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ABSTRACT

Six topics were covered in the 17 papers presented at the Maryland Reading Institute: (1) teacher education, (2) utilization of reading personnel, (3) evaluation and review of curriculum innovations, (4) evaluation of reading resource materials, (5) individualization of instruction, and (6) reading and the social studies. Some of the specific subjects discussed were the role of reading specialists, the current trends in reading teacher education, an "open door" policy in using reading personnel and facilities, criticism of current definitions of innovation, gathering reading materials and organizing an effective reading resource facility, the use of learning stations in an individualized program, and the use of the daily newspaper in elementary language arts programs. References are included with most papers. (AL)

INNOVATIONS IN READING

POSITIONS PAPERS IN READING

MARYLAND READING INSTITUTE
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION • UNIVERSITY OF MARYLAND

INNOVATIONS IN READING

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PREFACE

Change is constantly with us. Change in curriculum, change in the use of personnel, change in availability of materials, and change in the scope of educational organization are but a few. Teachers, college professors, and school officials are constantly being confronted with proposals for change. The Maryland Reading Institute which was held in Ocean City, Maryland, in the fall of 1969, addressed itself to change.

As one reads through the papers which were presented at the Institute, one quickly realizes that there is no one opinion, no one "right" way, no easy blueprint for action. Staying up-to-date, being able to analyze critically, and being willing to place innovative procedures to the test of research are several of the procedures essential for educational leadership today.

Position papers were presented under six major topics: (1) Teacher Education, (2) Utilization of Reading Personnel, (3) Evaluation and Review of Curriculum Innovations, (4) Evaluation of Reading Resource Materials, (5) Individualization of Instruction, and (6) Reading and the Social Studies. Several papers were presented; under each topic they are compiled here in the order of their presentation.

Position papers are just that, papers which state a position. These papers represent the opinions of persons selected for their expertise. They do not necessarily reflect the positions of the institutions these people represent.

The Reading Center, University of Maryland, presents these papers to the school people of Maryland in the interest of open inquiry into the problems of today. May your reading of them be as enjoyable as was our participation at the Maryland Reading Institute.

Robert M. Wilson
College Park, Md.
Spring, 1970

SECTION I

TEACHER EDUCATION

TEACHER EDUCATION - AN EXPLORATION INTO NOWHERE

James C. Craig

When those of us who are in the business of education reflect on "teacher education"--what it is--what it is supposed to do--what it does--what it doesn't do--the saying of the great Pogo comes to mind,--"We have met the enemy, and he is us."

Usually, we describe teacher education in such terms as "pre-service" education, by which we mean what happens to somebody in some college or university before they are ready to get a job teaching. Or we speak of "in-service" education. Here we refer to a whole host of things we do to teachers after they get a job. These may be in the form of graduate courses at colleges or universities, workshops, classroom visitations, TV programs, seminars, or even the Maryland Reading Institutes.

Now there are some aspects of this "pre-service" and "in-service" education that we need to examine, at least for the purpose of this discussion. First, most of it is predetermined in advance, and the determination in no way considers the person to be educated. The teacher-training institutions and the state certification requirements de-

scribe in great detail how one becomes a teacher. Furthermore, this prescribing and fixing a curriculum in advance and describing one's education in terms of courses, credits, time spent in class, etc., violates many principles of good education. It does not--at any point--consider what a person is, what a person already knows, or what a person can do.

For example: Recently a teacher moved into Maryland from a nearby state where she had been fully certified and had taught with a very high degree of success for three years. She had a master's degree and eighteen graduate credits beyond; but to be certified to teach in Maryland, she needed two credits in music. No attempt was made to assess her capability as a teacher, nor even her competence in music. The decision was made that her basket of credits lacked something that somebody had predetermined was essential for all educated teachers.

This is an extreme example--although a true one--but it illustrates the same problems confronted by undergraduate students. Most schools of education have a cafeteria arrangement of vocational courses to prepare teachers to teach children, and once a student has chosen his field of study--elementary teaching, early childhood, high school English, etc., he is expected to eat nearly everything his cafeteria has to offer. Thus, most students preparing for elementary school teaching will have a course in foundations, general psychology, child psychology, methods of teaching arithmetic, reading, language arts, social studies, science, music, art,

physical education, and the like. The assumption is made that these areas of learning are important, and how to teach them is probably more important. Students are graduating knowing well what to teach, highly skilled in how to teach it, and with some well-conceived ideas as to when it ought to be taught. But at no time have they been confronted with resolving the question, "Why teach it, if at all?"

It is the "why" that has been missing in education, in all education, including teacher education. Until schools of education can come up with some general, unifying concern that holds together and gives purpose to all educative experiences and activities--a general, unifying concern understood jointly by the teacher and the learner--until then, schools of education will contribute little to the education of a teacher.

Secondly, not only is "pre-service" and "in-service" education determined in advance, but most of it is externally motivated and usually by someone "in charge" of the person who is expected to benefit from the education. Again, only in unusual cases does the learner get seriously involved in what is to be learned. The selection of graduate courses is usually determined by (1) degree requirements, (2) certification demands, or (3) advancement on the salary schedule. Although most students hope that a by-product of graduate study will promise significant professional improvement, the hope is seldom strong enough to motivate a teacher to spend the time, effort, and money solely for the purpose of pro-

fessional improvement.

In the public schools, usually the superintendent, or the principal, or some supervisor thinks it would be nice to have a workshop in reading, or arithmetic, or team-teaching, or some such. For whom?--the classroom teachers, of course. Again, the usual purpose is to consider content and method. How about a workshop on "Being kind to children?" or "How to be nice to everybody?" Or wouldn't it be refreshing if our in-service education would permit teachers to establish a workshop in reading--a workshop conducted by teachers for principals, and supervisors, and assistant superintendents, and superintendents, so that these latter people might once again get the feel of the classroom, and the kids, and the concerns of teachers?

There is another kind of teacher education that needs to be considered, because in my judgment it is the only kind that really makes a difference in what teachers do for children. It is the self-education of teachers. It goes on to some extent with all teachers, and with some to a much higher degree than with others. It assumes a professional commitment to go-a-questing--to ask one's self: Who am I? What am I? What are my interests and concerns? What are my professional assets? My liabilities? What am I going to do about it? And to thechild: Who are you? What are your concerns? What are your learning assets? Your learning deficiencies? What can I do about it? This kind of self-education can thrive in any school where the atmosphere permits it, encourages it, supports it, and expects it. It will support

the desire of teachers to go back to school to learn--not to take courses. Hopefully, it will encourage college teachers to raise questions--not give answers. It will stimulate teachers to read a wide variety of professional or professionally related materials--reading that far too frequently cannot be accommodated in graduate courses for workshop activities.

But this is a reading institute, and what has all this to do with reading? Perhaps some comments and assumptions about reading and the nature of the reading process, and the ways in which schools of education and the public schools deal with it are in order. These are expressions of my own personal feelings. They are offered sincerely because I think they are true. In any event, it is hoped they will form the basis upon which you can re-establish your own prejudices and draw your own conclusions.

(1) Most college courses on reading methods are designed to promote pedagogical proficiency in the use of basal reading systems. Reading instruction which relies on a basal reading system is an unnatural process: a process which ignores the basic nature of the child and his own language growth and development. Such courses contribute little to teacher education.

(2) All children can learn to read.

(3) Independence in reading for nearly all children can and should be achieved by the end of the first two years in school--kingergarten and first grade. (For the purpose of

discussion here, independence is defined as the willingness of a child to seek out a book on his own, because he wants to read it and thinks he can.) There will be rare exceptions, of course, but when children cannot read (as herein defined) by the end of the first grade, the school should examine the teacher and the program, as well as the child.

(4) Reading is an aspect of the total language emergent process. It is not a set of skills to be studied apart.

(5) For most children learning to read is an easy task, a task which needs little pedagogical support and no particular material support. One might say with equal certainty that for any child learning how teachers teach reading is a complex and difficult task.

(6) Emergent language development is a personal part of a child's total development. It is not something to be taught, but something to be cultivated and nurtured in every possible situation. Since it is a personal matter, it follows that the initial reading vocabulary of any child should be his own language.

Finally, all education--including teacher education--is a continuous process. That which takes place at any particular time is a part of what has been, of what is, and of what one hopes will be. Teacher education especially should explore the "why" of education--why it was? why it is? should it be? Then the child and his concerns and his world become the curriculum. Knowing how to know the child, and how to go-a-questing with him become teacher education. Then the

disciplines and methods of teaching them; the courses and credits one gets for taking them--these, then, assume their real importance in teacher education; and if you will look real closely, you will find that importance isn't very much.

TRENDS IN TRAINING READING TEACHERS

Ruby Shubkagle

It is with great trepidation that I approach my topic. My fears stem from the vastness of the subject and the ambiguity of the word "trend".

In discussing the training of reading teachers, it is necessary to consider the entire teacher-training program, as well as the role of the teacher in the learning process and the nature of the learning process itself. Reading is an integral part of the teaching-learning process and to isolate it does damage to the basic theory from which our best teaching practices originate.

The word "trend" is semantically difficult when applied to any educational process. It contains an ambiguity that encourages deliberate and inadvertent misuse. "Trend" has been attached to old concepts as an attention-getting device to get funds, publicity, promotions and profits. When and where does a trend begin, and when and where does it become practice? I don't know. The trend in the length of women's skirts is difficult to determine at the moment and the identification of trends in the teaching of reading and the training of reading teachers is impossible to identify. However,

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*The author was unable to attend the institute; therefore, this paper was not presented.

there are new emphases and re-emphases of ideas that have been around since Plato and Aristotle discussed human intellectual development. So, being cowardly, I shall proceed with emphases.

All reputable research, and scrutinized practice, indicate that the most important factor in successful teaching is the teacher. Methods, materials, school organization and grouping are all relatively unimportant. It is the quality of the teaching that makes the difference. Therefore, the selection of candidates for teacher-training programs is crucial. This is not a new insight. We have tried substituting materials, organization and machines for trained, well-selected teachers, and we have failed. We are beginning to consider the teacher as the director of learning.

Intelligent, well-qualified candidates must be put into challenging, stimulating training programs. Programs should be based upon sound liberal arts foundations, followed by internships under truly master teachers in ghetto and middle-class schools. This is a dangerous simplification of a vast and involved problem. For details concerning attempts to improve teacher education, see "Innovative Programs in Student Teaching."[1] We are trying to improve the quality of teacher education.

Another emphases is the inclusion in the public schools of two year old children. The lack of success in teaching

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[1]Roy A. Edelfelt (ed.), Innovative Programs in Student Teaching. Annapolis, Maryland, Maryland State Department of Education, 1969.

underprivileged children indicates that the stimulating environment necessary for normal intellectual development must be provided from the age of two years. This necessitates more emphases upon language readiness and a corp of teachers carefully chosen and specially trained for working with children from two through six years of age.

Lack of success in teaching ghetto children has made us realize the necessity of doing more than verbalizing about individual differences. With the aid of new materials, more flexible organizations, new insights into different modes of learning and the inherent differences in disciplines, we are beginning to recognize the necessity of sensitizing teachers to the variations in human learning.

My last emphasis has to do with our new insights into the nature of language. Our curriculum is based upon the long-accepted assumption that language is imitative behavior; but the linguists and biologists are proposing, on the basis of good evidence, that a biological view of language is essential to understanding its origin, character and development.[2] This theory of language development puts little emphases on either societal influences or the individual. Evidence from the ethological field proposes that many specific aspects of human cognitive functioning are species-specific. An example is the human ability to categorize which is an inherited and evolved mode of adaptation as is the nesting or food gather-

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[2]Eric H. Lenneberg, Biological Foundations of Language. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1967.

ing behavior of some birds or animals considered to be species-specific. Readiness for different behaviors peculiar to the species is the result of biological development. Speech is not social imitation but total bodily activity. Our genetic make-up is such that we develop the capacity to learn a language at one particular period in our lives, so readiness and releasor mechanisms are important, not imitation or association or motivation. The period of language readiness extends from the age of two through twelve. The older the child the more difficult it is to learn language. After the age of twelve, it is almost impossible to acquire fluency in communication skills.

And what are the implications for education and teacher education? We are beginning to look at the young child, at his language development and the interrelationships involved, among which are language development and intellectual capacity. Colleges are beginning to train teachers to understand language development and the young child.

Out of the emphases, I timidly identify a trend--a trend toward an honest endeavor to improve education for all children by admitting to our costly mistakes, consolidating our hard won gains, and working cooperatively with all groups concerned with the development and survival of the human species.

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SECTION II

UTILIZATION OF READING PERSONNEL

UTILIZATION OF READING PERSONNEL

Robert W. Gaddis

The key to success in almost any endeavor in life is the ability to read, and a child is given a better opportunity to learn to read when he has a teacher who knows how to teach reading.

There appears to be general agreement in the research available (and among the general public) that a certain percentage of our children have not learned to read. Whether this percentage is increasing or decreasing significantly, I cannot say. We have tried in a number of ways to cope with this problem via visual aids, teaching machines, the linguistics approach, programmed reading, and the use of reading specialists. Still, in my opinion, we have not gotten at the heart of the problem. As I see it, the heart of the problem is to have in every elementary classroom a teacher who is well prepared to teach developmental reading. An ounce of developmental reading is worth a pound of remedial reading.

Let us face facts! We have teachers in our elementary classrooms who do not do a good job teaching reading. This should not be too startling to us. You know, as well as I, that a goodly number of our elementary classroom teachers have not completed four years of college and many of those who have completed college have not had teacher training.

According to the latest published figures issued by the Maryland State Department of Education, 12.4 per cent of the elementary teachers employed in Maryland do not possess a Bachelor's degree and 30 per cent (or about one-third) of all our elementary teachers hold provisional certificates.

In such a situation as this, I think we must face reality. We, at present, must take the teachers we now have, or can employ, and train them ourselves at the local level. I believe this training must be "on our time" during the school day--not after school or on Saturday without extra financial compensation (but that is another story).

My first point, then, is that reading is necessary for success in the society in which we live; my second point is that it is the responsibility of the individual elementary classroom teacher to teach children to read. My third point is that, due to many factors, a great number of children are not learning to read.

