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READING HORIZONS on Microfilm

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FREEDOM TO LEARN

Any person who has observed young children for any length of time soon becomes aware of their passion for learning. The preschooler, kindergartener, and first grader display a delightful inclination to ask “why.” They want to know, and they want to be actively involved in the learning process. Then, subtly, a change occurs. As children move from elementary school to secondary school, boredom sets in and a passive attitude, even a resistance in some instances, toward learning develops. Why? Is it because success in school is measured largely by the degree to which students accept the omnipotence of teachers? Is it because teachers impose direction upon them, reinforce submissive acquiescence, and repress spontaneity? Is it because there is one commanding voice in the classroom which discourages independent and critical thinking?

Every teacher should be concerned with creating and maintaining an educational climate in which children are eager to learn. The horse-and-buggy model of the teacher as a dispenser of information must be replaced. We need to resist the tendency to dictate to students the knowledge we “know” they should have. We need instead to serve as facilitators of learning, as resource people in a community of learners. We need to regenerate our own interest and enthusiasm for learning. And we need, above all, to provide our students with freedom—freedom to think, to plan, and to learn for themselves.

The teacher who gives children the freedom to learn will soon discover that they will learn.

Dorothy J. McGinnis
Editor
Seven-year-old Troy kept his distance from me as we walked from his classroom to the testing room. His feet shuffled on the tile floor, his hands were deep in his corduroy pockets, and his face was hidden by his dull, disarrayed hair.

"I'm Mrs. Gordon, Troy. Do you remember when we looked at the pictures together and you made up a story for each one?"

"Yeah. You gave me an eraser."

Troy was finally looking at me. He pushed away his hair. His narrow, dark eyes reflected distrust. The eraser visit was not enough to make us friends and several weeks had passed.

At that time, I visited all seven- and eight-year-old Salt Lake City boys who were reading 1.0 to 2.0 years below grade level and who fell within the normal I.Q. range. An individual test was administered to measure fear of failure. Each of the 58 boys viewed four pictures of school scenes. Included were two neutral pictures depicting neither success nor failure, one success picture, and one failure picture. The pictures and test instructions are reproduced in Gordon (1971). Responses of each boy to the set of pictures were scored according to two keys: the Birney, et al. (1969) Hostile Press Key and the Moulton (1958) Fear of Failure Key. The scoring procedure and both keys are in Gordon (1971).

Troy and several other boys had unusually high fear of failure scores. Let's look at Troy's responses to the pictures. One would expect a failure story for the failure picture and he produced just that: "He's sittin' down at school. The teacher made him. He was a bad boy. He was fighting. Somebody punched him in the eye. He's gonna beat the kid up when he gets his hands on him. He's real mad. He'll run away to a kidnapper's home. He's gonna beat up the kid and the kidnapper cuz the kidnapper is mean."

In addition to the foregoing failure imagery, Troy told about failure when he viewed the success picture: "A kid is raisin' up his
hand. He wanted to paint so he raised his hand. He's glad cuz he wants to paint. He won't get to paint."

According to the Moulton scale, he also included fear of failure imagery when he saw one of the neutral pictures. He portrayed the arithmetic students as mentally fleeing from the task at hand: "They're readin' a book. They're sittin' down. They were doing arithmetic. They're thinkin' about somethin' dumb like bein' a kidnapper when they grow up cuz that's what I'm gonna be. They'll go out for recess."

Troy's teacher supported his high fear of failure score on the picture test by rating him 10 on a 1-10 scale of low to high fear of failure in reading.

The reader may be quick to comment that most of us fear failure. Yet clearly there are some people, like Troy, who fear failure so greatly that they will go to great lengths to avoid situations where they might fail. They may elect to stop the task at hand if they are failing, or simply not begin if they suspect failure.

Let's accept Troy's high fear of failure as given, without worrying at this point about the factors contributing to his fear. The immediate problem for Troy's teacher is to manipulate the conditions around him when he is reading so that he will persist with his reading job and learn something. The teacher can select what seems to be exactly the right method to teach Troy to read; but if he gives up easily, his progress will be painfully slow.

The most obvious tactic is to eliminate failure for Troy, a la Glasser (7). But remember, Troy is seven and has experienced the gloom of failure in reading for over a year. He already has a flight mechanism operating to escape failure; he prefers to avoid failure rather than to try to achieve success at a reading task.

Are there classroom conditions which could be changed immediately during Troy's reading which would promote his persistence, his sticking to the reading job at hand?

What about the audience factor? The audience present when the boy is reading may have a significant effect on his persistence. If he is reading aloud, is just the teacher listening, or are children listening also? (See Birney, Burdick & Teevan, 1969, for discussion of social factors in fear of failure.)

What does the teacher tell the boy, before he starts reading, about the difficulty of the task? Is the teacher inclined to say, "Oh, Troy, this is so easy, you can do it with no trouble." Or is the teacher prone to remark, "Don't worry, Troy, if you can't do it; this passage is very difficult." Or possibly the teacher makes no comment at all about the
difficulty of the ensuing task and the boy's probable success. (For studies in which the probability of success (Ps) factor was manipulated in relation to persistence and fear of failure see Birney & Rolf, 1965; Feather, 1961; 1963; Heckhausen, 1966; and Raphaelson & Moulton, 1958.)

A study was designed to test the hypothesis that there is reason for teachers to be concerned with the interrelation of audience conditions, the probability of success (Ps) factor, and the degree of fear of failure as they influence reading persistence in the young boy.

The 58 boys were arranged in a distribution from low to high total fear of failure score. From this distribution, which was stratified into low, medium, and high fear of failure, three proportionate stratified random samples were drawn. Each sample was composed of a proportionate number of low, medium, and high fear of failure boys.

Two experimental conditions were imposed on the members of each sample. First, consider the Ps condition. Members of Sample 1 (N = 18) were told that the ensuing task was easy (Ps = .70). Sample 2 (N = 19) was not told anything about the difficulty of the task, i.e., no Ps announcement (Ps = .50). Sample 3 (N = 21) was told that the reading task was hard (Ps = .10). In reality, all samples viewed the same reading videotapes under the same two audience settings.

The second experimental condition was audience setting. Members of each sample were tested twice for persistence. The first videotape was shown with the experimenter (E) only present (E audience). The second videotape was shown with five friends and E present (Peer-E audience).

Thus, the design of the study, as depicted in Figure 1, was a three factor experiment with repeated measures on one factor, i.e. audience.

Each boy was visited a second time for administration of the appropriate experimental conditions according to sample membership. On each of the two videotapes, E acted as the teacher and conducted a 13-minute reading session with the viewer. The scripts and visuals used for each tape may be found in Gordon (1971).

Each videotape included 10 trials. The boy was told he could stop any time he wished. E rang a bell each time the boy did not respond correctly or did not respond at all to the questions asked by the videotape teacher. Thus, persistence was measured in terms of the number of failure bells endured before quitting the reading task.

Half of Sample 1 viewed Tape I with Peer-E audience present.
Peers were five friends whom the boy selected from his own class. They also viewed Tape II with E audience present. The other half of Sample 1 viewed Tape I with E audience and Tape II with Peer-E audience. Within each half, the order of the tapes was also switched to cancel order effect. Before viewing each tape, all members of Sample 1 were told that their probability of success was high (Ps = .70 or easy task).

