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THE SECONDARY READING PROBLEM

Most educators are well aware of the reading problems existing in our secondary schools. The topic has been discussed and written about ad infinitum. School personnel have listened to the public's complaints that too many high school graduates are unemployable because they lack the necessary reading skills. They have heard the grumblings of teachers who find it difficult to teach effectively in the content areas because of the wide range of reading abilities existing in their classrooms. They have observed the discouragement of teachers who are tormented by discipline problems created by some of the frustrated non readers in the school. In desperation, superintendents, principals, and teachers have gone to the colleges of education and have asserted that the secondary teachers they turn out are ill prepared to deal with reading problems. Administrators and teachers have searched and are searching for an answer to the question, "What can we do to help our students develop needed reading skills?"

Secondary schools have taken a positive step toward answering this question by recognizing that a reading problem exists. But awareness of the problem is not enough. There must be a commitment on the part of all secondary school personnel to improve the reading skills of students and there must be a plan of action which is philosophically sound, practical, and realistic.

This editorial is a plea to all administrators associated with secondary schools. Publicly commit yourselves and your teachers to the task of improving the reading abilities of the students entrusted to your care. Employ only secondary teachers who have completed at least one course in the teaching of reading. Conduct well-planned, continuous, year-to-year, inservice programs in the teaching of reading for all teachers. Provide reading consultants to work directly with content area teachers in their classrooms. Attack vigorously the problem of the severely disabled secondary reader by providing reading specialists to serve as tutors to small groups of disabled readers.

There is, of course, the possibility that these suggestions represent an oversimplified solution to a very complex problem. But inaction will not accomplish anything. One has to begin some place, some time, doesn't one?

Dorothy J. McGinnis
Editor
A GOOD TEACHER AND AN ECLECTIC APPROACH: THE HOPEFUL ANSWER TO SUCCESSFUL READING INSTRUCTION

Maria Luisa Alvarez Harvey
JACKSON STATE UNIVERSITY

The sinking feeling that “Johnny can’t read” has developed from an unpleasant suspicion to an ugly reality of alarming dimensions and implications. Not only are our methods of reading instruction under scrutiny and attack, but so are our teachers themselves and, to some extent, so is our entire system of American education as it now firmly—and shakily—stands.

Studies show that pupils who place the lowest in the readiness for reading tests given shortly after they start the first grade are the same ones failing reading at the seventh grade; inability to read is probably the number one cause of our high school drop out rate; the reading proficiency of entering freshmen in college all over the United States leaves much to be desired; and the adult functional illiterates can be counted by the hundreds of thousands (13, 4, 12).

Where does the problem lie? And even more important, where lies the remedy? Is the problem basically poor, inadequate teaching methods? Does it rest mainly with the teachers, many of whom are poorly equipped to do the job, or have chosen the profession as a handy means of always having the assurance of a job? Or should we blame the “system,” this educational system of ours of which we are so proud because it guarantees the right of an education to every child? Indeed, should we educate every child, adolescent and adult, or should we (as it is done in other countries) train some and educate some others? And with this last suggestion we are of course shifting the blame for the failure to the children themselves.

Obviously, to place all the blame for our failure to “teach” reading on any one of the four possibilities: the methods, the teachers, the system, or the children, is not only to oversimplify the problem, but to misplace the blame as well. Just as in the act of reading a number of factors and processes come simultaneously into play, in the child’s reading world the child himself, the methods, the teacher, and the education system merge, and together take part in the hopeful develop-
ment of an individual who can eventually master that complex and as of yet not completely understood act that we call reading.

And while Johnny continues to fail, researchers persist in exploring every possible aspect of the problem. Methodology has received considerable attention while phonics, the kinesthetic approach, the linguistic approach, and programmed methods, have been tried, tested, and often advertised as the best, most effective method to teach reading. The most realistic point of view, however, leans toward, and advocates, an eclectic approach as the most effective one. Studies show that although other approaches to beginning reading instruction, such as programmed or linguistic ones, may give some children an early advantage over the others, those children who start on basal readers not only catch up, but surpass the former group as both progress through the grades (13). Yet, we cannot ignore the fact that some children who start under either one method or the other fail to learn to read.

Research in methodology has led into the study of linguistics and psycholinguistics in the search for a possible connection between the acquisition of speech and the acquisition of the skills necessary for reading. However, in spite of the apparently logical and expected association between learning to speak and learning to read, little has been found to connect both learning processes, and the conclusions of one researcher exploring this avenue are negative in every respect (16).

One important point that research in the field has now fairly well established, but must be promulgated and expounded, is the value of the human element in the teaching situation. The most vital element in the struggle to teach reading successfully is the teacher. It is the teacher who must select, apply, bend, modify, and tailor the instructional approach to the individual needs of the child. He or she must purge himself or herself (sometimes a near impossibility) of preconceptions and attitudes towards the pupils, whose very success, or lack of it in later life, might well depend on these attitudes. Self-fulfilling prophesies of old, long-perpetuated myths such as the one about girls' innate superiority over boys when it comes to ability to learn to read crumble when teachers believe that all students have an equal chance, and are able to project to them this belief.

The success of any particular method of reading instruction is also dependent, to a great extent, on the teacher who employs it. It is the teacher's ability to adapt methods to individuals, to be creative
and ingenious that spells out the difference between failure and success in the results obtained.

How creative, however, does our ever-so-strictly-structured educational system allow our teachers to be? How flexible can a human be in using tools of instruction in an over-crowded classroom? How far can he or she deviate from the old norms of teaching—regardless of the effectiveness of the new approach—without encountering opposition from his or her superiors? And those of us in the business of preparing teachers-to-be, just how well do we do the job of creating—or selecting—superior teachers?

In a brilliant address delivered by Mrs. Helen M. Robinson before members of the International Reading Association in Anaheim, California, this very question of training and selection was discussed. Mrs. Robinson’s implications are clear: we often emphasize knowledge of subject matter and methodology while we neglect the entire gamut of other qualities necessary for effective teaching, such as empathy with the children, diligence, creativity, and expectations for the students. Selection, encouragement of the best, then, should be our aim, a selection based on the mastery of the subject matter to be taught, and on the human qualities of the individuals who aspire to be teachers.

Even under master teachers, however, some children fail. And here is one of the unspoken tragedies of our ideal of mass education. The causes of failure are many and varied: physical, neurological, environmental, and socioeconomic. This last one is perhaps the most pathetic. Since we have come to accept reading to be *endowing the printed page with meaning*—rather than deriving meaning from the *printed page*, an environmentally disadvantaged or culturally disadvantaged child—not withstanding the color of his skin or his ethnic background—stands little chance of making much progress in the mastery of this all important skill in an average classroom, since the range of experiences that he brings to the printed page is limited in comparison to that of his middle-class-or-better brothers and sisters.

Reading readiness programs, special reading clinics, ingenious parent-tutor individual help have given many of these children and their teachers some hope, and at times have brought about dramatic results. But the cost is high, the progress slow, and the population affected a mere fraction of the many in need of help. So, while we attack the problem here as well as on other fronts, our search for a more effective way to teach reading must continue. In the meantime, given the infinite variations in individuals’ emotional, psychological, and physiological makeups, good teachers and an eclectic approach
to the teaching of beginning, continued, and remedial reading seem to be the answer... at least for the present.

