DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 045 318   RE 003 163

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TITLE   DISTAR Reading--Research and Experiment.
INSTITUTION   Illinois Univ., Urbana.
PUB DATE   Sep 70
NOTE   54p.

EDRS PRICE   EDRS Price MF-$0.25 HC-$2.80
DESCRIPTORS   Ability Grouping, *Beginning Reading, *Culturally
                Disadvantaged, *Grade 1, Kindergarten Children,
                Reading Achievement, *Reading Programs, Reading
                Readiness, *Reading Research
IDENTIFIERS   DISTAR Reading Program

ABSTRACT
          Current research dealing with the importance of
reading, various beginning reading programs, and reading and the
disadvantaged child was surveyed. This was followed by an explanation
of the DISTAR Reading Program, which was designed to teach reading to
disadvantaged children. The remainder of the report described a study
which was conducted to substantiate the hypothesis that children who
are taught by the DISTAR approach will become successful readers. In
this study, 89 first-grade children were placed in four classes and
separated by each teacher into three ability groupings. Class 1
received instruction only in the DISTAR Reading Program; two classes
received instruction in Phonetic Keys to Reading, and the fourth
class was used to match "pair-wise" each child in Class 2 on certain
characteristics. Pretests and post-tests were administered to the
first three classes. Examination of the obtained data indicated that
all ability groups using the DISTAR approach profited from the
instruction. The DISTAR group, when compared to the other groups,
showed greater reading achievement. The study was chiefly significant
in regard to the achievement of the low ability group, who might have
been expected to fail in first grade. Tables and a bibliography are
included. (DH)

DISTAR READING--RESEARCH AND EXPERIMENT

FLORENCE WILLIAMSON

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I. INTRODUCTION

This paper reviews the research related to early reading, particularly first-grade reading and suggests a program which will enable children of all abilities to learn to read.

The first part of the paper examines the current research dealing with: the importance of reading, various programs of reading, reading and the disadvantaged child and an explanation of the DISTAR Reading Program including supportive research.

The next part of the paper discusses the sample used for the experiment which is a part of this study. Other parts of this paper include a section on the hypotheses and their results. The empirical data substantiates the hypotheses that the DISTAR Reading Program will enable all children using it to become successful readers.

Finally, this author discusses her commitment to the DISTAR Reading Program, the reasons for its success, the implication for kindergarten teachers, the need of in-service training, the importance of small classes and future needs and recommendations.

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II. SURVEY OF CURRENT RESEARCH
IN EARLY READING

A review of the literature, studies, and theories related to teaching reading to first graders has given many helpful insights into the problems which face the classroom teacher.

Dr. Edgar Dale of Ohio State University has this to say:

> "Reading is a many splendored thing. It involves careful, critical analysis and synthesis; it is swift for scanning. Reading can do some things much better than any other media, such as T.V., radio, photography. Reading is the most effective way to interconnect, inter-relate, integrate and evaluate all our learning. Reading helps us record and re-arrange symbolically our mentally filed experiences."[1]

Dale goes on to state that our progress has been uneven and grossly inadequate. We should acknowledge that learning to communicate is just as important as putting a man on the moon or the anti-ballistic missile system. He foresees a rough future, but an exciting one.

James E. Allen, Jr., former U. S. Commissioner of Education notes that "there is no higher nationwide priority in the field of education than the provision of the right to read for all . . . ."[2] His goal for the 1970s: "No child will leave school without knowing how to read."[3]

President Nixon's message to Congress on educational reform stresses the urgent need for increased research into the

problems of poor children in public schools. He asked for a
national institute of education to pursue research and devel-
opment.

A. Sterl Artley says that "Society may raise only an
eyebrow for one's inadequacies in spelling, math, or the abil-
ity to speak a foreign language; but, in one way or another,
it castigates an individual who cannot read or read effective-
ly."[4]

Sidney J. Rauch (1967), Victor M. Rental (1967), and
Nicholas P. Criscuolo (1968), discuss the necessity and desir-
ability of total faculty and administrative involvement in
programs dedicated to improvement in reading. Rauch and
Criscuolo also stress the necessity of an in-service training
program. Dorothy M. Dietrich (1969) reports that some instruc-
tional programs may provide readiness for some but not be ef-
fective for others because of the abilities (or disabilities)
the children bring to the classroom. The challenge is directed
to classroom teachers, reading specialists, administrators,
researchers, college teachers of reading for teacher training
and the State Departments of Education.

Harold Howe, II (1966) reaffirms a view held by this
author that "Schools and educators must take the leadership
in the school desegregation process. Segregated classrooms
perpetuate in the negro child a feeling of second class cit-
izenship, which is both unfair and illegal."[5] I would make
the addition that in the classroom something must be done to
really help these children learn--where methods suited to their

needs are used. As Dr. J. McVicker Hunt in his book The Chal-
lenge of Incompetence and Poverty states: "Until something
is done to change the traditional use of the lockstep and the
competition in our schools, merely putting those culturally
deprived, be they black or white, together with those cultur-
ally privileged, can only make matters worse for those de-
prived."[6]

Alexander Frazier (1970) asks how reading will be
taught in the coming decade, and feels that what will be taught
will depend on the values society imposes on the school sys-
tem, demanding mastery and growth. "The new demand for mas-
tery is a demand from the total society--and our new, exacting
society won't take 'no' for an answer. Either we get on the
ball and teach children basic skills and content . . . or other
agencies will be called in to do the job for us."[7]

Arthus I. Gates (1969) would like to see education
make more use of the products of technology, teaching machines,
programmed and practice material, and other teaching aids.
Teachers and administrators should be willing to experiment
with materials and techniques in a continuing search for im-
proving classroom teaching of reading.

In looking into various studies and comparisons of
existing reading programs, such as basal series and individu-
alized reading approaches, the following information emerges.
One study conducted in 1968 by Ralph Staiger surveys the de-
velopment of the basal reader from its beginnings in the late
1700s to its status in the grade schools of today, with the

McGuffey Reader cited as the first carefully graded series
of one reader for each grade. Since then, many changes in the
basal series have been made, but the most telling criticism
of them remains--the lack of incorporation of the research
findings into their methodology. Homer Hoyt (1966) reports
a study of four different approaches to beginning reading in-
cluding the basic reading program, self-selection in reading,
language-experience approach, and programmed instruction.
Robert B. Hayes and Richard Wuest (1968) report on four ap-
proaches to beginning reading which included Scott-Foresman
and Co., a phonics program correlated with filmstrips (Lippin-
cott), a combination of Scott Foresman and phonics booklets,
and a language arts approach using ITA and Merrill. Independ-
ent reading was encouraged in all groups. In general, the
conclusion was that the Lippincott combination was worthy of
further study and use, but no one approach was consistently
better than the others.

