace over letters with index finger.
 - E. Turn over word card, scramble letters, spell word.

Step III. STORY (Visual-Visual approach)

- A. Children dictate story as teacher writes in cursive on chalkboard.
- B. Teacher dictates study words, sight words and phrases as children underline.
- C. Stories typed in primer, read by children, placed in notebooks.

The combined reading approaches were presented as a special program to supplement the regular reading assignments.

Two objectives were pursued in presenting the program. The first was to establish an effective method for presenting the instructional procedures. The second objective was to determine an effective method for evaluating growth resulting from the special program.

Presentation of Instructional Program

Planning the instructional program involved the consideration of specific learning disabilities. Reading instruction for the perceptually disturbed child is directed towards correcting weaknesses rather than developing strengths. To avoid frustrating the child, tasks must be short and hold promise for success. Routines need to be simplified and highly structured.

The special reading program was, therefore, developed into three steps for convenience of pacing the procedures to the individual needs of each child. Each step could be completed during one period. A period of instruction lasted twenty to thirty minutes. Three to five words were studied with each picture. Initial words were of one syllable, and "bigger" words came later.

The amount of time each child received instruction depended upon his capacity for handling the material. Five children received instruction two to three times a week, while three participated in the program every day.

The children were grouped so that no more than three participated at one time. One very hyperactive boy had to receive individual instruction. Writing skill became the basis for grouping, since the

amount and kind of words studied often depended upon writing coordination. Also, the written assignments in the "V.A.K.T. Word Study," although performed individually, presented the only area in which the children might have to wait for each other. Waiting is too much to expect of these children.

Special attention was given to the selection and presentation of transparency pictures. Reliance upon children's special interests can cause a remedial reading method to become inappropriate and unsuccessful when used with perceptually impaired children. Lehtinen(8) gives the reason for avoiding highly stimulating personal interests.

"The child is unable to maintain a perceptual or conceptual foreground while his special topic of interest remains as an emotional background. As a result the highly charged interest area intrudes into and finally dominates the lesson to the exclusion of the topic of the lesson."

Transparency pictures on subjects of general interest to boys were, therefore, used during the first seven weeks of the program. By this time, the children were accustomed to the program's routine, and pictures of the boys themselves were used along with the ones of general interest.

Instructional Materials. Most of the materials were already in use in the classroom, such as the slide projector, special writing paper, flannel board with cut-out letters for those too poorly coordinated to write, a primer typewriter for typing stories, and the children's notebooks for recording words in dictionary form and for keeping stories. A printed chart of the "Steps in Word Study (V.A.K.T.)," by Carter and McGinnis, provided added incentive for the children during this procedure.

Teaching Objectives. Certain objectives were emphasized in presenting the program. These were to: 1) increase concept that words hold various meanings; 2) integrate perceptual processes in the word study; 3) develop ease in ability to associate manuscript and cursive writing in reading and writing; 4) develop language expression in telling stories so as to increase abilities to form meaningful relationships, understand sequences in events, and express sentences in correct structure.

Methods of Evaluation

Information was collected on each child at the beginning and conclusion of the fifteen week reading program. This included: 1) two forms of the Detroit Word Recognition Test(6), 2) first and final

stories by each child, and 3) two informal inventories of learning and behavior.

Results

Evaluation procedures were inadequate for providing objective evidence of growth which resulted from the special reading program. Initial scores on the Detroit Word Recognition Test revealed one boy with above average scores and seven boys with inferior scores, ranging from 1.5 to 3.6 years below age level. Five of the children repeated the test after fifteen weeks and showed gains ranging from four to eight months.

In interpreting test results, the ability to follow instructions alone became an element for evaluating the performance of perceptually impaired children. A reading test which measured a variety of reading skills would have been more meaningful.

The anecdotal records and the beginning and final stories provided the most effective means for evaluating observational growth resulting from the program. The two informal inventories were of little or no value.

Observations and Conclusions

The procedures of the combined reading methods possess the inherent qualities for developing visual skills. The program, on the other hand, provided few opportunities for developing beginning auditory skills.

The children with visual perceptual problems were observed to gain new insights into the use of their vision. Not only did they literally *see* meaning in words, but the concept itself was developed.

The emphasis in this program was different for each child and changed as the program progressed. Immature readers needed emphasis in word recognition techniques. The story was less important to them. They seemed to know that the skills must come first for them. First significant learning came through the "V.A.K.T." word study. This process provided a simple and meaningful structure in which they could use all senses at one time. The tracing *makes* them focus their eyes on words.

