Reading Horizons

Summer 1971
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Editorial Comment

KEEPING ABREAST

*Reading Horizons* is completing its eleventh year of publication. Since its inception many changes have occurred in reading instruction such as the development of programmed materials, the use of instructional technology, the application of linguistic theory, and the renewed interest in providing reading instruction at the secondary and college levels. Changes have also occurred in the way schools are organized for reading. Many school systems have turned away from the traditional three reading groups within the self-contained classroom to other forms such as multiple grade grouping, individualized reading, a nongraded plan, or the open classroom.

During these years we have seen school systems establish central reading clinics and increase the number of reading consultants, reading clinicians, reading therapists, and paraprofessionals on their staffs. Many reading projects have been financed by federal and state funds, and accountability has become a reality to be reckoned with. It has been a time that required effort to keep abreast of the demands and innovations in the field of reading.

Many changes are now taking place and will continue to occur in the future. As responsible members of an important profession, we must keep abreast of these changes and seek sound solutions to our problems. *Reading Horizons* has functioned as a vital organ to keep its readers informed of new theories and changing practices in the past. It is our purpose to continue to do so in the years ahead.

Dorothy J. McGinnis
Editor
UNITING EFFORTS IN EFFECTIVE READING REMEDIATION

Betty L. Hagberg
Western Michigan University

Nearly every classroom contains some children who have not responded well to a developmental reading program and need remedial help from the reading specialist. These students have not achieved up to their full potential for a variety of reasons, and unless they receive remedial instruction the gap between achievement and potential will grow wider. The reading therapist is faced with the primary responsibility of providing the student’s remedial work. However, it is not his task alone as the classroom teacher shares in this obligation. The child spends most of his time in the regular classroom and only a few short sessions with the reading specialist each week. Therefore, it is important and necessary that the classroom teacher and the reading therapist should cooperatively plan the student’s program for remedial work.

Selecting Students for Remedial Help

Initially, they must set up criteria for selection of pupils for the remedial program. This criteria will usually vary from school to school depending upon the number of students needing help and the number of reading specialists available. Usually the number of children who may be referred in each school must be held to a minimum due to the lack of needed reading personnel. Therefore, the classroom teacher must refer disabled readers for remediation with discreet selection.

Reading disabilities can be divided into three levels according to the degree of seriousness. There are students who are severely disabled in reading and who show evidence that physical, psychological, sociological, or educational factors may be operating to hinder them from achieving at an expected potential. These more severe cases usually need clinical diagnosis and treatment.

The second level of disability is somewhat less severe. Students in this category are also functioning well below their capacity but do not show physical or marked psychological and sociological causal factors. They lack or show weakness in specific reading skills which require more time and more individual attention than a classroom teacher can afford. It is for these students that the wise teacher will
seek the help of the reading therapist, who has additional training in the remediation of reading difficulties.

The third level of reading disability is considered mild. These students lack understanding of certain reading skills and do not use them effectively. Children with such minor disabilities can be given corrective instruction by the classroom teacher in the regular classroom setting. Through keen observation and well planned instruction, the teacher is able to diagnose and correct these minor reading weaknesses as he carries on his daily instruction. Children who have a mild reading disability can be brought up to their reading potential in a short time and should be given immediate consideration in the classroom. They need not be referred to the remedial reading teacher.

Other basic considerations also need to be kept in mind when selecting children for reading remediation. A question teachers might ask themselves when making referrals could be: Is the prognosis for improvement in reading favorable for this child? Students who need the most help and who the teacher feels will respond well to remediation should be referred. Children with average or above average mental ability would probably profit most by remedial help. This is a decision which must be made when starting a school's reading program.

It is easier to help students with reading disabilities when they are identified early. When a student develops a discrepancy of one or two years between his reading achievement and apparent potential, it is advisable to seek remedial help for him. If a child does well in one or two other subjects but is significantly disabled in reading, there is good reason to believe he can achieve in reading also. The student's general attitude toward his disability and the remedial reading class is also very important. Unless he has a positive attitude toward the remedial class, it would probably be of little value for him. The teachers involved and the parents can do much to influence, in a positive way, the child's attitude toward the program. In setting up a remedial reading program, it is important to decide in advance the criteria for admitting students. It should be based on realistic standards pertinent to the particular situation in that school and commonly agreed upon by all teachers involved.

**Planning the Program of Instruction**

After a student has been selected for the remedial reading class, the reading therapist has the primary responsibility for planning his program with the assistance of the classroom teacher. They can confer and plan the student's instructional program together. A student spends the greater amount of his time in the classroom and usually
thirty minutes twice or three times a week with the reading therapist in an intensive individualized instructional period. Because of this, careful provisions need to be made in the classroom for the reinforcement and continuation of the remedial teaching initiated by the therapist. The reading specialist, likewise, can get cues from the classroom. At this time the combined efforts of the two teachers become very important as they work together in determining the instructional procedures, devising techniques, and selecting materials to help this student.

It is necessary to recognize any possible obstacles which might be preventing the student from achieving success in reading. Although all the causal factors, past and present, are to be considered when assessing a disabled reader, attention at this time will be given primarily to the conditions that are now existing with the child. The classroom teacher and reading specialist are attempting to devise a therapeutic instructional program to remediate a child's reading disability. Therefore, they would be more concerned over a present visual loss, for example, than they would over a temporary visual loss of a few years ago. Close observations and checks should also be made in regards to hearing, general health, and other physical factors as they are basic to the total instruction of children. If the physical defect cannot be treated or cured, instruction must be planned around it. Psychological obstacles, such as emotional adjustment and personality factors, can be the cause or the effect of reading disability and are often the most difficult to treat. Reading failure adds to emotional stress and the emotional frustrations handicap further improvement in reading. Therefore, the teachers involved must be patient and work cooperatively to establish reasonable goals and expectations in reading for these students.

Information concerning a child's reading problem can also be gained through knowledge of the home environment. The lack of reading materials in the home, stories having seldom been read to the child, very few learning experiences, the lack of verbal communication in the home, and unrealistic expectations of a child are a few of the common contributing factors which come to school with the child. They must be considered when planning the way of instruction for a disabled reader. It is wise to involve and interest the parent in the child's reading program. In this way they will be more able to see the vital role they play in their child's progress in reading.

Up to this point it has been assumed, somewhat, that the primary current causes were outside the school. However, educational factors
could also be contributing to the reading disabilities of children. The classroom and reading teachers need to consider these seriously when planning a student's reading remediation. If a child has been promoted by age rather than achievement without an accompanying change in his curriculum, then an immediate accommodation must be made. Various levels of difficulty of materials must be used at each grade level for children who are functioning at varying levels of reading ability. The reading teacher, at this point, can assess the child's instructional level through the use of an informal reading inventory. Together, the classroom teacher and reading therapist can choose instructional materials at that particular level. The child will then be able to meet the challenge of reading tasks and experience some success which will in turn motivate him to continue to reach and grow in his reading. If a child continues to be instructed at his frustration level as he continues through school, he may result in a seriously disabled reader.

**Implementing the Program of Instruction**

The teachers can also work cooperatively in choosing appropriate and adequate materials for a child's specific instruction. The two teachers must select books and other materials with the interests and abilities of the student in mind. The classroom teacher's materials and reading texts must be different from any in which the child has previously experienced failure. The reading teacher, at the same time, should choose materials different from those which were selected for the child in the classroom. The therapist must also provide a great variety of reading material which will meet the child's needs in both reading skills and interests. Since he provides highly individualized instruction he can effectively use interesting library books to correct or develop specific reading skills. At the same time he is building positive attitudes and appreciation for pleasurable reading.

The classroom teacher and reading therapist need the librarian's expertise and assistance in selecting the right materials and books for students. It is important to involve the librarian as they plan for an individual child's remedial reading instruction. The classroom teacher is often faced with a number of science, mathematics, and social studies texts which are written at one particular grade level. At the same time he has students who are unable to handle the vocabulary and comprehension skills at the level of difficulty, so it is necessary to have a number and variety of supplementary books accessible. These curriculum enrichment materials should be selected at various reading levels. This would enable all students to read about special
topics covered in the basic textbook. With the librarian’s assistance and suggestions, the classroom teacher will then be able to guide individual students into books and materials at their particular instructional level. It is essential that students read at their instructional levels in the content areas as well as in the traditional “reading class” where the basic developmental reading skills are presented at varying levels.

As the classroom teacher works with a remedial reading student, certain skill weaknesses will be observed. He can, in turn, relate this child’s need to the reading teacher. Specific instruction in that particular skill could then be given by the reading teacher and practice and reinforcement of this skill should take place in both the classroom and the special reading session. The reading therapist also gives extra attention to the student’s recreational reading by being alert to a child’s interests and keeping informed of the activities going on within the classroom. Likewise, the reading teacher will suggest techniques and skills to be reinforced in the classroom as well as helpful materials which could be effectively used with the students.

**Reporting to Parents**

Finally, they must both be cooperatively involved with the home as the student’s total reading instruction is explained to the parents. The classroom teacher must talk with the parents about all aspects of the child’s school life, from reading, mathematics, art, and music, to playground behavior and school bus schedules. Therefore, he is limited in the amount of time he can spend explaining the child’s reading program. He might explain the school’s total reading program, how he teaches reading in the classroom, how their child fits into the plan, and why he selected their child for special reading instruction. It is very important that the reading therapist also hold a conference with the parents. He can give reinforcement to the classroom plan of instruction while he explains the specific reading remediation being provided for their child. Suggestions could also be made to the parents on how they might promote good reading habits at home. Conferences encourage the parents to an understanding of both the program and the child’s reading problem.