Marion Potts and Carl Savino (1968) studied a random
sampling of 150 first graders to determine progress under three
different reading programs. Two were based on the teaching of
sound-symbol relationship, the other emphasized whole word
reading first. Data was analyzed and significant differences
(1% level) were found. The program which used the most inten-
sive phonics training proved to be the most effective; the
second most effective was also based on the sound-symbol re-
lationship.

Robert Dykstra (1968) reports on 27 projects with 20,000 first graders. He concludes that instruction in phonics is related to achievement in word recognition and spelling, and that a writing component is an effective addition to a primary reading program.

A look at reading series and techniques would not be complete without a look at the computer-based instruction and other individualized reading programs. Sherman H. Frey (1965) notes, "Programmed instruction is not receiving the widespread acceptance its proponents would like to see . . . materials now available are limited in scope of the mental activity required."[8] Later studies reveal that improvements have been made and some of the objections to it have been overcome. There are advantages to an individualized reading program which include:

1. A widely varied selection of material
2. Instruction at the child's interest rate and skill level
3. Use of time
4. Appeal of individual conference
5. Favorable attitude to reading.

Among the disadvantages are:

1. The large number of books needed
2. Student difficulty in self-selection
3. Lack of opportunity for readiness
4. Vocabulary, concepts and skills not systematically presented or repeated
5. Teacher must be highly competent in identifying skills and managing time
6. Some children need more structure and experience in group interaction
7. The danger of not reading in different types of books to broaden literary interest.

Although individualized instruction may have some advantages we need to look carefully at the disadvantages.

Harold L. Herber (1967), Carl B. Smith (1969), and Ruth Strick-
land (1969) state that it is impossible to meet needs of all
children by any one method of instruction, and that the most
important element in the reading program is the teacher. This
again heralds the need for in-service training. Albert J.
Harris (1969) agrees that the teacher is more important than
the instructional technique and further states that the skills-
centered approach is superior to the language-experience ap-
proach on reading tests and in spelling. Benjamin Soloman
(1966) sees that low-level teacher expectations need change,
and the Samuel Weintraub (1969) research indicates that "a
powerful but subtle force influencing our actions is the be-
havior expected of us."[9] R. Rosenthal (1966) presented evi-
dence to suggest that the experimenter often influenced his
subjects to respond in an expected manner. A mounting body
of evidence leads to the conclusion that there are fine, un-
conscious differences in the way we behave toward individuals
that are dependent upon how we perceive them.

Programs (none of which seem to be better than any
other) and reports indicating the importance of the teacher
still leaves us with the problem of teaching reading to the
child with special needs (referred to in much of the research
as the disadvantaged child).

Since the inability to deal with failure is generally
accepted as a characteristic of the disadvantaged child, it
follows that to instill a positive self-concept means forestall-
ing any possible experience of failure. One way to achieve

this in the teaching of reading would be structuring the whole
reading process as a sequence of well-defined learning stages
through which the child would proceed at his own rate.

Ernest Melby in 1967 speaking on education and the
disadvantaged argues that if the schools are to meet the needs
of a changing society, and if disadvantaged children are to
learn effectively, the objectives and practices of the current
educational system must be modified. Innovative curricula and
materials developed independently of the children for whom they
are ostensibly created should give way to scientific consider-
ations of the unique developmental, interpersonal, and environ-
mental factors which influence the actual learning process.
He further urges that we stop ignoring the huge body of research
on the learning process which we now possess.

S. Alan Cohen (1966) reached some conclusions about
teaching reading to the disadvantaged child. Word attack skills
including phonics, should be part of the instruction in reme-
dial reading programs. Further, that children tend to be visual
rather than auditory; they should be given linguistic-phonic
instruction in early beginning reading programs . . . . Teachers
do not know about new and appropriate materials, and methods
for teaching these children is another of his findings.

Dina Feitelson (1968) discusses teaching reading to
culturally disadvantaged children and makes these points in
her report: Cognitive unprepardness indicates a need for the
teacher to make certain that symbols are introduced slowly
and sequentially, accompanied by sufficient exercises to enable

the child to absorb them. This is an illustration of a prin-
ciple proposed by P. O. Ausubel (1963) that learning is facil-
itated by use of sequentially organized structured material.

Martin Deutsch as far back as 1963, speaks of the lower-
class child who comes to school with so few of the skills ne-
cessary to meet school demands that his initial failure is
almost inevitable--that school experience becomes negatively
rather than positively reinforced.

Joan Baratz notes, "The low income, urban Negro child
is failing in our schools. His inability to read is a major
challenge to contemporary education because of its relation-
ship to the child's self esteem and his ultimate social effec-
tiveness."[10] Baratz further feels that well-intentioned school
systems are not enough, and that despite the enormous expendi-
ture of energy in the remedial reading programs, children in
the ghetto are still not learning to read.

THE DISTAR APPROACH

One of the problems of teaching reading to children
with low mental ages (for example, of four to five) is that
most reading programs are geared to the children with a men-
tal age of six and one-half. A child with this higher mental
development will often have many of the basic reading skills
already accomplished or he can learn them quickly and without
the benefit of the most effective instrument. A child with
a low mental age might struggle to learn to read under such a
program for an inordinate amount of time. Retarded, handicapped

and deprived children must generally be instructed in the most
basic reading skills. They must be shown that each letter
represents a sound. They must then be taught that these sounds
are sequenced in a word in time. Also they must learn that
the reading code represents the passage of time through a left-
to-right progression of symbols. Blending is another skill
which is taught. Rhyming and alliteration tasks are useful
in teaching blending skills in developing this sound-sequence
skill. Continuous sound words like "fan" and "ran" should be
introduced before stop sound words like "cat" and "rat". Words
whose pronunciation does not fit the fundamental sound-sequence
approach for example "have" in which the "e" is not pronounced
and "she" which contains a double letter sound are called ir-
regular words and are introduced later.

