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ABSTRACT

This document, which contains sixteen reports, focuses on various aspects of the teaching of reading. Report topics are: individualized reading, language experiences in reading, beginning reading, readiness in reading, an approach using decoding, recognizing and stimulating reading interests, functional reading in the junior high school, study skills--research and techniques in developing study skills, the disadvantaged, evaluation, learning disabilities, understanding human motivation, creativity in reading, and adult remedial reading. In addition to these reports this document contains biographical sketches of the compilers of the reports, lists of intelligence tests for reading consultants, suggested professional materials for teaching reading, and lists of recommended books for disadvantaged readers on subjects concerning the inner city, social science, reading improvement, black Americans, American Indians, Eskimos, Mexican-Americans and migrants, Orientals, and Puerto Ricans. (JM)

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Curriculum
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Reading 7442
Summer, 1974
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Individualized Reading

by

Dorothy L. Hampton

Curriculum and Supervision in Reading

Dr. Harry Miller

Introduction

Individualized reading may be described as a way of thinking about teaching reading rather than a method. It is especially devised to meet individual differences. There is a great distinction between individualized reading and recreational reading. Individualized reading provides a definite time for instruction and development of skills while recreational reading is reading for fun and relaxation with little or no instruction from the teacher. The basic features of individualized reading are: With teacher guidance each child selects his reading materials and sets his own pace for reading. Each child receives instruction individually or in a group at the time it is needed.

Some of the most important values of teaching reading this way are:

1. Children's individual differences are met.
2. Motivation to read is enhanced.
3. Frustration is reduced for children with reading difficulties.
4. Inattention and boredom during reading periods are reduced to a minimum.
5. Greater independence in work is developed.

Individualized Reading

An individualized reading program may be combined with a basal reading program. The amount of time spent in this type of program will depend on the needs and response of the students. Both fast and slow readers benefit from an individualized program because they are reading books of their own selection with interest and success.

Teachers might decide to use this method with one reading group, rather than with the whole class. One group might be using the basal reader, doing silent reading or independent activities, and the teacher could be having conferences with pupils in the group that is using the individualized method.

CHOOSING BOOKS

The teacher should see that the children have access to a wide variety of reading material: library books, magazines, newspapers, textbooks. The most important criterion is that the student understand and can read the material without experiencing difficulty. To help a child choose a book that is within his independent reading level, the teacher might use a method as simple as this: Tell the children to choose a book that they would like to read, scan through the pages and pick one page in the middle to read. If they find more than five words on that page that they cannot figure out, then possibly the book is too difficult.

KEEPING RECORDS

The children must understand that they take most of the responsibility for choosing books and keeping records. They should know that they are allowed a choice and are reading for their own enjoyment, but that it is a part of the instructional program. Keeping their own records in a folder is one way of developing this responsibility.
The following list of activities which can be written on a chart or printed and given to each child gives some suggestions on how the follow-up reveals pleasure, knowledge and appreciation gained from the individualized program. (Aronow, 1961), pp. 86-91.

Write:

An opinion of the book.
Something about the author. (Information gained from other resource books).
A letter to the author or publisher about the book.
An advertisement for the book.
Descriptions of some of the characters, or description of one character that would make the class want to become better acquainted with this person.
A description of a new character that might be put into the book.
Some inprovement or changes that you would like to see made in the book.
A different ending.
An invitation for others to read it.
What the book might say if it could talk.
A song or poem based on the book or character in it.
A list of unusual words you found in the book. Use these words in sentences of your own.

Do:

Make a poster advertising the book.
Construct a shoe box stage setting for a scene in the book.
Make a "movie" from scenes in the book by drawing pictures and putting it on rollers in a box.
Tell part of the story with musical accompaniment. Use a record or instrument.
Make a "chalk-talk". Tell about a part of the book and use colored chalk to illustrate on the chalkboard while you are telling the incident.
Use a puppet to tell about part of the book.
Make a comic strip based on the story.
Plan a skit with classmates based on an interesting or funny part of the book.
Rewrite the book as a story for younger children.
Make a talk pretending to be an on-the-spot reporter.