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4. Harvey, Maria Luisa Alvarez, “Teaching Reading to the Culturally Disadvantaged: An Annotated Bibliography.” (Unpublished Master’s paper, Department of Reading, Jackson State University, 1972)


A READING CLASSROOM
ISN'T GRIMSVILLE

Lois B. Muehl
UNIVERSITY OF IOWA

Elementary perhaps, but during a 1967-69 compensatory program designed to increase communication skills for post-secondary but not fully qualified college students on a southern black university campus, we figured that to learn was to attend—in both a mental and a physical sense. So we frequently based our sessions on two light-minded assumptions:

1) Learning doesn't have to be grim.
2) Limited experiences can be widened both in and out of the college classroom by “off-duty” means.

Early in the first semester, to shake the students out of authoritarian expectations, we celebrated the advent of Friday by solving riddles and playing a word game. The professional objectives were obvious: In a pleasant atmosphere, to drive the students to think, to increase their background knowledge and vocabulary, and to help them practice quickness—a pace these habit-laden students often lack.

One time, for instance, we started with, “What has a head, a tail, four legs, eats hay, and sees equally well at both ends?”

“A cow!”

“A—what’s that thing in the zoo—a giraffe?”

“A mule!” (Snickers, because that’s how our name is often mispronounced.)

“Nope, nope, nope.” I tossed chalk in hand and waited with the maddening calm of One Who Knows the Answer.

“A horse?”

“Nah, that’s too easy.” Mr. Wellingham, whose ambition is to be a lawyer but who seldom said a word, dismissed that with finality.

The students studied the brief puzzling text written in full on the board. No one slouched heavy-eyed now.

“An elephant?”

“You could all be right,” I assured them, “on the first four clues. But what about the last? How can any animal you’ve suggested ‘see equally well at both ends’?”

“He got a eye under his tail!”

Whoops of laughter. I really walked into that one. I shook my
head, laughing too, but that unrelenting teacher focus and stance pressed them to think. "It's a perfectly logical answer. No gimmick. Just solve that last part."

"A saw-horse?" Miss Bertram offered.
More whoops. "How's that eat hay?" Mr. Alvarez asked with excellent discriminating logic, but crushing scorn.
"Miss Bertram is partly right. It is a horse. But what kind?"
"Give us a hint, will you?"
"O.K. A riddle is just a capsule problem in reasoning. Sometimes, the way you do on RFU cards, you have to expand or rephrase the problem. Try thinking negatively on this one."
"You mean it don't have all them things—the head and tail and all that?"
"Oh yes, it has those things. The facts are right. But you have to figure out the implication. Remember—think negatively."
They pored over it again.
"Sees equally well at both ends," Mr. Alvarez muttered out loud.
"What if it—hey—it's a blind horse!"
"You got it!"
Mr. Wellingham and Mr. Alvarez smacked palms in triumph.
"What?" Other class members challenged his answer.
"Sure," Mr. Alvarez explained coolly. "It 'sees equally well,' see? That means it don't see at all. It's blind."
Groans.
"Hey, that's neat. I'm gonna try it on my roommate."
We tried another. "On what side of a church does an oak tree grow?"
"This one depends on space relationship and a joke," I hinted, after they guessed "north," "sunny," and "cemetery." They solved it then, partly because we'd been working on this type of visualization in texts.
"The out side!"
Mr. Wellingham was half out of his seat. "Here's one for you!"
I offered him chalk and board.
"Nah. This one takes telling." And he proceeded to baffle us with an involved riddle we couldn't guess because the answer depended on a tricky arrangement of words. (How would you get out of a room with no doors, no windows, but a chair and a mirror?) Finally he had to give us the elaborate solution. (Sit in the chair, look in the mirror, see what you saw, take the saw, saw the chair in two. Two halves make a W-hole. Crawl through!) Which was just great.
Mr. Wellingham was a student who had never spoken voluntarily in class discussions before and had not said one word in our once-a-week meetings which massed all four reading sections. Yet the informal play of a riddle brought him to his feet giving a speech, whether he realized it or not.

The class asked for more riddles. I agreed we'd share more on other Fridays, especially if they would remember to bring them in.

At the moment it was time for something else—a word game. Anything would do, but that day it was a fill-in-the-blanks set of 25 words and definitions where part of the letters of each word were supplied. A sample section looked like this:

Ex:  A D O R E  To revere; worship; love
     - - - R E  To frighten
     - - - R E  Whither; to a place which
     - - - R E  A heavy single-edged sword
     - - - R E  Opposed to here; thither
     - - - R E  A portion; to divide with others

Ex:  R A I S E  To elevate; lift up
     R - - - E  A chain of mountains; stove
     R - - - E  A firearm; to pillage, plunder
     R - - - E  Russian monetary unit
     R - - - E  Red cosmetic for the cheeks
     R - - - E  Verse, with corresponding terminal sounds

So simple it's hardly worth doing, especially for college-enrolled students? For many who have endured academic difficulties, I think instruction has often not been simple enough. A task so hard we can't do it discourages any of us from starting. Or if we start, we don't persist, especially by ourselves.

This type of exercise has all the appeals of a solvable group game. Yet, for these students, it also contained basics they hadn't all mastered. They had to produce accurately the "there" needed to fill the fourth item, rather than the "their" they so often substitute in confusion. They may have learned at least two new words ("sabre" and "ruble") as we discussed the solutions. They could possibly have picked up five more in the definitions—"revere," "thither," "pillage," "monetary," and "terminal."

What! They didn't know words like that?

Some did. Some didn't. Some knew the words but not the pronunciation. But all students in that classroom stood a better chance of increasing their vocabulary knowledge, and therefore their reading.
speaking, and writing ease in an atmosphere where the onus of learning was lightened by the tone of fun.

Something else good happened that day. The majority got the word "rhyme" quickly. Correctly solved, it reenforced its customary spelling order, and at the same time confirmed for those practically-oriented students that they did, after all, acquire some usable knowledge in high school poetry sessions.

Did any of the pleasure and satisfaction they obviously felt that day transfer to more prosaic sessions? I can't be certain. But at least they came to class and responded alertly on Friday mornings, a day when the campus weekend often traditionally began the night before.
HOW SHOULD COMPETENCY-BASED INSTRUCTION BE USED IN COLLEGE READING COURSES?

Wilma H. Miller
ILLINOIS STATE UNIVERSITY

There are few educators throughout the United States who currently are unaware of the many possible advantages of using competency-based instruction. Competency-based education certainly is one of the most widely-known and potentially promising innovations on the recent educational scene.

The author has been involved in a competency-based secondary school reading program for the past two years. As a result of this experience, she is able to make recommendations as to how competency-based instruction can be used most profitably both in undergraduate and graduate, elementary, and secondary reading instruction.

DESCRIPTION OF A COMPETENCY-BASED SECONDARY SCHOOL READING PROGRAM

For several years now, Illinois State University has been engaged in a competency-based, computer-assisted program which is required of all its secondary education majors. Competencies which are related to secondary school reading instruction are required as one part of the total program. In addition to the competencies in secondary school reading instruction, the students also are required to complete competencies in secondary education and in American public education.