It is my feeling that a program which would not only
serve the needs of the disadvantaged, but also would allow all
children in the classroom to proceed at their proper rate of
speed would be the most appropriate to use. Such a program
is now available for use in the classroom. It is called DISTAR,
published by Science Research Associates (1969, 1970), DISTAR
Reading is a two-year program for preschool and kindergarten,
kindergarten and first-grade, or first-grade and second-grade.

The DISTAR Reading Program is a code-cracking program.
Children usually fail to read because they can't take the first
step--they can't crack the code. They can't look at a word
as a series of sounds and put the sounds together to form a
word. This makes the first two years of reading instruction

the most crucial; it is during these years the child must be taught basic code-cracking skills. DISTAR is designed to teach culturally disadvantaged and below average children the skills they must have in order to read, and it is designed to teach them quickly, so that these children can proceed in reading instruction nearly as rapidly as the more able child. It provides exercises that the average learner does not need-- exercises in sequencing events, saying words slowly, rhyming, blending, and sound sliding. The program deals with all essential skills in such a way that children receive as much drill as they need in each skill area, insuring their performance as adequate for the more sophisticated reading tasks to come.

The Bereiter-Engelmann (B-E) Pre-School Program which includes language, reading, and arithmetic, was used in Grand Rapids. Michigan. The evaluation compared the Bereiter-Engelmann Program with an enrichment program stressing group orientation, field trips, and a control group. In a report prepared for the Office of Economic Opportunity in Washington, D.C., Dr. Esdel Erickson of Western Michigan University and principal investigator of the evaluation, discussed the findings. Children in all groups seemed to profit from the B-E kindergarten program. Those from the control pool scored slightly above age level and about equal to those who came out of the enrichment pre-school. But, again, children who came out of both the B-E pre-school and B-E kindergarten programs tended to score about one year above age level. Other findings

were: (1) Children from the B-E pre-school achieved about the same high level in both regular and B-E kindergarten programs. (2) Children from the enrichment pre-school who went into regular kindergarten scored significantly lower than those who went into the B-E kindergarten. The important point here is that poor, inner-city children who were in the P-E pre-school and who then went into either the B-E kindergarten or the regular kindergarten program showed no drop in intelligence. Generally, disadvantaged, inner-city children who were students in the Bereiter-Engelmann Program, maintained I.Q. averages about one year above the general population norm during a two-year study (Stanford-Binet).

The best results are achieved by a "code-emphasis" approach which focuses upon the child's attention on a printed word, rather than on a "meaning emphasis" approach which focuses the child's attention upon story content and pictures. The Carnegie Corporation study headed by Jeanne Chall, Harvard University professor of education conducted a significant reading research. The report, based on a study of sixty-seven research studies, visits to 300 classrooms, and interviews with 500 teachers and school administrators, has been published in book form, Learning to Read: The Great Debate.

Some of the major points made by the study are: Teachers invariably make adjustments in methods to suit their own style of teaching, making pure experiments difficult to report. The experimental research provides no evidence that either a "code" or a "meaning emphasis" fosters greater love of reading

or is more interesting to children, nor that one "code emphasis" produced commercially is better than any other. There is some experimental evidence that children of below-average and average intelligence and children of lower socio-economic background do better with an early "code emphasis". Brighter children and those from middle and high socio-economic backgrounds may also gain from such an approach, but probably not as much. Intelligence, help at home, and greater facility with language, probably allow these children to discover much of the code on their own, even if they follow a "meaning approach" at school. The correlational studies support the experimental finding that an initial "code-emphasis" produces better readers and spellers. They show a significant relationship between ability to recognize letters and give the sounds they represent, and reading achievement. Although knowledge of letters and their sound values does not assure success in reading, it does appear to be a necessary condition for success. In fact, it seems to be more essential for success in the early stages of reading than high intelligence and good oral language ability.

The report continues with more findings which are relevant to this paper: The remedial treatments described all concentrated on teaching the pupil to de-code the printed word, and help eventually to read with speed, comprehension, and appreciation. In short, the clinical reports analyzed give reason to believe that a stronger code-emphasis would help prevent reading failure, although never eliminate it entirely.

(There is sufficient evidence to show that such failure stems
also from the personal characteristics of the learner.) In
the section on interest in reading, the report concludes that
children can become interested in anything. "A hazard of the
conventional basal-reading programs shared by Phonetic Keys
to Reading, one of the supplemental phonics programs, was the
persistent questioning to which the children were subjected
on all aspects of meaning and interpretation of rather simple
stories. Even for children of average intelligence, such de-
tailed questioning to insure that they were reading for meaning
appeared unnecessary and tiring. True, not all stories were
interesting. But the main reason for the yawns and listlest-
ness was the 'wringing the story dry' through questioning.
The teachers were following the suggestions in the manual."[11]
Chall further states, "Good teaching is always needed, but a
good method in the hands of a good teacher--that is ideal."[12]
I agree. I also agree that good teachers are constantly search-
ing for good methods. Reference to research which supports
learning to read at an early age was reported using studies
conducted by C. C. Fries (1962), L. Bloomfield (1961), Wm.
Fowler (1962), Dolores Durkin (1964), and Carl Bereiter and
Siegfried Engelmann (1966) as a basis for the view expressed.

The summary statement from Richard Venesky, R. C. Calfee
and R. S. Chapman (1969) states, "Improvements in the teaching
of reading must be derived from an understanding of task-skills,
oral language skills, and from de-coding skills used in learn-
ing to read."[13]

Evan Keisler and John McNeil (1968) support the hypo-
thesis that the oral method of teaching reading is significantly
superior to the non-oral method. DISTAR Reading Program some-
times referred to as direct instruction method is definitely
an oral approach.

S. Jay Samuels (1967) in a study entitled "Attentional
Processes in Reading--The Effect of Pictures on the Acquisition
of Reading Responses" hypothesis that when words and pictures
are used together the pictures may miscue and divert attention,
thereby interfering with the acquisition of reading responses.
Results showed the "no-picture group" excelled in testing trials
and further that poor readers with no pictures present learned
more words. DISTAR Reading Program uses pictures at the end
of the story as a type of reward, but not during the lessons.
This avoids dependence upon pictures for clues.