The above list of activities might be shared with the whole class in a once-a-week period. Children who wish to share orally can select a written activity from their folders or make one of the oral reports. (Do not insist on an oral report.) Since most of the activities are the kind that can be given or shown quickly, at least half of the class has an opportunity to share a favorite book each week. Limit the reports to two or three minutes.

(Sharpe, 1959), pp. 21-24.

TEACHER CONFERENCES

If a teacher should decide to use the individualized program two days a week, there will be time for individual conferences with the children. Certain questions can be asked that might apply to any book, even if the teacher has not read it. (This is often a hindrance to using the individualized method. A teacher thinks, "What can I ask the pupil about the book other than 'What was it about -- or who were the main characters?' -- and how do I know if the child is telling the truth!").

The following suggestions for questions might be typed on index cards, so that the teacher can have handy access to the most applicable ones for each child. Not all children need the same assistance. Therefore, it is necessary to use different questions for the development of skills and discussion.

Comprehension Area:

Main Idea

Can you give me the main idea of the book in one sentence?
What was the plot of the story?
Does the setting of the story affect the plot?
Is the author writing about the people living today, or people having lived a long time ago? How do you know?
Was this time element important to the story? How?
Have you read any other books that are similar to this book? How are they similar?
How does the title of the book relate to the story?
What kind of a story was this?
Describe the book with one word if you can. (Sartain, 1960), pp. 262-65.

Appraisal of Child's Value Structure

What do you think about this story?
Could you get into an argument about this book? Why?
On which side of the argument are you? Why?
After you read this story, did you feel as though you wanted to do something about something? What?
Did anything in the book make you change your mind about something? If so, what was it?
Do you always believe everything you read in books?
Would you like all your classmates to read this book? Why?

Did the book make fun of anyone?
Was the main character in the story perfect, or did he or she make mistakes?

Inferential and Critical Reading:

Did any character in this story have to overcome a difficulty? If so, what do you think about the way he or she did it?
When you read this book, did you get any ideas which were not actually put into words?
What was this story really about? (Hunter, 1970), pp. 53-64.

Sequence of the Story:

If this story were a play, what main event would make up each act?
Look at this illustration. Describe what is happening and what happened before and after this particular incident.
Tell me the story (in part or whole).
Did the story end the way you expected it to end?
Would you like to change the ending in any way? Why?

About the Author:

What is the name of the author?
Do you know anything about him or her?
If you wrote the author a letter, what would you say about this book?
Have you read any other books written by this author?
Would you now go and look for more books by this author?
Do you think the author wrote this book purely for children's enjoyment or to give children information?
Do you think the author might have children of his own?
What makes you think so? (Witty, 1964), pp. 211-17.

Reasons for Book Choices and Clues to Personality:

Personal Identification

Why did you choose this book?
Did you like the book? Why?
Why did you chooise this particular book to present to me?
Did you choose this book because you thought I would be pleased?
What part of the book did you enjoy particularly? Why?
Do you think you would enjoy living like, or being like the person in the story? Why?

Did any part of this book bore you? Why?
Has anything ever happened to you like what happened in the story?
Which character in the story didn't you like and why?
How did the story make you feel? (Happy, angry, thankful, etc.)
Did you learn a lesson from this book?

Awareness of Peer-Group Action

Was there anyone in the story who seemed lonely? Do you ever feel lonely in our classroom or on the playground?
Was the main character in the story popular or unpopular? What characteristics made him popular?
Do you think there might be some children in this classroom who would like the same kind of books that you like? Why do you think so?
Do you ever get together with your friends to read books?
Would you rather read to a friend than have a friend read to you? (Stauffer, 1960), pp. 375-82.

Evidence of Modification of Behavior

Do you read more books now than you used to? Why?
When you are asked what you would like to have for a gift, do you ask for books? If yes, what type?
Do you have some problems like the people in the story? How do you try to solve these problems?
Do you usually ask your mother and dad to help you with your problems or do you prefer to ask your friends to help you?
Did any of the actions in the story remind you of something you ever did?
Did any character in the story do anything that you would be ashamed or afraid to do? Explain.