Since it is very difficult to describe briefly all of the competencies in secondary school reading instruction which are included in this program, the interested reader is referred to the article on the program by Larry Kennedy and Howard Getz (2). Some of the areas in secondary school reading instruction which are presented in self-instructional packages are as follows: rationale for secondary school reading, the reading process, standardized survey reading and diagnostic reading texts, textbook readability, improving rate of reading, motivating high school students to read, and reading in the content areas. Each self-instructional package consists of the following parts: rationale, proficiency test, behavioral objectives, questions to be answered, learning activities—required, learning activities—optional, and evaluation devices. Each student can demonstrate his competency on a learning package by using any of the following methods: objective
examination, essay examination, writing a paper, constructing a reading guide, or constructing other types of reading exercises.

Since this competency-based program now has been in use for more than two years, it can be evaluated with some degree of objectivity. The evaluation of the competency-based program in secondary school reading instruction undoubtedly could apply as well to a program in elementary reading instruction.

**WHAT ARE THE ADVANTAGES OF USING COMPETENCY-BASED INSTRUCTION IN COLLEGE READING COURSES?**

There are advantages in using competency-based instruction in both undergraduate and graduate elementary or secondary reading courses. Some of the lower-level reading skills can be presented very effectively by the use of self-instructional learning packages. The significant content of these lower-level reading skills can be presented by using such means as videotapes, films, audiotapes, tape-slide presentations, or typescripts with worksheets. Such reading skills which can be presented using competency-based instruction are the various word recognition skills, textbook readability, administering and scoring a standardized survey reading test, some aspects of rate of reading, and constructing exercises such as the cloze procedure or a vocabulary overview.

Another major advantage of using competency-based instruction is that each student can pace his own learning. This enables the better students to progress rapidly without having to adjust their rate of learning to that of the less able students in a traditional classroom. On the other hand, self-pacing enables the less able students to progress through the competencies at a slow enough rate with enough repetition to insure mastery of the material. Another advantage is that a student can use any one of several different instructional modes to attain the competencies in reading. If he is visually-oriented, he can view a majority of videotapes, tape-slide presentations, or films. If he is auditorily-oriented, he can listen to a majority of audiotapes. If he obtains information best through the written medium, he can read typescripts. A student also can do the required or optional learning activities at his own convenience. For example, he can do the activities to gain a competency at the time of the day or evening which is most convenient for him.

Another advantage of competency-based instruction is the use of behavioral objectives. When behavioral objectives are used, a student knows exactly what behavior he must perform by the time he has completed any learning package in secondary school reading. A student often does not receive this much specificity in the traditional
In addition, a student receives almost immediate feedback on his achievement of each competency. For example, he usually receives the results of a computer-scored objective examination the day after taking it, and he receives the results of a hand-scored test or paper only several days after completing it.

**WHAT ARE THE LIMITATIONS OF USING COMPETENCY-BASED INSTRUCTION IN COLLEGE READING COURSES?**

There also are some limitations to the use of competency-based instruction in presenting secondary school reading instruction. It has been difficult to present such higher-level reading skills as those of interpretive comprehension and critical reading in self-instructional learning packages. It seems more difficult to present important concepts in self-instructional packages than it does to present specific details. It appears that reading skills such as interpretive comprehension and critical reading lend themselves better to presentation by class discussion with much interaction between group members.

Competency-based instruction seems especially weak in the affective area—the development of positive attitudes toward reading instruction and in creative reading. When the author taught a traditional course in secondary school reading, the major objectives were developing in preservice teachers a positive attitude toward reading instruction in content areas and motivating them to learn how to provide for individual reading differences in their content area. If these objectives were accomplished with most of the students, the author was extremely satisfied. It is an accepted fact that many preservice and inservice secondary school teachers are not as aware as they should be of the need for presenting reading instruction and providing for individual reading differences in the content areas.

Undoubtedly the classroom teacher influences the attitudes of the students in his classes more than any other single factor. At any level of education, the teacher-pupil relationship is extremely important. For example, the twenty-seven United States Office of Education first-grade studies discovered that the teacher generally was more important than the reading method used in determining a child's first-grade reading success (1). Probably the same conclusion could be drawn about teachers and teaching methods at any grade level from kindergarten through graduate school. Although the self-fulfilling prophesy theory is not completely accepted in educational circles, it is obvious that many times a student will perform in the way in which his teacher thinks that he will perform. It is equally obvious that the teacher normally does not have as much direct influence on a
student in competency-based education as he does in the traditional classroom. In a secondary school reading program, the lack of the direct teacher-student relationship may be especially significant in determining a student’s attitude toward reading instruction in his content area. Without a positive attitude toward secondary school reading instruction, the preservice teacher subsequently may not present the special reading skills in his content area nor provide for the individual reading differences of his students.

Another less important limitation of competency-based education is the lack of self-motivation which some of the students have in completing the competencies in secondary school reading instruction. Although this is not an inherent limitation in the theory of competency-based instruction, it becomes a limitation in its actual implementation. Some college students do not seem to be motivated enough to adjust well to a program which demands so much independence from them. Undoubtedly such students have been conditioned in elementary and secondary schools to depend upon their teacher to be responsible for their learning. If competency-based instruction were begun either in the elementary or secondary school, undoubtedly most college students would be able to operate successfully in the program.

**HOW CAN COMPETENCY-BASED INSTRUCTION BE USED IN FUTURE COLLEGE READING COURSES?**

It is obvious that competency-based instruction should have a definite place in undergraduate and graduate elementary and secondary reading courses in the future. Perhaps its greatest strengths can be used best by incorporating it into a regular classroom program. In the future each reading course should still be the responsibility of one or more instructors. Thus each student would have one or more persons available who could build in them the positive attitudes toward reading instruction which are so important. There still would be the opportunity to develop the extremely important teacher-pupil relationship.

The instructor or instructors could structure the entire course in advance so that aspects of it are self-instructional. Some regularly-scheduled meetings should be left open so that the instructor could be available for consultation then. Each student could complete the self-instructional packages during that time or at his convenience. A student could complete self-instructional packages in such areas as the word recognition techniques, literal comprehension, and the more basic aspects of the various reading methods. A student could work independently on those aspects of reading which lend themselves to
the learning of specific knowledge and details. A student could complete self-instructional packages which use such media aids as videotapes, films, tape-slide presentations, and audiotapes. Each student also could demonstrate teaching competencies by using videotaped microteaching sample lessons. Most students very much would enjoy the independence they could gain by completing self-instructional packages.

On the other hand, the instructor or instructors should meet with the reading class to present those areas of reading which are not presented effectively by competency-based instruction. Such areas are those of building positive attitudes toward reading, interpretive comprehension, critical reading, creative reading, and motivating students to read widely. The traditional classroom experiences could consist of teacher lecture, class discussion, demonstrations, practicum experiences, and group work.

**SUMMARY**

The best features of both competency-based instruction and traditional classroom instruction should be combined in undergraduate and graduate elementary or secondary school reading courses. Reading instruction of the future should not be forced into an either/or dilemma. Let's try to improve college reading courses by using the best aspects of both competency-based and traditional reading instruction!

**REFERENCES**

Children love to be held on parents' laps and they love to be read to. The parents' question is, "Which books would be good for my youngster? How do I select them?" Here is a list that can help.

We selected seven sources that recommend books for children. The recommendations in all seven are made and/or supported by authorities in the field of children's literature. Most of them reflect children's responses to the books as well as adult reaction.