Sample 2 was treated exactly as Sample 1 with regard to tape number and audience setting and order of tapes. For Sample 2, no Ps announcement was made before either tape (Ps = .50).

Sample 3 was treated as Samples 1 and 2 with regard to tape number, audience setting, and order of tapes. Prior to each tape, Sample 3 members were told that their probability of success was low.
(Ps = .10 or hard task). Details of experimental procedures and exact instructions given to the boys are in Gordon (1971).

Troy’s hands gripped the sides of the chair; his feet swished back and forth.

“Troy, you are going to watch a television program about reading. The teacher on the program will ask you some questions. Your job is to answer the questions. It’s all right to guess the answer. She will also say, ‘Do you want to stop now?’ You answer her, either ‘yes’ or ‘no’. You may stop any time.”

Troy was a member of the sample to which no additional instructions regarding probability of success were given.

As the program began, Troy glanced at me frequently. To the teaching questions at the beginning of the tape, Troy gave only one correct response out of eight possible chances. At the end of the teaching portion, he elected to stop. He did not even begin the 10 trial sequence.

“Thank you for helping me, Troy. Now let’s go to your room and you may pick five friends to come back here with us for another program.”

Troy showed some interest in my remarks. His eyes questioned me. His thin, colorless lips smiled.

As we walked, I asked, “What do you like to do best at home, Troy?”

“Watch TV. I watched a program last night and it had a mean kid in it. He was shootin’ up all the time.”

“Did he hurt anybody?”

“Nah. I mean he was shootin’ up. You know. Junk!”

Troy selected five boys.

“Are we going to the nurse?” one boy queried as we walked back to the testing room.

“Nah. We’re gonna watch TV,” Troy announced.

He still shuffled, his hands were in his pockets, but his head was up and he watched his friends as we walked.

Troy sat in the same chair in front of the TV receiver. The five boys sat behind him in a position to view the program.

Troy was given the same instructions that preceded the first tape. Then, the audience was advised:

“You children are the audience. Your job is to listen. Do not give the answers. That’s Troy’s job.”

I started the tape. Troy was highly conscious of the boys behind him. He turned around many times and smiled at them. To the teach-
ing questions, Troy gave no correct responses out of eight possible chances. At the end of the teaching portion, he elected to do trial 1. Then he stopped.

The audience was thanked for participating and sent back to their class. Troy seemed to want to stay. We talked for a few moments and then I gave him a school notebook with his name on it.

"Thanks for helping out, Troy. I enjoyed meeting you."

I offered my hand. He accepted it. His eyes met mine and I thought there was some trust reflected.

At the end of the morning, after I had tested several boys, Troy's teacher came in. She talked about Troy's difficult behavior in class, his home problems, and late television viewing ("often to midnight"). But primarily she dwelled on his hatred for reading.

The most significant and interesting results of this study involved Troy's sample. Troy, Kirk, Victor, Joseph, Jesse, LeRoy, and Michael were the high fear of failure boys in the No Announcement sample. They exhibited minimum persistence with only myself present. They turned about and persisted the longest of any group when their peers were in the room. Some possible reasons for their behavior are suggested in Table 1, Cells 3 and 4.

Troy and other boys like him may be ready to damn reading along with Gibson and Hall (1969). However, since it seems unlikely that the ability to read will very soon be unnecessary, teachers must help children like Troy persist at the reading task.

The purpose of this article is to suggest that teachers can identify the high fear of failure boy who is having reading problems by using personal observations.

1. Does he retreat from achievement situations without even trying?
2. If he tries, does he stop rapidly when failure ensues?

Teachers may also wish to use the testing device employed in Gordon (1971).

For the boy who seems to have inordinate fear of failure, the teacher can try having him work in a group of friends with the teacher present, avoiding any reference to the ease or difficulty of his task. (See Table 1, Cell 3).

Admittedly, the foregoing suggestion is based on the results of a small study. There may be other successful ways to manipulate the environment to increase persistence, all the while reducing the number of failure experiences and searching for the proper reading method for the boy in trouble. But the fact remains that persistence at a reading
### Table 1

**High Fear of Failure Behavior**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>P-E Audience</th>
<th>E Audience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>MINIMUM PERSISTENCE</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prime fear is showing ignorance to others (W-K). Fear loss of social approval (B-B-T).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ascribe failure to lack of ability (W-K). Great shame in failing at an easy task (W-K).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resultant inertial motive is to avoid (W).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E viewed as source of punishment or withholder of reward; limits persist under these conditions (B-B-T) (K-B) (G).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>MAXIMUM PERSISTENCE</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivated by fear of being a quitter before peers, takes precedence over showing ignorance to others (G).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivated by view of E as source of punishment or withholding of reward (B-B-T) (K-B).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hope task will get easier (G). Persistence here probably socially motivated (B-B-T).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persistence predicted by (B-B-T) (B-R) (R-M) Correct for this P-E aud. only. (W-K) predicted failure leading to info. about person would deter persist. Not correct for this P-E aud.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(W) inertial motive of avoidance not operating.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>BELOW AVERAGE PERSISTENCE</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivated by fear of being a quitter before peers takes precedence over showing ignorance to others (G). Persistence here probably socially motivated (B-B-T).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivated by view of E as source of punishment or withholding of reward (B-B-T) (K-B).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shame of quitting decreases after moderate effort (G). (W) inertial motive to avoid does not operate until moderate effort expended (G).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ABOVE AVERAGE PERSISTENCE</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(B-B-T) predict FHF prefer hard task to easy task. Correct for both auds.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(At-F) predicted increasing persistence on hard task because moving away from .50. Correct for E aud. only.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(W-K) predicted low persist, on hard task because ascribe failure to lack of ability. Not correct for either aud.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*All changes in behavior between cells are significant changes with the exception of the changes between Cells 1-2, 2-4. These cells represent similar behavior. (Figure IV, 7, c)*

**Abbreviations:**

- B-B-T: Birney, Burdick, Teevan (1969)
- K-B: Kates-Barry (1970)
- H: Heckhausen (1966)
- B-R: Birney-Rolf (1965)
- At-F: Atkinson (1957) and Feather (1961)
- R-M: Raphaelson-Moulton (1958)
- G: Gordon (present work)
task was affected in this study by the interaction of the boys' conceptual system and their degree of fear of failure, their perception of the difficulty of the task; and the environment in which the task was performed.

To those who feel that matters of self-concept such as fear of failure are of little consequence in learning to read, and that "right" method is the king of keys to success, I dedicate this article. For you may have the most proper method you can find; yet, if the high fear of failure boy will not persist at his reading lessons, he will not learn to read. It is that simple. Thus, problems of self-concept may indeed be as crucial as method in learning.

Troy, Kirk, Victor, Joseph, Jesse, LeRoy, Michael, and other boys like them are all failing in reading for the second or third year. I'm anxious to get back to the classroom so that I can try to help them. Won't you help, too?

References


A new program, Let's Read, began operating at Western Michigan University in 1972. No sooner had it started than it won an award for creative programs from the Adult Education Association of Michigan. Let's Read is based upon the idea that mothers, even poor and uneducated mothers, can learn how to provide intellectual stimulation for their young children.