Once they could look at a word and see all of its elements, phonetic techniques could be applied to the "V.A.K.T." process. They were later able to transfer the use of these skills into the "Visual-Visual" projector work and in picking out words and phrases in the story. Not until after the children began to understand these word analysis

methods were they able to remember the whole word configurations. The presentation of personal pictures, during the eighth week, brought this new meaning of whole word configuration into focus.

Five children responded to their own pictures in the same startling manner. They could not remember the words. Instead of using word analysis skills to help them recall words quickly, they had to refer constantly to word configurations in their respective positions on the chalkboard where the picture had been projected. Because of their heavy reliance on the words on chalkboard, it took two to three sessions to complete the projector work alone with each of these five children. After another two to three weeks of alternating general interest pictures with personal pictures, the children were able to integrate the new concept with structural techniques. The situation was a confusing but insightful one for these children. Whether they could have handled this material before the routine was sufficiently structured is something that would have to be tested.

Improved spelling, as might be expected, resulted from the "V.A.K.T." process. Associations between letters and sounds became apparent to children who had sufficiently begun to understand sound sequences as related to pictures. This basic auditory skill could not be taught through this process, but had to be developed before a child could use the "V.A.K.T." process meaningfully in spelling and recognizing words. This became particularly apparent with the two boys who were handicapped by auditory perception but had adequate visual perception.

Working out stories provided many suitable opportunities for pulling organized thinking from the children. The children could be observed to use more purposeful thinking throughout the school day. Freedom of expression was the first accomplishment to be achieved with the stories. Once the children could express their ideas without too much self-consciousness, they proceeded in the following order: 1) describe picture; 2) relate picture to sequence in detail (What is happening? What will happen next?); 3) tell sequence, eliminating the minute irrelevant details; 4) put self into story; 5) put feelings into story (How would you feel if . . . ? What would you do?); 6) structure sentences.

Skill in handwriting became one of the most rewarding and unexpected by products of the entire reading process. The fine motor coordination of these children is such that writing becomes the most tedious and frustrating task for them. The use of tactual and kinesthetic senses in the tracing provided a meaningful and successful method

for learning to write. Having real words to write was important to them.

A good beginning had been accomplished with regards to the four teaching objectives mentioned earlier. Particularly evident was the ease with which the children shifted between reading cursive and manuscript writing.

In the writer's opinion, the following conclusions may be drawn with regards to the practicability of presenting the reading approaches to children with perceptual impairment:

1. A certain amount of readiness should be expected of a child before starting him in either of the two remedial reading programs. The child should have succeeded in reading the first pre-primers, have the basic sight vocabulary, and have a working understanding that letters combine to make words. He should also have the basic auditory skills used in reading. These skills should include an understanding of sound sequence in oral work and an ability to match sounds to pictures. In other words, the basic readiness skills cannot be taught through either remedial method.

2. The "V.A.K.T." Word Study process is a successful means for teaching spelling in combination with instruction in structural and phonetic analysis. For more immature readers, it helped them look at a word and its parts more meaningfully.

3. The tracing procedure in the "V.A.K.T." process provides a meaningful method for learning to write. The tracing on the bare table brings in some visual imagery, at which time errors in the letter formation can be corrected before writing a word. Purpose, lack of any failure experience, and use of tactual and kinesthetic senses combine to help poorly coordinated children develop writing skills.

4. The use of the projector work in the "Visual-Visual" procedures is an appropriate method of presenting word meaning to visual-perceptually impaired children. The eye-level work and lighted subject in darkened room aided these children to direct attention.

5. Children with adequate visual perception but poorly developed auditory perception would profit more by using acetate pockets in which opaque pictures could be slid rather than projected pictures. These children were highly distracted by sounds of the projector and its movable parts. Other procedures than those used in the program are more practicable for children with auditory perceptual problems.

6. The use of personal pictures should be delayed until after the children are accustomed to the procedures and are secure in using beginning structural techniques (i.e., beginning sounds, recognizing

different elements in similar word forms). The children are then ready to learn whole word configuration and meaning when presented with personal material. A slowing down in progress can be expected from the children as they integrate this information into their learning skills.

7. The amount of time each child spent in the program had little bearing upon observable gains. Some children seemed to benefit more from a time lapse of several days between programs.