An example of teachers cooperative efforts is that of Mr. Sharpe, a fourth grade teacher, and Miss Knowes, the reading therapist. Together, they planned an effective reading program for Ron, a ten and one half year old boy. Mr. Sharpe observed that in most class discussions Ron could express himself very well. In certain class
activities he was eager to participate while in others he would not be at all interested. His teacher observed that Ron would tend to withdraw from activities involving any amount of reading. He was also tense and hesitant in oral reading situations. As Mr. Sharpe looked over Ron's cumulative record he noted that the boy's latest test scores showed reading, 2.5; arithmetic computation, 5.2; and a group test score showed an IQ of 102. Considering all factors, he felt that Ron had good potential for learning to read better and referred him to Miss Knowes. She studied the various sections of Ron's latest achievement tests. He had done well on comprehension of simple items but had not gone far in the test due to slow speed. She administered a word recognition test and found this was his area of difficulty. It was noted that he relied heavily upon phonics and sounded the words letter by letter. He did not visually analyze words as a whole and failed to use meaningful clues in recognizing unknown words. Miss Knowes also found his instructional level to be at the third grade level rather than the fourth grade and his independent reading level was at second grade, as determined by an informal reading inventory. Ron appeared to have no visual or auditory difficulties.

The two teachers worked together in planning Ron's reading instruction. Mr. Sharpe returned to third grade material in providing Ron's basic reading instruction. He provided the librarian with a list of the topics and areas which the class would be covering in science and social studies and asked her to secure books on these topics, written at the third grade level. The assistance of the librarian was also requested in acquainting Ron and other children with library books for recreational reading at their independent reading levels.

Ron's parents were very concerned over his reading problem. His mother worked with him every evening helping him sound out words. The teachers suggested that he read from an easier book and that Ron's mother immediately supply unknown words. Later they could just discuss what he had read. She accepted the teacher's suggestions and the word attack skills were left to his teachers.

Ron was given remedial work in Miss Knowes reading room for one half hour each day. She provided specific instruction for employing larger elements of words. Visual analysis as well as structural analysis of words and context clues were emphasized. Phrasing techniques and short articles were used for rapid reading. Reading for pleasure was especially encouraged. Mr. Sharpe followed some of these same suggestions for Ron in the classroom and also provided
practice exercises to reinforce the needed skills. At the end of six months of instruction in the reading room with adjustments to his level of reading made in the regular classroom, Ron's reading ability had shown a considerable gain. Although he was still mildly disabled in reading, Ron had overcome much of his basic difficulty. He was released from the reading room as it was felt Mr. Sharpe could give him the additional instruction needed within the classroom.

**Conclusion**

Communication and cooperation between the classroom teacher and reading specialist are absolutely essential if children's reading disabilities are to be corrected. The reading therapist may provide careful instruction to remediate specific reading disabilities for a child only to have him return to the classroom and be faced with reading materials at his frustration level. The remedial reading instruction in this situation was done in isolation and will be of little or no value towards alleviating the student's reading problem. Likewise, a classroom teacher might carefully plan the child's classroom reading instruction making sure all reading activities and materials are chosen at the pupil's instructional reading level only to have him go to a reading teacher who has him work through some reading workbook in lock-step procedure. The reading specialist must be precise and plan a student's remedial work around his specific skill needs. Reading games and skill drill sheets assigned without regard to the student's particular disability will do little or nothing to remediate his difficulty.

The wise teachers will want to involve the parents for they can be of real value when they understand how the teachers are attempting to help their child. As they confer with the teachers, parents are often able to perceive their vital role in helping with their child's reading problem.

Unless the classroom and reading teachers plan a complete, consistent, and cooperative program of instruction, disabled readers will be seriously defeated in overcoming reading disabilities. The ultimate goal is not only to develop and correct reading skills, but to produce an ever reading student who finds reading to be both interesting and fun!

**References**


COGNITION, CONATION AND CONNOTATION

Anna C. Crebo
Braintree, Massachusetts

Consciousness is essentially a system of meanings that may be cognitive (perceptual, conceptual, etc.) or affective (values with a conative factor are always implied in affectivity.) These two cognitive and affective aspects of meaning always go together; none is present without the other, although they may be examined separately.*

How little understood are the implications for education of what Piaget is saying here was brought home to me strikingly during a recent meeting of a graduate seminar in reading. In the course of a discussion on what constitutes “appeal” for children of various reading materials and methods, one member of the seminar made reference to Dr. Richard Jones' *Fantasy and Feeling in Education* (New York University Press, 1968), in which is related a series of classroom episodes involving the presentation of sections of ESI's much-publicized curriculum, “Man: A Course of Study.” The children—twenty fifth-graders in an experimental summer school in Newton, Massachusetts—had just been exposed to vividly colorful and powerfully silent films which touched upon the Netsilik Eskimo's necessity—enforced cultural pattern of sometimes leaving behind to die in the ice and snow the very old (and occasionally the very young—unwanted girl infants) who were unable to travel from one place to another in the never-ending search for food. The children had strong emotional reactions to these films, but, rather than stopping to explore these, the teachers, for the most part, completed the suggested lesson plans, which attempted to maintain throughout an objective focus on the material.

At this point in our seminar discussion, I interjected that I recalled reading further in the same chapter of Dr. Jones' book a communication from the dance teacher to whom the children went immediately following their social studies class. In the memorandum, she had expressed her consternation at being presented consistently with themes of sorrow, death, and abandonment in the children's movement. In

short, she objected to her classes becoming almost exclusively a cathartic release of emotional tensions engendered by the social studies curriculum.

“But perhaps that’s just where they should be expressed” was the comment forthcoming from one of the seminar participants—a comment that struck me forcibly as revealing the pivot on which turns our conception (and some might say misconception) of the educational process. To my mind, the whole cultural bias towards dichotomization of intelligence and feeling, thought and emotion, science and art, is laid bare in that remark. It belongs to the same category as the commonly heard admonition never to mix business and pleasure (or friendship.) The underlying assumption of both remarks is that the world of public knowledge and the realm of private feeling are separate and basically incompatible.

What my fellow student was expressing was the very common—I would say prevalent—attitude among educators that the classroom and thus the school is a place to assimilate knowledge and not a place to air personal feelings. What one does with the emotional “side effects” of learning is a private matter. Hopefully, they will be “worked off” in athletics or “expressed” in artistic activities, or at worst (or, perhaps, to some minds, at best) simply “forgotten,” a term which translates into psychoanalyse as “repressed.”

But this attitude just does not take seriously to heart or to mind what Piaget and other insightful psychologists and philosophers as well as perceptive practitioners of education are saying. True enough, the classroom has been set up primarily to facilitate the assimilation of knowledge. But the consensus of the Magi—of all times and climes—is that knowledge without self-knowledge is not worth knowing. This is essentially what Piaget is saying when he tells us:

Intelligence thus begins neither with knowledge of the self nor of things as such but with knowledge of their interaction, and it is by orienting itself simultaneously toward the two poles of that interaction that intelligence organizes the world by organizing itself.*

It is the self-knowledge pole of that orientation that is lit up in the process of “accommodation,” the Piagetian term for the reorganization of the cognitive structure literally to accommodate the new knowledge which, thus transformed, becomes part of the structural basis for assimilating even more complex knowledge. Translated into

* Jean Piaget, Play, Dreams and Imitation in Childhood, Norton, 1951 (1945).
practical education terms, this means that without allowance for and even aid to the accommodating process (which implies the personally evaluative, essentially private sphere of affectivity), subsequent "assimilations" of knowledge can be like so many castles constructed on sand. The next shift in the wind of attention will disintegrate them; for the underlying foundation that only felt meaning can provide will never have been realized. In reading, this understanding-in-depth and integration with already existent structures of "prehension" goes, by and large, under the name of comprehension, which term even sounds like what it means—to grasp and create a meaningful whole out of garnered information or experience. Knowledge which has not made the connection with the affective schemas that results in accommodation and thus in equilibrium is not self-realized knowledge—knowledge which can expand or raise the level of conscious awareness. Thus it is meaningless for the person and thereby rendered incapable of entering into subsequent mental developments. In other words, little "significant" learning has taken place—a few or more than a few bits and scraps of information committed to short-term memory, then reproduced on test paper, without there ever having been experienced the meaning without which the knowledge cannot become an integral part of the cognitive equipment of the organism.

Back for a final look at the classroom where the children were viewing the films of Eskimo life—presumably one of the main points to be gotten across is that man is identifiably Man with ultimately the same problems to face however differently he goes about solving them within the framework of his particular culture and within the scope of his particular level of development. Children denied the opportunity of expressing and airing in open discussion their initial reactions of repugnance and dismay at disturbing revelations about the Eskimo's cultural values and practices will probably not make this primary identification of (and more importantly with) the Netsilik as a fellow human being, and thereby a valuable opportunity for broadening the child's world-view as well as deepening his understanding of himself in relation to his own cultural pattern is lost.

Fortunately not irretrievably so for the twenty Newton youngsters, for one of the teachers involved in presenting these studies insisted on being permitted to follow her teacher's "instinct" and encouraged the children to express openly their honest reactions to the impact of such seemingly radically different cultural values. The discussion that ensued not only considerably eased the tensions but allowed for
the resolution of these conflicts into the realization that providing for the very old (and the very young) are problems common to all cultures and that death, and thus life, itself is interpreted differently in different cultural contexts. After these particularly rewarding (from everyone's point of view) sessions, the dance instructor expressed her gratitude for no longer having to contend almost exclusively with motifs of death and abandonment in the children's movement. She could now, she said, begin to lead them into more varied forms of expressive movement.