Now, what have we done to solve this problem? In many cases we have instituted reading programs and have created the position of reading specialist. Realizing the risks involved in generalization and over-simplification, I would like to present some of the characteristics of our present solution, as I see it.

First, our reading programs are remedial in nature. While it is not an original thought with me, I do agree that remediation (in any subject area) as we handle it in our schools today is a national scandal. When a child does not

like to read, giving him more reading does little or nothing to help the problem. The chances are very good indeed that such an approach will compound the problem. I would also raise a number of questions about the permanency of the beneficial effects of remediation.

Most remedial programs are of the add-on variety and such programs generally require large sums of money for implementation. We should certainly keep in mind that when budget cuts become necessary, generally the first thing "to be cut" is the add-on, expensive remedial programs.

Then, our state certification requirements have "legalized" the remedial nature of our reading programs. Certification requirements for a teacher of reading and for a reading specialist emphasize courses in diagnosis and correction of reading difficulties, rather than courses which forestall such difficulties.

Secondly, in many instances, the reading specialist as we see him spends most of his time working with individual children or with small groups of children who are reading below grade level. When the reading specialist steps in and works primarily with children, the classroom teacher steps out. Such a situation creates, on the part of the classroom teacher, a feeling of not being immediately responsible for the progress of the child. The classroom teacher many times could, and does say, in effect, "That's not my problem; see the reading specialist."

Finally, in the reading picture today as I see it, many

reading specialists tend to isolate themselves from the educational scene. As specialists, they need a fully equipped office and, of course, their salary must be higher than that of their fellow-teachers. Their work load is reduced to a very limited number of students per day and they need free time to study and to analyze research. Make no mistake, down deep such isolation does not endear the specialist to the classroom teacher.

I have taken time to say all of the foregoing to establish background for the position I now set before you.

I sincerely believe that if we are to have effective reading programs the reading specialists must work primarily and directly with classroom teachers (not children) to help them become more effective teachers of developmental reading (not remedial reading). Most classroom teachers need and want help in this area; most classroom teachers want to be better, more effective teachers. By concentrating his efforts upon the teacher, the reading specialist can greatly increase his area of effectiveness and influence upon a greater number of children. He will also give the teacher a greater sense of fulfillment and worth and teachers appreciate this. He will ward off mistakes that require remediation before they occur. As we become more proficient in individualizing instruction (and we are making progress), the need for remediation decreases anyway, since the classroom teacher adjusts the level and rate of instruction to fit each individual student.

I urge you to consider the position I have taken. I sincerely believe this change in assignment for the reading specialist will improve the educational process and, after all, this is the reason we are in business.

A NEW LOOK AT THE ROLE OF THE READING SPECIALISTS

Dorothy Douglas Sullivan

School systems and those in higher education responsible for the training of reading specialists are facing a multi-faceted problem relating to the utilization of reading specialists in the school system. For the purposes of this paper, a reading specialist is defined as one fulfilling the criteria established by the Maryland State Department of Education. This position is to be distinguished from the position of reading teacher and its criteria. The traditional concept of the reading specialist as the one who deals with the diagnosis and remediation of the severely disabled reader is being challenged as increasing numbers of children are being identified as having specific deficits in their reading skills.

The Need for a New Role

It is not the purpose here to point out that there are increasing percentages of children not learning to read by the reading instruction currently being offered them, and then to challenge the validity of these reading programs. This author prefers to take the viewpoint that the increasing sophistication in the knowledge of the reading process and skills necessary for effective and efficient adult reading is enabling educational personnel responsible for the

development of these skills to be increasingly specific, and critical, in terms of the skill deficits of the children as they move through the K-12 reading programs. We are being more critical in view of the objectives of these programs.

This new role of the reading specialist has evolved as it has become increasingly apparent that many problems brought, or referred, to the reading teachers by the classroom teachers, could and should have been handled within the classroom setting. Reading specialists have found that many children are not getting the most effective reading instruction in their classroom experiences and are, consequently, feeling and becoming inadequate in their mastery of reading skills.

Sound logic has led these reading specialists to want to help these children before the damage is done. The earliest effort in the early 1960's was to develop diagnostic batteries for early identification of potential reading disabilities among first-grade children. Following this initial attack on the problem was an emphasis on examination of the reading experiences provided children in the early grades basically in terms of reading instruction as set by various types of materials. The U. S. Office of Education's First Grade and Follow-Up Studies found, and not too surprisingly, that it was the teacher, and not the material or method, that made the significant difference.

The reading specialist, therefore, has come to recognize that it is the classroom teacher who needs the help in order to prevent the reading problems of children. This immediate-

ly may imply to some that classroom teachers have been neglecting their job. It is inaccurate to make such an accusation. It is more a matter of the lack of sufficient knowledge of the reading process and development of skills. With the limited training in reading instruction content and techniques in pre-service education programs, the beginning teacher comes to the classroom not fully prepared for the responsibilities in developing effective and efficient readers. Furthermore, the school systems have not undertaken the necessary in-service programs to help teachers continue to develop the necessary know-how for most effective reading instruction.

In-service has been the responsibility of the area supervisor, a generalist by necessity in most cases, to provide the help teachers needed in reading. Unfortunately, in some systems, the supervisor also has the responsibility of evaluation of the teachers. This condition does not lend itself to teachers exposing their feelings of instructional inadequacies to the supervisor. There are several very real reasons why the area supervisor experiences difficulties in attempting to provide effective in-service programs in reading: (1) the limited amounts of time for supervisors to carry on in-service, (2) the supervisors' limited knowledge of reading, and (3) the limiting relationship of supervisors as evaluators of teachers. As a result, sufficient help has not been available to teachers in order to provide the most effective reading instruction in the classroom. It is evident, then, that the help needed must come from reading personnel who are

specialists in reading, who have successfully operated in the classroom themselves, and who work effectively with teachers in terms of bringing about instructional changes.

The New Role

As a consequence of the problem, a major change in the focus of the role of the reading specialist is becoming evident in certain school systems. That change is viewing the reading specialist in the dimension of one who helps to prevent, rather than one restricted to curing reading disabilities. This change immediately affects the whole concept of the role, and the training of the reading specialist. This change not only affects the reading specialist, but also the classroom teacher, the principal, and the supervisor. This change moves the reading specialist into the classroom with an emphasis on analysis of the reading experiences of children, both in reading instruction *per se* and in reading activities within content areas. It involves reading specialists working mainly with teachers rather than with children. There is an emphasis on working relationships with peers as well as with children. There is also an emphasis in helping others to recognize the need for change in instructional procedures and organization and to help others move toward more effective reading programs rather than initiating and carrying out the job oneself.

Problems of the New Role

Defining the new role of the reading specialist in terms of a focus on improvement of reading instruction in the classroom adds several facets to the problem of effective utilization of reading specialists. The first might be identified as the acceptance of this new role by the various school personnel who will be involved--the teacher, the principal, the supervisor, and the reading specialist. There must be agreement and acceptance of this role of the reading specialist, if the role is to be effective. It is important that all involved agree as to whether the reading specialist serves as an instructional consultant who might carry out one or all of the following functions:

1. a consultant to teachers to improve reading instruction in the classroom
2. a logician and organizer of inservice training in reading needed by the school faculty
3. a diagnostician of those children who are severely disabled readers
4. a director of remediation programs of the severely disabled readers.

Depending upon the size of the school and the extent of the need for the services of a reading specialist, it may well be that there are supporting personnel, such as reading teachers, reading aids, etc., working with the reading specialist.

As the role of the "reading teacher" changes to that of a resource teacher, many will find themselves not equipped for such responsibilities. They do not have the training necessary nor the inclination for such a role. But there are

reading specialists appearing on the school scene who are ready to assume this new role. Their training has been directed to these new responsibilities. They cannot be viewed simply as diagnosticians and remediation personnel for the limited number of clinics in the school systems. Their training has focused not only on becoming specialists in diagnosis and remediation, but also on basic principles of curriculum development and working as consultants to classroom teachers. While there will always be the need for specialists in clinics for the small percentage of children needing clinical help, more of the reading specialists currently in the school systems will need to "retool" themselves for this new role.

As these reading specialists become available for the new role, another facet of the problem becomes evident, that of the untrained reading teachers now employed in the schools. There may or may not be much demand for their services. This is a professional matter that must be faced by school systems and teacher associations. This particular problem is already on the scene. Granted it involves greater expense to employ the reading specialist in this new role than to hire the "reading teacher". But it will not be too soon when school systems have replaced the "reading teacher" with the presently accepted role of teaching small groups of children in converted storage rooms with the "reading specialist" as an instructional consultant.

OPEN THE DOOR

Drema Fischer

Let us open the door and take a look into a reading room. Here we see a small attractive room with a variety of materials on display. We also see the reading teacher and a small group of pupils. After a few minutes of instruction, the pupils leave to return to their classrooms but the reading teacher stays in the room.

If we believe that we must better utilize reading personnel; if we believe that the program of tomorrow must be better than that of today; if we believe that the influence of the reading teacher must be widened and deepened--then we must get out of that room. We must throw open the door.

The position of this paper is to discuss the utilization of reading personnel. I am establishing an open-the-door policy which will be developed in three areas: elementary, secondary and the reading center.

ELEMENTARY

Open the door. The reading teacher in the elementary school must open the door of his small room and come out. He has been doing a good job in his room, but when he steps out, he will meet many more than just his selected pupils. He will meet with the teachers and help plan programs on a school-wide basis.

He can still direct or conduct diagnoses of individual pupils, but now and more important he must take more time to confer with the pupil's classroom teacher. The classroom teacher's knowledge of the pupil's personality, plus the reading teacher's specific awareness of strengths and weaknesses, can be combined into a meaningful and effective program involving the two teachers and their combined pupils.

The reading teacher must have the time to plan and develop new programs in the classroom with the classroom teacher. These programs would involve all pupils and thus all types of readers from the reader with problems to the gifted reader. Many times, in this writer's opinion, the gifted reader has been overlooked and deprived of a reading program to meet his needs. Every pupil's needs should be taken into consideration when planning a program and it should be a cooperative task of the reading teacher and the classroom teacher. If these programs are to be developed, there should be a reading teacher in each elementary school.

The reading teacher will not just show materials to teachers, but will help them learn about the materials and will demonstrate within the classroom how these materials can best be used. A follow-up of assistance and suggestions concerning their effective use can also be provided.

Parents must also be included in the program. One way for the reading teacher to involve parents is to conduct parent reading discussion groups. These should probably be scheduled in the evening to allow working parents to attend.

As Wilson states, "Parents want to help their child, can help their child, and will help their child!" (1967). Let us teach the parents how they can help, and keep them informed about techniques, methods, and materials being used in the reading programs in the schools.

All of this will take time. But once the reading teacher does open the door, he will have the time to do these things. In this writer's opinion, he will spend his time in a more profitable way.

Some pupils may still need small group instruction. The reading teacher should schedule a limited amount of this instruction, and it should be done on a short-term basis. But to spend twenty or thirty minutes teaching these pupils in the reading room is not the answer to their reading problems. A pupil may succeed in the reading room on the level of material appropriate for him, but meet frustration once he is back in the classroom. Robinson makes this point when he states,

> If a remedial reading program is servicing a portion of the school population on a time schedule such as two, three, or five periods a week, twenty minutes to an hour in duration, don't accept the cliche, "take the child where he is," without more serious consideration. If he goes back to situations in classrooms where he is expected to attempt to read materials beyond the reading level assigned to him by the reading teacher, he needs more assistance than just working on grade level. "Taking him where he is" must refer to his total place in the school society. A dichotomy between the remedial program and the classroom programs must not exist. (1968)

The reading teacher must help this pupil succeed, not just for twenty or thirty minutes a day, but in his total program. He must open the door of his room and go out into

the school. Open the door!

SECONDARY

If our elementary reading programs need improvement, it stands to reason that our secondary reading program needs to change also. There are many reasons for this change. I will enumerate three of the most important.

Fifty years ago, many boys and girls that are presently in our high schools would not have entered high school. In 1968 the U.S. Office of Education reported that enrollment in grades 9 to 12, compared with the population between the ages of 14 to 17 in 1919-1920, was 32.3% and in 1967-68 was 93.7%. Secondly, not everyone, even on the secondary level, of the same chronological age can read equally well. Karlin stresses this point,

> In any high school class students vary in their mastery of the reading skills. It would be impossible to find a class in which every student's reading ability was identical with that of all the others. Some may be performing at a satisfactory level, yet may be quite capable of surpassing their present performances; others may be seriously handicapped readers; both have reading problems. (1964)

Thirdly, there is a widespread demand for efficient reading. Karlin also comments on this point. He states,

> We need to sort out from the mass of printed material that daily confronts us the fact from opinion, truth from half-truth, information from emotion. From all sides we are bombarded almost constantly with propaganda and slanted language, and the ability to think and read critically is demanded constantly in a world that makes such wide use of so many communications media. (1964)

Hire a reading teacher, give him a small room, and send him the problem readers. This has been the answer to the secondary reading program. Will this continue to be our answer? Can we meet the demands of more readers, of readers with different abilities, and of more efficient readers by just instructing a small portion of the school population in the reading room?

It is possible that some work should be continued with certain pupils in small group situations in the reading room. Newton stresses this point in his statement,

> While it is true that work should be continued with certain students who are late maturing, upset emotionally, come from foreign speaking homes, or from atypical cultural environments, such remediation will not reach every student. A good remedial program is part of a good developmental program, but it cannot and should not be substituted for it. (1966)

I agree, this is a small part of a good developmental program. But in this writer's opinion, the best way to make the reading program effective is to place it not only in the reading room, but in every classroom.

Here is where the reading teacher in the secondary schools must open some doors.

Many secondary classroom teachers say they want to improve their pupils' reading ability. But they make the comments, "I don't have the time to teach reading," or "I don't know how to teach reading." Patterson investigated the attitudes and efforts of classroom teachers in helping pupils improve in reading. Running through the responses of these teachers were two major concerns.