From the seven sources, we listed all the books that were recommended for children of preschool and kindergarten age. The list included 400 books. To reduce the number to a more manageable and usable size, we selected from that list all the children's books that had been recommended by at least four out of the seven sources. The final list includes 52 books. Books with a single asterisk (*) were recommended in five of the seven sources. A double asterisk (**) indicates the book was recommended by six or seven of the seven sources.

**RECOMMENDED BOOKS FOR YOUNG CHILDREN**

  Beim, Lorraine and Jerrold Beim, *Two is a Team.* Illustrated by Ernest Crichlow. Harcourt, 1945.
* Dennis, Wesley, *Flip.* Viking, 1941.
22—rh

** McCloskey, Robert, *Make Way For Ducklings*. Viking, 1940.
** Potter, Beatrix, *The Tale of Peter Rabbit*. Warne, 1903.
* Seuss, Dr., *And To Think That I Saw It On Mulberry Street*. Vanguard, 1937.
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**BIBLIOGRAPHY OF SOURCES**


ECHOES FROM THE FIELD

Joe R. Chapel

The Board of Directors of the North Central Reading Association announces the establishment of the Roger S. Pepper Memorial Award designed to promote and recognize outstanding research in the fields of reading and study skills at college and adult levels. The award honors the memory of Dr. Roger Pepper of Wayne State University for his role in the development and support of NCRA, his dedication to the highest ideals of the teaching profession, and his outstanding human qualities and virtues.

Terms of the Award

Each year the NCRA will honor a doctoral candidate with a $100 cash award and travel expenses to the NCRA annual meeting following the announcement of the award, at which the recipient will present a paper on the topic of the research project. The winning paper will be published in College and Adult Reading, the official publication of NCRA. All other papers submitted will be considered for publication. To be eligible, candidates must complete their degree in the current calendar year.

Application Procedures

The faculties of colleges and universities in the North Central Region are urged to advise their doctoral candidates of this award and encourage them to submit the following documents to the Selection Committee.

Three copies of a paper of approximately 3,000 words based upon and containing the essential matter of the dissertation with address, where recorded, and name of adviser and institution.

Papers on dissertations must be submitted by August 1. The award itself will be announced October 1.

Address applications to:

NCRA Research Awards Committee
c/o Dr. Joseph A. Fisher, Director
Reading and Study Skills Clinic
Drake University
Des Moines, Iowa 50311
Nazareth College's Department of Continuing Education, directed by Mr. Paul Hang, instituted a unique program in 1972 to serve some very specialized needs of the greater Kalamazoo area. Organized under the name of the Community Learning Center, the program reaches members of groups disadvantaged by income, minority background, and education.

Schools and institutions across the nation have felt the need for basic education programs. Such valuable programs often fail in respect to the individual who has been through the institutionalized educational process and for one reason or another has dropped out or failed to gain the necessary skills needed for dealing with life realistically. Nazareth's Center for Learning makes a good idea better by reaching out to undereducated or underemployed adults who may have no other source for basic education courses.

According to program coordinator, Ms. Edith Pulaski, the primary goals of the program are to improve reading and computation skills and to incorporate on an intensive level those services, agencies, and other educational alternatives available to persons in the metropolitan area. One vital function is the Center's continuing effort to reexamine and evaluate its existing programs in an effort to determine its impact on increasing academic and personal skills. The resultant major achievement is beneficial to the community as a whole . . . in increased student potentiality to become better parents, citizens, employees, and life-long learners.

The reading program is highly individualized incorporating several programmed texts. The Educational Development Laboratories L-100 series is the core source. Reading teacher Betty Porter finds this individualized method to be best when working with adult learners. Word skills and comprehension are approached through various media utilizing realistic adult literature. College students help provide one to one tutoring. In accordance with the Center's philosophy of utiliz-
ing all available sources, much valuable time is given to the tutoring program by the retired Sisters of Saint Joseph.

One outcome of the adult reading program has been the need for special training of the teacher of the adult basic education reading student. Ms. Porter is now developing a series of videotapes dealing with teaching techniques for adult reading. These tapes should help fill the educational gap in the background of the reading teacher faced with the problem of teaching adults to read.

Two aspects of the Center's program will receive emphasis in the future. “English as a Second Language” is a unique program designed for Spanish-speaking Americans, foreign student wives, immigrants, and foreign wives of American citizens. Instructional level here is necessarily different. Center staff, while using commercial materials, are being creative in designing materials to meet these specialized needs. Besides reading and reading comprehension, conversation and listening skills are also stressed.

Center personnel keep in mind at all times that perhaps the major motivation of their students is to secure a job. Acting on this basis, they are working on a program of technical reading skills that students will find necessary for certain positions. Working with practical materials such as descriptive manuals with key words should engross the student in the learning process while experiencing a feeling of personal achievement.

Nazareth's Center for Learning stresses the personal approach to reading through self concept building and development of attitudes conducive to the successful reading program.
The purpose of language is absolute. It is the transfer of meaning from one human mind to another. If the form of communication used fails in this one respect, no true language can be said to exist.1

One of the major findings of recent, broadly-based research studies in the teaching of reading has been that the most important single factor in the success of a reading program is the influence of the teacher. Viewed from among the hawkers in the market-place, from behind the desks in the publishing houses, or even from inside the sanctuaries of efficiency-oriented, economy-minded school administrators, this finding might seem a bit bizarre, possibly presumptuous, or, at least, be regarded as ridiculous. However, when viewed in the light of the broad purposes of education, and in knowledge of the conditions under which man learns best, the implication appears logical. It is not at all strange that such a completely human act as learning to read is dependent, in a great measure, upon a human relationship.

Teachers who are successful in their relationships with their pupils and their parents, with colleagues, and with other school personnel are known as facilitative and humanistic persons. Through their own skillful, genuine, human behavior they help others to learn and to be humanly effective. Three particular characteristic responses upon which to build sound bases for good relationships are those of empathy, respect, and warmth. These elements are communicated through some form of language which may “entail verbal expression, non-verbal expression, direct physical action, or a combination of all of these modes depending upon the age, intelligence, and degree of contact with reality of the learner.”2

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learning has been reported and translated into implications for teachers' behavior by Flanders, Amidon and Hunter, Bellack, Withall, and others. Much less is known about the quality and quantity of non-verbal interaction and its effects upon classroom learning. *The Teacher Moves* reports a study in this neglected area.

What Julius Fast's *Body Language* has done for the general public by way of introducing it to the sciences of body language and kinetics, shedding new light on the dynamics of inter-personal relationships, *The Teacher Moves* may do for teachers, enabling them to relate non-verbal and verbal components of classroom discourse in meaningful ways. The contents of this volume are divided into two main sections. Part I, "Describing the Way the Teacher Moves," contains four descriptive chapters, based upon a study of teacher behavior recorded on video tapes, and developed within a framework for analysis of these recorded behaviors. Part II, "Improving the Way Teachers Move," consists of five chapters detailing specific strategies for suggested experimenting, selecting, and incorporating practices and techniques. Appendices A and B are valuable for understanding the reported research, and for use in developing awareness of one's own non-verbal functioning as well as non-verbal options available.