So many of the tirades against our culture and times have been directed at what Owen Barfield has called “the growing general sense of meaninglessness.” In an article entitled “The Rediscovery of Meaning,” (Saturday Evening Post, Jan. 7, 1961) he says that “It is this which underlies most of the other threats. How is it that the more able man becomes to manipulate the world to his advantage, the less he can perceive any meaning in it? . . . Penetration to the meaning of a thing or process, as distinct from the ability to describe it exactly, involves a participation by the knower in the known.”

All well and good, one may counter. But, while this is in all probability an accurate intuition about where and what the problem is, “feeling” and “meaning” have been philosophy's and psychology's perennial enigmas, the roots of whose perplexity are sunk so deep that one Professor T. H. Pears, writing in 1923 in Remembering and Forgetting, said, not altogether facetiously, “If the discovery of the psychological nature of Meaning were completely successful, it might put an end to psychology altogether.” The question remains, just how does one go about determining whether a given program of study affords optimum conditions for the nurturance of these “esoteric” qualities?

Far from wishing to get enmeshed in a philosophical unravelling of the “meaning of meaning,” I would like instead simply to throw out the suggestion that, in the light of current research and thinking about the role of perceptual processes in helping to bring about the coalition of affect and intellect which we call understanding, feeling and meaning may perhaps be seen to possess a more substantive nature than we have hitherto recognized.

Investigators of the psychology of perception have helped to set the stage for a psychological reevaluation of feeling and meaning. Gardner Murphy and C. P. Sollery, in their book, Development of the Perceptual World (Basic Books, Inc., 1960), point out that most
psychological theories implicitly (and psycho-analysis, explicitly) acknowledge the close interweaving of perception and cognition with the affective processes, especially during childhood. They postulate the existence of what they call “primary meanings,” which are “differentiations of sensory events, of percepts, and of responses which occur innately, being part and parcel of the individual’s biological inheritance” (p. 312). These primary meanings provide the basis from which or upon which all subsequent “habits” of differentiating or assimilating experience through learning are formed. “As for meaning,” they write, “we have asserted our belief that meaning is essentially differentiation and integration of sensory, perceptual, and motor events which have implicative or prognostic value for other sensory, perceptual, or motor events” (p. 314).

Rudolf Arnheim, from the standpoint of the psychology of art, views the perceptual process in a similar manner. In an article entitled “Perceptual Abstraction and Art,” (Psychological Review, 1947, p. 54), he maintains that “the individual stimulus configuration enters the perceptual process only in that it evokes a specific pattern of general sensory categories, which stands for the stimulus in a similar way in which in a scientific description a network of general concepts is offered as the equivalent of a phenomenon of reality.” “If this theory be acceptable,” he goes on to say, “the elementary processes of perception, far from being mere passive registration, would be creative acts of grasping structures even beyond the mere grasping and selecting of parts. What happens in perception would be similar to what at a higher psychological level is described as understanding or insight.” He calls for a new approach—a psychological reevaluation of the relationship between the development of perceptual and representational concepts and of mental growth in general.

In another article, entitled “Visual Thinking,” (Education of Vision, Gyorgy Kepes, Ed., 1965), he suggests that, in our ignorance of the importance of the role of perception in thought processes, we may be over-stressing the verbal concept to the neglect of the underlying structural sources of meaning.

But to refute the assumption (that the only possible vehicle of concepts are words) it seems to me sufficient to point to cats, dogs, monkeys and our own speechless infants, who indicate by their behavior that they live in a world of constant entities. Indeed, words are but labels, and there can be no labelling before the senses have furnished defined kinds of things.

Developmental psychology would seem to offer support to Arn-
heim's statement. Jonas Langer, writing of cognitive development in *Theories of Development* (Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1969), points to the findings of Piagetian researchers in their study of the relationship of linguistic development to the attainment of the concept of conservation. "Our evidence," they write, "offers little, if any, support for the contention that language learning per se contributes to . . . the achievement of the conservation concepts." (Inhelder et al., 1966, p. 163). "Such findings," Langer says, "support the hypothesis that the meaning of language is not passively acquired from environmental sources, but rather is mentally constructed (assimilated) by the child to accord with his internal schemes" (p. 136).

In an application of this thought to education, others, like Arnheim, are suggesting that we might be short-sightedly, as it were, pouring our richest nourishment on the outermost leaves of learning, while the roots that must maintain the entire symbolic structure wither untended—this in a culture where the "primal sanities" of nature, to use Walt Whitman's phrase, are growing ever more increasingly imperceptible.

Along this line, Robert Jay Wolff, in "Visual Intelligence in General Education" (*Education of Vision*), decries the lack of aesthetic order in today's "man-made" environment and suggests that this absence of sensorial and spiritual nourishment in our surroundings coupled with the "pedagogical anxiety to induce quick mastery of the signs and symbols of communicable knowledge" may be at the bottom of our acknowledged failure to educate, in the deepest sense of the word. "Could it be," he asks, "that the college sophomore writes badly because his education has neglected to nourish in him the experiential sources of good writing in its singleminded pursuit of the means?" "One of these sources is the thoughtful eye," he maintains, and, "without its guidance, the road to literacy can become a grammatical exercise and higher learning a vastly inflated kindergarten."

Mirko Balsaldella, writing in the same volume, makes explicit reference to the process of reading in connection with visual imagery. In his article, "Visual Considerations," he asks us to consider that "an idea is expressed by word symbols developed sequentially along an imaginary line," and that "the organized ‘coming together’ of these symbols elicits feelings and ideas, evokes images, describes things and events." "Basically," he says, "in perceiving an object you see only its form and color. For the perception to register in one's mind,
it must relate to previous perceptions, to a concept of its essence. Otherwise, it is as if we had not seen it, for our memory will have retained no trace of it."

Still others are examining the effects of specific training in perception on the ability to learn how to read. Archie A. Silver, together with associates Rosa A. Hagin and Marilyn F. Hersh, published the results of their experiments "using the method of stimulation of deficit perceptual areas . . . to determine whether perception can be modified by training and whether increased accuracy of perception is reflected in improved reading achievement." In "Reading Disability: Teaching Through Stimulation of Deficit Perceptual Areas," *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 1967, 37, pp. 744-752, they report:

Recent studies have shown that at least the beginning aspects of reading are closely related to perceptual abilities . . . The results so far suggest that where perceptual defects are first trained out, reading instruction at intermodal and verbal levels will have a better chance of success . . . This principle of enhancing neuro-physiological maturation before intermodal and verbal methods are introduced has direct implication in the prevention of reading and language disability. Perceptual training at that critical age when the function normally develops may indeed enable the child to grasp language material which would otherwise escape him.

Some philosophers, among them, Ernst Cassirer, would have us realize that meaning inheres not alone in the schematic apperception of knowledge but exists apart from and prior to its assimilation by cognitive structures—that there are recognizable "expressive characters" which exist in and of themselves. He writes, in *The Philosophy of Symbolic Forms, Vol. III: Phenomenology of Knowledge*, (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1957):

An expressive character is not a subjective appendage that is subsequently and as it were accidentally added to the objective content of sensation; on the contrary, it is part of the essential fact of perception . . . If an expressive meaning were not revealed to us in certain perceptive experiences, existence would remain silent for us . . . What is primarily apprehended here is life as such far more than any individual spheres or centers of life; what originally appears in expressive perception is a universal character of reality (pp. 73-74).

Rudolf Arnheim, too, stresses the universal character of these perceptual elements that constitute the basis of all knowledge—
elements he describes as a “configuration of forces” that is “significant not only for the object in whose image it appears, but for the physical and mental world in general.” In *Art and Visual Perception: A Psychology of the Creative Eye*, (University of California Press, 1954), he writes:

Motifs like rising and falling, dominance and submission, weakness and strength, harmony and discord, struggle and conformance, underlie all existence. We find them within our own mind and in our relations to other people, in the human community and in the events of nature. Perception of expression fulfills its spiritual mission only if we experience in it more than the resonance of our own feelings. It permits us to realize that the forces stirring in ourselves are only individual examples of the same forces acting throughout the universe. We are thus enabled to sense our place in the whole and the inner unity of that whole (p. 434).

Murphy and Solley weave this universal element into their psychology of perceptual development, accommodating in their theories “both the complex unravelling of symbols as practiced in psychoanalysis and the quest for formal principles of structure and order, as exemplified in Gestalt psychology.” They write further:

In the same way, as illustrated for example in Rembrandt’s perception of the meaning of the human face, or Schubert’s and Beethoven’s grasp of the possibility of transforming a simple melodic line into a breathtaking new vision of life by adding alterations in tonality or rhythm, we have sudden transitions to a higher plane—a plane in which a richer isomorphism with cosmic structure is achieved than sheer Gestalt principles in themselves would require. (*Development of the Perceptual World*)

Indeed, expressive perception and expressive form would seem to have much in common, if they are not identical, with aesthetic feeling and artistic form, and, relating this to education, one might begin to suspect that aesthetic quality, far from being some sort of “fringe benefit” that can be considered only after subsistence has been provided for, is to be ignored as a prime criterion of educational materials and experiences only at the risk of meaninglessness.

Donald Arnstine, writing in *Philosophy of Education: Learning and Schooling* (Harper and Row, 1967), forges a link between the psychologies of aesthetic perception and education. He writes:

The arousal of affect, the stirring of emotion felt as pleasurable, satisfying or absorbing, through the per-
ception of form in experiential cues, is a natural way of apprehending experience. It is sought after because the present is not effaced but rather highlighted and fully attended to. It is, in short, during the course of such experience that we feel most fully alive. And it is such experience that is best characterized as being aesthetic in quality . . . What could be potentially more important in teacher education, then, than the kinds of studies in the arts that can make prospective teachers more consciously aware of the features of things (such as lectures and books) that are potential cues for aesthetic experience?