Another report which supports a basic tenet in the
DISTAR Reading Program is R. J. Karraker (1968) "Teaching Be-
ginning Readers to Distinquish Between Similiar Letters of the
Alphabet". The research on the discrimination process indi-
cates that errorless learning can occur if stimuli are care-
fully programmed so that they are dissimilar and gradually
become more similar as training proceeds. (A specific exam-
ple; lower case b and d, with kindergarteners was one of the
facets of the experiment.)

Elaine Bruner (1967) in a paper presented at McGill
University in Canada has this to report: "Until substantial
mastery has been achieved by the slow reader, the sub-skills

to learning the mechanics of reading should be made the objec-
tives of instruction."[14] Focusing on words, blending, and
handling irregulars, are three of the sub-skills needed. To
teach the child to focus on words the teacher introduces ver-
bal rhyming and alliteration tasks. The five major blending
stages are:

1. Oral; the child blends together two parts of a
   familiar word
2. Oral-visual; the child blends the letters in
   written words before he can identify all the
   letters in these words
3. Visual; the child identifies and blends all the
   letters in written words
4. Oral; the child unblends (spells) a word into
   its separate letters
5. Visual; the child learns the written extension
   of oral spelling.

The final step in the beginning reading program is the intro-
duction of irregularly spelled words. Bruner reported good
results with a group of culturally-deprived four-year-olds
tested at 2.6 grade level in reading after about 100 hours
of instruction. Bruner is one of the authors of the DISTAR
Reading Program.

III. SAMPLE

The sample selected for this study was comprised of
a total of sixty-six children enrolled in the first grade
classes of the Champaign, Illinois (Unit 4) School District
plus twenty-three children in the randomly selected "class".
This total sample was divided into four classes for the pur-
pose of this study. All groups were heterogeneous.

CLASS I

Class I consisted of twenty-four first-grade students.
Of these nine were boys and fifteen girls. Four of the stu-
dents were black and twenty were white. At the beginning of
the study, the children's ages ranged from five years ten months
to seven years, two months. Various socio-economic backgrounds
were represented in this class.

Class I had some experience with the DISTAR materials
before this study was started. I taught the program in kin-
dergarten beginning in the fall of 1968. Small group instruc-
tion of twenty to thirty minutes daily was given to the kin-
dergarten classes. Part of the class started with DISTAR Lan-
guage Program and moved into the DISTAR Reading Program in the
second semester. Another part of the class started the reading
program in September and continued it throughout the year.

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At the end of the 1968-1969 school year I obtained
permission to continue teaching these children in first grade.
Some of the children moved out of town, some transferred to
their parochial school, but of the original thirty-six kinder-
garten children, twenty-two remained and were promoted to first-
grade. Two additional students were added in September. The
class size for general instruction was twenty-six to twenty-
seven children. However, data was complete for only the ex-
perimental group of twenty-four. (One child was absent for
the final testing.)

All of the children in Class I received instruction
in reading, using only the DISTAR Reading Program. No other
reading programs or forms of instruction were used to teach
Class I until Part II of the DISTAR Reading Program was com-
pleted. Library books were present in the classroom. The
teacher had more than ten years of kindergarten teaching ex-
perience, but no previous first-grade teaching experience.

CLASS II

Class II consisted of twenty first-grade children.
Of these twelve were boys and eight girls. Four of the child-
ren were black, and sixteen white. At the beginning of the
study the children's ages ranged from five years nine months
to six years nine months. A varied socio-economic background
was represented in this class. For purposes of general in-
struction the size of this class varied from twenty-five to

twenty-seven, but for the purposes of this study, complete
data was available only on twenty children.

All the children in Class II received instruction in
Phonetic Keys to Reading (PKR) as their basic instructional
method. The teacher of Class II also used any other techniques
and/or series for additional instruction and enrichment as she
saw fit. There was additional help given to four children in
Class II. This help was given by Learning Disabilities, or
Developmental. Teachers who used the DISTAR Reading Program.
The classroom teacher had over twenty years of first-grade
teaching experience. No screening of children was done for
this class.

CLASS III

Class III consisted of twenty-one first grade child-
ren. Of these ten were boys and eleven girls. Four of the
students were black and seventeen white. At the beginning of
this study the children's ages ranged from five years nine
months to seven years. Various socio-economic backgrounds
were represented in this class. For the purposes of general
instruction the size of the class varied from twenty-five to
twenty-seven children, but for the purpose of this study, com-
plete data was available on twenty-one children.

All the children in Class III received instruction
in Phonetic Keys to Reading (PKR) as their basic instructional
method. The teacher of Class III also used any other techniques
and/or series for additional instructional and enrichment as

she saw fit. There was additional help given to six children
in Class III. This help was given by the Developmental Teacher
who used the DISTAR Reading Program. The classroom teacher
had one and one-half years of teaching experience. No screen-
ing was done on this class.

Classes II and III were included in this study to in-
crease the total sample size and as a means of comparing the
DISTAR Reading Program to a PKR Program. Both Classes II and
III used PKR, but were taught by two different teachers in
two different locations, each using her own teaching strategies.

CLASS IV

Class IV consisted of twenty-three children selected
to match "pair-wise" each of twenty-three children in Class II
on the following characteristics: socio-economic background,
sex, race, I.Q. (variation of only plus or minus one point)
and age (to the exact month). This class was selected for
maximum match from first-grade class lists in the school dis-
trict, using the records of first-grade children from the
school year 1967-1968.

GROUPS

In each of the Classes I, II, and III there were three
groups (high, middle, and low). These groups were determined
by each teacher. Her opinion of the children's general reading
ability determined their group placement.

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS IN
EACH CLASS BY GROUPS

	high	middle	low
Class I	4	10	10
Class II	6	8	6
Class III	6	5	10

The study involving "Class" IV was not done on a group basis.

IV. METHODOLOGY

The Wide Range Achievement Test (WRAT) was given only to Classes I, II, and III in October as a pre-test.

The following January, 1970, the high-ability reading group of Class I (DISTAR) completed Part II and the DISTAR Reading Program. After this all high-ability reading groups of Classes I, II, and III were tested with the WRAT as a post-test.