> First, they felt that attention to reading was something extra added to the teaching of subject content, and as one teacher complained, ". . . I cannot spare time from improvement of study techniques by my pupils." The second was the lack of understanding as to how to improve reading competencies, were time available. For example, the same teacher also stated, "I am not sure that I know how to tell them to improve." (1968)

Umans commented on the fact that,

> One of the most difficult tasks is to help subject-matter teachers see the necessity of teaching skills directly related to the reading of the particular subject. Somehow, the feeling persists that reading is always taught "elsewhere" and "at another time." (1963)

From the results of a five-state survey, Simmons concluded,

> In spite of often repeated, "Every teacher a teacher of reading cliche," this study gives potent support to the need for trained and qualified reading personnel who can give adequate help to the classroom teacher so that he may in truth become a teacher of reading. (1963)

Herber comments that,

> Content teachers do not need to be convinced their students need help. They need more than reminders and clarifications. They need practical suggestions that have proven successful. To these they will respond. (1966)

As this research points out, the need is there. The reading teacher is uniquely qualified to fulfill the need. He should be available to serve as a consultant to the classroom teacher, and should have time to work with teachers in their own classrooms. This writer is not emphasizing one demonstration lesson or the one in-service meeting showing how to teach reading. Rather, I am stressing the cooperative and continuous working together of the reading teacher and the classroom teacher. The reading teacher should also help

in other ways: in selecting and developing materials, in sharing materials, in building informal tests from content material, and in suggesting methods appropriate to individual needs.

It would be ideal if all teachers from the art instructor to the baseball coach would teach the reading necessary for the mastery of their subject, but they are presently not doing it. It is, therefore, realistic and necessary to effect changes. But to bring about changes in the teaching of reading in the content areas, the reading teacher must be willing to leave his room and go where the action is--the classroom. Open the door.

THE READING CENTER

The reading center should have a staff of reading specialists who are available to assist any school personnel in the improvement of reading instruction. The staff should be divided into two groups: diagnosticians and consultants.

The diagnostician's job should be two-fold. First, he should plan and conduct a diagnosis for pupils referred to the center. Second, he should plan with the pupil's teacher or reading teacher, or preferably with both, how the remediation indicated by the diagnosis can be carried out. Once the school personnel and the diagnostician have agreed on an instructional plan, then definite steps should be taken to put it into effect for the pupil.

This is another of my open-the-door policies. The

diagnostician must open the door of the reading center. He must come out of the center and follow-up his referral recommendations to the schools. Do his recommendations really work? Or do they just look good on paper?

In going into the schools and actually working with the classroom teacher and the reading teacher to implement his recommendation, the diagnostician's services would be put to optimum use. His recommendations should fit the needs of the pupil, but they also should be ones that can be carried out in the school. Once they fit the pupil and the school, then they should be integrated into the pupil's instructional program.

Through this two-way cooperation of the reading center and the school, a better focus could be placed upon the pupil. All that is needed is to open that door!

The consultant's job would be a varying one. He would be assigned to tasks as schools request his services. For example, he might be asked to help teachers do group screening, to assist in selection of materials, or to plan workshops for teachers or conduct in-service meetings.

The consultant should have a general knowledge of all areas of reading, but should probably concentrate in either elementary or secondary areas. Many of the techniques, materials, and diagnostic tools are different for these two areas and thus it becomes almost impossible to become proficient in both. Concentration in one area, in this writer's opinion, is more economical, more efficient, and more practical.

The head of the reading center should receive all requests for services. He should evaluate requests as to what services they involve.

One day a week would be an unassigned day for reading center personnel. In the morning there would be separate meetings for diagnosticians and for consultants.

At the diagnosticians' meeting, all referrals for diagnosing for the next week would be presented and discussed, and the work-load would be selected and planned.

At the consultants' meeting, each school's request for services would be presented with all available information, and the consultants would select the requests they wanted to work on in the next week.

A self-selection of tasks is very beneficial, in this writer's opinion. A task selected, rather than assigned, is a task more important and more meaningful.

Since both diagnosticians and consultants should keep up-to-date on information and research concerning their work, they should be permitted time for individual study. Some time would be available for individual study or research on the unassigned day.

For both efficiency and economy in conducting research, the reading center should house a resource room, containing pamphlets, magazines, and professional books. Thus, the time available for research by reading center personnel could be used most expeditiously.

If the budget allows, a teacher-librarian should be

assigned to the resource room. His job would be to evaluate and order materials, keep reading teachers informed about new materials, and help the personnel at the center in conducting their research.

So we see that the open-the-door policy can work at the reading center, too. The diagnostician can open his door and go to the schools to help implement his recommendations. The consultant can open some doors as to what types of services he can provide.

SUMMARY

In this position paper, this writer has taken the open-the-door policy for utilization of reading personnel. Robinson states, "Change is inevitable. We must change to keep pace with the times, as difficult as the path may seem at times" (1968). If reading teachers and reading specialists do open their doors and take the path into the wider world of the total school experience, their skills can benefit the whole school staff, the whole population of the school. If they stay in their little rooms, dealing with small groups of children for brief periods of the children's day, perhaps in the future they may wryly consider the words of T. S. Eliot: (Four Quartets - Burnt Norton)

> Footfalls echo in the memory
> Down the passage we did not take
> Towards the door we never opened. . . .

We must change for the future! Open the door!

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AN ADMINISTRATOR VIEWS UTILIZATION OF READING PERSONNEL

Richard W. O'Donnell

Defining the Term

In one school district reading personnel could mean a reading diagnostician. This person would: diagnose students' reading abilities; interpret test results to administrators, teachers, and make recommendations. Another school district may have a remedial reading teacher assigned to one or more schools. This teacher would schedule students as frequently as possible for private or small group instruction within or outside the regular classroom. Other districts may have a reading or language arts supervisor. This person would provide services to schools regarding reading, i.e., interpret test results, meet with parent-teacher groups, assist in faculty meetings, and contribute to a course of study. Some districts may use university professors as consultants to conduct workshops or in-service training. Some school districts may be organized to utilize the services of one or all of these specialists.

For purposes of this paper, the term "reading personnel" may be applied to any of the professional staff specializing in reading previously cited.

Role

The role of the reading specialist must be: well defined; understood by all; non-threatening; and agreed upon by all if his services are going to improve the quality of reading instruction. Wylie surveyed two hundred classroom teachers and reading specialists on their perception of the role of the specialist (Wylie, 1969, p. 522). Their perceptions are reflected as follows:

Questions	Teachers	Specialists
Role of specialist	Supplier of materials, demonstrator of techniques, director of informal diagnostic and corrective classroom procedures	Concerned with materials, time allotments, grouping, curriculum, administrative organization
Implementation of aid	Personalized, informal small group	Greater numbers, grade level meetings, orientation, programs, bulletins
Information, material procedures	Both teachers and specialists agreed on materials to vary program, provide meaningful seatwork, and introduction of new materials	
Characteristics most important for the specialist to possess	Knowledge in depth of reading, ability to give constructive criticism, willingness to consult	To establish rapport, constructive criticism, treating all teachers alike

Utilization

This writer knows of no evidence to indicate that God was ever a school administrator. So, unfortunately, we don't know "the" way to utilize reading personnel anymore than we know "the" method to teach reading, or "the" grouping method to solve reading problems, or "the" set of materials that will

solve all the problems in the teaching of reading. We just don't know "the" way to solve any of these things.

In a recent study, the utilization of reading specialists was examined (Smith, 1969, p. 698). A significant finding was that the reading specialist was utilized differently in every school. Some of the factors which influenced how the reading specialist was used were: the particular needs of the school; the reception of the reading teacher by the staff; the competencies of the resource specialist; and the ability of the principal.

The differences within school faculties, the abilities of principals, and unique problems of schools should be considered in the utilization of all personnel just as we consider the various differences in pupils' abilities when we make adjustments to attempt to individualize instruction.

Importance of Principals

The success of the reading program or any other endeavor in schools, as we know schools today, depends on the best efforts of the key person in the school--the principal.

An effective principal will have a climate in the school that is conducive to experimentation, innovation, and change. This writer has found that any in-service program, which is to result in a change in teachers' behavior in the classroom, must evolve from the teachers. They must perceive the problems, be convinced something can be done to alleviate them, and be involved cooperatively with line and staff personnel in planning a course of action. The one person, in today's

schools, that is able to effect these conditions is the principal.

Quality of Teachers

Providing children with competent, effective, enthusiastic teachers is the sine qua non of a good reading program. The literature abounds with detailed reviews of research concerned with personality traits and successful teaching. There is agreement in recognizing two aspects of the teacher's role--intellectual and human. That is, the teacher must know his subject and have sufficient skill in human relations to make him successful.

The writer recalls an incident while visiting an elementary classroom during the reading period. One student was standing in the front of the room with her nose touching the chalkboard. She had to stand slightly tiptoed to keep her nose within a circle that had been drawn.

One does not need an advanced degree to recognize that a teacher performing at this level does not need a lesson in phonics, linguistics, or grouping. Rather, she needs such basics as: psychology, child growth and development, how to be a human being and see her students as human beings with feelings. We do not need $15,000 a year teachers to perform at this level. We could get housewives for the current minimum hourly wage. There is little doubt that a dedicated, highly motivated, empathic teacher can make most reasonable schemes or methods work, while teachers not fully committed and lacking warmth can meet with a notable lack of success.

Many of the improvements we seek in education can be realized by increasing funds, building new plants, and improving courses of study. But the most significant improvement will come when teachers improve.

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SECTION III

EVALUATION AND REVIEW OF CURRICULUM INNOVATIONS

EVALUATION OF INNOVATIONS

Mrs. Mary R. Hovet

Innovations may be defined as the adoption of new educational practices as used by a school system in attempting to adjust to change in our environment. If this definition is accepted, then we have to innovate because changes are so pronounced in today's world. Many feel that we are now in a real revolution in education and the evidence seems to bear this out.

The educational enterprise can change its structure, alter its purposes, adjust the number and competencies of its personnel with little real effect on the educational experiences of children. The adoption of new educational practices which really alter the educational program seems to be the main issue of the day.

We educators would like to think that innovation, or the adoption of new practices, has built-in evaluation. This is not true. Much is innovation for its own sake and does not necessarily include any appraisal of the new practices.

The progress of schools over the last four years has clearly exhibited the worth and application of research and

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*Dr. James DiVirgillio presented this paper, as the author was unable to attend the Institute.

development to the innovative processes. Much has been learned, but until recently there has been little recognition of the importance of educational research. Educators are now beginning to appreciate the need for reliable knowledge as a basis for educational planning. There is a growing awareness of the scarcity of this type knowledge relating to education.

Reliable evaluations of the product of the schools are necessary to effective planning for improving instruction. Evaluation is a fundamental part of the learning process. It is the means by which progress in learning should be determined. Major elements in evaluation include the following:

1. Defining appropriate objectives.
2. Obtaining evidence regarding the degree to which the objectives are achieved.
3. Carefully interpreting the evidence.
4. Constructively communicating results to those concerned.

The evaluation process will be helpful only if goals are realistic, if the evaluation tools used are appropriate, and if interpretation is sound. This evaluation process requires techniques for measuring potentials. While a child's ability to read can be tested and his ability to solve mathematical problems can be measured, it is quite another thing to raise questions about his ability to think critically, to assume leadership roles, and to analyze information.

We know that evaluation is a continuous process and that formally and informally it occurs throughout the educational

system, but we also know that the only way significant improvements can be made in the educational effort is to improve the methods of designing and conducting evaluation programs. Many researchers have urged educators to develop prototype model systems that can exhibit new learning materials and new methods and techniques of learning to both the profession and the public. This is the path that the Howard County school system chose to follow--that is, a model school set-up.

The financial support from the federal government enabled the changes to be made in Howard County under Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. A Title III committee developed a proposal for the establishment of a model elementary school in Howard County. This was followed by a similar proposal for the operation of a model middle school and this will be followed by another proposal for the operation of a model high school. This will give the county a complete model school system which will involve students from kindergarten through grade twelve. There is a three-phase plan involving the development of an education program for a model elementary, a model middle, and a model high school. The phases of the development are:

1. Planning of the model elementary program
2. Operation of the model elementary schools.
   Beginning evaluation of the model elementary program
   Planning the model middle school
3. Continued evaluation of the model elementary program
   Operation of the model middle school
   Beginning evaluation of the model middle school
   Planning of the model high school

At this point it will be the responsibility of the county to continue into phase 4. When the high school finally is in operation, there will be a K-12 exemplary system of public schools in Howard County.

The proposal was to establish and operate the model schools in flexible, open space school buildings in which the main characteristics of the educational program would be individualization of instruction for the pupils in attendance. It was further proposed to demonstrate how individualization of instruction could be accomplished and how the results obtained might be evaluated.

Project evaluation became a major part of the proposal, so major and so important, in fact, that the decision was made to have the project evaluation done through a research design structured by the University of Maryland Field Service. This design was to assess attainment of the behavioral goals accomplished through individualization of instruction in the model school and further to, in some way, determine the extent of diffusion of the methods used in the model schools throughout the other schools in Howard County.

The evaluation of the model elementary school is described in the Title III proposal as being addressed to the answering of two major questions:

1. Is the model school, in fact, different from other schools in Howard County?
2. Is the program found in the model school of a higher quality than programs found in other schools in Howard County?

There are also four sub-questions with which evaluators will deal:

1. Is the model school design conceptually sound, possessing inherent potential to effect desirable change in the schools of the county?
2. How well is the proposed design implemented by the school staff, the consultants, the central office personnel, and the community?
3. How desirable are the attained outcomes of the model school plan?
4. What demonstrable influence does the model school exert on other schools in the county?

Similar questions will be studied at the middle school and the high school levels as the project continues.

At the moment, the evaluation process is in regard to the model elementary school. As we know, the performance of the students under study must be compared to an established standard. In our study two control schools are being used. One of the control schools has been chosen because it nearly approximates the model elementary school in similarity of student background. The analyses of this similarity has been made on student ability level and on socio-economic status. The other is a school housed in an open-spaced facility similar to that of the model school.

A major part of the study has involved the development of an approach for obtaining measures of student behavior other than that which is normally measured on the standardized tests. This creates much difficulty in that instruments for measuring behavioral outcomes are not available. To complicate the problem even further, the instructional pro-

gram in the model school is not organized around the traditional classroom structure where group observation methods have been based upon classroom groups. The University of Maryland has evolved an approach which focuses upon individual students and categories of behavior common to different situations. In addition to this, the following tests are being used:

Achievement: Iowa Tests of Basic Skills

General Ability: Lorge-Thorndike

Teacher Attitude: Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ)

Student Adjustment: Science Research Associates Problems Checklist

Student Perceptions of School Environment: Elementary School Environment Survey

Observed behaviors and settings: duration and frequency measures based upon systematic observations of individual students.