No less renowned a philosopher and interpreter of the arts than Sir Herbert Read aligns himself with Arnheim, Cassirer, and the others in strongly advocating a policy of education that places the training of sensory and perceptual abilities through the arts at its center. His thinking seems to embody the “significant configurations” of Arnheim and the “expressive characters” of Cassirer as well as drawing upon Carl Jung's theory of archetypes. In “Art as a Unifying Principle in Education,” (Child Art, Hilda Present Lewis, Ed., 1966, Diablo Press), he defines consciousness itself as the developing awareness of form, that is, “the ability to retain sensations as images, to compare and combine such images into meaningful structures.” These very structures, he maintains, become a part of the warp and woof of the evolving structure of the mind itself. They become the “physically determined patterns of perception” that control the “habits” of our minds.

The mind, in its effort to arise from the amorphous pool of sensations and feeling, clings to a scaffold of precise geometric figures. Nowhere is this more clearly demonstrated than in the slow but certain emergence of basic form from the apparently aimless scribbling activity of a child. Form, the basic pattern, precedes identity, precedes significance, controls imagination, determines intelligence. The archetypes are the structural elements of visual order, of cognition itself, and the archetypes are by definition universal.

Even modern physics seems to have discovered these forms—“dynamic factors that manifest themselves in impulses . . . pieces of life itself—images that are integrally connected to the living individual by the bridge of the emotion.” (C. G. Jung, Man and His Symbols.) In the chapter entitled “Models for Theory” of Visual Thinking, Arnheim describes Physicist Gerald Holton’s concept of “themata,”
which the latter considers the underlying principles of scientific conceptions. Themata, says Arnheim, refer to thought models that derive neither from empirical statements, such as meter readings, nor from analytical ones, reliant on the calculus of logic and mathematics. Holton does not wish to commit himself as to whether these themata should be associated with any of the following conceptions: Platonic, Keplerian or Jungian archetypes or images; myths (in the non-derogatory sense, so rarely used in the English language); synthetic a priori knowledge; intuitive apprehension or Galilei's 'reason'; a realistic or absolutistic or, for that matter, any other philosophy of science.

Arnheim himself says, "I am treating these themata as mental images, and I trust that even persons who like to distinguish modern science in principle from what preceded it will be struck by the formal resemblances discussed here."

It is, I feel, worth the consideration of educators at all levels that perhaps some of the learning, and more specifically, reading problems that seem to afflic our Western culture (more so than in the East? [See Kiyoshi Makita, "The Rarity of Reading Disability in Japanese Children," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1968, 38, pp. 599-613]) are due, at least in part, to the more widespread cultural phenomenon alluded to in the writings cited earlier in this paper. Is it possible that we are having to "pay the price for the spectacular successes in the sciences made possible by theorizing with disembodied concepts" (Arnheim), neglecting, moreover, to nurture the "experiential sources" within while proceeding to obliterate the "primal sanities" of nature in our environment?

Perhaps we should reread and reevaluate in the twin lights of the psychology of perception and the philosophy of symbolic forms the much-quoted passage from Einstein's letter to Jacques Hadamard describing his own creative processes of thinking.

The words of the language, as they are written or spoken, do not seem to play any role in my mechanism of thought. The psychical entities which seem to serve as elements of thought are certain signs and more or less clear images which can be "voluntarily" reproduced and combined . . . Taken from a psychological viewpoint, this combinatory play seems to be the essential feature in productive thought—before there is any connection with logical construction in words or other kinds of signs which can be communicated to others . . . The above mentioned elements are, in my case, of visual
and some of muscular type. Conventional words or other signs have to be sought for laboriously only in a secondary stage, when the mentioned associative play is sufficiently established and can be reproduced at will. (Hadamard, *The Psychology of Invention in the Mathematical Field*, Princeton University Press, 1945).

In this treatise, *On the Aesthetic Education of Man, in a Series of Letters*, the German poet-philosopher and close friend of Goethe, Friedrich Schiller, predicted the outcome of perpetuating a system of education that was not based on the principles of aesthetic and therefore natural order. At this moment in history we would seem to be living the fulfillment of his prediction.

The old principles will remain, but they will wear the dress of the century, and philosophy will lend its name to an oppression which was formerly authorized by the Church. Terrified by the freedom which always declares its hostility to their first attempts, men will in one place throw themselves into the arms of a comfortable servitude, and in another, driven to despair by a pedantic tutelage, they will break out into the wild libertinism of the natural state. Usurpation will plead the weakness of human nature, insurrection its dignity, until at length the great sovereign of all human affairs, blind force, steps in to decide the sham conflict of principles like a common prize fight.
READING MAKETH A FULL MAN

Abraham Blinderman
State University of New York

What do you read my lord?
Words, words, words.

Hamlet

My freshman class rejoices. It is our first meeting and I do not ask the apprehensive matriculants to write the traditional autobiographical essay to probe their linguistic and literary aptitudes. Before dismissing the class, I assign a reading—“My Wood” by E. M. Forster—for the next meeting.

“Is there a written exercise?” asks a frowning, naive miss. The class groans but she is undismayed by the mass disapprobation of her finkish intervention.

“No, not this time. But read the essay carefully. We'll talk about it on Wednesday.”

On Wednesday I walk into class, drop a freshly duplicated pack of papers on my desk, and scan the troubled faces of a class that thinks itself betrayed. When the bell rings, I begin to pass the papers to the angry multitude. A belligerent hand seeks my attention. It belongs to the girl with the corrugated brow.

“Dr. Blinderman, you said nothing to us on Monday about a test. All you asked us to do was to read the essay by Mr. Forster.”

Poor girl. They had probably briefed her. Now, she had to trim her sails to atone for her almost unpardonable sin of Monday.

“Miss Frella, please read the instructions on the top of your dittoed page.” Education had begun. Miss Frella and her bellicose comrades would have a rhetorical head start this semester.

The class listens as Miss Frella reads:
I have extracted the words in the following list from Mr. Forster's essay, “My Wood,” a piece of literature which you have undoubtedly read with care and pleasure. As evidence of your concerned reading, please define the uncapitalized words and identify or define the capitalized words. No, you will not be graded this time, but . . .

Miss Frella sits down, looks at the list for a moment, stares at me unbelievingly, and turns to her disconcerted classmates for solace.

“Well, what is it?” I ask, noting the motionless pens.

No response. Silently, the boys and girls begin to joust with
Forster's formidable checkmates. I can predict the casualties. There aren't many pens skimming. In half an hour I collect the sorry manuscripts from my band of defeated pawns. Before the day is over, I tabulate the results:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Correct Responses</th>
<th>Incorrect Responses</th>
<th>Incorrect References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cheque</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bracken</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foxglove</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parable</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>effect</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crystalline</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>antithesis</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>avaricious</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>carnal</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>asceticism</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grub</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourteen-stone</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bishop</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolstoy</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ahab</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canute</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alexander</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dante</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dives</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lazarus</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bolshies</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sirius</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bathe in the Jordan</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>354</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I distribute these tabulations to the class on Friday. To lighten the embarrassment of the class, I bid them put aside the statistics for a few minutes to listen to some unique definitions and identifications that I culled from the lot:

**Jordan:** A very in place during Bible times. (But it's still here)

**Sirius:** Place of the sirens.

**Bathe in the Jordan:** Indians bathe in the Jordan River. They feel it cleanses the soul. Like going to Mecca.
Dives: Crummy bars.
Tolstoy: Wrote a *Tale of Two Cities*.
Lazarus: A person in Greek mythology who invented fire and wound up by having crows pick at his liver while he was in Hades.
Ahab: Son of Christ; An Arab servant.
Dante: A Renaissance painter; a rider; a lover.
Canute: Canute Rockne
carnal: Artery or vein in the body.
parable: A large building or structure; something eatable.
Bolshies: A Russian general.
foxgloves: In the winter these little animals wear these on their paws. (Inventive)
fourteen-stone bishop: fourteen priests smoking pot; fourteen high priests.

I do not repress the laughter that greets each of the errant identifications; there will be time for serious application to word study later. I now ask for reasons for this dismal tabulation and there is a spontaneous response to my query. I list them randomly—almost in the order that the students speak:

1. I do not like to look up words when I read. This spoils the pleasure of reading.
2. You didn’t tell us that you would test us. When I know I’m not going to be tested, I don’t read carefully.
3. I skimmed the essay.
4. What’s the use of knowing all the facts in an essay? I get the main idea without looking up each word I don’t know.
5. I don’t have a good dictionary.
6. The dictionary doesn’t give you enough information.
7. I looked up Jordan, but what does “bathe in the Jordan” mean? How do you know what the author has in mind?
8. I found two Ahabs. How can I tell which one the author means?
9. What’s the good of reading something I’ll forget? You gave no written assignment. I need a written assignment to get me interested in facts.

From these apparently sincere responses to my query I formulated the following hypotheses, some of which are only too familiar to teachers of English:

1. Many students do not care to read, do not know how to read, and probably will read very little after their graduation.
2. Students will read carefully if they are grade conscious.
3. Because skimming has become a vogue, lazy students believe that
they have found a panacea in this frequently destructive practice.

4. Some students don’t have dictionaries; others don’t know how to use dictionaries; and some rely upon skimpy paper-back editions.

5. A lesson will succeed if its objectives are stated meaningfully to the reader. Furthermore, the learner must be able to demonstrate through performance that he has mastered the objectives of the teacher.1 (Obviously, an assignment that merely directs the student to read an essay has poor objectives. But, for the aim I had in mind, the assignment I gave was purposely defective.)