The impetus for Let's Read came from a group of black women who participated in a workshop for women offered by the University counseling service. These women, in addition to seeking new roles as individuals, considered how they could work cooperatively on some problem common to minority women. Knowing that black children often fail to learn to read as well as other children and suspecting that nursery school or Head Start cannot compensate entirely for an impoverished background, they conceived the idea of a reading program for pre-school and early elementary school children with the dual purpose of teaching the children and training their mothers. To teach mothers how to teach reading at home or to teach reading to pre-schoolers was not the aim. The purpose was to show mothers how to provide a variety of experiences for their children and to foster opportunities for talking, listening, and problem solving.

Some sixty children were enrolled in two sessions. Pre-school children met in the morning; kindergarten, first and second grade classes met in the evening in classes designed to supplement regular school reading instruction. Operating under a Kalamazoo Foundation grant, the program employed four teachers and two professional consultants. Mothers provided transportation, served as aides in the classes, and attended bi-weekly parent education workshops.

The program was in operation for twelve weeks. What were the strengths and weaknesses of it? The children's social progress in the pre-school class was most evident. Those who had cried for their mothers or sat on the sidelines were finally joining in, the too-good teacher-pleasers were vigorously showing a growing independence, and some aggressive children were easier to manage. Several parents commented that at home their children were singing songs and talking about things they had learned in Let's Read. Children in the evening class showed a strong preference for learning games rather than paper and pencil seat work. During the cold, wet spring the school age
children came eagerly to class; but, not surprisingly, attendance dropped sharply when the weather warmed late in May.

Throughout the twelve weeks the need for carefully thought out planning was sorely felt. Some of the teachers had never heard of Let's Read until they were hired, the day before the program started. Supplies, equipment, and the room itself were not available until the last minute, when the grant was received. Because of this, the curriculum was hastily sketched and filled in with resources on hand.

Parent involvement, of course, is the key to Let's Read. Without it, the program is merely free nursery school and tutoring. Of the mothers’ workshops there were several rewarding evenings of good exchange between mothers, consultants, and teachers. A number of meetings were poorly attended by mothers, but those mothers who were present actively cooperated with the staff.

While one of the big weaknesses was that there were not enough mothers working in the classes, several assisted regularly. They became acquainted with the children and the materials and were able to work with little direction from a teacher.

Apparently many mothers did not fully appreciate their role in Let's Read. The consensus seemed to be that it was a free program at the University for black children and that any mothers who did not have jobs or babies at home were welcome to help. One mother was reported to have said that volunteer work is for white women; if black women go to work, they should be paid. This misunderstanding had not been anticipated, and it came as a surprise. After all, black women had planned the program for black women. However, the women who organized Let's Read were in most cases not the same women who sent their children to the classes, their children were older, generally. The idea that Let's Read is a means of training mothers to enrich their homes was not effectively communicated to the mothers of children enrolled.

In planning for fall, the first consideration was to arrange time for the present teachers to write a basic curriculum for next year’s teachers to expand. Because some of the teachers were undecided about remaining in the program, qualifications of possible replacements were discussed. That some of the teachers should be black was agreed, but it was decided that one white teacher per class could be helpful because the children will be likely to have white teachers in school. Presumably the black teachers would understand the children’s speech and mores best, while the white teacher could provide a bridge from black neighborhoods to integrated public schools, but it was of para-
mount importance that the teachers be able to work well together.

To convince the parents of their importance in Let’s Read, two registration and orientation meetings will be held before the children begin classes. At that time mothers will be scheduled to work in classes every three or four weeks, and fathers will be encouraged to participate in the woodworking and the field trips. Knowing how many and which parents are working on a given day will enable the teachers to plan a variety of activities to suit the levels and interests of the children. Variety is particularly important since there is a three year age span in each class.

If necessary, baby sitting cooperation will be organized so that mothers with small children at home are free to come. Those parents whose working hours make it impossible for them to help in classes will be required to attend all the parent workshops in order to maintain their children’s eligibility.

One can foresee having to decide whether or not to drop a child from Let’s Read because his parent is not participating. Failure to enforce the policy will very likely result in a repeat of last spring’s half-hearted parent cooperation, yet the thought of barring a child from what may well be his only pre-school education or badly needed tutoring is unhappy indeed. A youngster whose mother cannot or will not take advantage of the training offered probably needs the most help.

Perhaps Let’s Read ought to take a hint from television advertising and use the children to get the parents’ cooperation. If children can be stimulated to pester their mothers to buy toys and sugar-coated breakfast foods, maybe the same techniques can be used to sell parent education.
THE PLAY'S THE THING: A DRAMATIC APPROACH TO READING

Harvey Frommer
NEW YORK CITY COMMUNITY COLLEGE

Too often educators and students alike content themselves with the more convenient aspects of reading drama: analysis of thought, dissection of structure and plot, information about a playwright’s life and times, discussion of characterization, performance of segments of a play. Language—sometimes soaring, sometimes vulgar, poignant, distressing, philosophical, or witty—gets short shrift in this type of drama study.

A focus on the language of a play can be rewarding as a teaching technique and enriching as a reading comprehension and aesthetic experience. All of us have come across language that has intrigued us. The drama teacher, who is a reading instructor at the same time, can tap this built-in interest by having students analyze and categorize selected language gems from plays. The following categories may function as a starter kit.

*symbolic*: chosen because of the clever or significant use of an old symbol or the creation of a new one.

*characterization*: chosen because the passage gives fuller development to a character; thus enabling the reader to comprehend more clearly the nature of the characterization.

*philosophical*: chosen because of some reinforcement of a timeless thought or of a relevant or timely concept.

*poetical*: chosen because of the imagery, the music, the appeal to the senses, the beauty of the words.

*humorous*: chosen because it provides a laugh. Some analysis of the language should be made as to the type of humor exhibited (satirical, farcical, absurd, etc.).

The following selections from plays studied in my class have been effectively used for analysis into the suggested categories. As a result, language appreciation has been sharpened.

“It’s dat ole devil sea . . .”
Anna Christie, Eugene O’Neill

“I’ll dry your tears, though I can’t say why . . .”
*Lysistrata*, Aristophanes
"No man is good enough to be another man's master."

Major Barbara, George Bernard Shaw

“We cross our bridges when we come to them and burn them behind us, with nothing to show for our progress except a memory of the smell of the smoke, and a presumption that once our eyes watered...”

Rosencrantz & Guildenstern Are Dead, Tom Stoppard

“...down through the ages, the mollusk, the fish, the mammal, man. And all so that you might sit in the gallery of a coal mine and operate the super-adding machine with the great toe of your right foot.”

The Adding Machine, Elmer Rice

Another technique particularly effective in developing language appreciation and reading comprehension skills is a concern with the playwright’s stage directions. For some, these stage directions serve the same function as a commercial for the television viewer. They are avoided or half looked at. And yet, like the commercial, they are often of high artistic merit, as this sample from Tennessee Williams’ The Glass Menagerie reveals:

The Wingfield apartment is in the rear of the building, one of the vast hivelike conglomerations of the cellular living units that flower as warty growths in overcrowded urban centers of lower-middle-class population and are symptomatic of the impulse of this largest and fundamentally enslaved section of American society to avoid fluidity and differentiation and to exist and function as one interfused mass of automation.

The entire host of reading comprehension questions usually culled from dull and esoteric and irrelevant tomes can be trained on such a section of poetical prose. Training in reading for tone and for attitude, for main thoughts and supporting details, for prediction, for conclusions, for vocabulary in context—all these can easily be done.