Hopefully, the results of this evaluation, which will be given to the Board of Education in October, will be positive, but I hasten to add that scientific research is not judged fruitless even when results are zero or "negative." Neither should unsuccessful projects be considered useless. Favorable results are not necessities. It is worthwhile to determine the bases for negative results in a certain educational community. This information, when combined with results from other communities, leads to improved education on a nationwide basis.

We consider the work we are doing in Howard County as being an experiment that will advance the knowledge of improved methods, techniques, and materials to enhance student learning.

CURRICULUM PRIORITIES

Louise M. Berman

Our children are taking in many fragmented bits of life. Death, dope, life, sex, race, materialism, war, happiness, sadness, reality, unreality--without our awareness the child is constantly bombarded with an avalanche of ideas which oftentimes he has had no part in creating. How can we gather here to talk about curriculum priorities when we have so very little knowledge of what the child has actually felt, seen, heard--or known? How can the child even know who he is when he lives in a world so torn apart by superficialities, such as skin color or the abundance or lack of abundance of material possessions?

We only dare undertake the task to which we have committed ourselves if we listen to the child and simultaneously try to decide who this creature is and what he is capable of becoming.

WHAT MANNER OF MAN....?

Any educational institution to be effective must have some conception of the man it is trying to educate. An institution without a vision of what man is and can be is spend-

ing its time in random types of activities.

Let me take a few minutes to share with you one view of man and then conclude with some thoughts about curricular experiences which might help develop the composite picture I am outlining. In passing, I might comment that I am discussing man idealized and not man as he has become in some situations. Our concern is with man as he can and needs to become if he is to live adequately in a world changing and shifting at a terrifying pace.

Man possesses elements of dynamism, motion, and responsibility. These qualities enable him to survive, yes, even to be a contributing member of the society of which he is part.

Man is ongoing, growing, and developing. He may and should achieve stability at points; but inertness, staticism, rigidity, or unthinking behavior seldom characterize him.

Perhaps the greatest deterrent to new insights and new forms of behavior is crystallized kinds of behavior which might have been adequate or appropriate to one time or place, but which lack "connection" with other situations.

Man has an insatiable curiosity and is anxious to search for new information, meanings, and values. At times this search may cause discomfort as old insights must be assimilated into the new--or even, at times, discarded for the new. New dreams, hopes and visions often result when acknowledgment is made of the obsolete and freshness is encouraged.

Man is careful to select out the meaningful from the

non-essentials of life, otherwise he stands to stagnate under the non-critical elements of life. The degree of change the person plans for himself is undertaken with purpose.

Man has a broad, rather than a narrow or restricted, field of vision. He has learned to see increasingly more in his encounters with persons, events, and things. In addition, he develops a wide range of intellectual skills, such as comparing, analyzing, evaluating, extending, elaborating, and patterning. These skills facilitate his finding creative solutions to the problems he encounters.

Man is a generator as opposed to a parasite. In his healthy state, man likes to initiate activity. In this context, he may bump into conflict, but he prefers to reconcile or at least deal with conflict rather than avoid it.

Man is interested in the possible rather than only the probable. He is spontaneous as well as deliberate. When a task challenges his vision and energies, he is extravagant in his expenditure of energies and fervent in spirit.

Man tends toward inward integrity rather than outward conformity. He has a friendliness to difference and newness as opposed to hostility to the unknown. Man is even comfortable in situations which he realizes may necessitate his being momentarily uncomfortable in order to bring about needed improvement.

Activity is paced in a variety of ways, for the person realizes that in shifts of pace is relaxation. He also is aware that the burst of energy which some projects necessi-

tate demands a different type of subsequent pacing if the restorative powers are to ensue so that new types of commitment are to develop.

Man takes into account that mistakes are part of living. His mistakes, however, are the result of premature rather than after-the-fact sharing of ideas, from errors of commission rather than errors of omission, from overestimation rather than underestimation. Mistakes are handled with forthrightness and bravery rather than cowardice. Man lives more in anticipation of what is to come that he can do well rather than what is past that he may have done poorly. Prospect rather than retrospect characterizes the person.

Man has an acute interest in the moral and the ethical. He is interested in the past as it relates to the present and future. Rather than dissipating his energies, he tries to channel them into causes and activities which he deems worthwhile. Preoccupation with the ethical is seen as an integral part of life, and much of his activity reflects continuous, ethical decision-making.

The person we are describing is a contributor to, as well as a recipient of, society's resources.

WHAT KINDS OF CURRICULAR PRIORITIES?

In view of the present nature of society and in view of the kind of man we deem adequate to deal in a constructive manner with the vicissitudes of life both in today's and tomorrow's world, what should the nature of curriculum be?

First, let us examine what the curriculum should not be.

1. The curriculum should not be a disconnected series of facts, units, or subjects which focus primarily upon what is known. Children today have less reason and desire to know the facts of the past than they do to create knowledge critical to the world in which they are and will live.

2. The curriculum should not be designed without considering and involving the learner in experiences which have some bearing upon him.

3. The curriculum should not be merely a logical organization of content. The curriculum should be heavily flavored with exciting peak kinds of experiences which provide opportunities for the student to gain new insights and to find new direction.

This means that direct encounters with persons will replace rote learning. Artistic materials will be used along with the more scientific.

4. The curriculum should never be static or fixed. It must be in a constant state of flux incorporating the activity and thinking of educational leaders, publishers, teachers, lay persons--each working at their own tasks and their own levels. The curriculum is more than appears on paper, for it occurs in all the transactions which children have with teachers, materials, and others under the jurisdiction of the school.

Now let us direct our attention to what should be new

priorities in the curriculum. The ingredients may be treated as separate curricular areas, superimposed upon the old areas, or developed into totally new curricular designs. Of course, I would like to see the latter happen, but realize this would take much work, thought, and commitment to the need of new learnings for our children.

Attention to the Art of Perceiving

It is impossible to live in a truly human manner unless one has learned to take in what is really out there. Children need to be taught to differentiate between their dreams and wishes and actuality. It is in the intake of the real that persons learn to perform other peculiarly human functions aright. For example, one cannot be truly creative unless one has accumulated a mass of perceptions of reality. Hospitality of the senses to newness provides the base for all types of learning.

Communication as the Enhancement of Personal Meaning

The school has long given attention to teaching the communication skills. We have all gone through the motions of diagramming sentences, of reading aloud from readers, of reciting poetry memorized by the class. However, few children spend adequate time learning skills of responding within the meaning of another person, of using communication procedures to insure that what he thinks he is saying is actually being "heard." Our communication is often of what is outside the person rather than of what the person thinks, feels, and is.

It is in the communication of personal meaning that children need increased practice. They need to be allowed to talk about what is important to them, what concerns them, and what dreams and hopes they hold.

Ability to Handle Conflict

Intergenerational, interpersonal, interracial, international and other types of conflict are the order of the day. These conflicts need to be acknowledged and stated in such a way that children and educators can make some decisions about the conflict in question. Should it be ignored? Should an attempt be made to resolve it? Should further information be sought about the issues inherent in it? What action, if any, should be taken? What kinds of conflictful situations can best be handled by our schools, and what ones are best left to other institutions? Because of the multiple kinds of conflict situations with which the child must cope, it is appropriate that the school give increased attention to this phenomenon.

Attention to the Development of Attachments

So much in our society militates against the young showing concern for others or the society of which they are part. Perhaps this is so because of two reasons: (1) Life moves at such a rapid speed that the bombardment of stimuli is too rapid to assimilate; hence, persons may be detached because they cannot make sense out of what is happening to them. (2) Love and concern have been presented in such cheap and

tawdry terms that the real meaning of the words has been lost. It is in the defining of one's loves and commitments that the person finds the reason for his being.

Teaching children to love means helping them sieve out the significant from the insignificant, the things about which they feel strongly from the things about which they feel less strongly. They need to be helped to differentiate the real from the phony, tenderness from cold rationality. Love is indeed worthy of concentrated attention within the curriculum.

Knowing as Personal Knowledge

Schools through the ages both in our country and others are known for their tendencies to conserve rather than extend the culture. We send children to school so that they can become acculturated--so that they learn what their forebears have known.

If the school is really to become a vital force within our society, then attention needs to be given to the substance the school purports to teach. From whence comes the knowledge with which it deals. Several criteria come to mind in the selection of the substantive areas for the school curriculum:

A. The traditional school subjects often contain material which is inert and less than vital to the child; therefore, an attempt should be made to select areas for knowing which have some excitement for the child.

B. The school should provide an opportunity for the child to deal with issues which will help him deal more adequately with matters of life and death.

C. The curriculum should be derived from the organized disciplines rather than be the organized disciplines.

In brief, children need to know various modes of knowing which, at the present time, will provide more internal power rather than knowing the rubrics of other men's minds.

Other areas we might consider were there time might be the problems of patterning, of decision making, of valuing, of seeing wholeness, of creating.

In brief, our concern is that today's children and youth learn skills that will enable them to be constructive and productive human beings. The curriculum can do much in helping persons become the kinds of persons who are generators instead of parasites. Through the examination of curriculum priorities, instructional leaders are well on their way to providing the kinds of experiences so necessary for today's young.

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INNOVATION - FACT OR FANTASY

Joseph P. Gutkoska

The Position

Wonderful, worthless, interesting, dull, simple, and esoteric are just a few of the many incongruous terms employed to describe today's curriculum innovations.

My position is quite basic. If one defines innovation as "the act of introducing something new to the educational scene," then I believe the term "innovation" is being abused and it is indeed "fantasy." If, however, one defines innovation as a modification of techniques, and the adroit use of materials to satisfy the needs of today's children, then I truly believe that the term "innovation" has merit and is, in fact, true.

Innovation-Fantasy

If one accepts the first definition of innovation, then one must look for the programs that are truly new. Team teaching, non-graded schools, linguistics in reading, the station method, i/t/a, Unifon, intraclass grouping, the marking systems, and teaching four and five year olds to read are just a few of the many "so-called" innovative practices. Helen Robinson claims that new plans, new techniques, new gadgets, and other panaceas for teaching are the rule rather

than the exception today. Enthusiasm for each reaches great heights with some teachers and, of course, with representatives who sell each program (1961, p. 1). Teachers everywhere are worried, disgusted and alarmed about the collapse of the programs they were told were infallible. In reality, these new programs are often purchased and employed as a "total program" without anyone ever having weighed the evidence for or against the program. I don't mean to imply that all the "new" programs are poor, or old programs good, or vice versa. I do mean to imply that programs new and old need to be fully evaluated.

Let us look at some of these "new" programs:

The ungraded school is a school that has a flexible system of grouping in which children are grouped together regardless of age, and in which extensive effort is made to adapt instruction to individual differences. According to this definition, taken from The Dictionary of Education, the dame schools of the seventeenth century were truly ungraded. Here children ranging in ages from three to ten met together in one room, each child receiving instruction to meet his needs.

Today, linguistics in reading is receiving a great deal of attention, as an innovative practice. Might I suggest that the reader examine McGuffey's Eclectic Reader (copyright 1879) and compare it to some of the "new" linguistic materials.

McGuffey's First Reader (1879):

Is the cat on the mat?

The cat is on the mat.

"One of the 'new' linguistic readers":

A cat sat on a mat.

Pat the cat.

Pat the fat cat on the mat.

Observing these two selections, the elementary teacher might have a difficult time answering the question, "What's new in reading instruction?" (Lamb, 1968, p. 33).

The i/t/a method and the Unifon method are also being hailed as new innovative practices. Actually, these mnemonic sound-symbol methods can be traced back to 1644 when Richard Hodges, a schoolmaster of Southwark, England, offered a diacritical marking system to the public. Hodges' system was followed by numerous others; Leigh's transition alphabet and the Phonotype of A. J. Ellis received considerable attention in the United States during the nineteenth century (Chall, 1967, p. 39).

Because of the efforts of people like Robert Allen, the author of Read Along with Me, and Paul McKee, the consultant of the "Kindergarten Reading Program," early reading is again getting more than its fair share of attention. Consequently, early reading has gained the status of a major innovation. Again, one can point to the past and discuss the many states in the United States where children were permitted to enter grade one before six years of age. Since reading was taught

in grade one and many of the children were five years of age and some perhaps four, it's reasonable to assume that many did, in fact, learn to read before the magic age of six years. Furthermore, Dr. Maria Montessori employed a reading approach in her early learning program (from three to six years of age).

The children learned to write at four years of age and then learned to read that which they had written. Contrary to the usually accepted idea, Dr. Montessori believed that writing precedes reading. Association of the written word with pictures, matching words with concrete objects, and translation of the written word into sounds, are three of the many word attack techniques that she employed (1964, p. 299).

The writer would again like to emphasize that he is not saying whether these programs are good or bad, but merely whether they satisfy the first definition of innovation.

Innovation - Fact

In the recent past, public criticism of education plus an honest concern by the teachers to improve educational practices have led educators to examine curriculum and practices and to search for a modification that would enable the teacher to meet the needs of children in today's world. The question to be answered is not whether the method or material is new or old, but will it enable teachers to do a more effective job. There is no reason why a method which is old must be tarnished or seem less credible. There is also no need to shift the responsibility of our failures in reading

from material, to method, to teacher, and back again. The truth of the matter is that we cannot identify specifically what really constitutes the totality of the behavior known as reading. I submit that this has never really been done. Consequently, it behooves teachers and all educators to gain as much knowledge as possible relevant to education, in general, and the teaching of reading, in specific, in order to select the appropriate technique, and the appropriate materials to solve the problem at hand. In discussing reading specifically, I subscribe to an eclectic approach: if the Language Experience Approach plus supplementary materials are effective, use them; if a Linguistic Approach plus supplementary materials are effective, use them; if the Basal Approach plus needed supplementary materials are effective, use them; if a combination of all of the above is needed to do the job, then use them. I repeat, it's not whether the material is new or old, rather, the effectiveness of the method and materials.

Obviously, then, it is not the technique nor the material that makes the difference, but it is how the teacher employs the technique and/or material that makes the difference. It is he and none other who is the cornerstone of the educative process.