When a college English teacher faces his freshman class of assorted readers, it is too late for him to blast the parents, teachers, and administrators whom he blames for his predicament. Once past the admission’s barriers, the student is a matriculant who deserves the teacher’s professional guidance, not his vindictiveness borne of frustration with unrealistic numbers of frequently illiterate freshmen. Although the responses to my first reading assignment revealed the cultural impoverishment of most of my freshmen, I decided to regard them as potential lovers of the word, an assumption that I had to make to quell my intuitive skepticism.

Crash programs in education are sometimes practical, often disastrous, and rarely as effective as well designed programs having valid objectives which can be demonstrably achieved. But how can one bring the word to American boys and girls who have studied in the lower schools for twelve years without acquiring a reasonably effective reservoir of words for their practical and cultural engagements?

There has to be a beginning. I ask my class to bring a good dictionary to class on Monday. I explain that we will use the dictionary often throughout the semester. I do not ask them to check the words from Forster’s essay. On Monday, I explain the purpose of the lesson: Mr. Forster is an English novelist of distinction. Some of you may have read his Passage to India in high school. Others may have seen the television rerun of the movie adaptation of the novel. Because Mr. Forster is a scholarly writer, he sometimes refers to historical, religious, scientific, and literary names and events in his writing to emphasize a point or to make a significant comparison or contrast. For example, when Mr. Forster states that “Ahab did not want that vineyard,” he is referring to the Biblical King Ahab and not to Captain

Ahab of *Moby Dick*. Only five of thirty students knew that the Ahab associated with a vineyard is the Biblical Ahab. Should not curiosity have led some of you to the dictionary for quick enlightenment? Let's check the dictionary now for Ahab: "Ahab—a king of Israel in the 9th century B.C." Helpful, but not sufficiently helpful. Yet, we know that Ahab was a Biblical king. Now, I have a Biblical dictionary in my library. Here it is. Let's check Ahab again. This greedy king, the husband of Jezebel, a name you probably know, had a taste for splendid architecture. "Desiring to add to his pleasure-grounds at Jezreel the vineyard of his neighbor Naboth, he proposed to buy it or give land in exchange for it; and when this was refused by Naboth, a false accusation of blasphemy was brought against him and not only was he himself stoned to death, but his sons also . . ."! Now do you see the effectiveness of Mr. Forster's allusion to Ahab and the vineyard? And to his tongue-in-cheek reference to his inability to murder Mrs. Hennessey? True, we had to use several reference books to identify Ahab; the dictionary at first for a ready reference; a specialized dictionary next for a specific identification. Our library has specialized dictionaries of all kinds, but for home use, your college dictionary serves as a basic interpreter of unfamiliar words. Sometimes you will have to use a little imagination; only seven students knew who the 'Bolshies' are. Our dictionary defines "Bolshevik;" why should the transition from this word to its slang form be so difficult? The phrase, "bathe in the Jordan," however, presents a difficult problem of interpretation to all but two of you. The dictionary mentions two Jordan Rivers; the first in Utah; the second in the Middle East. Obviously, Mr. Forster has in mind the storied river which has fascinated men from Biblical times to the present. But why can't he accept an invitation to dinner or "take a bathe in the Jordan" now that he is a man of property? This is a tricky question, but if you are familiar with Luke, you will recall that Christ was baptized in the river Jordan by John the Baptist. This, a propertied man can't do because he has material bonds that limit his freedom. Of course, Forster exaggerates, but his implication that only independent men can move freely in society might be worth debating. Thoreau, too, said similar things in *Walden*.

To sum up, I invite you to use the dictionary to help you to read more meaningfully, to enable you to add new words and concepts

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to your intellectual store, and to make your reading more pleasurable as your comprehension increases. If the dictionary cannot be helpful in some instances, its usefulness in most of your verbal investigations will overshadow the occasional frustrations that "take a bathe in the Jordan" ambiguities bring you. But a few minutes with the dictionary will clarify "avaricious," "carnal," and "ascetism." A few more minutes will inform you that Tolstoy was a Russian writer, that Dante wasn't a French painter, and that a fourteen-stone-bishop weighs 196 pounds.

We shall read fourteen stories and essays this semester. Think of the intellectual riches that you can store up in one semester if you read profitably. And you can apply this simple technique to all of your reading. Why not become equal to the artist that you are reading at the moment? Enjoy his writing and borrow his mind. Make his words and learning your own.

Now for Wednesday's assignment. Please read, "I Won't Pay for the Trip: No Chemical Routes to Paradise," by Jonathan Miller, M.D. I have prepared a list of definitions of the difficult words in the essay. Refer to the list as you read the article. Report Wednesday on the usefulness of this list as you read Dr. Miller's challenging essay.

Word List: "I Won't Pay for the Trip . . ."
1. cataclysm—a momentous and violent event marked by overwhelming upheaval and demolition; see disaster.
2. catastrophe—a momentous tragic event; utter failure.
3. deja vue—paramnesia: the illusion of remembering scenes or events when experienced for the first time.
4. deliquescent—to become soft or liquid with age; to divide repeatedly ending in fine divisions—used esp. of the veins of a leaf. (Which definition seems to apply?)
5. euphoria—an often unaccountable feeling of well-being or elation.
6. metaphysical—highly abstract; supernatural; pertaining to the supersensible. (Check this word carefully)
7. oblivion—an act or instance of forgetting; the quality or state of being forgotten.
8. primaeval—of or relating to the earliest ages. (Sometimes spelled as primeval.)
9. quotidian—occurring every day; daily.
10. retrospective—relating to the process of surveying the past.
12. Gallic—of or relating to Gaul or France.
13. Gare du Nord—The North Station.

On the following Wednesday, we discuss “I Won’t Pay for the Trip.” Some are skeptical about the doctor’s insistence that “once the muscles of the mind are in tune, very small changes of sensation, mood, climate, or interest can produce quite startling alterations on consciousness.” I dare not ask whether they have ever “got a glimpse of Xanadu through the thick poison clouds of nausea,” although there are several volunteers who would like to emulate Coleridge in class.

“Was the list I gave you on Friday helpful?” I ask apprehensively. A chorus of “ayes” assures me that it was.

“Will you submit to a quick recognition test?”

Groans. Then, a subdued, resigned, and mumbled assent.

In five minutes the test is over. I am pleased; the catastrophe of Wednesday has been averted. The words have been regarded, studied in context, and remembered. They are delighted with deja vu and its English version, paramnesia. So many of them had known this feeling; so few of them had known its name. I feel certain that they will talk of deja vu and paramnesia for some time.

The third step in my plan to encourage word study among lexically apathetic students is a joint class enterprise. I want to reinforce their quickening interest in mastering all unfamiliar words they encounter in an assigned reading. I entertain modest hopes that these conditioning lessons will be more productive than the rote practice of memorizing the meanings of difficult words.

On Friday, I have copies of Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde, John Dewey’s Democracy and Education, Freud’s Basic Writings, The Hidden Persuaders, Keat’s Poems, and Bulfinch’s Mythology on my desk. I pass them along to the students and ask them to skim through them as I write the following words on the blackboard:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dr. Jekyll</th>
<th>Orpheus</th>
<th>compensatory</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Hyde</td>
<td>Vance Packard</td>
<td>supermundane</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John Dewey</td>
<td>adrenalin</td>
<td>coeval</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freud</td>
<td>noradrenalin</td>
<td>voluptuous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keats</td>
<td>pecuniary</td>
<td>Mermaid Tavern</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pavlov</td>
<td>insidious</td>
<td>Nuremberg (Hitler)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diana</td>
<td>machinations</td>
<td>Paleolithic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There is interest in the books and in the words on the blackboard.
Dictionaries are being consulted. The process is catching on.

"The words on the blackboard are from Aldous Huxley's essay, 'The Art of Selling.' Again, note how a master writer utilizes words from many disciplines to enrich his thesis. What fields do some of these words refer to?"

Collectively, the class finds Huxley familiar with philosophy, psychology, medicine, mythology, literature, history, finance, and advertising. A handful associate Nuremberg with Hitler; three hands identify the Mermaid Tavern, and one boy identified Dewey as an easygoing educator. The dictionary doesn't define noradrenalin; it doesn't include Vance Packard; and it doesn't associate Nuremberg with Hitler. But the class is surprised to find the fictional Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde in the general body of the book.

The value of this vocabulary lesson is that it prepares the student for his reading of the essay. He is now armed with ready references for a meaningful reading of the essay. The dictionary gives him an initial identification of the troublesome term; if he is not content with the streamlined definition of Diana, for example, he can find more satisfying the "queen and huntress, chaste and fair," in Bulfinch or in dictionaries of mythology. Occasionally, the dictionary is not helpful to the student; for example, even the better college dictionaries might not include a reference to the Mermaid Tavern, and if the passage does not offer reasonable contextual clues to the student, the teacher must then identify the term.

In brief, then, this tripartite introduction to word study in the freshman composition course that includes readings illustrative of the rhetorical principles stressed, should motivate the student to concern himself with word mastery. The first lesson makes him uncomfortably aware that he reads without profit when he avoids exploration of unfamiliar words and expressions; the second lesson reinforces the first by illustrating to him how much more meaningful a literary selection can be if it has a ready glossary at hand for each assigned reading; and the third lesson reinforces the aims of the preceding lessons by having him prepare his own glossary of difficult terms for each selection. I like to think of the first lesson as "the shock of recognition;" the second as "linguistic therapy;" and the third as "self-discovery." If the first triad of lessons doesn't succeed, I suggest a continuation of the methodology until the students themselves become competent and willing word sleuths. Perhaps they will never again have a confrontation with the infrequently occurring brackens, quotidiens, or deliquescents that we investigated earlier,
but I doubt that few forget the Biblical Ahab, the fourteen-stone-Bishop, and the Dives who might have frequented "a crummy bar."