In April, 1970, the middle-ability reading group of Class I (DISTAR) completed Part II of the DISTAR Reading Program. After this all middle-ability reading groups of Classes I, II, and III were tested with the WRAT as a post-test.

By June, 1970, the low-ability reading group of Class I (DISTAR) had completed only 300 of the 340 lessons of Part II of the DISTAR Reading Program. Since it was the end of the academic year, all low-ability reading groups of Classes I, II, and III were tested with the WRAT as a post-test.

In order to compare Classes I, II, and III and also to compare Class I and IV and to obtain additional measures of ability and achievement, it was necessary to use tests that have been administered traditionally. The California Test of Mental Maturity (CTMM) and The Metropolitan Achievement Test (MAT) are two such instruments. The CTMM was administered

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to Classes I. II, and III in October, 1969. The MAT tests
were given to Classes I. II, and III in June, 1970. Scores
for the CTMM and the MAT for the children who comprise Class IV
were a matter of record in the district office and are included
in this study.

STATISTICAL METHODOLOGY

In order to determine whether the scores show positive
significant differences, it was necessary to analyze all the
scores using methods that are designed for this purpose.

The statistical methodology used for the WRAT portion
of this study was to apply an analysis of variance for the
WRAT gain scores by groups. Then, to use Scheffe's Method
of Multiple Comparisons to contrast Class I (DISTAR) with the
average of Classes II and III (PKR). For the MAT portion
of this study an analysis of co-variance was applied using
WRAT-adjusted mean scores by groups. Then, Scheffe's Method
of Multiple Comparison was used to Contrast Class I (DISTAR)
with the average of Classes II and III (PKR).

A t-Test for independent means was used to compare
MAT mean scores between Class I (DISTAR) and Class IV (Matched
Control).

V. HYPOTHESES

DISTAR Reading Program will compare favorably with
the PKR Program for first-grade children of high ability in
reading, but DISTAR will be measurably better for children of
middle and low ability in reading.

I. There will be no significant difference between
    WRAT mean gain scores for Class I (DISTAR) as com-
    pared to the average for Classes II and III (PKR)
    in the high-ability reading groups.

II. Class I (DISTAR) will show a positive significant
    difference in terms of WRAT mean gain scores as
    compared to the average for Classes II and III
    (PKR) in both the middle and low-ability reading
    groups.

III. There will be no significant difference between the
     MAT scores (adjusted for October WRAT difference
     by means of co-variance techniques) for Class I
     (DISTAR) as compared to the average for Classes II
     and III (PKR) in the high-ability reading groups.

IV. Class I (DISTAR) will show a positive significant
    difference in terms of adjusted MAT scores as com-
    pared to the average for Classes II and III (PKR)
    in both the middle and low-ability reading groups.

V. Class I (DISTAR) will show a significant improvement in terms of MAT scores as compared to Class IV (The Matched Control "Class").

VI. RESULTS

By means of analysis of variance using the method of unweighted means on the Fall WRAT scores, it was found that there were no significant differences between the three classes in reading ability for each group. (See Table 1.)

The difference between the classes within reading groups is not significant and for that reason the classes were considered to be evenly matched.

TABLE 1

TABLE OF MEANS FOR CLASSES BY GROUPS

	High	Middle	Low
Class I	46.50	27.70	21.90
Class II	42.33	24.87	22.16
Class III	40.83	29.40	22.40

The final WRAT figures for DISTAR were 53.5; for Class II, 53.6; and for Class III, 52.5. The closeness of these figures indicates a ceiling. When test scores are initially high there is less room for gain before the ceiling is reached than when scores are initially low. In the initial WRAT figures for the DISTAR group were 46.5, while the figures for the other two classes was 42.33 and 40.83, allowing for greater gain

scores for the two classes.　It was easier to make greater
gains when the scores started out lower.　This condition in
statistical analysis is referred to as "the ceiling effect".
(See Tables 1 and 2.)

TABLE 2

ANALYSIS OF GAIN SCORES BY GROUPS

High-Ability Reading Group

Table of Means

	Mean	S.D.	N
Class I	7.00	5.94	4.
Class II	11.33	6.47	6.
Class III	11.66	3.44	6.

Analysis of Variance

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	Sum of Squares	F. Ratio	Probability
Between Classes	2.00	30.54	61.03	1.05	N.S.
Within Groups	13.00	28.82	374.66		

There are no significant differences in WRAT gain scores among
the classes at the high-ability reading group.　This supports
the author's hypothesis.

TABLE 2--Continued

Middle-Ability Reading Groups

Table of Means

	Mean	S.D.	N
Class I	34.10	11.92	10.
Class II	19.25	7.51	8.
Class III	29.00	6.20	5.

Analysis of Variance

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	Sum of Squares	F. Ratio	Probability
Between Classes	2.00	494.45	988.90	5.40	< 5.;
Within Groups	20.00	91.52	1830.40		

There are positive significant differences (5% level) in WRAT
gain scores among the classes at the middle-ability reading
group. This supports the author's hypothesis that the DISTAR
Reading Program would result in higher WRAT gain scores with
middle-ability reading groups.

TABLE 2--Continued

Low-Ability Reading Groups

Table of Mears

	Mean	S.D.	N
Class I	33.20	5.92	10.
Class II	16.50	7.34	6.
Class III	23.70	8.94	10.

Analysis of Variance

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	Sum of Squares	F. Ratio	Probability
Between Classes	2.00	555.16	1110.33	9.78	$< 1\%$
Within Groups	23.00	56.74	1305.20		

There are positive significant differences ($<1\%$ level) in WRAT gain scores among the classes at the low-ability reading group. This again supports the author's hypothesis that DISTAR would show greater gains over the PKR classes with low-ability children.

It was decided to do Multiple Comparisons after the analysis of variance in order to compare the DISTAR Class to the average of the PKR classes.

TABLE 3

SCHEFFEE'S METHOD OF MULTIPLE COMPARISONS
FOR WRAT-GAIN SCORES

Groups	$\hat{\psi}$	$\hat{\sigma}_\psi$	$\hat{\psi}/\hat{\sigma}_\psi$	Critical Value Needed for 5% sig.	Significance
High	4.5	3.10	1.45	2.76	N.S.
Middle	9.97	4.07	2.45	2.64	N.S.
Low	13.10	3.08	4.25	2.62	Sign. 5%

Where X = Class I gain $-$ $\dfrac{\text{Class II gain + Class III gain}}{2}$

and   is the estimate of the standard deviation of x.