A Plea

In order to satisfy my definition of innovation and to truly conduct an innovative program, each teacher must be well-informed. The school system must conduct continual in-service and pre-service programs, as well as depend on the

colleges and universities to supply the type of teacher needed in today's schools.

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SECTION IV

EVALUATION OF READING RESOURCE PERSONNEL

EVALUATION OF READING RESOURCE MATERIALS

Bruce W. Brigham

We are being inundated with reading materials--teacher materials, instructional materials, supplementary materials of all kinds. So many different kinds and types of materials are currently available for use in and with reading programs that is is impossible for any one person to keep up with them all. Furthermore, both reading specialists and instructional materials specialists have many additional demands upon their time. One result of this pressure has been that, increasingly, classroom teacher committees are becoming involved in selecting materials. (However radical, this does seem to be a rather reasonable position: that those who use sets of tools have a voice in choosing them.)

Sometimes such a committee has a problem in developing systematic criteria to use in evaluating materials. There are, of course, many types of such criteria, but for immediate purposes let us consider those related specifically to various facets of the reading process. What follows is one possible example of an approach using a set of criteria related to reading.

Basically, there are three important areas of information to be recorded: identification, description and recommendations. On the instrument, identification data are recorded

in parts I and II. Descriptive data concerning reading-study skills and subject relevancy is checked in IV, pp. b and c. Recommendations then are summarized at the bottom of the first page (III), which leaves basic identification data and the results of evaluation together on one page in a fairly concise form.

Essentially, on pp. b and c are listed various types of reading, organizational and study skills with places to check (✓) items that are required to be used by readers of the material and to (x) items for which there are specific exercises in the material.

Obviously, this is simply a prototype which can be taken as a model and modified in many ways to serve the needs of a particular group of teachers with a specific purpose. For those interested in exploring this process further, an excellent source is the section on Instructional Materials, pp. 182-200, in IRA's Reading and Realism, J. Allen Eigurel, Ed.

READING CENTER

College of Education University of Maryland

MATERIALS ANALYSIS SUMMARY
Bruce W. Brigham

I. Reference

Author_____

Title_____

Pub._____

Approx. Levels: Rdg._____Interest_____

Binding_____

II. Type: Primarily - Independent reading_____
Word Perception Skills_____
Comprehension Skills_____
Study Skills_____
and/or_____

III. Summary:

--Major Strengths:

--Major Weaknesses:

--Recommended for: (Whom? What? When? How? Why?)

(Best uses):

IV. Specific Skill Areas (_x_ specific practice exercises)
(_✓_ required by content)

Word perception

_____Phonics _____Structural analysis

_____Syllabication

_____Dictionary usage

_____Vocabulary development

Comprehension _____Main facts _____Details

_____Major concepts _____Significant details

Sequences and relationships

_____Chronological _____Processive _____Spatial

_____Cause and Effect _____Inductive _____Deductive

_____Abstracting _____Indexing

Others_____

_____

_____Inferential thinking

_____Predicting _____Summarizing _____Concluding

Organization

_____Paragraphs _____Chapters _____Books

_____Narrative forms _____Texts

_____Other literary forms _____References

_____

_____Typographical aids _____Reference aids (preface, glossary, etc.)

_____Illustrative aids

Study Skills

_____Listening..... _____Note taking (lectures)

_____Speaking

_____Reading..... _____Note taking

_____Writing

_____Study situation: time/ space elements

Subjects

_____English _____Math _____Science

_____Social Studies

_ _____Other:

ORGANIZATION OF AN EFFECTIVE READING RESOURCE FACILITY

Ralph G. Loen

I. INTRODUCTION

It is most impractical for the average sales representative to approach every reading teacher, administrator, and supervisor on an individual basis for the purpose of leaving samples or making a sales presentation. For each reading program to maintain a separate, complete professional library is rather impractical. An inquiring teacher is hardly willing to wait several weeks until a company representative is available to answer a few simple questions about material she is considering ordering tomorrow. And so the story goes with many facets of the reading program. A practical alternative to the above situation is a central, convenient location, readily available, where the reading teacher has access to a wide variety of instructional materials and professional books, and where she can discuss her needs with a knowledgeable person.

The facility for providing the above-mentioned and related services could be called a reading resource room, although other titles might be equally appropriate. An experienced reading specialist, assigned as a reading resource teacher, could administer this facility. The job de-

scription for this position would stress "service to reading programs."

II. SERVICES PROVIDED

A. Assisting Teachers with Materials and Instructional Aids

The reading resource facility must be considered a service organization. Perhaps the most important function of the organization is to assist teachers, primarily reading teachers, with materials and instructional aids suitable for individual, small group, and whole class instruction.

A circulating library of high-interest, low-level books is of prime importance for supplying supplementary reading materials to children enrolled in reading programs. Paperbacks designed specifically for reluctant and disabled readers can be distributed more informally, with the emphasis on wide circulation rather than a precise accounting and preservation system. Books in regular demand should be purchased by the individual reading program to lessen the clerical load involved in repeatedly checking out the same books.

In the reading resource room, samples of current materials should be displayed attractively, with clear invitations to pull materials down for examination. Tape recorders, record players, filmstrip projectors, etc., should be handy for immediate examination of mechanical materials. Games, kits, programs, etc., as much as possible, should be available for loan to reading programs where the material can be evaluated in terms of its practical application with children.

Up-to-date catalog files are essential for providing current information needed for accurate ordering of materials. Material evaluation files are most useful for noting how other teachers may have used certain materials to answer similar instructional needs. A limited supply of kits, programs, reading machines and primer typewriters should be available for loan, particularly to new programs not yet fully equipped. Periodic exhibits and demonstrations can be arranged with area sales representatives at a time and place convenient to interested teachers.

New reading programs should be started with a minimum of basic materials immediately available at the beginning of the school year. A committee of experienced reading teachers chooses the materials most commonly used for a beginning reading program, leaving sufficient funds to cover the purchase of materials needed for a specific school situation and geared to the experience of the individual teacher. The sets of basic materials are purchased in June and distributed to the new programs for the start of school in the fall.

B. Assisting Teachers with the Administrative Processes

A reading resource facility should do much of the clerical and background work which helps reading programs function more effectively.

Purchase orders initiated by reading teachers are routed through the resource facility. The orders can be checked for accuracy and for their pertinence for use at different grade

levels. Every effort can be made to control usage of materials to the purpose and age group for which they were intended, recognizing that neither teachers nor materials fit into a standard mold.

A running record of budgetary balances maintained by the reading resource facility helps individual reading teachers stay within the limit 'ons of the total county reading program. A written mid-year report to each reading teacher can serve as a timely reminder of materials which should be purchased for usage during the current year.

Certain items can be purchased in bulk quantity and stockpiled for quick distribution as the need arises. Projector lamps, tapes, games, headsets, tests, stop watches, and certain workbooks lend themselves to this procedure, thus avoiding the long delay involved with making many small, individual purchases. Mimeographed and printed forms can be stockpiled in the same manner, ready for instant delivery through the school delivery system.

C. Assisting Teachers with Professional Growth

An extensive circulating library of professional books is an absolute necessity to aid in the professional growth of reading teachers. The professional library should include all the standard texts used in the teaching of reading courses, as well as reference sources which deal with specific areas of reading, e.g., dyslexia, operation of a clinic, etc. Allied areas, such as psychology, curriculum, testing and

child development, cannot be completely stocked, but should be sampled liberally and kept current.

All I.R.A. publications should be subscribed to. Other publications, e.g., English Journal and Exceptional Children, are valuable but not absolutely essential. Samples of lesser known reading publications should be purchased if regular subscriptions are not feasible.

The personnel of the reading resource facility are in an excellent position to know about new reading products and programs on the market. In many instances, reading teachers would use an older program if they could first see the program effectively demonstrated by a publisher's consultant. The reading resource facility can arrange with the various sales representatives to provide periodic demonstrations and exhibits as the need or opportunity presents itself. To make these demonstrations have genuine appeal for large numbers of teachers, released time is a necessity.

III. AREAS FOR FUTURE GROWTH

A. More Help with In-Service

The resource facility is in an ideal position to coordinate the work of reading teachers in compiling tape and slide presentations which can be used on short notice for demonstrating specific skills or for providing an overview of an entire program.

A collection of video tapes can serve the same purpose, with a more dynamic approach, and is particularly suited for

getting maximum mileage from a one-day consultant. Bulky equipment and need for some technical ability makes video impractical for constant hauling by car, but the drawbacks seem to be offset by the universal appeal of television, particularly when the characters are in action.

B. Better Facilities for Demonstrating New Materials

Permanently installed carrels in the resource facility would afford the reading teacher an excellent environment for examining materials and for selecting those most suitable for a particular situation. Current materials recommended by the reading resource teacher can be displayed in several carrels, while other carrels would be available for use at the teacher's discretion. Tape, filmstrip, and record programs would seem particularly suitable for previewing in such an arrangement; they can easily be reprogrammed on a regular basis, and the teacher can do her investigating independently.

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RESOURCE MATERIALS FOR READING INSTRUCTION

M. Lucia James

OVERVIEW

Black Power, Economic Power, Student Power, and this fall, Children's Book Week theme is Book Power. I would like to state my topic, using this popular word, "power": "Resource Materials for Reading Instruction: They, too, Have Power." Restated, very concisely, my position is: "There is power in resource materials for reading instruction."

The importance of resource materials to the reading instructional program of a school cannot be overemphasized. They are indispensable. They function as basic to the curriculum. In many instances, they determine the effectiveness of the curriculum. In others, they are the curriculum or the basis upon which the curriculum is designed. A cursory perusal of professional journals gives credence to the report that publishers, producers, or manufacturers also consider these resources to be indispensable or of great significance. One becomes cognizant of this when he realizes the rapidity with which these resources are being developed.

There is hardly a professional journal which does not advertise at least one new reading resource--print or non-print--kits or single paperback--in each issue. The new ERIC/CRIER Instructional Materials Information Analysis Project: A Guide to Materials for Reading Instruction, lists approximately 15,000 separate entries for new reading materials. While this astronomical number, 15,000, of new reading materials is terrifying and startling to some, others accept it as a windfall, a real streak of luck to have so many different items available to help initiate and implement an effective reading program, especially an individualized reading program. And yet it is because of this explosion of virtually infinite varieties of materials for reading instruction, all kinds of media, that we have begun to be concerned with the quality of these materials. We endorse the position that subject matter specialists, learning theorists, librarians and reading specialists should work closer with manufacturers and producers of these resources and equipment to assure the development of more effective materials. There is yet a need for materials of quality, not merely quantity; materials that would enhance the reading program, not limit it; materials that are suitable for use with different kinds of reading programs, methods or approaches; materials that will permit the teacher to use his creativity, to put his imagination in motion, not stifle it; materials that are learner-directed, that reflect knowledge about learning and the learning process; and materials that are relevant to the specific needs and interests of the

learner.

One may note an historical cycle in reading instruction, and concomitantly, one may recognize the same types of teaching aids and resources, flash cards, etc., as advertised in the first Milton and Bradley circulars, circa early 19th Century. These types of resources will probably never die, nor even fade away. They reappear in this historical cycle in new geometrically-shaped boxes dressed in bright psychedelic colors, or in new forms--films, filmstrips, microfilms, and they, too, have the power to affect our instructional practices.

THE INFLUENCE OF RESOURCE MATERIALS ON THE READING PROGRAM

Materials Determine the Program

The value of having the resource materials developed cooperatively by educators and manufacturers cannot be overlooked when one considers the impact which these materials have on the reading program. Instructional resources and materials, including the new technology, can influence or affect the organizational pattern, the personnel, the facilities, and the teaching strategies of the reading program. In essence, they can, and often do, become the determinants of the reading program.

If one painstakingly and objectively analyzed several of the reading programs that have been developed and that are currently being used in many of our school systems, he would realize immediately how prescribed, programmed, or possibly

provincial, a curriculum could become when based totally upon a specific packaged program. It becomes increasingly evident that the components of the program, even with its variety of materials and cook-book recipe approach, can direct the teacher, her methodology and techniques, her organization, equipment and facilities.

The following example, which was extracted from a producer's catalog, is not atypical:

A New Basic Reading Program* (K-8)

> "A highly teachable reading program offering excellence of content and thoroughness of skill development. Planned in every detail to help children become competent readers. Recognizes the changing needs and interests of boys and girls. Absorbing content ranges over a broad variety of literary forms and themes."

Components of the Program:

Basic materials
- Pupils' texts
- Teachers' guide book with effective lesson plans
- Workbooks or skillbooks
- Reading tests (achievement and inventory-survey)

Other materials (Resource materials)
- Charts and picture card sets to implement the lesson plans
- Enrichment readers--provides opportunities to develop reading skills
- Multi-sensory materials--auditory, kinesthetic, visual materials
- Books for individualized reading--books for children with varying abilities
- Dictionaries and a beginning thesaurus

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*This program is being cited only as an example. It is not being evaluated nor critized. It is merely being cited as an example of a complete program: one that offers everything.

To allay some of the fear, and to provide perspective, the point should be made that while it is true that resource materials can determine the reading program, the teacher as a communicator, a facilitator, and an evaluator, can regulate the extent to which this is possible. With his expertise to select and use materials wisely, to apply effective strategies of instruction and to evaluate the effectiveness of a particular resource, the teacher can hasten the demise of a highly structured, inflexible program. Likewise, he can create the conditions for the development of a program in which it is possible to use different media in different ways to teach different skills to different children under different circumstances. Then, too, the teacher should become more vocal and visible to publishers and producers of reading resources. He should enter into dialogue with them; give them feedback on the use of their materials, or apprise them of new, successful and unsuccessful techniques, experiments or variations of their resources, systems or programs which have been used. He can also make a careful delineation of the unique contributions that specific types of materials can contribute to the learning situation. It is within this kind of orientation that teacher, and/or librarian, and publishers or producer can operate as a team to effect change--can form a partnership to advance new concepts and techniques of using reading resources.