Of course, in years to come, many of my students will suffer from paramnesia (deja vue). Perhaps, as they come across a troublesome word they will sense an intuitive uneasiness of having been there before.
"AN OUNCE OF PREVENTION . . ."

Jane Iannelli
Kalamazoo, Michigan

It has been said that non-readers are the greatest problem in American education. It is also true that these same non-readers continue to be problems as they take their place in the mainstream of American life. The schools are doing much to remedy these problems, but the home must also cooperate in this project. With the cooperation of home and school these problems can, in a large measure, be prevented. This author proposes to set down some guidelines for parents who are interested in starting their child on the road to successful reading experiences.

Parents should be aware that an important part of preparing a child for reading should be to serve as a model for the child. The language spoken in the home should be of the best quality and the child should be encouraged by example at an early age to speak in like style. The same principle applies to books and reading in the home. If the child sees the parents reading, it will be easy for him to see that reading is an enjoyable and worthwhile experience. Still another way in which parents can serve as a model for their child is to express or make apparent their positive feelings toward the school and learning. This attitude can do much to create in the child the belief that education is an important privilege—one to be valued. He will enter school with an emotional and psychological readiness for learning.

A second contribution parents can make to the reading readiness process is to aid in the development of language arts skills. This can be done in a number of ways, the most obvious and important of which is talking. Even though a baby does not understand words and cannot talk, he responds in his own way to the talking of adults. And soon this response becomes words—sooner because someone has been encouraging him. This communication encourages vocalization and socialization on the part of the child and is necessary for his verbal development. It is an accepted fact that the child who talks easily and well is better prepared for learning to read. Another way to aid in the development of language arts skills is to read aloud to the child. Even a very young child can benefit from this activity, not only from listening to and talking about a story or a rhyme but also from the close bond which it fosters between parent and child.

A third way in which parents can prepare their child for learning
to read is to develop mental content and experiential background. Reading to the child helps develop language arts skills, as previously mentioned. It also adds to his mental content by providing vicariously those experiences which he cannot experience firsthand. Whenever possible parents should take trips with the child and talk about what they have seen and experienced. These trips can be as short as places of interest in one's own community or to more distant points. The value is in discussing the experience and broadening his background so as to give meaning to his future reading. The more experience a child brings to his reading, the more meaning he will find in it. New experiences are also a valuable method of developing a child's vocabulary. Parents should provide books and other types of reading material for the child. This may include those brought home from the library as well as those more readily available within the home. Another way to build mental content is to provide paper and writing tools such as crayons or pencils, and allow the child to experiment with drawing pictures of family experiences or making letters or words.

In conclusion, it is to be emphasized that parents have a responsibility and valuable opportunity to contribute to their child's success in school. They can do more than anyone else to insure this success. They must be helped to understand this fact and also to implement it to their child's benefit.
THE KITE

From my window it seemed detached
Floating free
Unfettered
Rising
Falling
At the whim of a spring breeze.
Nearby a child reaches
For a piece of string.

Lucille Reigle
MESSAGE FROM THE PRESIDENT
OF THE
HOMER L. J. CARTER
READING COUNCIL

Dear Council Members:

Thank you for your helpful suggestions submitted on the questionnaires last Fall. We are happy to announce that the 1971-72 program schedule for the Homer L. J. Carter Reading Council is nearly completed. The information regarding the two meetings is being printed at this time for your early consideration. Mark the dates on your calendar and plan to join us to seek answers to many of our common challenges. Most of the meetings will be held in Portage again. A complete program will appear in the Fall issue of Reading Horizons.

Thursday, September 16, 1971
“Taba—Its Relationship to the Individualized Reading Program”
Demonstration
Mrs. Ruth Diephuis, Resource Teacher
Kalamazoo Public Schools
7:00 P.M. Smorgasbord Dessert
Compliments of Executive Committee

Thursday, October 21, 1971
Drive-In Conference
“Individualized Reading”
Dr. Jeannette Veatch, Arizona State University
4:30 P.M.-9:00 P.M.

Sincerely,
Lois VanDenBerg
ECHOS FROM THE FIELD

Joe R. Chapel

One of the more recent developments in reading education is the programmed material called DISTAR, an acronym for “Direct Instructional System for Teaching and Remediation.” It was developed by Siegfried Engelmann, University of Oregon, and Elaine C. Bruner, Educational Specialist, Bureau of Educational Research, University of Illinois.

Because DISTAR has been discussed so extensively in the United States today, Dorothy Smith of the Reading Center and Clinic and Joe Chapel of the Reading Resources Center presented a demonstration and panel discussion of the program to educators in southwestern Michigan on May 4. The all day program featured a talk by Elaine Bruner and a presentation by Carol Ulrich who is on the staff of one of the Learning Villages in Kalamazoo. Two demonstrations were given using the DISTAR materials; one by Antoinette Johns, East Comstock Special Education teacher, and the other by the co-author of DISTAR, Elaine Bruner. A panel consisting of Dr. Morvin Wirtz, Dr. William Cansfield, Mrs. Jan Fortenbacher and Joe R. Chapel discussed advantages and disadvantages of the program.
DID YOU SEE?

Betty L. Hagberg

“Perceptual-Motor Activities in the Treatment of Severe Reading Disability?” This interesting article by Bruce Balow appears in the March 1971 issue of The Reading Teacher.


“The Unreachable Child” by Catherine Marsink in the April 1971 issue of the Journal of Learning Disabilities? The article demonstrates what a regular classroom teacher can do to help an “unreachable child.”

“The Right To Read—Target for the 70’s” by James Duggins, Guest Editor, in the April 1971 issue of Phi Delta Kappan? He discusses education’s moonshot, “the right to read in the 70’s” and presents a challenge to teachers of all grade levels.

Junior-Community College Reading/Study Skills? This annotated bibliography compiled by Gene Kerstiens includes many references on the topic. It can be ordered from the International Reading Association, Newark, Delaware 19711.

“Teaching Reading in a Community College-A Remedial Activity?” This article by David P. Martin illustrates how college reading courses are benefiting large numbers of students deficient in reading. The article is published in the March 1971 issue of the Journal of Reading.


Catherine V. Marsink’s “Teaching Early Elementary Children With Reading Disability?” This article discusses procedures, results, and conclusions of individualized instruction for the disabled reader in the elementary grades. It appears in the March 1971 issue of The Reading Teacher.
WE SUGGEST

Eleanor Buelke

Austin, D., Clark, V., and Fitchett, G.

Reading Rights For Boys

Education that is active, exploratory, problem-solving, adventurous, and aggressive has been talked about for a long time, but little has been done. A current interest in providing equality of educational opportunity for boys and girls has revived the talk and hopefully will result in action.

The mounting evidence of the disproportionate number of boys who are disabled readers, maladjusted, low achievers, delinquent, inattentive and rebellious reinforces and undergirds the urgent need for educational reform in the direction of equal opportunity for boys and girls.

These quotations from the foreword of Reading Rights For Boys set the frame of reference for this timely volume. In the book three concerned teachers show results of their study, experience, and exploration on the subject of boy-school conflict and failure in reading and language development.

In the first chapter, Austin, Clark, and Fitchett examine the discriminating character of the American school as a learning environment for boys. They cite contributing factors, such as differences in societal expectations, early verbal foundations, reading and language interests, and flexibility in masculine and feminine environments. They do not propose authoritative, final answers; but, they do follow this discussion of these factors with relevant questions concerning implications for instruction. These may well serve as foundation for further study and formulation for programs to alleviate the discriminating character of classroom reading and language instruction.

In subsequent chapters, the authors proceed in a similar format, discussing the following areas:

Chapter 2: The learning process and the perceptual differences between boys and girls
Chapter 3: Specific differences in language development between boys and girls
Chapter 4: Imposed language standards and the male image
Chapter 5: Masculine curriculum and the place of the male model
Chapter 6: Programs of instruction considerate of sex differences
Chapter 7: Continuous assessment techniques considerate of sex differences.
Delineation of appropriate concerns in each area, explanation of educational theories, and description of current classroom practices, in each case, precede implications for an instructional program. Generally, these implications are stated somewhat tentatively, guaranteeing no immediate, easy answers, or comfortable, quick cures.

The final chapter, “Review of critical factors in a program of language development,” is a clear summary of understandings basic to the major premises of the text. It serves to clarify concepts related to implementation of instructional programs which recognize the need for a male learning environment.

Students, teachers, and administrators who read and study this book will be aware that it is based upon sound, educational, linguistic theories, and upon scientific knowledge from related fields such as psychology, human development, and the social sciences. Wisely, the three teacher-authors have refrained from viewing the problem simplistically, or authoritatively. Quite probably, their positive inferences and suggestions will evoke further exploration, experimentation, and action research encouraging improved learning for children and educators alike.

Much is being spoken and heard, written and read, about “rights” these days. For many, the struggle to secure and maintain rights for themselves, and others, has become a way of life. Each concerned educator has a private battle of his own to wage for rights for teachers and learners as human beings. It seems worthwhile, indeed, encouraging, to note that many leaders and writers are actively involved in prodding a professional/public conscience to an awareness that disregarding or diminishing rights of any segment of society, in some measure diminishes and disables society itself.
Dear Readers,

What, in your opinion, is the single most important quality a teacher of reading must have? This question was asked of some elementary teachers, and here are their answers.

. . . understanding. She must understand the children themselves and know how to help them to do their best. She must understand the children’s varying abilities and how to cope with each. It is important that a teacher fully understands her reading program and how to present it in an interesting, enjoyable, and productive manner.