Thus the reader of drama discovers that “the play’s the thing,” and that its concern with language is a means towards enjoyment of the reading experience—and a pleasurable defense against the banal print experiences that have impoverished so many reading activities.
ECHOES FROM THE FIELD

Joe R. Chapel

The Tenth Annual Study Conference of the United Kingdom Reading Association was held at Totley-Thornbridge College of Education the week of July 30 to August 3. Of the 225 participants, 42 were from the United States, including Dorothy E. Smith, editor of the Round Robin section of *Reading Horizons*. Three people came from Sweden, two from Australia, one from New Zealand, and one from Ghana.

The program included topics related to all levels of the teaching of reading from pre-school to post-secondary level. Members attended sessions in pre- and first school, middle school, and secondary school in order to further their knowledge of the road from pre-school life and language experience to the study skills of the effective adult reader.

The speakers were people of acknowledged expertise in the teaching of reading and were drawn from around the world.
MESSAGE FROM THE PRESIDENT OF
THE HOMER L. J. CARTER READING
COUNCIL

Dear Council Members and Friends:

As another school year approaches, it is my privilege to invite your continued support and active participation in Council programs and activities. Our program for the year follows the theme of the International Reading Association: THE TEACHER: KEY TO EXCELLENCE IN READING. The program chairman, Mrs. Betty L. Hagberg, is to be commended for the caliber of speakers she has procured for your education and pleasure. Since our association encourages the study of reading problems and the factors that influence reading, it would appear that these purposes will be satisfied in a stimulating way.

Your executive board joins me in urging each of you who is not at present a member to support us through active membership in the Council this year. A complete program appears elsewhere in this issue of Reading Horizons. As the programs are designed to appeal to all levels—elementary through college, won't you mark your calendars now with plans to join us and share in the good fellowship and professional enrichment?

Yours truly,
Fran M. Baden
DID YOU SEE?

Betty L. Hagberg

Did You See “IRA Reports on The Right To Read Effort”? This special report on the National Right to Read effort was published in May, 1973, for IRA members and others interested in this important program. The Right To Read effort was established in 1970 by the late Dr. James E. Allen, Jr., who was then U.S. Commissioner of Education. The program was designed as a coordinated endeavor to work toward one common goal—to ensure that by 1980 ninety-nine percent of all people under 16 years of age in the U.S. and ninety percent of all those over 16 will possess and use literacy skills. This program gained impetus under the administration of Dr. Sidney P. Marland, Jr., who is now Secretary for Education. This report as well as future bulletins on the Right To Read may be obtained from the International Reading Association, Dept. JBI, Six Tyre Avenue, Newark, Delaware, 19711.

Did You See that the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges maintains a Career Staffing Center for its member institutions and those individuals who would like to be considered for staff positions at more than 900 member colleges? Write for details to AACJC Career Staffing Center, P.O. Box 298, Alexandria, Virginia, 22314.

Did You See the list of the Right To Read exemplary programs throughout the U.S. by the I.R.A.? The inventory contains the name and address of the person qualified to describe each Right To Read project and provides a title for a presentation which this person might give about the program. This list may also be obtained by writing IRA, Six Tyre Avenue, Newark, Delaware, 19711.
The humanness of life depends above all on the quality of man's relationships to the rest of creation—to the winds and the stars, to the flowers and the beasts, to smiling and weeping humanity.1

The authors of Reading Is Only the Tiger's Tail are optimistic humanists who constantly evidence faith in children's ability to learn, and who hold deep respect for the charm and dignity of children as human individuals in their own right. The two writers of this book about learning to read believe that children demand more than entertainment from reading: “They want to feel secure—to feel that they are a part of humanity”; they respond to “inner pacings”; they react to good literature, using their perceptions “as mosaic tiles in developing patterns for understanding humanity.” In writing about their experiences with their RIOTT* reading program, the McCrackens support and manifest their optimistic faith. This approach to the teaching of reading is grounded in the understanding that perception emerges from meaning; that meaning for reading really comes from within the reader; that, essentially, reading is a human act. Consequently, motivations, attitudes, feelings, interpretations, responses, and applications are the emphases in instruction and practice.

The all-important motivational aspects of attitudes and feeling are given prime-time consideration in the RIOTT program. First, children learn to love books and stories. Comprehension is deliberately emphasized as a concomitant component of any, or all, of the aspects of learning to communicate. Word recognition and vocabulary development proceed simultaneously with the development of concepts; these then become “the raw material for the beginnings of reading and writing.”

It is the experience of these authors that the most natural way for children to learn awareness of sounds of the English language is

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* A name made by combining the beginning letters of title words of the book.
through *encoding*. This means learning how to listen to speech and how to write the sounds they hear, and the wish to use these skills to express their thoughts. Writing is taught as an integral part of the thinking-communicating process—as humanistic, rather than mechanistic, in nature.

Thinking and communicating skills are developed in various ways. Chapters II and IV give detailed suggestions and instructions for stimulating pupil willingness to express thoughts and feelings openly, and eliciting full, thoughtful responses. Creative art and dramatics are also regarded as valid, valuable media for fostering thinking skills. Independent writing and sustained silent reading are vital parts of the daily program. Interesting ways to promote individual authorship are discussed. Many samples of children’s stories, books, and illustrations are cited and reproduced to substantiate the authors’ faith that their program opens new doors of learning for children, that when teachers live and work in these ways children will have the freedom to learn—and they *will* learn.

In the concluding chapter Robert and Marlene McCracken discuss factors that affect the success of the RIOTT program. They recognize that some factors affecting any learning program are beyond the teacher’s control; other important factors can be controlled, either partially, or completely, by teachers. Here they are concerned with contributing factors like timing, and developmental expectations; attitudes of teachers, and “labeling” of learners; attention spans and interests of pupils; the “theme” approach to learning and use of materials; and the high potential offered by open education. They view classroom openness as three-dimensional and hierarchial in pattern: educational openness must come first, followed by environmental openness, followed by behavioral openness. “Teachers who move first toward educational openness have a high possibility of success. Those who begin with environmental openness only invite difficulty, and those who begin with behavioral openness court disaster. Environmental openness and behavioral openness must grow from educational openness, which simultaneously allows freedom and teaches responsibility.”

To cultivate high quality experiences for children through mind-to-mind interaction; to observe and assess children’s learning behaviors with genuine concern for meeting their personal needs; to move toward humanistic, truly open education which gives rise to autonomous, creative intercourse among teachers and learners, and the intercourse of these persons with their environments—these are the larger chal-
lenges for teachers in the RIOTT program. The rich realization for both teachers and learners resembles Illich’s conditions for “conviviality”: “individual freedom realized in personal interdependence and, as such, an intrinsic ethical value.”2 It brings within the realm of possibility the tapping of “the one resource that is almost equally distributed among all people: personal energy under personal control.”3

3 Ibid., pp. 11 and 12.
Teachers usually find that students become enthusiastic and energetic when they are discovering new things for themselves. This article points up some possibilities in teaching students to become "detectives," investigating the age and origin of words and phrases used in American simile and metaphor. An end result is sure to be a heightened feeling for literary style, with an increased appreciation for creative writing a possible "spinoff." Students may also gain a clearer picture of the cultural settings from which these figures of speech are derived.