Materials Enrich the Program

The endless arguments that have been waged about the best method or approach of teaching reading have seen a parallel among librarians and/or reading specialists in the selection of materials. Many reading specialists recognize the value of eclecticism in teaching reading. To complement this approach, media specialists also endorse the principles of eclecticism with the use of materials. They recognize that there is no one best kind of resource, no one system, program or set of supplementary materials. All teaching approaches, the linguistics, phonics, ITA, language experience, individualized reading, especially Individually Prescribed, Talking Typewriter, or Words in Color approach or combinations of them have produced successful and unsuccessful readers. Regardless of the approach used, resources, including literacy and trade books from the library or instructional materials center are indispensable to the success of the program.

Sometimes instructional aids and resources, even workbooks, films and filmstrips, elicit negative reactions from teachers and learners or students, but they can be meaningful devices and aids. Studies have been made to determine the effectiveness of some multi-media in teaching of reading. What we see as being necessary now are materials, all kinds of resources in the subject fields, with their respective vocabulary that can be used in teaching certain reading skills. These materials may incorporate some of the seldom used resources: maps, menus, time tables, radio and T-V schedules,

even telephone directories and study prints.

SUMMARY

Reading aids and resources can shape or help to shape the most effective strategies of instruction. As these strategies are developed or shaped to utilize new technology and innovations, the market for materials, resources and systems will grow increasingly. There is yet a need for continuous scholarly research, similar to that conducted concurrently with research in child growth and development, to produce findings upon which new materials can be developed. Trade books and other similar materials from the library and instructional materials centers should not be overlooked. They, too, can be used meaningfully in the instructional reading program. All resources have merit only as "springboards". They cannot be expected to substitute for the teaching of reading, but they enhance it immeasurably. These reading resources do have power.

SECTION V

INDIVIDUALIZATION OF INSTRUCTION

INDIVIDUALIZING INSTRUCTION IN THE TOTAL READING PROGRAM

Susannah M. McCuaig

More often than not, the reading problems in a typical classroom are a result of the failure of instruction to provide adequately for the individual needs of each pupil. Since research indicates that a child's interest in learning to read is not determined by which methods or materials are used, but rather by what the teacher does with the methods or materials, it seems expedient to contemplate successful ways by which teachers can individualize instruction. It is the purpose of this paper to discuss (1) Self-directing, self-correcting materials, (2) Pupil-team study as procedures for providing for significant practice experience. Both techniques can be introduced without administrative or classroom upheaval.

It would be well if the teacher would keep in mind the notion that effective instruction must make provision for the student to personally initiate and practice the behavior which he is to learn. Immediate feedback as to the quality of each student's behavior in his efforts to parallel the desired response greatly enhances learning by the individual. Moreover, the teacher should always be re-evaluating any instructional sequence as to its effectiveness in producing

changes in students. Certainly, the feedback of the learner's performance should be considered in modifying and improving the materials and procedures.

Because a more energetic, creative, and knowledgeable teacher is needed to make individualized instruction successful, not all educators are willing to attempt the development of such a program. Those who are will find that children are able to gain mastery of rather difficult concepts while their attention is held, and that each can progress at his own rate.

Self-directing, self-correcting materials might be in the form of work completed by an individual, by a team, or in a learning center activity. Because of the valuable commodity of time, the teacher should spend her energy on the construction of reusable items.

Several primary learning activities might be as follows: In order to review the digraph "sl," and three or four others of the teacher's choosing, a series of pictures might be drawn in a vertical line. Horizontally to the right of each picture might be written three or four words, one of which would be the word naming the pictured object. For instance, a sled might be pictured. Next to the illustration, the words "bed," "sled," and "shed" might be written. A total of ten or twelve pictures and accompanying captions could be placed on an 8-1/2 by 11-inch paper. If the paper is placed under an 8-1/2 by 11-inch sheet of exposed X-ray film, the child can use a grease pencil

to circle the word beginning with the correct digraph, thus identifying the picture. Immediate correction can be made by placing over the child's work another piece of X-ray film on which the answers have been permanently marked. The child simply matches a notch or dot placed both on the work-sheet as well as on the corresponding answer sheet. Instantly, the child can check to determine if those answers he marked are the same as on the answer sheet. If not, the pupil can immediately identify the proper answer.

A second type of answer sheet might be a simple list of pictures duplicating those drawn on the worksheet. Next to each picture, the corresponding word would be written. After the child has completed his work, he simply locates the proper answer sheet and compares his responses to those written on the key. Yet a third variation would be for the answers to appear on the back of each worksheet. The student would use a separate paper on which to record his responses. He would then flip the worksheet over in order to check his answers against those written on the reverse side of the lesson material.

Certainly in some instances, several responses might be acceptable for each item. In similar fashion, all the possible answers would be listed on the answer sheet. If a student had an answer which was not listed, he might check it with the teacher with regard to the addition of his answer to the established list.

Another learning activity might be as follows: On the left-hand side of a large sheet of oaktag, vertically write the letters representing the initial sounds to be reviewed. In a horizontal row to the right of each initial-sound letter, affix eight to ten pockets. In a center composite pocket, squares of paper with pictures drawn upon them will be stored. (Pictures cut from old commercial workbooks might be used instead of hand drawings.) The child removes a square from the composite pocket, studies the picture, and then places it in a pocket in the row indicating the initial sound with which the item shown begins. For example, a picture of a "heart" would be placed in a pocket in the row to the right of the initial sound indicated by the letter "h." There should be as many pockets as there are pictures.

Self-correction might be accomplished in either of two ways. The better method would be to write the name of the object on the reverse side of each picture. The child checks the spelling of each item in order to verify that the first letter is similar to the letter shown at the left of the row in which the picture has been placed. The spelling of the word might incidentally be learned.

A color-code arrangement can be used as a self-correction technique. A colored dot might be placed

on the reverse of each picture. The color of the dot would correspond to the color used to write the letter representing the initial sound on the oaktag.

A multiple-pupil response method incorporates a provision for self-correction. In the group, each child is given three 2- by 3-inch oaktag cards. On one card, the numeral "1" will be written, "2" will be on the second card, and "3" will be on the third card. The teacher might write the word "come" on the chalkboard. She might then state, "Hold up your card with "1" written on it if you think "send" has the same initial sound as "come"; hold up card "2" if the word "cat" begins like "come"; and hold up your card "3" if you think the word "back" begins like the initial sound in "come." The child's intensity of learning is increased because he must think and answer each of the teacher's questions. Boredom is decreased as the child is totally involved with the learning process. The teacher can quickly ascertain the quality of each child's response. Immediate feedback is given to the child. If the pupil discovers that his response is different from that of the rest of the group, he might reconsider his answer and change it to the correct reply. The child experiences success, and the teacher determines which children need extra practice.

Especially useful in the study of science and social studies are teacher-built study-guides. The study-guide provides for different reading achievement among children. Graded study-guides, used by pairs or teams or children, have

been found to be an aid in overcoming children's difficulties in comprehension and recall. Generally, three different levels are prepared for each lesson. The first, for use with poor readers, consists of detailed questions and answers on each paragraph of the text. The questions are listed on the left-hand side of the paper, and the answers are on the right, so that the answer column can be folded back out of sight until is is needed to check the pupils' responses.

An example of a detailed guide written for use with BEYOND OUR BORDERS follows:

Begin your reading on page 364, with "Around Guayaquil," and continue to page 366, "To the Plateau from Lima."

Paragraph 3--Beginning with "Sugar cane and other tropical farm crops":

Where do sugar cane and other tropical farm crops grow?	On the lowland.
What do farmers raise on the wetter part of the lowland?	Rice.
What is grown on the higher land elevations?	Cacao.
What product is still a leading export of Ecuador?	Cacao.
What is raised on the slopes at the edges of the lowland?	Coffee.
What is another important food crop?. . . .	Bananas.

The above guide is best used with pairs of pupils or teams of three under the direction of the teacher or of a pupil who is a good reader. Each child has a copy of the guide, with the answer column folded back. The leader reads the first question orally BEFORE the pupils read the text.

The pupils then read to find the answer to the question. One pupil answers the question, and the others check his answer against that in the answer column. The same procedure is followed for each question listed. The easiest type of question to answer is one phrased like the text. The oral reading of the question reduces the vocabulary difficulties of the pupil who is reading the text to find the answer.[1]

A more advanced type of guide is suitable for use by pairs of better readers. These guides consist of general questions on each paragraph, followed by a listing of the related facts. The pupils read the paragraph FIRST, then look at the question, attempt to answer it, and check their answers against the list. The procedure can be made more difficult by having the children read several paragraphs before looking at the questions. The answers can be written down and then compared with the answer sheet. Superior readers can read an entire section and then try to recall the contents orally while another pupil uses the guide to check them. A sample based on the same section of BEYOND OUR BORDERS follows:

Begin your reading on page 364 with "Around Guayaquil," and continue to page 366, "To the Plateau from Lima."

Paragraph 3--Beginning with "Sugar cane and other tropical farm crops":

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[1]Norma Cutts and Nicholas Moseley, "The Social Studies," Providing for Individual Differences in the Elementary School (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960).

What is said about crops?

Grown on lowland:	Sugar cane _____other tropical farm crops_____.
On wetter part of lowland:	Farmers raise rice_____used for food_____.
On higher land:	Cacao_____has been grown for a long time_____. Cacao is still leading export of Ecuador_____.
On edge of lowland:	Coffee is grown_____.
Important food crop:	Bananas_____.
Other crops:	Oranges_____other warm-climate fruits_____.

A third type of guide uses an outline which calls attention to the major ideas of the paragraph. The outline lists three titles for each paragraph. The children first read the paragraph in the text, and then try to agree on the best title. After they have agreed, they unfold the answer column and check their accuracy. For example:

Begin your reading on page 364 with "Around Guayaquil," and continue to page 366, "To the Plateau from Lima."

Choose the best title among the three suggested below for each paragraph.

Paragraph 3--Beginning with "Sugar cane and other tropical farm crops":

(A) Products of Ecuador's Lowlands
(B) Growing Coffee in Ecuador (A)
(C) The Lowlands of Ecuador

All the suggested techniques mentioned might be used by individual pupils or in teams of two or three children each. Because we are a gregarious people, it is more fun to learn

in a team. The pupils can help to teach and to support each other in the learning activity. Oftentimes, children working together foster elaborative and creative cognition.

Groups might be composed of teams of from two to five children each. The groups might be formed on the basis of equal ability of the children, or on the basis of friendship or needs or interests, rather than on ability. It should be considered that children of different ability might differ in the level on which they engage in an activity and to the degree to which a subject is researched. Some activities are better adapted to bright pupils than to slow, and vice versa. However, it is strongly urged that teachers refrain from underestimating the learning competency of the children whom they teach.

If teachers would consider constructing one self-directing, self-correcting lesson each month, a reserve of lessons would soon accumulate. A school might sponsor a workshop where teachers could exchange ideas and could have access to the materials necessary for the building of learning devices.

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LEARNING STATIONS

MaryAnne Hall

Where is the focus in most classrooms? To this observer it seems that in too many classrooms for too much of the school day, the focus is on the teacher and on teaching, instead of on the learner and learning. As we strive for individualization, the focus must shift to the learner and to learning. One of the persistent problems in education is that of individualizing instruction. One of the fastest growing developments which can partially solve the problem is the learning center approach. Teachers are both excited and bewildered. Children's reactions vary from excitement at truly personal learning to mere compliance or no participation when centers are only another arrangement for completing assignments. The question for this paper is, "How can learning centers contribute to individualization of instruction?" The discussion will cover the definition and philosophy of learning centers, organizational considerations, the function of the supervisor and the principal, and evaluation.

**Note: This presentation was a demonstration with participants actually working in learning centers related to (1) definition and philosophy, (2) organizational considerations, (3) the supervisor's and the administrator's role, (4) evaluation, and (5) a free choice for other concerns of the participants. This paper is a summary of content covered in the centers.

Definition and Philosophy

Learning centers offer an approach to learning and classroom organization which facilitates individualization of instruction, encourages independence in learning, and extends special interests. In a learning center students engage in activities according to their interests, their needs, and their choices. It is helpful to define two types of learning centers. One type is the curriculum center which has definite tasks (not identical for all students) to be completed to master or practice specific content or skills. Children will probably use the curriculum centers to reinforce learnings which were first presented directly by the teacher. Occasionally, curriculum centers can be used to introduce new material. A second type is the interest center which is not designed specifically for instruction in content but has as its major thrust the extension of pupil's interests, and it is never a required activity as the curriculum centers may be.

In the discussion related to the presentation of this paper, one participant strongly contended that the child is the learning center and that viewing centers as places in the classroom is a wrong perspective. Certainly, the child is the learner, and we hope that learning centers will stimulate his learning in ways which are appropriate and enjoyable for him. In The Underachieving School, John Holt writes, "I believe in children learning with our assistance and encouragement the things they want to learn, when they want to

learn them, how they want to learn them, and why they want to learn them" (1969). The learning center approach to learning is based on the premise that children need the freedom to make choices and the opportunity to assume responsibility for their learning through planning and evaluation.

The role of the teacher is changed from a presenter of information to an arranger of an environment conducive to independent learning. He is responsible for teaching children to teach themselves, and he is a diagnostician who develops appropriate instructional situations from the diagnostic information. He develops curriculum materials, collects materials from many sources, provides choices for students, and is available to consult with children about their selections and activities.

Organizational Considerations

The preceding paragraph alluded to the enormity of the teacher's function in a classroom utilizing learning centers. Teachers who are interested in trying learning centers often have questions about the organization of centers. Frequently asked questions are: "How do you start?" "What basic routines need to be established?" "Where can I get ideas and materials?"

The following suggestions are offered in answer to the above questions. Teachers can visit other classes where learning centers are in operation. Teachers can consult the supervisor and principal for suggestions and to locate mater-

ials. Some teachers organize centers for each curriculum area, such as reading, writing, listening, art, science, etc., and while the titles of the centers remain constant, the materials and activities within the centers change. Starting with one center is recommended for those teachers who may not feel confident in setting up a number of centers right away. When a center is set up, a "walk-through" demonstration with a small group of students while the rest of the class watches would prevent later confusion about directions. Clear directions should be posted in the center. Procedures for selecting centers will need to be clear to students. Some teachers have developed sign-up forms for children to indicate where they will be working for a day or a week, and these forms can also serve as a record of the centers selected by individual children.

Questions for each teacher to consider about learning centers are:

How does the center activity contribute to the classroom program?