Mechanical Skills:

Word Definitions

Here is an unusual word. Can you tell me what it means?
Can you tell me another word that means the same or almost the same thing?
If I said (naming an antonym or homonym), would you say this word was the same or opposite in meaning?
Did you find any words that had a different meaning when you read them somewhere else? What was the difference?
Use this word in a sentence.

Can you find a word on this page that has more than one meaning?
(bat, ship, walk, for example)

Study Skills:

Show me the index, table of contents, title page, etc.
What thing(s) does this page tell us?
Find page(s) where such and such is described.
Did pictures help you understand this book? How?
How do you find things in the index (table of contents, title page)?
Can you locate the setting of this story?
Can you find the general topic of this story in another book?
In any reference books? Other texts in other subjects?
Can you tell me the thread of the story by looking at the table of contents?
Skim this page and tell me ____________________.
Are there any graphs, charts, or maps which helped you? How?
(Emans, 1965), pp. 258-60.

Ability to Analyze Unknown Words - (These skills can be developed best in independent writing):

Show me a word you did not know. How did you figure it out?
Here is a word that seems difficult. What is it?
How did you figure it out: (Initial letter, blend, rhyming, ending letter, vowel sounds, and general configuration.)
Let me cover up part of it. Now what do you see? Say it; now here is the whole word. Can you say it?
The word starts like __________ but rhymes with __________. Try it.
Choose a word at random:
- What is the root word?
- What is the prefix?
- What is the suffix?
- Unlock the word meaning for me by telling me what this word means with a prefix, suffix, or both?

Reading for Details:

The child should be questioned for details according to the nature of the material. If the book is concerned with such areas as:
How to build or make things.
How to perform an experiment.
The following of recipes.

Then reading for details may be included. (Herrick and Jacobs, 1955). pp. 206-10.

Oral Reading in the Conference:

The purpose for oral reading in the conference is to determine how effectively the child can "hold an audience". It highlights the conference. The Evaluation of the oral reading should be based on how effectively the child can make his reading sound like talking. It is a perfect opportunity to "show-off" in a healthy way.

The teacher can help the child to develop natural expression by making quiet, incentive remarks while the child is reading. Below are several examples of such comments:

What happened next?
Is that so!
Make it exciting! (spooky, silly, etc.)

The selection which the child reads orally would always be material with which he is familiar and which he is prepared to read aloud. The child should read a selection which is suited to his ability and needs. For these reasons, it is generally agreed that the child should choose the selection and the amount of it that he wishes to share with his teacher. The teacher may wish to ask the child the reason for his particular choice. (McVery, 1960), pp. 307-09.

SUMMARY

The most important aspect of an individualized reading program is to provide the opportunity for children to read for the simple reason that they enjoy it. If record keeping and conferences become too involved and are a detriment to the pleasure of reading, the purpose of the program is defeated. A book need not be finished in order for the child to give an account. Certain kinds of books, non-fiction, for example, do not need to be completed in order to "count". A simple recording of the title, author, date read, and a short comment could be written and placed in the folder.

One of the most rewarding benefits that has come from classes using individualized programs is that the low, middle, and the high levels of reading groups can meet together in the sharing period and feel confident. Each has something to contribute to the total group, and the stigma of "slow group" is not as obvious.

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Eileen Rubin Foster

July, 1974

LANGUAGE EXPERIENCES IN READING

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INTRODUCTION

Reading is a widely researched subject by educators today. The writer believes it is an important subject taught in the schools. Due to its importance, getting off to a good start should be a goal of the primary grade reading teacher.

Reading involves many senses and skills, therefore, a program that utilizes most or all the skills, is what the teacher of reading should seek. The writer of this paper has researched and found that the Language Experience Approach probably best combines these skills.

The purpose of this paper is to acquaint the first grade teacher of reading with the language experience approach and offer suggestions in utilizing this approach. The first grade reading teacher has a very important job. Characteristics of the approach will be cited through support of researchers.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Explanation of the Language Experience Approach in Reading

The Language Experience Approach in reading develops the concept within the child, that reading is talking written down. (Stauffer, 1970, IX). The child comes to school with wealth of linguistic, social, intellectual, and cultural experiences and an eagerness to read. This approach utilizes and draws from these experiences in providing numerous opportunities for the child to produce at his expectancy level in reading. (Stauffer, 1970, 237).