In the first part the authors categorize teachers' motions as instructional or personal. Instructional motions are identified as conducting, acting, and wielding. Conducting motions are those that enable a teacher to control student participation and obtain attending behavior. Acting motions amplify and clarify meanings the teacher is trying to communicate. Wielding motions are used in touching, handling, or maneuvering objects, materials, or parts of the room. These three kinds of motions have been analyzed, using statistical techniques. Personal motions are not employed directly to aid in the learning process. They are self-adjusting, symptomatic of inner body conditions, or fall into the category of repetitive mannerisms. Facial expressions, which

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may be instructionally oriented, but personal as well, are almost impossible to study, even with video-taping procedures, and have been considered in this text separately, in a rather subjective manner. Using these analyses of teachers' repertoires of instructional gestures, facial expressions, and bodily activity, it may be seen that each teacher develops a teaching style that is uniquely his own, that can make him a positive, or negative, influence as a "significant other" in the lives of his pupils.

In the second part Grant and Hennings consider the use of body movement in terms of strategies developed in the theatre. Acknowledging the need for spontaneity in teaching, and the advantages in taking on-the-spot direction and clues from students, nevertheless, they maintain that teachers can learn to use hands expressively, or to employ such devices as vocal pointing, pantomime, and the dramatic pause. Because students are constantly molding their behavior in reaction to clues generated by teachers, contradictory, insufficient, excessive, or ineffectual clues need to be recognized and avoided. Non-verbal clues generated in the classroom are dependent upon numerous factors. In order to select his options wisely, a teacher should consider his own personality, the student group with which he is working, the instructional process being used, and the nature of the subject being taught. Choices may be limited by needs and competencies of persons involved. Similarly, the range of interaction may be restricted by the scope of ideas and materials being explored. However, most teachers probably have many more options for meaningful, interesting, humanistic non-verbal communication than they have realized or attempted.

The teaching-learning act is a symbiotic process. If improvement in learning is desired, improvement in teaching might well be pursued. The authors of this text support the view that adequate description of the teaching act must precede projections on improving teaching. They have carefully refrained from prescribing any one mode of non-verbal teaching. Rather, they suggest that the role of descriptive research in improving the way a "teacher moves" is to help the teacher himself (1) to become more aware of his own non-verbal activity and the effect it has on his students; (2) to experiment with non-verbal strategies he previously has not attempted; and (3) to select purposefully from among options those conducting, acting, and wielding motions that meet the needs of a particular situation.

It is probable that this book will be valued by only those who are willing to attempt objectivity about themselves, and who are capable
of sincere, sustained steps toward personal, humanistic growth. Gazda has this counsel for those who are concerned and committed:

A person generally does not consciously control his non-verbal behaviors, but he can become consciously aware of them.\(^8\)

Changing internalized non-verbal patterns is a long and difficult process, but if you find yourself using non-verbal behaviors that reduce your ability to be helpful to others, it may be worth the effort required to change them.\(^9\)

\(^9\) Ibid., p. 88.
READING IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL:
The Study Formulas Revisited

Kenneth VanderMeulen

An interview with a college student who fears academic dismissal often goes something like this: “You say you didn’t have scholastic difficulties in high school?”

“No, and I had good percentiles on the standardized tests. I really don’t know what it could be. I study four or five hours a day.”

“What is your method of study?”

“I go over the stuff in the text.”

“Yes, how do you do that?”

“Well, I have this highlighter pen, and I bring out all the important sentences in the text that way. Then I go over it before tests. But the tests always ask things... I never even heard of some of them. I’ll sure flunk if I don’t...”

To quote more of the conversation would yield more of the same. The student is obviously unaware of what constitutes study, and will have to be given a crash course in how to study before he can regain his academic underpinnings. Like the thousands before him and more thousands in the future, this young person has fallen into the snare of thinking that one’s ability to get meaning from the printed page automatically assures him of academic kudos. Nothing could be farther from the truth. Being able to read well is necessary, to be sure; however, studying is a large and complicated recipe, of which reading is only one ingredient.

As in any serious project, study requires a plan of approach, some kind of schedule, an understanding of what is relevant, and an adequate foundation of terminology in the field of work. The process of study is a careful interlacing of textbook background material, notes which have been rewritten after lectures, and outside reading notes taken from bibliography and other reference source materials. Students find by experience that they are more comfortable with one style of study than another, but there are no good shortcuts to a complete grasp of a particular discipline. The fact that many young people of normal intelligence go through high school and possibly further without realizing they do not know how to study indicates some omissions in our educational methods.
One important omission is our frequent failure to mention methods or systems of study at all. We tend to assume that secondary students should have been taught the proper approaches to study skills. This assumption leads to another pedagogical sin—this one a sin of omission. Oftentimes, students are actually led away from a full appreciation of the complexities of studying by the way in which teachers understate the role it plays in overall comprehension of the subject matter. A teacher may be heard to say, "I want you to read this material very carefully," and the class members are all too willing to accept that charge exactly the way it was given.

After all, no one told them to question it, compare ideas in it, analyze it, test it for logic or objectivity, or even read it aloud to hear the syllables make literary music. In truth, the assignment doesn't even carry the mandate to think about it. The teacher who asked his class to read the pages may feel secure in the belief that reading is thinking, that the very definition of reading must include serious sustained thought about the meaning of the symbols on the printed page. While this is indeed true, many students equate reverie with thinking, thus missing the boat entirely. In other words, reading must be more than moving passively through the associations called up by the words in print. Students who allow themselves to drift through the ideas presented are not truly reading. They need to be taught to see reading of expository material as examining or scrutinizing an author's interpretation of information.

Therefore, when discussing advance work with classes, teachers might do well to purge from their conversation all such phrases as "look this over," "study the chapter," "remember these points," and "read the material." Every time the pupil hears these words, he or she is lulled into believing that looking, passive reading, committing to memory, and reverie are what study is all about. Since no one has informed them differently, these young people will persist in their misconceptions as long as they are allowed to. Those who go to college will take the false concept of study along with them, and meet a challenge of increased study loads with inadequate tools. Some will become memory drudges, mired in inefficiency; others will drop the "hard" courses, only to begin a pathetic search for "easy" courses; a few will feel totally overwhelmed and drop the whole effort with an attitude of bitterness; and, still others will compromise their standards with any expedient at their disposal. There is ample evidence that this situation of students who were never taught to study tends to en-
gender feelings of distrust and hostility displayed by college enrollees toward college course requirements and instructors.

Instead of merely wringing our hands at the thought of the deplorable situation, we teachers need to take an entirely new look at the rationale of study formulas, to rethink the purposes and rechannel the directions. When first established as a system, the aim was to make study methodical and therefore more efficient. Let us review the parts briefly. The first step is the survey or preview step, meant to give the student a broad picture of the work to be covered, to furnish general impressions through skimming all the material. Step two, translating headings and sub-heads into questions, serves to build interest and make the reading step a more purposeful activity. Reading the material, the third step, thus has been prepared for in the previous steps. Stage four in the process is usually described as the recitation step, in which the student makes sure that he has understood the ideas presented, by restating notes and outlines in fleshed-out form. The fifth step, designed for the purpose of retention, is thought of as reviewing, and involves a reorganization of the materials, implying preparation for a test.

Put in this way, the study formula cannot well be of use to either teacher or student. If we merely explain and promote one kind of study formula or another, we approach the problem of studying and learning from the wrong direction. When a student knows the steps of a study formula, but has no conviction about the value of his investigation, he is no better off than a person with a checkbook but no account in the bank.