Do children perceive the purpose of the center activity?

Does the center include self-choice and independent learning? Is it open-ended?

Does the center do more than fulfill the function traditionally covered by "seatwork"?

Does the center provide for activities other than written ones?

Are all directions clear to the participants?

How is learning to be evaluated?

Is the center designed for introducing new learning or for reinforcing material already introduced?

Is there a balance between children's choices and teacher direction?

The Function of Supervisors and Principals

Enthusiastic support of supervisors and principals should have a favorable effect on encouraging teachers to try centers in their classes. Supervisors and principals should function as resource consultants to teachers, and they can arrange workshops and other in-service sessions on learning centers. Supervisors and principals can inform teachers about commercial materials which can be used in centers. Supervisors and principals can compile a file of center ideas contributed by teachers in their area or schools and can make this file available as a resource for teachers.

A suggested form for the idea file is:

Center_____ (Reading, Literature, Writing, Listening, Language, etc.)

Specific Topic or Skill_____

Purpose_____

Materials needed_____

Directions for Construction

Suggestions for Additional Activities

Method of Evaluation

Evaluation

In evaluating learning, one must consider the original purpose of a particular learning center. Evaluation should include both evaluation by the child and by the teacher. If contracts are used, then children can use the contracts as a guide to evaluate their commitments and their achievements. Informal records such as file cards kept by the teacher for individual children are also helpful. Skill checklists may also be helpful if the skills are stressed in the curriculum centers. A standard form with children's names and columns labeled "Completed" or "Needs More Work" could be duplicated and used as a record for numerous center activities. (See Form B.)

Examples of forms:

Form A: Anecdotal Record Type

John	Week of October 10
Used art center 4 times this week. Used the literature center once--did not complete the book he selected. Needs to work on the multiple meanings materials again. Math center work was completed quickly and correctly.	

Form B: Completion Check-Off

Center Four - Letter Writing	Completed	Needs More Work
John	x	
David	x	
Nancy	x	
Linda		x
Jeff		x

Evaluation will consider attitudes toward learning and growth in the ability to work independently, as well as mastery of content. General evaluation will be related to questions such as, "Is he independent?" "Does he complete his contracts?" "What are his interests?" "Which centers does he prefer?" It should be remembered that not all activities need to be checked.

Summary

Schools must offer a setting in which learning can be personally relevant. The purposes of learning centers are to promote independent learning and to extend individual interests.

To achieve maximum benefit from the learning center approach, attention must be given to the underlying philosophy of centers, as well as to organization and evaluation. Supervisors and principals can support teachers in their

efforts to develop centers. Both pre-service and in-service education should provide teachers with the background and know-how to conduct programs with the focus on the learners.

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WE MUST 'INDIVIDUALIZE' INDIVIDUALIZED READING

Trudy M. Hamby

The scientific assumption that each person is unique is currently accepted intellectually, even though our schools are not, by and large, committed to changing their practices to provide for the unique qualities of the learners. Such a commitment is an absolute necessity if we are ever to fully apply scientific knowledge concerning human growth and development to education. Individualizing instruction in reading would be an important step forward. However, if the step is to leave an imprint, it must, in this writer's opinion, take into full account the learner's unique SELF-ORGANIZATION.

Any program which does not deal with "self" forces cannot be considered truly individualized and cannot possibly achieve its purpose. Such an attempt at individualization would be as ambiguous as an attempt at nongradedness recently witnessed by this writer. Students in the observed non-graded classroom ranged in age from nine through eleven. Immediately after the pledge of allegiance, the teacher announced, "Billy, put up the flag. Fourth graders start on your arithmetic workbooks, and fifth graders meet me at the back of the room for reading."

The Learner's Unique Self-organization

A person's uniqueness stems not only from the impact and interrelatedness of physiological and environmental forces, but also from another set of interacting forces, the "self" forces, which emerge as the individual grows and develops. Although there exist various theories concerning the "self," and its emergence, this paper will limit itself to current phenomenological theories which, in the opinion of this writer, have specific significance and relevance for the individualization of instruction. Basic to these theories is the assumption that all human beings have an internal drive toward self-actualization--toward achieving their potentialities--toward becoming adequate and fully functioning.

Definition of Terms

The "Self": A construct which refers to the individual as known to the individual. It also includes features in the environment with which the person identifies (i.e., "my" family, "my" school, etc.). Perkins defines "self" as ". . . that part of the individual that he consciously recognizes as himself--his sense of his own continuing identity and of his relationship to his environment," and self-concept as ". . . the most highly differentiated perceptions, beliefs, feelings, attitudes, and values which the individual holds of or about himself (1969, p. 198)." In the terms of phenomenological theorists, a person's self-structure may be described as a private world of perceived experiences (the phenomenal field) which encompasses the perceived (or phenomenal) self,

at the core of which is the self-concept (Combs and Snygg, 1959).

Development of the Self

The human infant is born with the capacity for the self to arise because of his highly complex and intricate human nervous system. Only gradually, however, through the process of perceptual differentiation, does he separate himself from his environment and thus become aware of himself. Perception is the vehicle for self-development (Gale, 1969). The infant explores and reacts to his environment by means of his sense organs, and interprets the meaning of the accompanying sensations. His first perceptual differentiations are between the "me" and the "not me."

Interpersonal relationships with first, his mother and other family members, and later with his teachers and peers, play a major role in self-development. These significant others reflect either verbally or non-verbally their attitudes and appraisals of who the growing child is as they perceive him, and the perceived reflections and appraisals are incorporated into his self-structure. If these reflected appraisals are negative, he will appraise himself as negative and will tend to judge others in a like manner.

With continued maturation of the organisms and further environmental interacting and experiencing, other psychological processes (such as thinking, reasoning, imagining, symbolizing, identifying, etc.) emerge, and allow for more complex interpretations and differentiations of the self.

Although self-discovery continues throughout life, once established the perceived self (which encompasses the self-concept) is characterized by a certain stability and consistency. It is highly resistant to change, for it is one's internal frame of reference. An individual works at enhancing and maintaining his self-organization even if it is an unsatisfactory one.

RELEVANCE OF SELF-ORGANIZATION TO INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTION IN READING

Impact of the Private Perceptual World

Perceptual Set. When the teacher of reading is aware that each individual student will be perceiving the teaching-learning situation according to his own internal frame of reference, from his own perceptual point of view, how can she proceed in the traditional "Redbird-Bluebird-Canary" way? A sizeable amount of research has been conducted in the field of perception and on factors which influence it. The quality of one's sense organs and their functioning; past social, physical and emotional experiences; current needs; values; and interests are some of the many and varied influences.

People see and hear what they expect, or are set, to see and hear. A teacher looking out at her circle of "Redbirds" is looking at them from her own perceptual frame of reference, which is internal for her, but external to each unique child. The story being read, the directions being given, the explanations being made, are being perceived uniquely by each "Redbird," even though the teacher's expec-

tancy is that they are all to be equally attentive, involved, interested, listening, and, above all, learning to read! Except, of course, little Billy, whose parents insisted he be moved into this group, and therefore teacher doesn't expect that he will do well. As a result she hears only his mistakes and doesn't see--or hear--all of the times that he reads successfully.

Beginning Reading Instruction. An understanding of the individual's private world of experience provides the basis for beginning reading instruction. Children bring many experiences to school with them. These experiences are incorporated into their private worlds. An individualized reading approach offers the opportunity for making use of these unique experiences in starting "where the child is," so that beginning reading is immediately personally meaningful. There is, then, no question whether the child is reading for meaning. The next step is to provide for further related, rich perceptual experiences which will, in turn, be incorporated into the personal perceptual world.

Teaching Techniques and Instructional Materials. In phenomenological theories, perceptions are considered the basis of behavior. Personal meaning is achieved through the perceptual process. In this light, then, the traditional teaching techniques of rewarding, showing, directing and manipulating are obsolete. For if learning is a matter of self-meaning, children must be allowed to explore and discover their own personal meanings in a psychologically safe

classroom environment. Perception-building must become an instructional goal. When children are personally involved and are given opportunities for self-enhancement, threats and rewards are not necessary. Subject-matter and instructional materials which are self-relevant will be attended to, and the teacher's desired learning outcomes will be realized. Only that material which is self-relevant is incorporated into the child's own personal perceptual field.

Consistency and Stability of the Perceived Self

As someone so aptly said, "Children do not leave their self-concepts at the door when they come into the classroom." As was previously stated, a person works at maintaining his self-organization, even though it is inadequate. A child who has incorporated into his self-image the concept that he cannot read, works at maintaining this self-image.

The child's teacher cannot give him the concept that he "can read" by merely stating so, or by telling him that all he has to do is try a little harder. In order for the learning to take place, a change must occur in the child's private perceptual world. His self-perceptions must change. It will be necessary for the teacher to try to see the world through the child's eyes, to provide empathic understanding, time and patience, for the established self-concept is highly resistant to change. The child will need many experiences at reading successfully--an accomplishment very difficult to achieve without an individualized reading program.

The Self is Learned

Most teachers are unaware of their impact on students' self-learning. Many are also unaware that self-development is an essential element in other learning. In speaking of the influence of self-concept on learning, Perkins states, "The student's self-concept appears to be the most important single factor influencing learning performance--more important than intelligence, aptitude, or difficulty of the material to be learned" (1969, pp. 220-221).

Since the self is learned, it follows that a positive self is teachable. Self-development is a legitimete part of the educative process and should be given as much importance as any subject-matter. An "individualized" reading program which is not created for each "Self," is not truly "individualized."

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SECTION VI

READING AND SOCIAL STUDIES

A DAILY NEWSPAPER IN AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL LANGUAGE ARTS PROGRAM

Marie L. Petrenko

Rationale Basic to Study

Remembering John Keats' lines, "He ne'er is crowned with immortality, who fears to follow where airy voices lead," a teacher embarked on a newspaper voyage for several years with students in 4th, 5th, and 6th grades. With a touch of airy vision, imagination and hunches, coupled with common sense, teacher and students tread via the newspaper forest, the paths and trails of word power and thought power. Word power and though power development, through reading, written expression, listening and speaking, were the core or goal of the language arts program.

Without precedent or guidelines for "What" in the daily newspaper could be used and "How" the newspaper could be used for providing situations and practice for the students in the various aspects of communication skills in the elementary grades, action research evolved.

Language provides a child with a principal tool for thinking. Maurce Applegate succinctly defined language arts as dealing with ideas; their impression, and expression, in words. Ideas expressed through the medium of words--words read, words spoken, words written or words heard.[1]

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[1]Maurce Applegate, Easy in English (Row Peterson: 1960).

Vygotsky in relating his research experiences with elementary students eloquently described the interrelationship of word and thought in communication skills:[2]

> Thought comes into existence through words. Relation of thought to word is a process. Every thought tends to connect something with something else to establish a relationship between things. Words and thought are a key to the nature of human consciousness. Words play an important part not only in the development of thought but in the historical growth of consciousness as a whole. Thought is engendered by motivation, by our desires and needs and by our interests and emotions. Development of verbal thought moves through a series of phrases--from motive which engenders a thought to shaping of thought, first in inner speech, then in meanings of words and finally in words. Verbal thought is not an innate, natural form of behavior but is determined by a historical-cultural process and has specific properties and laws. The unit of verbal thought is found in word meaning.
>
> A word without meaning is an empty sound. However, word meanings evolve from primitive generalizations and verbal thought uses to the most abstract concepts. It is not merely the content of a word that changes, but the way in which reality is generalized and reflected in a word. Word meanings are dynamic rather than static formations. They change as the child develops. They change also with various ways in which thought functions.

Loban states that there seems to be a definite interrelationship among the reading, writing, speaking and listening skills of language arts.[3]

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[2]Lev. S. Vygotsky, Thought and Language (Cambridge: Massachusetts Institute of Technology Press, 1962).

[3]Walter D. Loban, The Language of Elementary School Children: A Study of Use and Control of Language Effectiveness in Communications and Relations Among Speaking, Reading, Writing and Listening (Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1967).

Hildreth indicates that one drawback for integrated teaching of language arts may be lack of instructional materials.[4]

To this statement, I would add the lack of sufficient materials available to the teacher to provide the student adequate practice or reinforcement in communication skills.

Where Action Took Place

This action research study was conducted for four years in the largest elementary school in Montgomery County school system. The population of the school averaged approximately 1,250 children from kindergarten through sixth grade. Organization of the school was self-contained and departmentalization. Family status of the school neighborhood included a range from poorly economic circumstances to more favored socio-economic circumstances. However, the median was placed at slightly below middle socio-economic class.

Who Was Involved

About one hundred, 4th, 5th, and 6th grade students were involved in the project. Two sets of students remained with the teacher in grades four, five and six; and two other sets remained for two years. Boys and girls were represented equally. Each class was grouped heterogeneously. Children were not selected specially for these classes.

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[4]Gertrude Hildreth, "A Comparison of the Dale Dolch and Linsland Word Lists," Journal of Educational Psychology, XXXIX (January 1948).

What Was To Be Studied

Since word power and thought power development were an integral part of the instruction in teaching communication skills, it was necessary to discover "What" from the newspaper could be used.

Whether a student is reading, writing, speaking or listening, he is developing word, phrase, sentence or paragraph concepts through a thought process, which may be verbal or non-verbal. Speaking, writing, reading and listening concepts were taught as interacting activities. Reading was not taught as a separate entity at a particular time of day.

Teaching of word power concentrated on (a) word analysis and (b) vocabulary development. Thought power emphasized skills and concepts which provided reinforcement and practice in classifying, making comparisons, summarizing, observing, analyzing, looking for assumptions, interpreting, contrasting and critical thinking.

Intent of word analysis skills was to have the student become aware (a) of the relationships of letter or combination of letters with sound, or (b) of the phonemic patterns in spoken words and their attachment to alphabetical letters and words, using smallest number of phonic principles. Word recognition requires the translation of a written word into a speech word by translating the printed letters into sounds of speech.

The purpose of the vocabulary development was to increase and build a meaningful sight vocabulary and to sharpen

and expand the student's sensitivities to words, and respect for words for what they mean in their explicit, as well as metaphorical, values. Emphasis was placed on making new words part of each student's speaking vocabulary.