One of the interesting characteristics of our language in print is the use of comparisons to increase vividness in description. Since the beginning of English in Anglo-Saxon stories and poems, the creative leaning of the writer has always been to use a word from another world or field of endeavor to add to the picture presented. Since Anglo-Saxon as a language contained only about one-tenth of the words we have in English today, it was necessary to borrow and improvise in order to keep the imagery high. One area in which men have continuously used metaphor has been in describing their own exploits; they have always borrowed the qualities of wild beasts to tell about themselves. Primitive tribesmen called themselves the fox for its cunning, running deer for agility, or the cat for stealth. Needless to say, the practice has not diminished, even in this age of automation and electronic magic. News commentators and sports broadcasters who wish to be creative regularly employ such names of wild animals—we know more about a person because he is called Hawkeye, a player because he’s known as Bear, or a coach because his players call him Moose.

We can observe the changes of our culture in the ways that many figures of speech move into and out of our popular magazines. Nowhere is the practice more readily recognized than in the work of
writers who are or have been regularly syndicated columnists, whose
commentary on the world can be found in newspapers and news arti-
cles. One writer, for example, seems to have a penchant for using
gambling terms, and grinds out such phrases as high stakes, the show-
down, ace in the hole, a four-flusher, blue chip—all the while writing
about some matter far removed from the area of poker. Another
example: When golf became popular again after the Great Depression,
readers were educated to the implications of teeing off on an enterprise,
when the optimum standard was par for the course, and a good busi-
ness deal was a birdie.

Probably the original similes were used among tribes which had
only vague references to time, distance, and other such units of meas-
urement. Their standards were elemental; the strength of a great
oak, the height of the mountain, as far as the stars, as firm as a rock.
One can see that good stories are difficult to tell unless the pictures
are made vivid, and exactness of measurement would only hinder the
story teller.

When the American nation was a farming culture and the bulk of
our population lived in small rural towns, all writers of short stories
and news commentary felt perfectly safe in using literary devices which
made reference to agricultural pursuits. Even today our language is
replete with phrases that originated on the farm, although we are find-
ing fewer and fewer readers who have the experiential background to
appreciate them. As stubborn as a mule, a sheepish look, possessing
horse-sense, a dog’s life, to cow one’s enemy, to wolf one’s food, to
weasel out of a situation, and eating high on the hog are references to
a life style most Americans have not known in a hundred years. How-
ever, we may still find such sentences in the news as “He went on the
stump in his county,” or “He had a rough row to hoe,” though no
one makes speeches from stumps and few people even know what a
hoe looks like.

With the growth of industrialization and machine power, a great
new supply of words and terms were offered to our language of
imagery. Although we are witnessing some atrophy in this decade,
the railroad terms will continue to be used as similes and metaphors
by commentators and writers until children will begin to ask “What
was a train?” We employ the word railroad as a verb, and apply it in
another context—to railroad a bill through Congress. Everyone today
recognizes the picture of a person building up a head of steam, under-
stands his confidante who just had to blow off a little steam, and
draws the proper inference when someone says “I’m a cog in the
company." The use of meshing gears in committee or group dynamics is still in vogue, and we may read phrases like using a little oil and pour on the coal in *Time* or *Newsweek*. There were whole decades, during the period of our history when factories were run from the flywheel and pulley principle, when moral lessons were drawn from industrial metaphors—the stamina of the engine ("I Think I Can"), the awesome drive of the big steam piston, and the seeming relentlessness of the machinery.

Now we have come to the age of more daytime leisure for more people, and terms from various sports have become regular parts of our conversation and familiar essays. Of course, fighting, which became refined as boxing many years ago, has given us terms which sportswriters spread through the medium with alacrity. In business, in education, in the ministry—we may borrow in-fighting, footwork, throw in the towel, first round, kayoed, punchy—to use in writing about fields remote from boxing. In the same way, many of the terms originally attached to the game of baseball became figures of speech to use in all other pursuits, simply because it was American and everyone understood the values. A lawyer says he wants to touch all the bases with his client, a salesman says he struck out, a politician fields questions from the audience, and the words umpire, foul-ball, and shortstop are used in areas as different as labor relations and romance.

In the past twenty years we have watched the growth and addiction of the reading public for terms originating in collegiate and professional football. Business and political reports and descriptions contain many such phrases as campaign kickoff, sales efforts resulted in a touchdown, the president's game-plan, to quarterback a meeting, run with the ball, to run interference for, to intercept. The terms are no longer considered esoteric and are to be seen in formal statements by office holders in positions of great responsibility.

Thus, it would be possible for a student committee or any group of word "detectives" to spend a little time with the Oxford English Dictionary and produce some highly interesting sidelights on our extreme dynamic language. Suppose we take one example of what might be done in this regard. If we focus our attention on a single era of literary reference, the sailing vessel period of our history, we are sure to turn up some terms which are used in a different context today. Most of the phrases and words, rich heirlooms from the earliest development of communication, are now lost to our use, at least on land. Most of the sailing vessel words came over before the Mayflower, and
applied realistically to the tools and the way of life of that time. Yet, some remain to enhance our land-locked language today.

First, we hear “welcome aboard!”—a greeting reserved for a new employee in a dry land company. *Board* meant simply the edge-board on a ship, but we can *board* a plane, refer to something gone *by-the-board* (meaning lost forever), or say an object or person is *overboard*—which may mean lost or even fired by the company. The only reference to a shipwreck used in a land sense is *on the rocks*, which may happen to a business or a marriage.

How completely concepts of terms may change can be seen in the word *landlubber*. Originally from Scandinavia, it was the ultimate in insults; to call a sailor a landlubber was to say he was a fat, clumsy, idle, worthless, ugly oaf. Today it is not uncommon to hear a person refer to himself as a landlubber!

About two-thirds of the sea-going terms assumed their present form in English after previous use in Norse and Dutch. The *helm*, for instance, was *hjalm* in Old Norse, and meant a raised platform at the back of the Viking boat where a sailor handled the rudder. Men who are *at the helm* of large industries today do not see themselves as standing behind the crew. Later mechanical progress did locate the helm amidships, however.

We speak of things going along *on a steady keel*, but do not think about the nautical application. The counterpart on land is *foundation*, since the Norse word (kil) *keel* was the timber on which the whole framework of the ship was built. We find the word used in Old English as far back as the year 1000, with corresponding forms in other languages that predated English.

In the same way, all seafaring nations had a word for the concept of *buoy*, a floating marker fettered to a spot where a submerged hazard lay. *Boie*, from Dutch, gave us our present word. The idea of floating symbols for navigation came to land use very early. We find forms like *buoyancy*, *buoyed up by the news* as part of the expanded meaning today. Another word which grew in scope of meaning after it came to land use is *ballast*. From Danish and Swedish, it first meant loading a ship for the sake of weight alone. The idea so appealed to writers of creative material that *ballast* came to have the figurative use as a burden or weight which gives stability to one’s morals. Bacon used it in 1612: “Solid and sober nature, more of *ballast* than sail.”

In certain cases of sailing terms, we can trace the change in concept as the words were brought on shore. *Cargo* was the shipping assignment or *charge*, the reason for sailing, so to speak. Now it is the
weight or material being carried. Anchor was a heavy bent piece of metal (compare “angle”) lowered to hold the vessel from drifting away. On land, men began to use the word as a verb—to anchor the corners, and then as an adjective—the anchor-man. Much more refined today, anchors are a decorative symbol; however, they began most simply as curved or bent pieces of metal, which may also have been the origin of the phrase “by hook or crook.”