We propose the insertion of two more elements into the study formula. Previous to the first step of introducing units or subjects in the classroom, we need to add the pre-stage of student involvement. To our final step of review for retention, we need to add a post-stage called reflection. Let's see how we may best benefit from these two concepts, by bringing them to action in our student groups, in order to rid ourselves forever of the apathy that seems to stall many developing minds in some secondary schools.

In using a cooperative planning method, the teacher merely keeps the components of the study formula in mind, so that each part may be worked into the process in its appropriate place. It is never overtly employed.

Here the art of teaching consists of making it seem to each student that he is on a personal journey of discovery. By comparison, a guided tour in the text is dullness itself. The teacher poses a situation that
prevails, locally or world-wide, whether the class is in mechanics, science, language, or history, and the teacher helps students see the problems and reality of the situation. Now the class members see themselves within the picture, since it involves their future. And, in presenting these problematic facts of life to students, the teacher also gains stature among those youngsters who are looking for teachers who are "real."

One teacher brings a few issues of the Congressional Record to class, not to read the dull deliberations, but to demonstrate the many ways in which people and local units of government are constantly calling for federal attention. The teacher asks the pupils to list the range of topics covered in a given number of pages. Beginning casually, students become aware of monumental problems and complex dilemmas facing elected representatives. They also come to realize that they themselves will have many of these same problems to work out in tomorrow's world, when they will be the responsible leaders of society. They become acquainted with such matters as starving people because of ignorance of land use, prevalence of crime because of our failure to educate, violence because of prejudice, and destruction because of greed. Recently, a letter written to a senator from Jacques Cousteau was entered in the RECORD. The author predicted that man will become extinct in fifty years because he has not learned how to use our most precious commodity, water. Our oceans, he says, are living things which we are killing by our practices, and our ignorance will cause our own end. Read in class, the compelling letter caused concern and a highly motivated search for information that crossed four discipline lines.

Class members can be guided to ask the very questions that will provide the core of concepts and understandings they will need in the subject field. If they are next given the keys to the library, so to speak, the students will gain some much needed self-reliance in the second stage of gathering information. It can be of special value if the teacher helps students see the difference between critical information and trivial data.

We may bring the third ingredient in at this point, to say that organization of information combines both practice and application of good reading and study skills under the ideal conditions of a sincere search for answers to real problems. Students will learn about the relative importance of the information they have gathered when they reach the crucial stage of the reflection period. While this step may take the form of a rambling class discussion, the process of crystallizing
one's impressions into sentences, and the way in which one person measures his ideas by setting them next to the thoughts of others—these are the comparisons and contrasts which lead to practical retention and learning. Although the problems considered are not resolved, the benefits incurred from the discussions are inestimable.

In summary, a teacher's work in the classroom will be more productive if he uses a study formula in planning advance work, rather than merely making assignments and recommending the study formula. The point is that exhorting students to study harder is futile when many young people have not learned that they must become affectively involved if they are to educate themselves.

It would be, therefore, of great benefit to classes in high school to begin each period with a picture of a problem situation. In our modern interdependent society, it should not be difficult to demonstrate that every problem involves us all. When discussion leads to step two, students organize and seek documentation to support all the ideas they have created for possible solutions. The information is gathered, organized, and brought to class sessions.

Along with the highly democratic business of talking over the information which committees and individuals have brought to class, steps four and five may be made more valuable as each member writes his conclusions, summarizing his own ideas, and refining his pictures of the possible ways to solve problems. We can include all the basic skills in reading, writing, listening, and speaking in this project to involve all students in current important matters.

Reflection is emphasized in this article as an antidote to the sickness of students going mechanically through the motions of study, when in truth nothing is happening at all. Reflection is also emphasized as a loud plea to teachers who frequently skip the step entirely because they have their eyes on the calendar. Teachers sometimes say, "We have to cover this by May 10," and demean the importance of the subject they teach.

We recommend the sort of teacher who draws his students into a magic circle by focusing all eyes on problems, issues, matters for serious attention. The class discusses (usually with some emotion—possibly prejudice) and finally reaches the strategic juncture at which a student says "Don't we have to know more than we know, to talk about that?"

Think of all the matters which require deliberation by America's future leaders in this school year! What math class could turn down the ramifications of current inflation charts? Why wouldn't science classes
want to investigate the charges and counter-charges surrounding food additives? Why is nuclear power development encountering slowdowns? Why are consumers saying Ralph Nader is costing them $500 a year in safety gadgets? Why do executives complain about the "plight" of the American language? Can we rebuild America’s farm land? Why are many American manufacturing companies foreign owned? Should a city declare itself overpopulated?

Answers to any of these questions (albeit answers do not always provide solutions) could be found first, by becoming concerned, then doing the necessary gathering of information, organizing the information in an orderly fashion so that reflection on the big question will be a logical outgrowth. The approach will have avoided the mechanical type of cursory reading that sometimes passes for study; instead, the students will have built a habit of aggressive reading which comes as a result of knowing what one is looking for in texts and reference volumes.
Dear Editor,

The State University of New York conducted a study of the reading interests of adults whose reading level was below third grade. The results (printed below) were interesting, and I began to wonder whether those interests would match the ones of college students who were taking a reading improvement course. This naturally led me to wondering how well formal reading programs match the interests of their students.

The college students who acted as my subjects were 19 men and 8 women who were taking a reading improvement course at a university. The formal reading program I chose to examine was the SRA IV A, College Level Series. This consists of seven reading levels, with twenty reading selections in each one, for a total of 140 selections.

STATE UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK'S RANK ORDERING OF THE READING INTERESTS OF ADULTS READING BELOW THIRD GRADE LEVEL

1. Family and self-improvement
2. Jobs
3. Health
4. Religion
5. Science
6. Social studies, history & civics
7. Children
8. Animals
9. Humor
10. Sports, adventure & travel
By looking at the male and female preference charts in relation to the overall content chart I find a few basic points calling out for the need of a new SRA series. While science is disliked by both sexes, SRA contains 28 science articles, its second largest category. Subject matter liked by both groups exist in very small numbers. Female college students chose “children” as their favorite, yet SRA had no articles on this subject. Humorous articles were second choice for males and fourth for females, yet there were only 7 humorous articles of a total of 140.

I think that the number of science articles should be greatly reduced so as to allow a more equitable distribution in the other areas. I also question the dominance of a few subjects because I should think it would be detrimental to the main purpose of trying to hold every reader’s interest. I wonder too who decided which categories to concentrate on, and how they arrived at this decision, because according to all three preference charts, the actual choices SRA made are poor. One last point is that out of one hundred and forty authors only twenty-three were females.

My basic conclusion is that SRA needs more concern for what people would like to read, rather than what they think they should read.

Sincerely,

Valerie Hill
“Learning to read is one of the most complex tasks that a human being accomplishes in his lifetime. The amazing thing is not that a few people fail, but that so many succeed.”