Ruth Lehmer
1st grade teacher
Colon Elementary School
Colon, Michigan

. . . the ability to help a child meet his needs in the reading program. These needs may not always be reading materials and aids. In some cases encouragement, friendship, praise, a cheerful atmosphere, confidence, and love will contribute to the reading program.

Louise F. Schuster
3rd grade teacher
White Pigeon Central Elementary School
White Pigeon, Michigan
the ability to communicate with children. Knowledge of teaching methods is not enough if you cannot apply them to an individual's needs.

Susan Cook

... an understanding of children and of their developmental growth. A reading teacher must understand each child that she works with and must take the child from the level he is at and continue to give him the reading experiences that he needs so that he will gain self-confidence in reading.

Lila Munson
Later Elementary Special Education teacher
Wenzel School
Sturgis, Michigan

... sincere concern and understanding of each child and his background.

Helen Kreitzer
Primary Room teacher
Eastside Elementary School
Constantine, Michigan

... in my opinion I think the knowledge of reading is the single most important quality a teacher must have.

Margaret Hesher
1st grade teacher
Eastside Elementary School
Constantine, Michigan

... I believe that an understanding of the child's personal feelings about reading itself and his feelings about his abilities to acquire the skills needed for reading is most important. If he has negative feelings, it is imperative that some means of changing these toward the positive be found as soon as possible.

Dorothy J. Berger
2nd grade teacher
Three Rivers Public Schools
Park Community Elementary Building
Moorepark, Michigan
.. the teacher may know her subject well, have a good understanding of technique, and even know children and their learning process, but without enthusiasm for the task of teaching reading, her efforts will become routine and effective learning will be stifled.

Thelma Struthers
Kindergarten teacher
Eastside Elementary School
Constantine, Michigan

.. has to be understanding. A teacher must understand that each student is an individual; each student, no matter how small, has feelings that must be considered. A teacher must understand her subject and be able to adjust her plans to the child's needs. Understanding—the basic foundation upon which all teachers need to stand.

Doris Puskas
1st grade teacher
H. P. Barrows School
Three Rivers, Michigan

.. the ability to understand and get along with the students. By understanding I mean that she knows their reading problems and she starts each child off on his own level. The teacher does not make the students feel they can't succeed even if they have had repeated failures. The reading teacher makes the students feel they can and will succeed because she wants them to and believes in their ability to do so.

Hilda Gose
3rd grade teacher
Riverside Elementary School
Constantine, Michigan

.. a teacher's attitude can either promote a happy, successful program or produce frustration and a dislike for reading. A teacher must have a love for children, a desire to want to help, fairness, a good understanding, and good rapport that will produce motivation for reading. If you give a feeling of success, you will reap success.

Pauline Lake
Remedial Reading teacher
Central Elementary School
White Pigeon, Michigan
the knowledge of where to obtain the materials needed to help correct the reading problems that have been diagnosed.

Ruth Benwire
5th grade teacher
Colon Elementary School
Colon, Michigan

the ability to make a child feel that what he brings to share with you is as important as that which you can share with him.

Phyllis Winston
3rd grade teacher
Colon Elementary School
Colon, Michigan
If we teach a child to read, yet develop not the taste for reading, all our teaching is for naught. We shall have produced a nation of "illiterate literates"—those who know how to read, but do not read. —Charlotte S. Huck


In general, the author concluded that a molar view of the process of classroom reading instruction generates a number of important and researchable hypotheses and implications. It is felt that the investigation of these ideas will contribute not only to the improvement of classroom practices but also will expand overall knowledge regarding the critical variables involved in learning to read.


The writer describes the effect of more precise statements of objectives on the teaching task and on the outcomes of evaluation. Two systems for collecting and interpreting data are presented. Evaluation must be realistic and pragmatic, as well as somewhat idealistic. The total waste of resources that accompanies some elaborate schemes which are excessively time-consuming and virtually impossible to perform should be corrected.


Historical linguistics may be used as a tool by teachers to eliminate the use of abbreviations by rote, applying silent letter combinations through sheer memory only, or other such questionable practices. In short, the rationale and the logic of historical linguistics underlying the uses and changes of language make it easier for the teacher to determine relative importance of what, why, how, and how much of an item should be taught.

Self concept is as much a factor in reading success as intelligence or mastery of basic skills. A program integrating reading instruction and development of positive self perceptions is exciting because it offers the promise of meeting individual needs for learning and for good emotional development.

Birkley, Marilyn, "Effecting Reading Improvement in the Classroom through Teacher Self-Improvement Programs," Journal of Reading (November, 1970), 14:94-100.

Whereas traditional reading courses are directed toward developing theory alone as an approach to the teaching of reading, the main objective of this course is to teach teachers how to read. Pedagogically, this concept, according to the author, is a sound one and the results can be really phenomenal.


While informal methods of appraising reading ability have long been valued as diagnostic tools for the classroom teacher, there has been considerable disagreement among reading experts regarding the criteria for estimating instructional level. The present article is concerned with another limitation inherent in the application of predetermined statistical criteria to informal reading performance: such criteria fail to take into account important personality differences among learners. Both theoretical and empirical studies in the field of motivation indicate that the optimal amount of novel stimulation (e.g., unfamiliar words, concepts or grammatical structures) is highly variable, depending on such factors as level of drive, achievement motivation, aspiration level, reaction to threat, degree of curiosity, and desire for novelty. Hence, motivational considerations suggest the importance of flexibility in estimating individual instructional level.


This study was undertaken to test the effects of instructional
booklets on improving children's abilities to follow directions, as reflected by their abilities to perform on pre- and post-tests. The study focused on the development and testing of a program that would improve subjects' abilities to follow written and oral instructions. The instructional booklets consisted of written directions supplemented with illustrations designed to enable the reader to perform, on the assumption that pupils can be led to an interest in learning through the use of intrinsic motivational devices emphasizing their immediate needs and interests. A second consideration was the importance of developing materials with which children could work that go beyond the printed page.


While there are many ways of teaching children to learn to read and many ways of helping children to decode at the beginning levels, teachers should not rely on one method or approach for all children within their classes. Little research has been done to show the superiority of one decoding method over another. In some instances there is little research that tells conclusively how effective any one particular method is. Teachers must become skillful enough in knowing children and approaches to reading so that the best approach might be found for each child. Flexibility in teaching is still the byword.


This brief article has tried to enumerate a few of the reasons why phonics materials are an especially big seller in the educational market place. Its content has been developed on the assumption that an awareness of some of the factors that affect buying will make the buyer more perceptive and discriminating. In no sense does the article imply that educators must rely only on published materials to do their job. Certainly some of the best materials used by children are what a teacher
makes out of her knowledge of what needs to be taught and practiced. However, it is unrealistic to think that all the materials required by classroom instruction can be "home made." There is an ever increasing need to be wary of products, knowing that the motivation of the educator and that of the publisher will not always be the same.

Early, Margaret J. and Harold L. Herber, "False Dichotomies," *Journal of Reading* (November, 1970), 14:75-76.

The authors ask for a moratorium on the following five questions: (1) Electronic media versus print (or will reading be as necessary in the 21st century as it has been in the past?); (2) Special reading classes versus reading instruction in appropriate content areas; (3) Phonics versus look-say; (4) "Individualized" or "free" reading versus planned instruction; (5) Hardware versus software, (or are machines necessary?).

Fay, Leo,  *Organization and Administration of School Reading Programs*, The Reading Research Profiles Series of Bibliographies, Printed in cooperation with the International Reading Association, 64 pp.

The Reading Research Profiles series of bibliographies is structured on the ERIC/CRIER classification system and is printed in cooperation with the International Reading Association. Bibliographies include ERIC/CRIER Basic References; School Organization; Classroom Organization; Administrative and Supervisory Policies and Practices; and Organization and Administration of Special Programs.


Since its arrival on the educational scene in the early 1960's the "talking typewriter" or Edison Responsive Environment Learning System has helped many children learn to read. This typewriter is a complex, but very flexible machine, its prime feature being that reading instruction can be programmed to meet the individual needs of the child. The typewriter (ERE) is a multisensory instructional system that teaches the child by
talking and responding in much the same manner as a teacher does.


The object of this study is to set up a model classroom in which all aspects of it would lead to improving the self-concept of the individual students. Tests, techniques, attitudes (teacher and students), and the total environmental setting in which a good self concept is nurtured and the direct bearing this has upon reading are also investigated.


The various approaches and methods to increase reading achievement have led to extensive research into the factors involved in teaching children to read. The Impress method (often called the neurological impress reading method) is yet another method developed to increase reading achievement for children. Using the impress method as a vehicle for the correct reading process, the child is exposed to only accurate, correct reading patterns. The impress method is a unison reading process in which the child and the teacher read aloud, simultaneously.


According to the author, the reading level concept has contributed greatly to efforts by teachers to teach readers on their own instructional terms. Through application of this concept, teachers have been learning to differentiate instruction. Utilization of the reader levels concept is not only valuable but commonplace. Yet for all its virtues, the conventional use of the reader level concept is not without significant limitations. When a reader has chosen material to read because of personal interest, he can break many of the frustration barriers. Strong interest can frequently cause the reader to transcend not only
his independent but also his so-called instruction level. Such is the power of self motivation.


It was not the author’s purpose to delineate the methods for teaching individuals how to read nor to show how a teacher can cope with individual differences in a class. The purpose was to analyze the interaction between the individual and his reading and to recognize the contribution that reading can make to his total development. Only four points were discussed, though admittedly there are others. First is purpose. Reading for what? To what end? Is reading necessary in an Electronic Age where no printed means of communication abound? Second is the individual’s acceptance of responsibility for his own learning. Third is the development of the thinking individual. Fourth is the necessity for self-renewal as a lifelong pursuit.