Scuttle, as used on land today, usually means to wreck previous plans or an existing structure. Once a noun only, it referred to an opening through which a man could crawl to get below. Apparently, it became a verb in time of war, when orders were given to open holes in the sides or bottom of a ship to sink her. Because sinking a vessel was of such grave consequence, scuttle has always carried a connotation of finality.

Not so in the case of the word scuttlebutt. It has come to mean, in all branches of the military as well as other places, the rumors of what may happen. Scuttlebutt included everything from idle gossip to genuine intelligence concerning the potential and possible. Until a century ago, scuttlebutt referred to the huge cask (butt) of fresh water which stood on the deck, and around which sailors would gather to wait for their ration to be given. We can easily surmise that passing the time with idle rumor and tales until the opening of the cask (scuttle the butt) gave the term its name and reputation.

Some words are used with equal land and sea reference. Skipper, for example, is simply a Dutch word for the master of the ship. Beam, the cross member in the construction of a sailing vessel, had its first use on land. Coming from the Dutch also, it meant timber, or tree, or straight trunk. In land use, beams are made of wood or metal, and no distinction in direction is made. The beam of the sailing vessel was its width.

The word barge began with dignity, meaning an open boat which carried only high ranking persons. Then barges began carrying coal and pig iron, and the word went downhill. To barge into a conversation today means a clumsy or tactless entry.

A few nautical phrases from the old days are used on land by persons who have little idea of original meaning, but a vague sense of context. Before an argument (squall?) or some emotional confrontation, someone may say “Batten down the hatches,” meaning prepare for trouble. Specifically, the order meant to wedge down the covers over the openings (hatches) in the deck. “Sailing under false colors” is another such phrase, one may use without thinking of sailing at all.
High school students who find adventure in the exercise of tracking down words used and changed social contexts in literature may decide to try another area of pursuits and activities. Teachers might encourage students to be watchful for figures of speech that come from the world of chess, or horse racing, or a kind of work that is limited in scope. Where, for a starter, does the term *traffic-jam* originate? To what does *True Grit* refer? Where does “Strike while the iron is hot” come from? And “Not on your tintype”? Usually, the teacher who listens to his students carefully can sense the right time to broach the whole topic. There is a great deal of ferment in the language right now, and many terms are being tried by the younger set. A few will stay. Perhaps the conversation could begin there—what, of the space and computer terms being injected into our language in other contexts, will remain to become part of our figures of speech? *Countdown, in orbit, programmed*—surely the reader thinks of others—are used in ways far removed from machines. Only the surface needs to be touched for this activity to become a valuable part of class discussion.
This summer The United Kingdom Reading Association held its Tenth Annual Study Conference at Totley-Thornbridge College of Education, in Totley, Sheffield, England. As you can imagine, this was an exciting experience, and one which reinforced the adage; “the more we are different, the more we stay the same.” We have a real kinship, those of us in the reading field.

Along with making new friends and gaining some new ideas your editor also came away with the following treasure trove of eminently quotable “quotes.”

Reading is a psycho-linguistic guessing game.

Marshall McLuhan is only right some of the time when he says that reading is linear and sequential.

Transfer of learning is the cash-in value you should expect of your study time.

Anthony Pugh
212 West End Lane
Hersforth, Leeds
University of Leeds

We studied reading patterns of college students, using a Reading Recorder. This recorder produces a graph record as the student reads from a text. The record shows pauses, changes in reading rate, and the points where a student refers backwards and forwards in the text. It also shows where the student takes notes.
We found that there were three different typical reading patterns.

1. Smooth reading

\[
\begin{array}{c}
T \\
I \\
M \\
E \\
TEXT
\end{array}
\]

2. Item reading; for small details

\[
\begin{array}{c}
T \\
I \\
M \\
E \\
TEXT
\end{array}
\]

3. "Gestalt" reading; getting meaning from the whole.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
T \\
I \\
M \\
E \\
TEXT
\end{array}
\]

Results of our study indicate that the most successful readers used the third pattern; that reading to summarize makes one most able to take essay type and objective tests.

Nicholas Farnes
Brunel University
Kingston Lane
Uxbridge
Middlesex
England

When you change your habits of reading (or really, habits of any kind) you immediately get worse, and so the tendency is to jump back into the old habits.

Dr. L. F. Thomas
Director of the Center for the Study of Human Learning
Brunel University
We have given the name “Twilight Children” to those who have emerged from the night of illiteracy, but who have not yet begun to enter the full light of total reading efficiency.

Michael Page & Frank Spooncer
Stockwell College of Education
England
The purpose of reading is to obtain meaning as one seeks to secure enjoyment and to acquire information from written language. —Carter and McGinnis


Through an informal survey of IRA leaders and readers, Reading Teacher has been attempting in a four-part series to trace the origins of reading interest. How has reading attracted so many willing workers to its ranks? Responses reported in last month’s Reading Teacher seemed to indicate a combination of factors is responsible, including (1) the desire to help others, both students and teachers; (2) the challenge of the problems in reading which remain unsolved; (3) the growth and progress of the reading field; (4) the motivating leadership of an outstanding teacher.


The purpose of the three-year study was to investigate the predictive validity and the general usability in a school setting of a battery of ten tests reported to be predictors of reading failure by de Hirsch, Jansky, and Langford. There is a need for further study because: (1) The subjects in the study did not represent the range of mental ability found in most kindergarten classes; (2) The battery was administered in a clinical setting which might produce results different from those which could be obtained in a more typical school setting; (3) Although the authors reported their study to be “preliminary in nature” their battery has been cited in professional literature dealing with the prevention and correction of reading disability.

According to the author, the printed word is obviously a phonetic code for our auditory-vocal language. The process of coding and decoding involves many forms of psycholinguistic memory functions, each functioning both separately and integratively. At their best, reading and writing should become fully automatic functions which free us to concentrate on the auditory-vocal language which itself is only a communicative vehicle for measuring thoughts and feelings. The sooner children can forget coding and decoding because they have become habitual functions the better.


In this paper the author explored some of the underlying assumptions for the preparation of reading specialists and their role at the public school level. Several areas were examined: (1) Current practices in preparing various levels of reading specialists; (2) The assumptions on which reading specialists operate within the school system; (3) The relationship of "reading establishment" to the concept of reading specialists; and (4) Suggested alternatives to the present system of preparing trained personnel.


Informal classroom testing allows the teacher to observe each child's performance in a variety of situations. The teacher must devise questions that utilize an application of various skills rather than a mere drill of the rules. During the testing, both visual and auditory modality must be clearly differentiated in order to obtain an accurate picture of his performance.


The application of operant concepts to the process of learning to read is discussed in this article. Particular attention is
given to the definition and implication of this major operant concept of stimulus control and reinforcement contingencies in relation to reading behavior.


Some educators look at reading failure as the child’s failure. This way of thinking explains our current involvement with individual diagnosis of the child’s learning needs and prescription of specific materials, activities and instructional settings. However, the authors state it would seem to be more productive to examine first the instructional program as a basic source of reading failure before attempting to diagnose and prescribe for deficits in the individual child.


The findings of this study give little or no support to the notion that the Revised Edition of the ITPA measures ten distinct and separate psycholinguistic abilities as delineated by the twelve subtests in the battery. Evidence gives no support for the use of specific programs for remediation of representational and automatic functions and skills individually.