For the high-ability reading group the WRAT gain score
data supports the hypothesis that there will be no significant
difference. In the middle-ability reading group, however, the
gain of Class I (DISTAR) as compared to Classes II and III (PKR)
fell just short of significance and the hypothesis of signifi-
cant difference was not supported. In the low-ability reading
group the hypothesis of better results with the DISTAR program
was supported by a positive difference significant at the 5%
level.

TABLE 4

ANALYSIS OF CO-VARIANCE OF METROPOLITAN
ACHIEVEMENT TOTAL SCORES
BY GROUPS

High-Ability Reading Groups

	Mean MAT Total	Adjusted Mean Based on Initial WRAT Scores
Class I (DISTAR)	114.00	112.99
Class II	109.50	109.57
Class III	112.33	112.77

F. RATIO Based on Adjusted Means = 1.63 (N.S.)

There were no significant differences in terms of adjusted
MAT scores among the classes at the high-ability reading groups.

Middle-Ability Reading Groups

	Mean MAT Total	Adjusted Mean Based on Initial WRAT Scores
Class I (DISTAR)	109.20	108.79
Class II	84.13	85.59
Class III	99.20	97.67

F. RATIO Based on Adjusted Means = 7.24 (sig. at <1%)

There are positive significant differences ($<1\%$ level) in adjusted MAT scores among the classes at the middle-ability reading groups, which supports the hypothesis that the DISTAR group would produce higher reading achievement.

TABLE 4--Continued

Low-Ability Reading Groups

	Mean MAT Total	Adjusted Mean Based on Initial WRAT Scores
Class I (DISTAR)	84.60	84.94
Class II	49.17	49.15
Class III	71.90	.71.57

F. RATIO Based on Adjusted Means = 9.07 (sig. $<1\%$)

There are positive significant differences ($<1\%$ level) in adjusted MAT scores among the classes at the low-ability reading groups. This supports the hypothesis that the DISTAR group would show greater reading achievement.

TABLE 5

SCHEFFES METHOD OF MULTIPLE COMPARISON
FOR ADJUSTED MAT SCORES

Groups	$\hat{\psi}$	$\hat{\sigma}_{\hat{\psi}}$	$\hat{\psi}/\hat{\sigma}_{\hat{\psi}}$	Critical Value	Significance
High	1.82	1.57	1.16	2.71	N.S.
Middle	17.16	5.20	3.30	2.64	Sign. 5%
Low	24.59	6.64	3.70	2.62	Sign. 5%

These data support all of the adjusted MAT score hypo-
theses. For the high-ability reading group there was no sig-
nificant difference. For the middle and low-ability reading
groups the data shows a positive significance level of 5%.
The hypothesis that the DISTAR group would show greater read-
ing achievement is upheld.

TABLE 6

t-TEST WITH MAT SCORES OF DISTAR CLASS
AND CLASS IV (MATCHED CONTROL)

Degrees of Freedom	Mean Difference	Standard Deviation of Difference	Standard Error of Mean Difference	t	Probability
22	+9.86	27.29	5.69	1.73	< 5%

The t-Test data is positively significant (<5% level).
It supports the hypothesis that Class I (DISTAR) children would

show significant improvement in terms of MAT scores as compared
to "Class" IV (Matched Control "Class") in reading achievement.

VII. DISCUSSION

The importance of proficiency in reading is a view
held in common by educators, administrators, government offi-
cials, researchers, and teachers. Teachers seek to teach all
children in their classes to read but there are always those
children for whom learning to read is especially difficult.
Many fail to learn, are retained in first grade, and/or require
special classes and remedial help. This author feels that
the DISTAR Reading Program would meet the needs of these child-
ren. My commitment to try out the DISTAR Program resulted
from my attendance at a summer workship, which covered the
basic philosophy of the DISTAR Reading Program, its history
and development, and actual demonstration and participation
with local children. At this time two things were particularly
impressive to me: (1) the sincere and determined effort on
the part of the writers of DISTAR to develop a program which
would really help the children learn, and (2) the evidence of
a change in the children's self-concept which was brought about
by the daily successes resulting from the applied philosophy
stressing the use of praise as one of its teaching techniques.

For these two reasons I felt that concrete empirical
data might help to substantiate the value of the DISTAR Reading
Program for use in Champaign Unit IV schools. I now feel that
the above research has firmly substantiated this feeling.

As teachers review the research about why children
fail to learn to read, they discover particular needs of dis-
advantaged learners (Havinghurst [1970], Williams [1970], etc.).
The researchers suggest that good intentions are not enough,
that we must seek an effective instrument to enable the child-
ren to find reading success in school. My research shows that
DISTAR can be that instrument.

As I started on this, I was seeking a program which
could be used for children of various reading abilities. This
program is not designed specifically for bright students, but
for those children for whom learning to read is a very diffi-
cult task.

Examination of the above data indicates that the child-
ren in the high-ability reading group were not handicapped by
a reading program initially formulated for the problem learner.
(See Table 2) The high-ability children continued to gain in
reading skills and were doing independent reading before and
after completion of Part II of the DISTAR. Their continued
gain is represented in the Metropolitan Achievement test data.
(See Table 4, 5, and 6)

The identification of the children in this group was
determined by the ease and skill with which they had progressed
with the DISTAR Reading Program. Since this group was reading
well at the beginning of the first-grade, they were used as
teacher-aides on a one-to-one basis, with the less skillful
readers given the opportunity to read to them. This one-to-one
reading technique was so well received by all the children

that it was expanded to all the groups. Sometimes the pupil would choose his teacher, and sometimes the teacher would choose his pupil. The children then selected their favorite corner or cubbyhole for their "read-to-each-other" session. The better readers also read activity cards used for enrichment in all subject areas to any children who needed help. Since no adult aides were available for this class until March, the help provided by these children was also very valuable to the teacher. The children serving as teacher-aides were excellent models, quick to employ the praise and correctional techniques they had observed used by the adult teacher.