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Joan Chapman received her Master's Degree in Education from Western Michigan University. She is currently a consultant in Perceptual Development, Kalamazoo Public Schools. Prior to the fall of 1963, she taught for three years in the classroom program for Perceptual Development.

A STUDY OF LEARNING UTILIZING VISUAL-VISUAL AND VISUAL-AUDITORY STIMULI

Alice Ann Geiger

In a fast moving world, reading ability becomes increasingly more important. Despite television, radio, and movies, reading is still the most important method of broadening our horizons (5, p. 125). To scan the world events and study the particulars requires good reading skills. Again and again the question is asked if the best possible method of reading instruction is being utilized with our boys and girls (1, p. 79 and 4, pp. 169-170). For that matter, we might ask if we adults are making the most of our ability to identify, interpret, and evaluate facts, so that we can intelligently keep pace with our world. We ask these questions, and educators who specialize in the area of reading try to find "the best way" for us to derive meaning from symbols in the process called reading.

Learning to read involves learning written symbols and what they stand for. At the turn of the century, reading was taught with great emphasis on a phonic approach. According to Webster, phonics uses elementary principles of phonetics, or the study of speech sounds, their production, and their representation in written symbols, to teach reading. Pupils taught by the phonic method memorized the ABC's and learned that each letter and combination of letters represented a spoken sound in the language (3, p. 11). About thirty-five years ago, phonic instruction was minimized and the sight method was considered to be the best. The sight approach to reading instruction is based on the appearance of the entire word (3, p. 12). Since this method is based on the recognition of the word as a whole without reference to the individual letters of which it is composed, it is functionally the same as the visual-visual stimuli in the present study.

This study was set up to compare two ways of learning symbols and their meanings, simulating the phonic and sight approaches to reading instruction. The stimulus apparatus was chosen to create functionally the same situation as is present in phonic and sight methods of reading instruction. The Experimenter used cards that have been used as tests of associative learning (2, pp. 567-571) and as an index for sight or phonic instruction in reading. In the study

kindergarten children and college students were shown and tested with 10 visual-visual stimulus (v-v) cards and 10 visual-auditory stimulus (v-a) cards. The results may have significant implications for the teaching of reading and in learning, with implications concerning multi-sense stimulation and retention.

Subjects and Apparatus

The subjects were taken from two populations. One sample included twenty-seven kindergarten children (Sks), the other included twenty-seven college students (Scs). The Experimenter used 10 v-v and 10 v-a cards, tests A1 and B2 by Gates (2, pp. 567-571). Each v-v card had a simple geometric figure and a drawing on one side with the figure alone on the other side. Each v-a card had a figure on one side and the word to be given verbally printed on the back.

Procedure

The two sets of cards were presented to half the subjects in each sample in the order of v-v cards first, v-a cards second. The sets were presented in the reverse order to the other half of the population samples. Each child in the kindergarten group was seated at a low table across the corner from the Experimenter and given the following instructions: "We're going to play a game with these two piles of cards. The game is to see how many you can remember. On this set of cards (v-a) I want you to look at the symbol and remember what I tell you it means." The Experimenter then began, saying, "This means *man*," at this time exposing the card. On the other set of cards the Experimenter instructed, "On this set of cards (v-v) the picture above the symbol tells you what the symbol means. I want you to remember what picture goes with each symbol." Each card was given approximately a three-second exposure time. After each set of 10 cards, the Experimenter shuffled them and tested the Subject. Cards answered correctly were placed in front of the Subject; those not answered, in a pile next to the Experimenter. This reinforcement was held constant throughout the group of kindergarten subjects.

When tested, each college Subject was given the following instructions: "I have two sets of cards and I want you to learn the symbol and its meaning for each card. After each set you will be tested. On this set of cards (v-v) you will know the meaning of the symbol by the picture above it. Look at the card silently and nod for me to go on if I go too slowly." And, "On this set of cards (v-a) you will know the meaning because I will tell you what each symbol means." When

answered, the cards were placed in separate piles for later scoring. When the Subject answered incorrectly, the Experimenter said *no*; when the Subject said he couldn't remember, the Experimenter said *o.k.* and put it in the same pile. For a correct answer, the Experimenter said *yes* and placed the card on its pile. The Experimenter's tone of voice was kept as constant as possible.