The author suggests that these proposals be considered:
(1) Work toward decreasing the emphasis on formal teaching of reading until the chronological age of ten or eleven;
(2) Insist that schooling consist of a multimedia approach—at all levels;
(3) Stress approaches which emphasize reading in relation to comprehension, thinking, and interest rather than the rote learning of words and word attack skills;
(4) Pay more attention to the political aspects of decision making in regard to reading and reading programs.

Educational testing in the 1970's has been dominated by the traditional psychometric approach with its accent upon individual differences. The Edumetric approach of the 1980's refers to the measurement of progressive intrapersonal gains of high relevance to education. It measures an individual student's mastery of a minimum set of skills or knowledge.


The author recommended a coordinated phonics and story listening approach to beginning reading with worthwhile reading material.


The author presented seven points: (1) Since elementary schools are sending us better readers, we must focus at secondary levels on study skills and higher thought processes; (2) Elective courses and modular scheduling are frameworks within which we can develop mature reading and study skills; (3) We must rekindle interest in books; (4) We must avoid two extremes—either lack of development of skills in a laissez faire atmosphere or the overemphasis of mechanistic approaches to reading; (5) Staff development should be allowed within the school day; (6) We must review the role of the reading coordinator contracting to meet restricted budgets, expanding into “staff development leaders” and “learning consultants” when possible; (7) In an era when open education may lead to excesses, we must risk the unpopular role of guardian of the middle way.


The National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP)
involves all fifty states and is the most extensive assessment project ever initiated. Reading results have been summarized for all areas of reading except reading rate. Reports have used two different organizational schemes. The first is a report by theme, and the second is a report by objectives. The reading themes are groups of exercises divided primarily by kinds of thoughtful types of reading materials and secondly by behaviors called for by various types of materials.


This paper summarizes the work of those seeking to analyze orthography and the experimental, historical, and cross-national data which bear on the behavioral effects of writing system characteristics. English writing is shown to involve a blend, thought to be optimal, of two levels of representation. One level is sound-related and forms the basis of work-attack skills. Another, deeper level of representation, is meaning-related, and is the basis for greater reading speed.


The nature of the comprehension task determines the method for solving it. Since no two comprehension tasks are identical, the methods of solution differ. For this reason a task analysis approach to the teaching of comprehension is appropriate. Rather than teaching specific comprehension skills in a vacuum, as is often the case, a more realistic practice involves analysis of particular comprehension tasks as a means to solution. As students grow in ability to analyze and solve comprehension problems, their ability to use the necessary comprehension skills develops concomitantly.


Otto and Chester propose a "Great Atlantic and Pacific
Sight Word List" of 500 words. This article points out a number of weaknesses in this list. The authors presented core word lists for first graders. These lists can be used in sequence or as a total list for children reading beyond first grade level.


In this article, Henderson recommended that teaching comprises many styles of leadership including autocratic, democratic, and laissez faire. The "democratic" or small group interaction design of pupil management is highlighted in this article. Open classroom organization, teacher-centered classes, as well as small group interaction designs are all necessary for effective teaching.


The author presented an overview of current issues and answers in the area of evaluation, with an eye toward further progress in the '70's. Approaches to measurement center mainly along two lines: (1) Development of measuring instruments designed to implement a concept of reading development as a continuous process in which individual differences in readiness, expectations, and needs are recognized and differences in rates of progress are maximized; (2) Development of measuring instruments designed to define specific, common, immediate behavioral objectives, to monitor the effectiveness of procedures designed to attain the objectives and to determine when the objectives have been mastered and when the pupil is ready for the next step in the instructional sequence.


There is a need for research on influence of Black dialect on youngsters beginning school. Studies investigating the speech of Black head start and grade school children indicate that they
do speak a different dialect. However, the influence of programs and teachers using Black dialect with Black youngsters beginning school needs to be investigated further.

Huus, Helen, "A Total Program of Reading for Children," *The Quest For Competency in Teaching Reading* (Howard A. Klein, editor), International Reading Association, Newark, 1972, pp. 57-66.

The total program of reading described in this paper referred to everything the school does to promote the growth of pupils in and through reading, that is, to improve the reading skills and the use of reading whether the actual reading is done in school or out. The total program is composed of five prongs: (1) Learning to read; (2) Using reading on other school subjects; (3) Reading outside of school; (4) Reading for enjoyment, and (5) Upgrading one's own reading.


Let's throw out "reading" and "reading levels" and "reading exercises." Let's talk instead about degree of comprehension or some such term that will force us as teachers to use every bit of experience that a child has with the printed page. The author looks on reading as only one way of learning—giving speaking, touching, smelling, and tasting their proper place in the learning situation we create. He considers a child's experience and motivation and sets purposes for him. He states that if the right questions are asked, teachers will realize that, with word recognition skills, any child can read any book successfully.


The author views task analysis through the dimension of cognition, process, and affect. This article attempted to explain about the processing dimension of task analysis. Any task is composed of three major sets of processing demands: input, association, and output. In summary, the ability to analyze the informational processing demands of tasks we present to students allows us to systematically detect trends of weakness or strengths in their abilities to meet our demands. The rapid
acquisition of this type of information then allows us to generate alternative approaches to instructional problems.


Project personnel, according to the authors, are convinced after one year's experience, that reading improvement can be facilitated if secondary school students are freed for a period of time from the pressures of meeting content area reading assignments. The presentation of content material through multisensory learning activities is vital to such reading success.


Since English and Hebrew require contrasting directionality, the purpose of this study was: (1) To determine, by the use of eye movement photography, the scanning patterns in reading from right-to-left in Hebrew as compared to the scanning patterns in reading from left-to-right in English with children who were receiving daily dual instruction in both of these languages; (2) To determine whether or not a significant difference existed, and to attempt to analyze the reasons for any differences in the efficiency of reading Hebrew as compared to reading English.

Macdonald, James B., "Reading in an Electronic Media Age," *Social Perspectives in Reading*, International Reading Association, Newark, Perspectives in Reading, No. 17, 1973, pp. 23-29.

The author emphasized that electronic media are in their infancy. It is not known what will develop. It is only known the general directions the media will take. It seems justifiable to suggest that the need for print and reading, now under heavy attack as major sources of information, will diminish even more as newer media developments emerge.

The advantage of using norms over raw scores is that norms help provide a more consistent interpretation of achievement from one test to another as well as from one situation to another. Publishers’ norms should be viewed as indicating the typical performance of students in the reference groups in which the test was standardized. As such, these norms should never be considered as desired standards of achievement. Further, the interpretation of test results based on such norms will be useful and valid only insofar as the norms are up-to-date and appropriate for making decisions about the students being tested.


Informal Reading Inventories are valid. Informal Reading Inventories should be used by every teacher. Informal Reading Inventories require that a teacher know children and know how to teach reading and language. From a professional teacher we should demand this competence minimally and accept nothing less.


The author in this article dealt with components in a reading program for the intermediate grades. They are materials we use, background differences, and reading matter and reading process.


Some tests are tests of typical performances, others are tests of maximum performance. Interests, attitudes, and personality are included in the former category. Maximum performance tests can be divided into diagnostic, norm referenced (NR), and criterion referenced (CR) tests. Although test experts do not agree on a single definition of CR tests, all variants have in
common their emphasis, in interpretation, on what a child can do relative to the subject.