Through trial and error experience, one learned that certain items in the newspaper were not effective instructional materials. For example, editorials, editorial cartoons, current event news items as taxation, political aspects of war, budget, etc., were ineffective. Sentence structure in editorials requires the student to comprehend or interpret relational and directional words, cause and effect phrases, or abstract vocabulary that were not part of the student's vocabulary. For the most part, students in the upper elementary grades were not ready to fit the information they received into the conceptual scheme they possessed. Mastery of abstract communication of an editorial appeared to be beyond the student's level of thinking. The students lacked the necessary repetoire of clear and stable abstractions and transactional terms which are necessary for direct manipulation and understanding of relationship between abstractions. The elementary school student lacks practice in the use of relating abstractions to each other with the benefit of concrete prop. Further, comprehension of many of the ideas of the editorials or current events items presupposes a certain minimal level of life experience, cognitive maturity, and subject-matter sophistication. Many of the ideas required use of higher order of abstractions.

Inasmuch as the subject matter of the current events was not part of the student's vicarious experience, he was not yet able to assimilate, accommodate, extend or reorganize the new information into his existing conceptual scheme.

Representative data from the newspaper that motivated tudents in practicing communication skills can be categorized under the areas of maps, graphs, and diagrams; people; animals; food; clothing; home furnishings; construction or building structures; communication; transportation; weather; accidents; sports; and art.

Charts, maps, and diagrams are a visual representation of tabular data requiring the student to understand its mechanical features and to interpret the data. The ability of the student to interpret the data depends on his experience background. Therefore, consideration was given to the topic presented in the chart or map. If a chart presents data relative to economics, than the student must have knowledge of the economic conditions at his level. The newspaper provided various kinds of graphs, which expressed quantitative relationships. Topics that required interpreting abstract concepts beyond the student's experience were not successful learning situations.

The newspaper articles about animals usually dealt with (1) such factual information about animals as appearance and age, and (2) with characteristics of the animals. So, the most effective instructional use of photographs and stories about animals centered around outlining, observing, summariz-

ing, replies to relational questions requiring impressions, and creative stories. The relationship thinking involved characterizing animals; comparing animals and humans, using similes; pretending to be animals; and drawing analogies with human creatures. Form and shapes of animals interested students, as well as time and reality. Some of the students' pretend stories dealt with the age of animals, appearance and movement of animals.

Newspaper articles concerning weather were portrayed verbally and photographically. They lent themselves to the use of similes, metaphors, and personification. Picturesque expressions and photographs depicted scenes which permitted students to hypothesize about events that might have led up to the action depicted and the possible consequences. Also, the play with words required the student to feel and see imaginatively. In stories, students tended to bestow human powers and characteristics upon inanimate objects. Concepts about the birth of storms or the formation of clouds were reinforced in imaginative stories.

Since appreciation of athletic ability is widespread among upper elementary students, sports stories generated interest in reading and writing creative stories. Sports articles, for the most part, portray factual occurrences at games. So, through reading, writing, speaking and listening activities, such skills as eliciting facts, following directions, summarizing, outlining and imagining were practiced. Skill of elaborating events or exploring possibilities was

perpetuated. For example, students generated some hypothesis about difficulties of the games or of particular plays or of the players. Qualities of a good game were discussed. "On the contrary, what would happen if such and such were done," gives the student practice in the operation of re-definition. This type of questioning was used especially in articles describing how to play a particular sport or perform a particular sport's skill.

Food appealed to all students. It is a known concept to them. The senses of taste, feel and smell played an important role in the use of articles about food. Two types of items were used: (1) feature stories that related factual information about food or food customs, and (2) food display advertisements. Feature stories were found to be most effective in developing such skills as summarizing, outlining, ordering sequence of events and analyzing structurally the sentences. (Analyzing structurally does not infer formal grammar.)

Advertisements called forth (1) many of the elements of thinking as imagining; making assumptions; comparing; combining ideas and elements; elaborating or exploring possibilities; logical, illogical and analogous reasoning; and (2) the "play" with words, combining words in an appealing and forceful way to strengthen vocabulary skills.

Instructionally, food advertisements were stimulants for all students--gifted, average, or slow learner. Repetition of the same words in various advertisements at different times

provided ample opportunity for exposure and reinforcement of a word until the word was part of the student's oral and written vocabulary.

"How" of the Study

The following criteria for selection of news items for learning situations were applied: (a) motivation potential; (b) ego involvement--experiences of students, maturity of interests, special interest areas; (c) length of item; (d) complexity of sentence structure--relational words, variety of clauses, phrases; (e) levels of thought--concrete, too general, too abstract; and (f) challenging vocabulary--interesting to encourage thinking.

Each lesson began with oral activities, relating to extending the vocabulary. This activity also served as a warm-up period and integration for ongoing activities which extended over into written expression and reading activities. The listening and discussion experiences, prior to writing or reading, contributed to the student's store of ideas and imagination for writing.

Methods used were consistent with linguistic structure of language. The basis for learning to recognize words is oral language of students. A student cannot comprehend fully what he reads without oral language foundation and continued attention to oral language improvement. Oral language usage improves oral expression, and speaking fluently is part of learning to read.

Listening with acute understanding carries over to reading with understanding. Increasing the student's store of word meaning in sentence context enlarges his syntax patterns along with his vocabulary.

Basic technique for provoking action, which could be a simple matter of expressing oneself or listening and then interrelating the facts and thought processes in reading and written expression, was the use of open-ended questions or statements. One of the functions of the question was to involve the student's senses of taste, touch, smell, as well as sight and hearing. Questions were designed to promote such purposes as making assumptions or inferences, using imagination, interpreting, classifying, summarizing or contrasting. Questions had no preconceived answers. Skill in relational processes were embedded in the questioning techniques. Open-ended questions helped students to develop an appreciation for different ways of saying and seeing things. Care was exercised in the number and complexity of questions proposed for discussion and writing so that students' motivation and interest were maintained throughout the oral and written expression experience. An emotional climate and atmosphere in which the student feels free to express himself and to have his own ideas must exist. Cooperative interaction must be the climate in the classroom.

Meanings of words were first anchored to the students' experience through contrast or similarities. Meaningful vocabulary considered breadth and depth--multiple meanings,

implied meanings, figures of speech, use of comparison clues, contrast clues, summary clues. Through association, contrasts or similarities, meanings of phrases "brow like a mountain," or "busman's holiday" were exciting.

Whether the thought unit was a word, or a group of words, the teacher's strategy provided for operations and effective pacing on a concrete level, an inferential level or a generalized level. For example, a student gives specific information about the meaning of a word. Through questioning, the teacher seeks from the student an extension of that information. After the student has provided the requested extension, then the teacher attempts to raise the level of "informational" thought to the "reason" level.

The oral expression and listening were followed by reading and written activities. Students wrote every day. Written expression was in the form of describing sentences, main ideas in sentence form, descriptive or factual paragraphs, creative stories, factual reports, outlines and summaries. Each day, students were given alternatives or selections of activities from which they could select a written assignment within their capacity. When students write copiously, they make surprising gains in language power. Sources of ideas for writing were the involvement of self through oral discussion in vocabulary development. This involvement of self was a tremendous source of ideas for the student in his written expression. The student must feel free to reveal his thinking and his feeling. No matter how meager the effort,

something can be found to enjoy.

Students rarely write about something recently happened. Imaginings are fashioned from intermingled experiences and meanings. Students draw from a reservoir of emotions and ideas. Sense of values and points of view are different from adults. Students knew that they could say it in their own way. Joy of creating a story is not realized until the story or written expression is shared. Students volunteered daily to read their stories. Frequent periods of reading and listening were a vital part of the writing process. An abundance of reading and listening is a must. The tongue and ear learn to work together to seek for more pleasing sounds. And clumsy connectives, "and" or "then," and monotonous sentence patterns gradually disappear. Desire by the students to write was firmly established before student or teacher evaluation was considered.

Language is a living process. It isn't contained in formal grammar or spelling. Therefore, grammar and spelling were learned through reading and written expression rather than as isolated areas of instruction.

The newspaper provided many opportunities each day for the student to "try out" and to practice idea expression. Raw experiences of seeing have no cognitive value. Only as they are composed into ideas does meaning evolve. Acquiring meaning is a sense of making selective responses, paying attention to features, finding common ones, or establishing relationship.

The newspaper did not restrict perception or points of view as a single textbook might. Not only does it provide verbal abstraction, but also graphic and pictorial representation and advertisements.

Pictures were a bountiful source for word and thought power development through reading, writing, listening and speaking activities. Ability to read pictures varies with an individual's image, his skill in conceptualizing and generalizing and his previous experience in interpreting pictures. There are no wrong answers as long as they are relevant to the picture. Through pictures, practice was provided in observation, interpretation, making inferences, contrasting, comparing, analyzing, and pretending.

Summary

A daily, continued variety of printed stimuli, which filled the students' environment (1) provided many opportunities for the student to select what he could learn at a particular time, and (2) gave extensive practice and reinforcement in the development of word and thought power skills through reading, written expression, listening and speaking activities. Some students acquired the skill of determining the "What" and "Who" of a sentence, which are a prerequisite for main ideas, within two weeks; other children required six months; and others one year.

A by-product of this study was the built-in opportunities for exposing students to knowledges and facts in the social sciences and science. For example, an assignment for

practicing organizational skills also involved economics. Students were given a "pretend" ten dollars to plan a menu for their family for a Sunday dinner. Food was to be purchased by gleaning the food advertisements. The name of the store, the name of the food, quantity, price per unit, and total price were to be noted. Each student organized his factual information for visual presentation as he wished. Individualized instruction took place during the class period. Multifarious questions were discussed. "What does 'oz.' or 'pkg.' mean?" "How many chickens or pounds of meat will we need?" "What is asparagus?"

The newspaper has a profusion of different instructional materials that afford interesting and motivating learning situations for all students, regardless of differences in talents. It can be considered self-promoting, irrespective of how much reinforcement or pacing a student needs to practice the skills of word power and thought power through reading, written expression, speaking and listening.

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READING AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

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A skillful reader can take any type of reading material, decide what purpose he has for reading, adjust his rate of reading to his purpose, organize the main ideas as he reads, and form his own conclusions when he has completed the reading. In order to develop this type of reader, a social studies teacher needs to plan to teach the reading skills with the social studies materials in the regular class. The major reading skills which should be taught in the social studies class, according to Russell in Children Learn to Read, are as follows:

1. Ability to define a specific purpose for reading
2. Skills in locating information
3. Ability to comprehend and organize what is read
4. Ability to select and evaluate information
5. Ability to adjust the method and rate of reading to one's purpose and to the nature of the material
6. Skill in using information
7. Ability to remember -
   use aids for retention
   select facts to be remembered

A teacher implements these skills by first understanding them himself and by knowing how to help children learn. Several methods can be used for the development of such skills.

Employ visual aids, trips and discussions of experiences of different members in the class to unfold concepts evolving from the content being studied.

Develop the kinds of questions that inform one of the students' ability to understand and evaluate materials. Plan questions that will challenge children to think critically.

Teach the skill of oral reading when the need arises to prove or disprove a statement. Listen to articles read by students using different materials. Oral reading can help to develop the vocabulary, because children like to insure their concepts by reading their ideas to an audience. This should follow the planned instruction of teaching the vocabulary.

Provide for special reading needs by planning small group instruction when only a few students need help in locating a main idea or judging the validity of an article. At first, provide the same reading material for each student in the small group to make it practical to teach the skill of locating the main idea of a selection. Provide books by different authors on the same topic to teach the validity of some statement in disagreement.

The same book for every child is no longer justifiable in the teaching of social studies. To purchase materials of various authors all on a readability level of fifth grade in a fifth-grade classroom is doing little to individualize instruction. To purchase materials by different authors at varied levels of difficulty will individualize teaching and

meet the needs of more children. It is difficult to locate texts about different units of work on various readability levels. For this reason, all types of reference books are needed: encyclopedias of all ranges, atlases, almanacs, and pamphlets from local, state, and national organizations. Source materials such as diaries, letters, songs, photographs, and speeches are needed. These references, along with newspapers, magazines and periodicals, plus teacher and pupil-made materials, will help to get children anxious to solve problems about which they have become concerned. Having access to multiple references that relate to their experiences and capabilities makes it possible for children to solve their problems.

To know the skills, to recognize when they should be taught, to know how to teach them, and to provide individual children with appropriate reading materials in the social studies demands a well-planned program. To achieve the objectives mentioned, teachers need to be made aware of some practices which can help them realize their goals.

1. The administrative personnel can initiate team or cooperative teaching in the social studies. If teachers agree and work as a team, they can begin discussing a new unit of study two or three weeks in advance. After the preliminary planning which includes the listing of expected objectives, each member of the team will know where he is going. One member can be working with small groups, another with special pro-

jects, and another with an individual having special needs. It is not enough to state that the children in social studies are below average in their reading ability. The needs must be diagnosed as specific problems: comprehension, word-attack skills, paragraph meanings, etc. The team, rather than one individual, is better able to diagnose and prescribe for these needs. Just as one text is no longer justifiable in teaching social studies, so is the diagnosis and prescription of children's needs by one teacher invalid. Two or more teachers planning together for the instruction of a larger group of children can more adequately teach reading skills in social studies.

2. Inservice programs should be organized to get teachers involved with team teaching and to show them how to teach reading skills with the social studies materials.

3. Reading consultants and resource teachers must be available for help. Resource persons can demonstrate reading skill instruction for the teacher, if this is felt to be a major need.

4. Social studies teachers should have a list of the reading skills. Reading consultants can provide the guides and implement them with the teachers.

5. Professional meetings of the faculty should allow teachers to voice their problems involving their reading concerns with the reading materials.

6. The school system must provide enough money to help the teacher get the multiple references needed to make better individual instruction possible.

The concern of most teachers is to help children know how to learn and to provide the environment and conditions for learning. To accomplish this, teachers must know the goals and objectives they expect to reach with the students in their social studies classes. If one objective is to give children the tools for learning and another objective is to help children become independent learners, then the way to achieve these two objectives has to be considered. Teaching must be evaluated to see if the objectives are being reached. If one is teaching social studies and is concerned only with the teaching of content, then it is time for him to change his goal. Reading skills, along with the content, must be taught. If one is willing to change, he will be helping children to learn the skills they must have in order to become independent learners.

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