Results and Discussion

The mean scores of the differences for the kindergarten population was 4.40 and for the college population, 1.10. In other words, there was a greater gap between the average number of correct v-a answers and v-v answers for the kindergarten children as compared with a lesser gap between v-a and v-v retention scores for the college students. Both groups performed better with the visual-auditory than with the visual-visual stimuli. The difference, however, is much greater for kindergarten children. A *t* test for matched or paired data in which each Subject served as his own control, showed a *t* of 11.28 for the kindergarten children significant at the .01 level of confidence and a *t* of 2.22 for the college students which is significant at the .05 level of confidence.

Our data show that material learned first and last in a series is better remembered than material learned in the middle. We observe fewer errors for the first and last cards than for the middle cards. This phenomenon was possible to observe since the cards were always presented in the order in which they are numbered in the set.

Individual differences were interesting to note, such as how the visual response symbols were identified. This important aspect includes the degree of detail noticed, and the particular name identity given each stimulus. From the set of v-v cards, a catcher's mitt was identified as a hand, mitten, glove, arm, ball glove, and as a right hand. The picture had been given this wide range of meanings. If the symbol had been a word, it too might have been called by all of these names. It has been found that even the best sight reader may insist that a word is *plate* when it is plainly *dish* (5, pp. 125-6). In confusing such synonyms, the sight reader often loses the important details and finer shades of meaning.

Having more than one sense to check what is observed allows discrimination of detail. We have at least five senses with which we perceive stimuli in our environment. When these senses are used in combination a more complete "feeling" for the perception would seem the logical result. When we can use our senses together and as

checks against each other our perception would seem to have greater depth and dimension than any perception gained solely from one sense faculty. One sense alone cannot hope to discriminate between relationships and finer shades of meaning as can a multi-sense experience.

A few subjects whose presentation order was v-a to v-v, commented, "Oh, these are harder," when given the v-v stimuli. This greater difficulty indicated by the present findings leads us to several questions. Does this greater difficulty in learning when only one sense is utilized hold true in all learning? Should multi-sense stimulation be used with a set of symbols in the teaching of reading? Does the cross check made by more than one sense make a sufficient improvement of retention to warrant elimination of the sight method? New systems come along and we are apt to throw out old ones completely. But each theory has an important contribution. And so the key question is, "What are the merits of each new method and what combination of approaches will be the most effective resultant method?" This investigation raises many questions and answers none.

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4. Robbins, J. and June Robbins, "Are Our Children Learning to Read?" *Reader's Digest* (September 1955), pp. 169-172.
5. Yauch, Wilbur Alden, "How Good Are Your Schools?" *Reader's Digest* (November 1951), pp. 124-128.

Alice Ann Geiger carried out this experiment while an undergraduate at Western Michigan University. She is interested in an experimental approach to learning.

DID YOU SEE

The article by Dolores Durkin of Teachers College, Columbia University, which presents the results of a longitudinal study of children who learned to read prior to school entrance? You can find it in the December 1963 issue of *The Elementary School Journal*.

Reading in High School? It's a new quarterly journal dedicated to publishing brief, complete and readable abstracts of significant articles related to teaching reading in high school.

The new series of bulletins based on published and unpublished studies in reading completed during the period 1955-1960? The bulletins have been prepared by the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and cover research in reading at all grade levels as well as the areas of diagnostic and remedial reading.

The International Reading Association's yearbook entitled *Reading as an Intellectual Activity*? If you were unable to attend last year's convention held at Miami Beach, here is your opportunity to read the major addresses and papers of the conference. Copies of the proceedings are in most university libraries or you may purchase your copy for \$2.50 from Scholastic Book Services, 904 Sylvan Avenue, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.

Spice? This small book prepared by three classroom teachers is intended to add new zest and flavor to the language arts program. Why not look it over and let us hear your reactions.

TEN SECOND REVIEWS

Blanche O. Bush

Western Michigan University

Perhaps the one thing television can do best in the teaching of reading skills is to help classroom teachers do a better job.

—Harold M. Nason

Carner, Richard L., "Considerations in Planning a Television Reading Program," *The Reading Teacher* (November, 1962), 16:73-76.

Carner emphasizes that the successful use of television for reading instruction depends upon the appropriate use of lesson plans, materials, and follow-up activities. Realistic objectives and the active participation of classroom teachers are essential factors.