Molnar, Alex, "Reading and Values," *Social Perspectives on Reading* (James B. Macdonald, editor) International Reading Association, Newark, Perspectives in Reading, No. 17, 1973, pp. 62-74.

Educators concerned with the teaching of reading and educators in general can no longer ignore the values they are promoting by their vision of what schools are for and the content and organization of the instructional materials they use. The author writes it is our responsibility to determine and clearly state what it is we stand for and how we shall pursue our vision.


The working relationship and mutual respect between parents and professionals frequently break down over the issues of permitting the parent to read the professional's written report about the child. The parent's obligation to understand and then to support is present from the start of any problem. The professional's obligation to inform the parent, carefully, thoroughly, with every tool at hand, is there from the start too.


A different approach was initiated in the State of Connecticut in 1970 in an effort to (1) Build better reading habits and attitudes among children; (2) Put ESEA Title II funds more directly into the hands of teachers who would be using the materials these funds would purchase; and (3) Stimulate these teachers to make more intensive and creative use of the funds.


The greatest stumbling block of all is the "dangling" in-
volved in most criterion referenced systems about the teacher's use of the results of skill testing. Instructions with a number of tests on the market make few comments on how to incorporate realistically useful profiles into the everyday life of the school.


Robinson, in this article, asked for an interdisciplinary approach to develop knowledge of reading processes. If we are truly concerned with assessing the learner's ability to cope with written language, the only important "product" is process. To help individuals in school and those about to enter, information about the process or processes of reading is needed in relation to: (1) The changing nature of the learner (social backgrounds, dialects and language flexibility, group and individual experiences, personalities); (2) The material to be read (newness to the learner, complexity, styles of writing); (3) Purposes for reading (overview, specific information, follow author's thinking, enjoy the story).


This paper, according to the author, is not really about reading, nor is it about bureaucracies. It is about how individuals adapt to a bureaucratic structure and about what happens to the teaching and learning of reading because of the selected adaptation. Basic assumptions are discussed.


What implications are evident for teachers and administrators in early childhood education? (1) Reading readiness test authors disagree as to what constitutes reading readiness skills; (2) Personnel who instruct young beginning readers
must realize that reading readiness tests measure a limited number of readiness skills; (3) While this paper investigated the specific content and format of five popular reading readiness batteries there is almost no evidence that the increased teaching of these skills will ensure success in learning to read.


Spelling programs need to be reevaluated particularly if they are formal, prescribed, or contain lists of words to be memorized and tested. A program for the teaching of spelling must have proficiency in standard spelling as its primary goal. It should also develop the children’s ability to find the accurate spelling of a word when they need it. Such a program is effective if children can easily and almost automatically spell what they want to write, and detect when something is not spelled correctly.


The author critically analyzes explanations of reading difficulty and research methods used to investigate reading difficulty. The author also reviews literature on the components of associational learning and suggests an approach to the study of success and failure in learning to read which overcomes some of the short-comings of earlier designs.


The use of the dictionary as a word attack skill can be beneficial to the reader who is approaching independence, as well as the already independent reader. If the independent reader can master these seven steps, as prescribed by the author, the dictionary will become a useful tool for him and will lead to better and more meaningful reading.

Serio, Martha, “Readiness Training: Myth or Reality in This Space
Jettisoning into the space of reading requires more complicated maneuvers than mere polishing of behavior. The child must be provided with the vehicle and the fuel of readiness which is progressive, on-going, and realistic at each step of learning. The teacher must provide quality input for the child in order to gain maximum output power from the child. The educator must plan simulated training that will synergize all systems for the flight into reality. Once this mission is accomplished for the first step on the unknown planet of reading, we can plan for the child to walk on his planet with all systems in go-position.


The use of advertisements described in this article follows this pattern: (1) Questions are asked to evoke the message of the advertisement; (2) The process by which the answer is arrived at is focused upon; (3) The process is labeled; (4) The labeled skill is related to reading and illustrated in reading material; (5) The reading skill is reinforced with practice exercises; (6) The skill is practiced with college level reading material.


The author instituted the summer program described here, applying a Point Reinforcer System technique to potential language disability students at first grade level. He found that the token reinforcement system employed was capable of maintaining the work behavior of these difficult children for a long period of time. Moreover, during this time period when reinforcement was cut by 25 percent, rate of reading increased although SRA material became more difficult.

Beginning Reading (Robert C. Aukerman, editor) International Reading Association, Newark, 1972, pp. 20-30.

This article provides some specific answers in the form of developmental readiness strategies. In summary, the author said that the children in the kindergarten who were being taught in a structured, sequential program with appropriate materials achieved significantly more reading readiness skills than the children in the regular kindergarten curricula.


This report concerns observations and hypotheses regarding what Downing calls the less obvious or "invisible" cognitive aspects of learning to read. The operational part of the method was first to examine the actual events of failure, then to design apparatus which might serve to dissipate the learner's confusion. Insofar as this was successful, it either confirmed a hypothesis in course of formulation or provided data from which in due time new insights could be gained.


The studies reported in this bibliography are summarized more fully than in earlier bibliographies previously reported. The author included some new and important developments.


A worthy addition to the traditional 3 R's in reading—that is, reading for information, reading for instruction, and reading for pleasure—is reading for guidance which is known as bibliotherapy. Bibliotherapy is the solution of personal problems through directed reading.

Whisler, Nancy G., "Book Reporting Comes Alive," Journal of Read-
The purpose of this article was to offer ideas for varying and enriching the book report experience so that it might become an adventure in learning.


A wide variety of theories and models of reading acquisitions are described and discussed. The models are categorized as taxonomic, psychometric, psychological, linguistic, and transactional.


Education has traditionally proceeded haphazardly in its attempts to develop curriculum. This haphazardness has been amplified in attempts to provide individualized prescriptive instruction for handicapped children. Only by carefully related changes in student behavior to changes in materials or techniques can we really move forward. Progress will result only when we reject labeling in favor of sound psycho-educational planning.


In this article the writer explored the possible effects of the teacher’s interaction with a student’s achievement in reading. Two important sets of factors are examined—the general climate and the instructional patterns.
PROGRAM 1973-74

HOMER L. J. CARTER READING COUNCIL
INTERNATIONAL READING ASSOCIATION

THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 27, 1973
“Ten A’s For Teacher”
Dr. Jane Root, Free Lance Reading Consultant, United States and Canada
7:00 P.M., Coffee and Cookies, Compliments of Executive Committee
Portage Northern High School Auditorium

THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 8, 1973
Fourth Drive-In Conference: “The Teacher: Key to Excellence in Reading”
Dr. George D. Spache, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida
4:45 P.M.-9:00 P.M., Kalamazoo Valley Community College

THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 14, 1974
“The Science and the Art of Teaching Reading: A Search for Excellence”
Dr. John Manning, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota
7:30 P.M., West Ballroom, University Student Center, Western Michigan University

SUNDAY, MONDAY, AND TUESDAY
MARCH 31, APRIL 1 and 2, 1974
Seventeenth Annual Meeting
Michigan Reading Association, Grand Rapids Civic Center

THURSDAY, APRIL 25, 1974
“The Teacher’s Role: Leader or Follower?”
Dr. George Sherman, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan
7:30 P.M., Portage Northern High School Cafeteria

WEDNESDAY, MAY 1, 1974
Through
SATURDAY, MAY 4, 1974
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