—G. Robert Carlsen


Julie Chan is living with her husband who is stationed with the U.S. Army in Nürnberg, Germany. Julie noted a need for channeling reading information to parents. She believes that “people would do better if they knew better.” On this belief was built the entire program she initiated. Her plan was to air a year-long series of ten-minute broadcasts entitled “Getting Your Child Off to a Good Start in Reading” over the American Forces Radio Network. The broadcasts became so popular that the program is developing and expanding the series to its television network. Eventually the program will reach 300,000 military personnel in Germany, Belgium, and Holland. The weekly shows discuss parental concerns in four broad areas: 1) the preschool years; 2) the child and beginning reading; 3) the child who can read but won’t; 4) the child with reading problems. The article describes the format of these innovative programs in detail.


The author presents an overview of the current arguments favoring oral reading. They are: 1) to evaluate children’s progress, 2) to practice reading, 3) to entertain or inform others, 4) all of the above. Each of these arguments is reviewed in depth and some pertinent questions raised as to their validity for teachers of reading in 1974. You be the judge!


Grouping in elementary classrooms is a common practice.
These authors suggest, however, that serious consideration be given grouping, particularly ability grouping. This particular form may be open to question psychologically, since this grouping plan often leads to low cohesiveness (and possibly lower achievement) in middle and low groups. The authors state that there is a need for more research to verify these findings. The article goes on to list several implications for teachers drawn from this social philosophy.


The author brings together much research and opinion dealing with minimal brain dysfunction (MBD) and its relationship to educational practices. There is much disagreement at present as to just how much effect a diagnosis of MBD has on a child's ability to learn. How these children learn and the best educational procedures used to teach these children are problems which require much more research before they can be answered intelligently.


This article reiterates again the absolute necessity for critical evaluation of children's books, especially where Black stereotyping is concerned. It is very discomforting to recognize bias in books, but it is even more unnerving to realize that there is a real tendency for whites to read such books without that recognition. She challenges us to THINK about what we read. Also included in the article were some questions which outline standards for adequate book evaluation and a bibliography of books dealing with the subject of evaluating children's books in terms of stereotyping.


This article points out the meager number of children's books with a female protagonist. Bernstein states that books about boys outnumber books about girls by at least six to one.
She then goes on to name and quickly analyze twenty-two books which she considers to be well done and worthy of special mention in this area of females in books. She finishes by challenging publishers to take note of the article and then to do something about the lack.


The purpose of the reported study is to answer these questions: 1) Can visual perceptual ability be improved by the use of workbooks designed especially for the purpose? 2) Can visual perceptual ability be improved by the use of informal gamelike materials designed especially for that purpose? 3) Which of the two kinds of perceptual training best prepares children to score well on the subtests of the Metropolitan Reading Test as well as the total score? 4) Which kind of visual performance training contributes more to reading performance at first grade level? Findings suggest that a formal program of training in visual perception was not superior to a well planned informal program either in producing better results on a visual perception measure or on a reading achievement test. The author suggests that since the results of the study show the measurable differences between groups to be very small, other aspects of both methods should be considered.


There is considerable disagreement as to whether repetitions should be counted as errors when administering an informal reading inventory. Since there is almost universal agreement on the criteria for determining the independent level, the instructional level, and the frustration level of a student's reading ability, we must also agree on what to count as errors if we are to agree on the level placement of students who make numerous repetitions when reading. Through the use of a polygraph, the author measured the physiological frustration reading level of students while they read informal reading inventory passages. The author suggests that all repetitions be counted as errors when administering an informal reading inventory. If not, a teacher is likely to place a child at a reading level which is too difficult for him.

In this article, Dr. Gibbons states the need for adequate near vision, distance vision, binocular coordination, and field of vision for any child. If a student has inadequacies in one or more of these four areas, mastery of reading skills may be difficult. He then warns against the use of the Home Eye Test for Preschoolers, and the use of the Snellen chart alone for indicating visual problems in school children. According to him, 60-70% of the children requiring professional visual care would be overlooked if these two tests were the only criteria used to determine visual adequacy.

Virginia Boyce, in an article of response to Dr. Gibbons, points out that he misinterpreted the intended use of these tests. She states that “The Test” is a screening device and in its preface clearly states that it should in no way replace a complete eye examination for every child entering school. She claims that the major purpose of “The Test” is to alert parents and the public to the importance of early detection and treatment of vision problems.


The author presents several pieces of research which dispute many of the well known and often assumed truths about teaching sight words. Among his arguments are the claims that children discriminate parts of words from the time they begin to read and that the shape of a word is the least-used cue to its recognition by beginning readers. He calls for reform in the kind of information given reading teachers about sight words and concludes that more research is needed about the ways in which young children develop their powers of word identification.


These authors question the great emphasis placed on visual-motor training in our schools today. They wonder if the alloc-
tion of time, the expenditure of funds, and the efforts of teachers and children have been worthwhile. After carefully reviewing the Frostig-Horne program and the Kephart-Getman techniques, they report the findings of their own studies in this area of visual-motor training. They conclude that the value of perceptual training, especially those programs often used in schools, has not been clearly established. Their studies substantiate their conclusions.


This article compares and analyzes fourteen vocabulary studies for the following purposes: 1) to explore patterns of variation among word lists and 2) to present an updated basic vocabulary that minimizes the bias of individual counts. Findings substantiate the author's earlier hypothesis that variation in word counts is more related to the original source of the words than it is to the date the study was done. Also, in an effort to avoid the bias of limiting a basic word list to a particular source, the writer compiled and developed a composite list. This list is based on the 500 most frequently used words from five different counts. Sources for the count include the old and new, juvenile and adult writing, juvenile and adult printed material. The author feels that since reading and writing are related and mutually reinforcing a single composite list is preferable to separate lists for present and future, reading and writing, and library and textbook reading because such an approach leads to "hopeless fragmentation."


Ms. Hood reports that she really did burn her supply of basic sight words. She contends that: 1) words should always be taught in context, 2) phrase cards are more effective than word cards, 3) the child must practice these words in a story. Several teaching tips are given in the article and she stresses keeping any kind of reading skill drill in its place—three to five minutes a day. Often good reading exercises go bad when we forget that these are only means to an end and not the end themselves.
Teachers need a quick, efficient, yet reasonably accurate means for determining appropriate pupil placement in reading materials. Some validity for informal reading inventories is often assumed since they are constructed from classroom materials and administered using techniques similar to those used in teaching situations. Because cloze can be developed in comparable materials and also be administered in a teaching situation, high correlations would appear likely, which suggests that the cloze procedure would also be a valid testing device. The cloze test can approximate reading inventory levels on an informal reading inventory 70-80% of the time. Since it takes only a short time to administer, the authors recommend its use to the classroom teacher.


Karlson and Blocker’s study shows that Black children generally do have problems pronouncing final consonant blends. This generalization, however, does not extend itself to include problems in discriminating final consonant blends auditorally. Black children do perceive them and they can differentiate between words that they may pronounce the same. The authors cite the following example: “Although they might pronounce ‘belt’ as ‘bell’ when they read it or listen to it pronounced, they know that the word is ‘belt’ and they know what it means.”


Today, as the market is being flooded with children’s books, Myra Livingston makes a plea to all adults to “keep in touch with chaos.” She challenges us to rely on ourselves and our judgment, not entirely on a book reviewer’s comment about a certain book. She emphasizes teaching “real literature,” not watered down books, for in so doing, we cheat the child.
Know books, know your children, so that you may guide them to the right books at precisely the right moment!