The DISTAR Reading Program was very helpful for the children of the middle-ability reading group. The gains of this group are indicated by a positive significant difference at the 5% probability level (See Table 2, 4, 5, and 6). Children of this group were able to read many books from the library by Thanksgiving, and enjoyed participating as teacher-aides in the "read-to-each-other" projects. One of the favorite activities carried on during the indoor recess break was "playing school" in the reading corner. The children were able to read "teacher's directions", turn the pages in the spiral-bound teaching books, and in general, imitate the reinforcing behavior of the teacher. This was helpful for all concerned, and an activity which seemed to delight the children.

Findings of this study show that the DISTAR Reading Program was even more helpful for the children in the low-ability reading group (See Table 2, 4, 5, and 6). Since it is

.specifically designed to aid this type of learner, it was, therefore, expected to be successful, and these expectations were fully realized. The large significant difference at the 1% probability level make this very clear. These children who might have been expected to fail in the first grade or at least to have been frustrated day after day by other programs too advanced for their reading needs and levels of readiness. The DISTAR Reading Program, in a step-by-step method, teaches these children the skills that often are already a part of the knowledge of the more mature learner, but skills definitely necessary if a child is to learn to read.

The children in Class I (DISTAR) did not require reading help outside the classroom, but succeeded with the DISTAR Reading Program as provided. These children progressed from simple stories to more difficult ones, and on into reading the books which were part of the classroom library. In fact, at the conclusion of a field trip to the Champaign Public Library, a child with borderline learning difficulties decided for himself to read to his teacher his personally selected book, while the other children played in the park nearby.

The results of the study substantiate my hypotheses that the DISTAR Reading Program would be extremely helpful for the children of middle and low-ability reading groups. I feel there are several explanations of these results.

One reason DISTAR is successful is that it incorporates into its design sound educational techniques which are not employed in other programs. A review of the current literature

brought many ideas to mind, which I see reflected in the DISTAR
Program. The following are examples of those studies, reports,
and research that give evidence of some of this design:

Ausubel (1968) and Feilelson (1968) discuss se-
quentially organized, structured material and the slow
sequential organization of symbols with sufficient
exercise for absorption.

Cohen (1966) stressed phonics and the linguistic
phonic instruction in early beginning reading.

Karraker's (1968) research concern the importance
of carefully programmed instruction for similar letters.

Chall's (1967) report deals with the superiority
of the "code-emphasis" over the "meaning approach" in
the teaching of reading.

All these ideas are incorporated in the DISTAR Reading Program.

In addition to the carefully programmed teaching tech-
niques designed in the DISTAR Reading Program, its philosophy
of sequencing to prevent failure, which helps build a positive
self-concept, is another area which is basic to it and which
adds to its over-all success. The DISTAR philosophy impresses
one with its built-in success for the children. They succeed
and feel this success every day in many ways. The teacher
knows this will be so, and the children sense that they are
going to be successful. Rosenthal points out that there are
differences in the way we behave toward individuals that are
dependent upon how we perceive them. It is important, then,
for a teacher to feel that she does truly have an instrument

that will enable the children to succeed. Melby points out
the importance of instilling a positive self-concept by fore-
stalling any possible experience of failure. This is parti-
cularly important for the disadvantaged child. This is done
in DISTAR with well-defined small learning stages, so that
each child has many daily successes. The research of Having-
hurst (1970) and others support the use of external rewards
for disadvantaged children. DISTAR subscribes to this view.
However, in a public school classroom consisting of all levels
of pupils I used verbal praise, smiles, pats, handshakes, and
take-home papers and stories as rewards for working hard.
Stories and writing lessons are called "take-homes" and are
used in the teaching and as rewards, as well as providing the
opportunity for the child to share his schoolwork with his
parents on a day to day basis. The teacher, the children,
and the parents reflect this successful glow for which I would
like to credit the DISTAR philosophy. The importance of par-
ent involvement could well be a paper in itself, and is an area
which needs further research. Extant research by Hunt (1969),
Chase (1970), and others supports the positive, almost neces-
sary involvement of parents particularly when working with dis-
advantaged children.

In general the children feel successful--they are
learning HOW TO READ! Specifically, certain children might
bear further discussion. One boy, almost emotionally disturbed
(tantrums in kindergarten), worked very hard and was successful
in learning to read. One of the things that I feel was most

helpful for this child was the technique of the teacher first modeling for the child the way to perform the task, whatever it might be, and the child repeating it with me, then by himself. Finally he performs the task without the teacher model. This may seem a small point, but for this child the technique worked, not only in reading out also in playing games, in art, and in all of his other activities. This child needed to be shown exactly how to do something; and then he could learn. He was so proud when he realized he could read the library books in the classroom that reading became his first choice of things to do for pleasure.

A little girl, when asked by the art teacher, "Aren't you happy your teacher taught you to read so that you can read this word, 'collage'?", replied, "She didn't teach us. We learned all by ourselves!" And the boy with two sets of parents, who seemed at times to have his mind on other things, tested so high at the April testing that he was retested twice, both times with the same high results at a grade level placement of 6.1, WRAT. This child who was often highly distracted was able to learn to read very well because of the simplicity of the DISTAR approach. He was overheard by a visitor to say, "School is getting happier and happier all the time."

These few examples point to the fact that the DISTAR philosophy builds a positive self-concept.[17]

The data contained in this report clearly indicates that the DISTAR Reading Program is definitely helpful for children of average and below-average ability in reading. It would

seem to me that kindergarten and first-grade teachers would
be more successful in teaching the children to read if DISTAR
was used especially with these groups. The report of Erickson
and others (1967) shows that the earlier these children re-
ceived help the greater was the carry-over into other grades.
Our own district's move to the Dual Kindergarten indicates
good judgement on the part of those responsible for that deci-
sion. My findings support the validity of that decision.

Can the positive results from this study be expanded
to benefit other children in the school system? Could the
positive benefits be extended for use by kindergarten, first-
grade, and second-grade teachers? The special education teach-
ers are already using the DISTAR. This author sees this as a
very constructive educational decision by the school adminis-
tration and faculty. But isn't there more that can be done?
I think so! All kindergarten through grade-two teachers could
be given in-service training in the use of DISTAR. The value
of in-service training programs have long been highly regarded
by educational administrators as sound practice. It seems
feasible that DISTAR could be utilized in this manner.[18]

Rauch (1967) and Cruscuolo (1968) maintain the impor-
tance of administrative involvement and the necessity of in-
service training. Percy V. Williams (1970) goes even further
and suggests that teachers be included more in planning for
changes, particularly in the area dealing with programs for
the disadvantaged.