Two essential components of the reading process seem to be ignored—at a measurable cost—when reading instruction is departmentalized, compartmentalized, and grade-stratified. The first of these constituents is the understanding of reading as an integral part of the total language and thinking development of the individual; the second, realization that reading is a skill to be employed for the acquisition of knowledge and self-growth. There seems to be no valid reason for teaching reading apart from the rest of the curriculum; rather one might expect it to be taught as part of every subject that involves the use of language.


“Petal-Plucker” is a term used by Dr. Walter Loban which describes the individual who thinks life, and all things, is as simple as plucking the petals off a daisy. Generally speaking, the petal-pluckers in education have this characteristic in com-
mon: a firm belief that there is one and only one way to teach reading. Three major factors contributing to the petal-plucking syndrome have been isolated: insecurity on the part of the teacher, investment by administrators in one program to teach reading, and ignorance of the many techniques which can be used to teach reading.


The inclusion of much greater amounts of expository material in future reading programs would make more rational the relationship between the reading skills children are expected to acquire and the material through which they are expected to acquire them. It would free narrative fiction from the burden of coercion and permit children to read fiction for pleasure. It would make the reading program more relevant to the demands that society will eventually make of the student at maturity, and possibly produce better quality textbooks in the content areas.


This article considers the future reading of partially seeing children in light of recent advances in technology, reading research, parent education, and knowledge of child growth. The partially seeing child of tomorrow will have many things in his favor. Medical and optical advances and even new legislation will be to his advantage. During preschool years his preparation for reading will be enhanced by varied experiences and by many skills taught him by his parents. Such a background will give him self-confidence and a real interest in learning to read.


This experiment was planned to study the benefits of a diagnostic and structured tutoring program in reading conducted by students majoring in elementary education. Specifically, the study sought to determine (1) if fourth grade
pupils who were tutored as part of their regular classroom instruction achieved significantly greater gains in reading achievement than fourth grade pupils who received only the regular classroom instruction; and (2) if pupils who were tutored individually achieved greater gains in reading achievement than pupils who were tutored in small groups. Findings indicate that the subjects tutored both individually and in small groups made significant gains in comprehension and total reading achievement, however, the subjects tutored individually made significantly greater gains in vocabulary than the subjects in the control groups.


The purpose of this investigation was to determine the relationships between kindergarten, first, and second grade pupils' performance on Frostig's sub-tests of Position in Space, Spatial Relations, and Figure Ground with their performance on tests of letter discrimination, word discrimination, phrase discrimination, and word identification. Little evidence was found to support Frostig's contention that (1) specific relationships exist between performance on the Frostig Tests employed in this study and reading performance and (2) that "normal" visual-perceptual development as measured by Frostig's tests must occur as a prerequisite to "normal" ability to learn to read.


The main purpose of this study was to determine what combinations of total scores and sub-test scores from the Wechsler Preschool and Primary Scale of Intelligence (WPPSI), the Sartain Reading Readiness Test (SRRT) and an Oral Language Sample would be the most successful in predicting a pupil's achievement in beginning reading as measured by midyear success on the Metropolitan Achievement Test (MAT). A secondary purpose of the study was to investigate the usefulness of these new measurement instruments. Findings indicate that the WPPSI, although somewhat helpful,
does not appear to be the most effective and efficient test to use for predicting success in beginning reading. (The performance scores were slightly more valuable than the verbal scores.) The SRRT appears to be quite effective in predicting success in beginning reading. The unique sub-test Word Memory, did an excellent job of discrimination and predicting. Any combination of parts of all tests contributed to a higher estimation of reading achievement than the use of any of the tests separately, but varied sub-tests may be necessary in order to assess certain individual strengths and weaknesses in abilities used in reading (behavioral and intellectual tasks).


In summary the author reiterated some of his major concerns and proposals: (1) That we maintain confidence in comprehension, interpretation, appreciation, and application of what is being read as the basic goals in reading and give them priority in teaching; (2) That techniques and methodology be made to serve these ends and that they not be held primary in emphasis or in timing; (3) That we exploit to the fullest the value of individual personal motivation through a sense of involvement in content; (4) That we face the fact that relevance to students is more closely related to the new environment than it is to the traditional school content.

Marcus, Albert David, "The Development of a Diagnostic Test of Syntactic Meaning Clues in Reading," Diagnostic Viewpoints in Reading (Robert E. Leibert, Editor), International Reading Association, 1971, pp. 48-63.

This study was undertaken to develop a diagnostic instrument to measure the understanding of literal meaning by intermediate grade students through the use of syntactic clues within written standard English sentences. It was hypothesized that the diagnostic instrument would be a valid and reliable measure of students' ability to understand syntactic structures of predication, structures of complementation, structures of modification, and structures of coordination. The test served
its diagnostic purpose by indicating those syntactic structures with which an individual student had difficulty. This information enabled the teacher to plan a specific program for those students who needed additional help.


This report consists of a systematic treatment of these four crucial questions. (1) What kind of planning is worthwhile? (2) What functions should be considered? (3) What facilities should be considered? (4) Where does one go for additional information?

Rauch, Sidney J., “How to Evaluate a Reading Program,” The Reading Teacher (December, 1970), 24:244-250.

There is a need for constant evaluation of reading programs. However, all concerned must participate. Teachers must have confidence in the evaluators, and the evaluators must recognize the many day-by-day problems faced by the average teacher. Despite the importance of standardized test results, the heart of the evaluation is classroom performance. Recommendation must be realistic. They must consider not only what should be done, but what can be done within a specific school-community environment. In most instances, evaluation has a positive effect on the reading program. It compels administrators and teachers to take a closer look at their methods, their materials, and their children—and this close examination generally results in progress.


The author discussed six significant unsolved problems related to reading instruction. The first unsolved problem was to reach agreement about the terms used. A second unsolved problem was to understand and describe the reading process. The third unsolved problem was the preparation of competent persons to carry on the research needed to solve problems. A fourth unsolved problem dealt with the quality of teachers. If every child is to learn to read in harmony with his
capacity within the next decade, then the fifth problem, reading retardation, will be eliminated. The sixth problem, fully as significant as any other, was critical reading.


This annotated bibliography is deliberately limited to pertinent studies and prescriptions based on junior-community college populations and to literature specifically addressed to the junior college audience involved in improving reading/study skills.


The description of listening, decoding, comprehending, and reading presented by the author suggests a number of procedures which should be employed by teachers of reading. First, auditory and visual discrimination skills should be developed before they are required for learning more complex skills, such as decoding. Second, the decoding process should not require a child to read language patterns or use comprehension skills which he has not yet learned. Third, information sources should contain some real information. Many of the reading materials have little to comprehend. Fourth, teachers should encourage a child to vocalize during the initial stages of the decoding process, while he is learning to associate letters with sounds. And fifth, sources of interference which intrude upon the main channel, should be reduced.


The prime purpose of the College Reading course is to give instruction and practice in advanced reading skills appropriate for learning in college. The requirements of the course are flexible, adapted to the needs of the students who elect it. Approximately fifty percent of the time is spent on vocabulary development and its many related factors. High school students should know what is actually involved in the
process of reading. Therefore, time is spent in orienting students to a theoretical understanding of reading, to the various purposes for which we read, and to various methods of reading needed to satisfy these purposes. Intensive and critical reading techniques are explained and students are given exercises for practice in these areas. Rapid reading, skimming, and scanning techniques are taught in relation to their fulfillment of a particular purpose.


This paper attempts to point out some of the implications of Richards’ work for reading comprehension. Both literary criticism and rhetoric have much to contribute to the development of new models of comprehending. Richards’ findings have many implications. He found that readers have certain difficulties in comprehending. These difficulties are: (1) Making out the plain sense of poetry; (2) Sensuous apprehension; (3) Visual imagery; (4) Mnemonic irrelevancies; (5) Stock responses; (6) Sentimentality; (7) Doctrinal adhesions; (8) General critical preconceptions.


To teach word recognition, the tutor should know some principles of teaching word recognition, have an idea of a sequence of it, and learn some basic techniques for teaching it. In each of the remaining sections of this chapter are practical suggestions to use in teaching word recognition.


Teachers in the field of reading instruction probably ought to be interested in this innovation in school management since most contracts to date have been in reading instruction and/or computational skills. Reading teachers should want to know about instruments employed for pupil “entry” into the guaran-
teed contract as well as the evaluation process which will determine the final payment. Reading teachers should be concerned that a contract has turnkey provisions, i.e., the process of management and teacher training toward eventual local “take-over” of the systems employed by the contractor. Perhaps most importantly, reading teachers should be most vitally concerned with the definition of “reading” in the contract: What skills will be obtained? One caution: Performance contracting as a concept is only an administrative device, a systems vehicle for obtaining certain predetermined goals.


“Accept the negative; accentuate the positive,” is a good philosophy of life. It seems just right for cooperation between teachers and librarians. It is not a question of whether they will work together or not. The question is “how?” It must be the goal of every teacher to help each child to reach his destiny. Even one librarian or one teacher who has a consuming enthusiasm for reading will find some way to share this love with other people around. (1) Make the library as attractive as possible. (2) Use the bulletin boards to attract readers. (3) Personalize bulletin boards. (4) Cull magazines and send out notices of selected articles. (5) Alert teachers about television shows, local productions. (6) Anticipate, if possible, teachers’ needs. (7) Distribute a “book review” bulletin. (8) Make a book review file. (9) Compile a simplified “handbook” giving correct forms for writing papers. (10) Display projects done by students. (11) Keep an individual annotated interest file on teachers and students. (12) Affiliate yourself with professional library organizations. (13) Attend curriculum meetings. (14) Ask teachers to help weed out books that are out dated in their subject areas. (15) HAVE FUN.