At Ohlone College, California, a comprehensive program has been designed to help all students in college become independent learners. Eight individualized skill building courses with 61 video tapes were developed. Each course carries one unit of credit in English. The final major component of this comprehensive program for developing independent learners consists of a sixty-page Tutor’s Handbook developed for use by subject area tutors who tutor fellow students on campus. Instructors make use of this convenient source of information available to them by discussing the reading center’s services with students. The reading instructor is often invited into classes of other instructors to describe the reading services available on their campus. The goal is to develop independent and responsible learners.


This film is for use in the elementary school. It focuses attention on four basic approaches to the teaching of reading. The film takes the audience into live classrooms to view children learning to read using the basal, phonics, reformed orthography, and linguistic approaches.


The author feels that too few opportunities exist for teachers to share their knowledge and experiences with their colleagues and to learn from one another. He suggests three practical staffing arrangements which would invite more individualized instruction, thus giving children more personalized attention.

Both the literature and the classroom teacher support the contention that boys very often do less well in beginning reading than girls. The authors indicate that there are three different explanations given for boys' failure to achieve as well as girls. First, it is indicated that boys mature physically and mentally at a slower rate than girls. Second, content of basal readers is less appealing to boys. Third, teachers in early grades are usually women and are said to conflict more with the personality traits of boys. Without denying these explanations there seems to be another possibility according to the author. He suggests that some boys are less successful than girls in beginning reading because their teachers expect them to be less successful. Palardy discusses this hypothesis and the sequential stages involved in this rationale. He indicates briefly some of the tasks that lie ahead to obtain data to answer the question about boys' success in beginning reading.


Every student entering Morris Knolls High School, Denville, New Jersey is given the California Junior High Reading Test in their eighth grade year. Selected students come to the reading lab from their English class once a week. Since reading escapes grading, performance contracting in the reading lab provides the motivational reward. Students are given folders for their individual assignments and progress charts. The reading instructor keeps a duplicate folder to record diagnosis and remediation. Contracting is used to give the student a program which recognizes and emphasizes individual needs. It also offers the student a tangible plan as he chooses the amount of work in proportion to the grade he hopes to achieve in his English class.

In the survey the author discusses recent investigations of several instruments that have received particular attention in evaluating the pre-first grade child. In the investigations of several leading intelligence tests, the Bender Gestalt Test, The Development Test of Visual Perception, and the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities attention is given primarily to the question: "What and how is the child ready to learn?" According to this article, the instruments surveyed do appear to have merit in understanding the prerequisites for reading.


Since children in fifty countries of the world tune in Electric Company, this author feels that the time has come for a serious evaluation of how this television phenomenon affects children's reading and attitudes toward reading. She feels that the program has done an excellent job in motivating children to decode words and that this is precisely its stated purpose. Ms. Roser questions, however, whether more emphasis shouldn't be placed on comprehension and on appreciation for reading as a part of the total communication process.


Based on the premise that there is a close relationship between children's primary grade reading achievement and their auditory perceptual skills, the author goes on to report his study in this area. Rosner's study supports the argument that it is possible to teach auditory analysis skills well in advance of reading instruction, thereby dealing effectively with one aptitude that is closely related to reading achievement.


This paper investigates the specific content and format of
five major reading readiness batteries: the Metropolitan Readiness Tests; Murphy-Durrell Reading Readiness Analysis; Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test-Readiness Skills; and the Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Profiles. Reading readiness test authors disagree as to what constitutes reading readiness skills. Another implication to teachers of beginning readers is that teachers must realize that readiness tests measure a limited number of readiness skills. For instance, attention span and experiential background are not measured in the five tests examined. Still another implication is that there is almost no evidence that the increased teaching of these skills will ensure success in learning to read. An important point teachers must not overlook is that test authors usually report their readiness tests to be predictive, not diagnostic in nature.


The author introduces and explains in some detail the Sack-Yourman method of note-taking. In this plan the skill of note-taking is introduced and explained by leading the student through practice sessions with guided activities. Textbooks and taped lectures are used. Application to students' own texts and lectures is the end result of the Sack-Yourman Notetaking Method.


College reading-study skills (CRSS) programs have become widespread since Abell at Wellesley College in 1894 first attempted to help college students read more effectively. According to the author's summary of various research reports the participation in a CRSS program does not result in students attaining a higher GPA. He indicates that it is probable that CRSS programs would be more effective if instructors provided different teaching methods for different students. Santeusano points out the need for ATI (aptitude-treatment-interactions) research in reading. CRSS programs would then develop alternative instructional programs so that optimal educational
payoff would be obtained as students were assigned to different alternative programs.

Savage, John F., “How to Teach Reading?” *Early Reading Experiences For Young Children*, (Heath Lowry and Jerry D. King, editors), M.S.S. Information Corporation, New York, 1974, pp. 158-169.

Today's teacher has much to choose from in deciding how to teach reading. Which shall we choose? The author summarizes seven approaches: the basal reader, individualized reading, the language experience approach, the linguistic method, i/t/a, programmed reading, and words in color. Always comes the crucial question, which one is best? Fame and wealth await the person who proves he has the best way to teach reading. The author suggests while we await the answer that we are still faced with doing our best with the best we have. There is merit in each of the approaches he describes. In conclusion he states that the teacher's enthusiasm and commitment to an approach is most often the major factor in determining its success.


The “diagnostic mystique” referred to in the title of this article is explained by the author as being the belief that a skill oriented assessment of a child's reading behavior by a reading expert is the last word in diagnostic workups. If we can zero in on a child's skill deficiencies, a child will progress. Sawyer suggests that this too simple attitude must be altered and replaced because a disabled reader is a problem solver, an individual who interacts with his environment. He is not simply a child who is deficient in some particular reading skill. She presents a strong case for reviewing our present diagnostic techniques and suggests that perhaps our future efforts should focus on learning more about the learner and learning styles.


The theory that reading is a holistic process (an entity in itself and not just the sum of various decoding and comprehen-
sion skills) is one that is rapidly gaining acceptance, according to the author. This view of reading as a process of deriving meaning has important implications for diagnosis and remediation techniques. She states these implications clearly and understandably. The author warns against entirely ignoring decoding in favor of comprehension. She suggests a healthy balance between the two approaches.
THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 26, 1974
“Teaching and Reading from a Self Concept Point of View”
Dr. Donald Hamachek, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan
6:00 P.M., Supper, Portage Northern High School Cafeteria and Auditorium

THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 21, 1974
Fifth Drive-In Conference: “Emerging Concepts in Teaching Reading”
Dr. Robert Karlin, Queens College of City University of New York.
Flushing, New York
4:45 P.M., Portage Central High School

THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 13, 1975
“Reading for Students in Grades K-12”
Ms. Peggy Brogan, Author, Editor, and Educational Consultant.
Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.
7:30 P.M., West Ballroom, University Student Center, Western Michigan University

SUNDAY, MONDAY, AND TUESDAY
APRIL 13, 14, and 15, 1975
“Models of Teaching Reading,” Eighteenth Annual Meeting, Michigan Reading Association, Grand Rapids Civic Center

SATURDAY, APRIL 26, 1975
Reading Talkshop and Business Meeting
9:30 Brunch, Holiday Inn (Expressway), Carriage Room

MONDAY, MAY 12, 1975
through
FRIDAY, MAY 16, 1975
Twentieth Annual Conference
International Reading Association, New York City, New York