Carner, Richard L., "The Effect of Television of Reading Instruction on Attitudes Toward Reading," *Elementary English* (March, 1962), 39:234-36.

The findings of a recent study in New York by Carner and Sheldon suggest that certain aspects of televised instruction other than achievement in content areas are significant. He noted that reading instruction through television has desirable effects upon the attitudes of pupils toward reading, particularly where negative attitudes are predominant.

Cassirer, Henry R., "Television Teaching Today. *UNESCO*, Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization, Paris, 1960, 147-162.

The correct use of television, as reported by Cassirer, will bring about a recasting of the manner in which knowledge is presented to students. Television strikes chords in the learner which do not respond to the printed page. An example of a successful televised reading program in Pittsburgh, which he cited, had three objectives: (1) to arouse a desire to read, (2) to teach reading skills, and (3) to improve word skills.

Detroit Public Schools, *Come Let's Read*, Presented by Department of Language Education and Television Teaching Program of the Division for Improvement of Instruction. Detroit, Second Semester, 1962-1963.

This course of study for third grade children is designed to take advantage of both the homeroom and television teacher in offering a systematic co-ordinated program of reading instruction.

Flierl, Nina, "Planning and Producing TV Programs in Reading," *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1957), 11:17-22.

Flierl points out that almost any reading subject area can be taught by television. In preparing the program emphasis must be on the timing and completeness of each unit. Step-by-step procedures for planning and producing TV programs on the elementary level in reading are presented.

Ford Foundation, *E.T.V.*, Ford Foundation Pictorial Report, Office of Reports, New York, March, 1961.

The report states that students who receive television instruction accept more responsibilities for their own learning than those taught with conventional methods. Findings cited indicate that there is no significant difference in achievement between students in television classes and comparable students in regular classes. Furthermore, it was reported, that the remedial and developmental reading programs given on television eliminate the need of special reading classes with their possible stigma and at the same time increase the reading speed of pupils with average or good reading ability.

Golterman, Elizabeth, "Uniqueness of Each," *Childhood Education* (December, 1962), 39:162-168.

The unique qualities that are common to radio, films, television, and other media are: (1) They help people to learn more in less time. (2) They overcome the limitations of time, size and space. (3) They make it possible for all members of a group to share a joint experience. Television, the author says, can combine excerpts from films, pictures, tape recordings, and a variety of other media and bring visually to the classroom much that few teachers would otherwise be able to contribute.

Hunt, Lyman C., "Let's Not By-Pass the Reading Teacher, *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1957), 11:37-43.

Hunt emphasizes that learning to read is a personal matter and demands intimate contacts between child and teacher. He suggests that television should be used for teacher training rather than for teaching children.

McDonald, Arthur S., "Television, Books, and School Marks, *Journal of Developmental Reading* (Autumn, 1959), 3:27-35.

Television and reading activity reflect the individual's degree of willingness to engage in highly purposeful, intellectual activities. Reading, which requires more ability than television, engages the mind of the reader and compels him to meet the author at least part way, while TV can occupy time without occupying the mind. Teachers, McDonald suggests, should aid their students to define their goals and then educate them to choose media most appropriate for given objectives.

Murray, Walter I., and Karel Newman Rose, "Utilizing Television in Teaching Children's Literature," *Education* (January, 1962), 82:309-311.

The purposes of the project described by the authors were: (1) to find effective methods of presenting to a large group the various ways of judging, demonstrating, and utilizing children's literature, and (2) to explore the characteristics and potentialities of television as an educational medium. Television, the authors found, can focus on details and data which would be difficult to present to even a small "live" class.

Nason, Harold M., "The Use of Television in Teaching Reading," *Reading as an Intellectual Activity*, International Reading Association Conference Proceedings, J. Allen Figurel (ed.), 1963, 8:173-177.

The future of the use of television in the reading program, Nason predicts, depends primarily on how we educate ourselves regarding its use and how thoroughly and thoughtfully we profit from the many experiments now in progress. Individual school programs cannot be originated to meet the needs of every student and all local conditions. An attempt must be made in television teaching to meet the needs of the majority.

Sheldon, William D., "Television and Reading Instruction," *Education* (May, 1960), 80:552-555.

Results of a first year experiment conducted by Sheldon indicate that further elaboration and control over many variables are needed and additional information concerning the transfer values of TV instruction in reading skills to other content areas is necessary.

Smith, Mary Howard, (Ed.) *Using Television in the Classroom*, Midwest program on Airborne Television Instruction. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1961.