"In the past, major decisions on teaching youth have all too frequently been made without consultation with classroom teachers. Since there is apparently some difference of opinion between administrators and teachers in a number of critical areas, and since many existing programs have not been successful with deprived youth, more consideration should be given to new approaches which classroom teachers devise and recommend."

It is also my feeling that in kindergarten through second-grade, teachers should be encouraged to attend summer training sessions in the use of DISTAR techniques. They should also be afforded the opportunity to request the DISTAR materials for at least supplemental use in their classrooms.

Research has much to say in regard to children who learned to read in kindergarten. A study by Sutton (1969) showed that children who received a measure of reading ability in kindergarten had a continuing and increasing reading advantage over their classmates throughout primary grades. In Sutton's study instruction was presented in the second semester or kindergarten for fifteen minutes a day and in no way interrupted the normal kindergarten schedule. The children could participate or not, as they wished, in the informal reading activities. Another study by Shapiro and Willford (1969) determined that when reading is started in kindergarten it results in superior reading and spelling achievement at the end of grade two. Ramsey and Boercker (1967), Beery (1970), and Witty (1969), all state the possibility of fostering productive learning during the early childhood years.[19]

A point made many times in the literature is that the emphasis should be on prevention of reading failure rather than on remediation. DISTAR is sequenced to prevent failure.

Following the line of reasoning that prevention is better than remediation, examination of the studies and reports suggests that one way to prevent failure would be to govern class size in primary reading classes. Furno and Collins (1967) in a five-year study found that pupils in smaller classes made greater gains in reading and arithmetic. A report by Irvin H. Balow (1969) where one-half of the pupils in the first grades arrived at 9:00 and one-half of them arrived at 10:00, with dismissal following a similar schedule, produced some interesting information. The scheduling provided the teacher with two periods where only half of the children were in attendance at one time. The results add weight to the belief that reading achievement and class size are correlated positively in favor of the smaller class size. DISTAR is designed to be taught in small groups of five to seven (never more than ten and ten is not recommended). I preferred five students working in an atmosphere of undisturbed concentration. Hence activities for the rest of the class needed to be arranged, using aides, parents or teacher-structured choices. (The data in this report was evaluated at three times to give a three-group look at the classroom.) Actually, the teaching was done in five reading groups, to give opportunity for every child to participate many times during a session.

I am confident of the value and workability of the DISTAR Reading Program since my introduction to it in 1967. My confidence has been well validated by this study. This study and the related research referred to in this paper has given the necessary empirical support to the philosophical premises upon which DISTAR is founded and to its instructional make-up. I strongly suggest that the findings of this study be taken into account by the administration of Champaign Unit IV Schools and all other progressive elementary educators.

I am looking forward to the up-coming years. Further research of this type would be of great assistance in educational planning. I plan to use the DISTAR Reading Program for first-grade children. It will be interesting to note the amount of progress the children will make with only one year of the program. In all this I have been impressed with the results of the DISTAR Reading Program in the past, as this study shows, and I am confident of its value for the future.

Carl Rogers in his new book, Freedom to Learn, says:

"It goes without saying that programmed learning has great potential risks if it is unwisely used. If it becomes a substitute for thinking in larger patterns and gestalts, if it becomes a way of stressing factual knowledge as over against creativity, then real damage may be done. But if it is perceived as an instrument which may be used by educators to achieve flexibility in education, then it is readily evident that it is one of the most powerful tools which psychology has as yet contributed to the field."[20]

FOOTNOTES

[1]Edgar Dale, "The Future of Reading," The Reading Teach-
er (Dec., 1960), pp. 205-216.

[2]James E. Allen, Jr., "The Right to Read--Target for the
70's," Journal of Reading (Nov., 1969), pp. 95-101.

[3]Ibid., p. 101.

[4]A. Sterl Artley, "Teacher's Skills," Reading Teacher
(Dec., 1969), pp. 239-248.

[5]Harold Howe, II, "Educator's Most Crucial Issue" (May,
1966), Paper presented Founder's Day Convocation, Teacher's Col-
lege, Columbia University, N.Y.C.

[6]J. McVicker Hunt, The Challenge of Incompetence and
Poverty (1969), University of Ill. Press, Urbana, Ill., pp. 201-
202, 289.

[7]Alexander Frazier, "Curriculum--A Tougher Look at Skills--
A Closer Look at Children," Grade Teacher (Jan., 1970), pp. 95-97.

[8]Sherman H. Frey, "Readings in Classroom Learning,"
American Book Co. (1969), p. 392.

[9]Samuel Weintraub, "Teacher Expectation and Reading Per-
formance," The Reading Teacher (March, 1969), pp. 555-559.

[10]Joan C, Baratz, "Linguistic and Cultural Factors in
Teaching to Ghetto Children," Elementary English (Feb., 1969),
pp. 199-203.

[11]Jeanne Chall, Learning to Read: The Great Debate,
McGraw Hill Book Co., N.Y. (1967), p. 217.

[12]Ibid., p. 308.

[13]Richard Venesky, R. C. Calfee, and R. S. Chapman,
"Skills Required for Learning to Read," Education (Vol. 69,
April, 1969), pp. 298-300.

[14]Elaine Bruner, A paper presented at McGill University
in Canada (1967).

[15]With the exception: That Test data was not available for one child from the high level of Group I.

[16]Upon completion of Part II of the DISTAR Reading Program and following the administering of the January and April WRAT (post-tests) the children in Group I sub-groups: high and middle level, were placed in other reading series and/or individualized reading programs using any materials available to the teacher.

[17]This brief attempt in a few paragraphs to cover the DISTAR techniques and philosophy is inadequate. Hopefully, the reader will investigate it more fully on his own.

[18]There is available a DISTAR Language Program and a DISTAR Math Program especially designed for children with learning difficulties.

[19]For any reader desiring to pursue this line of research the information is contained in the bibliography. The scope of this paper precludes any further discussion of this area.

[20]Carl R. Rogers, Freedom to Learn. Chas. E. Merrill Pub. Co., Columbus, Ohio (1969), p. 141.

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