This volume has been produced by the Midwest Program on Airborne Television Instruction to introduce teachers to instructional television and give suggestions for its use.

Smith, Nila Banton, "Television: A Challenging Frontier," *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1957), 11:9-10.

The appeal of television is one of the arguments in favor of its use as an education tool. Television, however, cannot replace teacher in the classroom. The teacher must conduct and supervise first-hand experiences; guide discussions, problem solving and critical evaluation; provide follow-up practice, and do testing and remedial work; as well as many other activities requiring personal contact with students.

Spiegler, Charles G., "TV Sends Them to the Library," *The Reading Teacher*, (October, 1957), 11:23-26.

Spiegler reports that there is mounting evidence that the enthusiasm and curiosity generated by television are natural springboards to children's reading. Television is not a challenge to reading but a stimulus toward it. Many young people all over the country are reluctant readers; they could read but don't. Television oftentimes sends them to the library.

Target, Donald T., *Television and Our Schools*. The Ronald Press, New York, 1961, 40-65.

This book describes the techniques essential for direct teaching by television and offers program ideas for schools, colleges, in-service training and adult education. Emphasis is

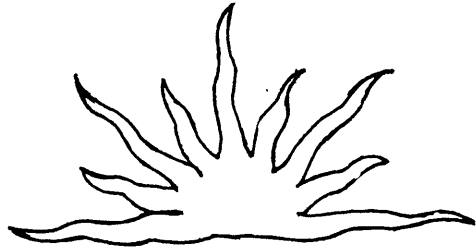
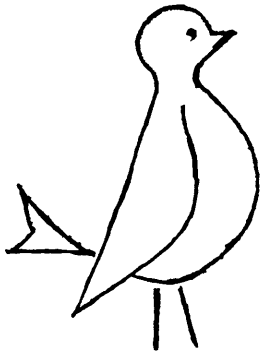
on planning for the use of television, viewing procedures, and follow up activities.

Umans, Shelly, *New Trends in Reading Instruction*. Teachers College, Columbia University, 1963, 92-99.

Television can be used for reading instruction in much the same way as films. Students can be grouped in large units or small units to view telecasts. Results from experiments indicate that television instruction is at least as effective as conventional methods and more effective for lower aptitude groups.

Witty, Paul, "Children, TV and Reading," *The Reading Teacher* (October, 1957), 11-16.

For some children television can be an asset if they are encouraged to read widely from materials associated with interests engendered by television. Although television is not often the single cause of poor reading, it does offer a real temptation for children who read poorly to escape into a pleasant effortless pastime.



ROUND ROBIN

Dorothy E. Smith, Editor

Western Michigan University

The following letters are in response to the one written by Dr. Sara Swickard for the Fall issue of *Reading Horizons*. Dr. Swickard's letter was commenting on an article in a national magazine which suggested that babies might be taught to read.

Dear Editor:

Dr. Swickard's comment about reading among the "nursery school set" which appears in the Fall, 1963 issue of *Reading Horizons*, called to mind comments made by an eminent psychologist a few years ago.

Dr. B. F. Skinner of Harvard University in an appearance on Western Michigan University's campus as a Distinguished Scholar in 1960 pointed out the advantages of teaching machines. He commented that he felt that we, as a society, were wasting the best years of our children's lives. These years, he contended, were the ones between three and five. His thesis was that children in this age bracket could be taught basic elementary school subjects through simplified teaching machine techniques and that bright children could be efficient readers long before the assumed age for the "beginning steps in reading."

I have some real doubts about the efficacy of such an approach. However, there is little reason to believe that in our search for extending the total years of educational potential, the American educational

system may some day not only look toward more and more work beyond the basic college degree, but we may well look toward the other end of life's continuum . . . those untouched pre-school years.

Katherine Butler,
Department of Psychology
Western Michigan University

Dear Editor:

I'm not an educator so it follows that neither am I an expert. It seems clear to me, though, that there are some children who can be taught to read very early. I taught my two children to read when they were about four years old, and after reading the Journal article I regret that I didn't start earlier.

(Name withheld by request)
Kenilworth, Illinois

EDITOR'S REACTION: Neither of the above letters is in direct opposition to Dr. Swickard's viewpoint, since she was objecting to the thesis that one-and two-year olds can be taught to read. Is not the definition of reading the center of the whole issue?