This approach to reading focusses on language as a means of communication. Its purpose is to combine the reading, writing, talking, and listening communication skills and simultaneously create a love for language usage. (Stauffer, ED 053 877, 15)

Allen sums up the program into four stages: 1) what I think, I can say; 2) what I say I can write; 3) what I can write I can read; 4) others can read what I write, and I can read what others write for me to read. (Allen, ED 034, 571, 2-5).

Some characteristics of this program, as listed by Stauffer are: language experience foundations, dictated experience stories, building a word bank, word recognition skills, creative writing, and utilization of the library. These characteristics will be expounded further in the implementation of the program section of this paper.

Implementing the Program Through Support of Educators

Stauffer suggests in detail how to implement this program from the very first day of school. He states that children come to school eager to read, and those that are reading already, want to show they can. He recommends the teacher bring a device that will stimulate oral language. The teacher should ask questions that will make the students carefully study and observe the device. Afterwards, take a dictation story from the group. As the story is read back to the students, the teacher should look at the particular child who dictated the sentence being read. (Stauffer, 1970, 22).

Dictation stories may also be done individually. The thrill of being an author is ego-inspiring to the student. He sees his words in writing and is a personalized record.

A window card is used to test word recognition in a dictated story. The card is placed over the words in random order. Children may test each other. Each word the child recognizes should be placed in his word bank. (Stauffer, 1970, 63-68).

A word bank is a file of three by five cards of all recognized words in experience accounts. A separate card is made for each word and is filed in a small metal box. During free time, the student may arrange these words in sentences or call them to another student or aid. (Stauffer, ED 053 877, 11-12).

Hall supports that word recognition skills be taught in a functional setting. She suggests the following practices as a core of the language experience program: 1) begin with development of language terminology, 2) use clozure activities in a functional context (example: Copy sentences with words left out from dictation stories.), 3) sentence experimentation with word banks, 4) seek to develop language awareness through children's literature, 5) develop an oral language background, 6) instruct oral reading to sound like talking, 7) use incidental teaching for punctuation, 8) experiment with vocabulary, 9) classify words in word banks by phoneme-grapheme patterns, 10) structural analysis should be taught in context. All the aforementioned practices can be utilized in a game-like situation. (Hall, ED 068 906, 6-9).

Allen states a basic framework for a language experience approach in three areas of program planning. These are extending experiences with words; to see that each child understands coding and decoding processes, multiple meanings of words, style of authors, idiomatic expressions, and alphabet symbols; and relating the author's ideas to personal experiences. (Allen, ED 034 571, 6).

Both Stauffer and Allen agree to certain needs prior to creative writing. These needs are a knowledge of the alphabet, knowledge of letter sounds, and handwriting skills. Allen suggests a need of a phonics program, but does not support a particular one; he suggests grouping for directed teaching activities. Stauffer does not believe in parroting letters and sounds, but to simply stress them in dictation stories. (Stauffer, 1970, 78). Burns also supports, "As the teacher writes, he calls attention to items that are important to reading and writing, such as letter formation, association of sounds with symbols, repetition of the same sounds or symbols and the functions of capitalization and punctuation." (Burns, 1971, 186).

Allen lists twenty essential language experiences, some of which have been previously mentioned. These essential experiences are:

1) talking about topics of interest
2) discussing these topics
3) listening to the language of others (stories, poems, etc.)
4) distating stories or poems to the teacher about a painting or experience
5) telling stories; these can be taped and played back to the group
6) exploring and writing independently
7) authoring books
8) relating reading to talking and writing; each day they should hear their own stories
9) expanding vocabularies
10) reading in the environment in which they live; observe such environmental factors as weather, time of day, faces of people, texture, color, shapes, signs on the way to school, names of stores, magazines, newspapers and stories written for children
11) developing an awareness of a common vocabulary
12) increasing sensitivity, style and form
13) studying words; ask which words are difficult each day
14) reading stories and books
15) using a variety of learning resources
16) comprehending what is heard and read; listen to instructions and carry them through
17) summarizing, drawing conclusions and main ideas
18) organizing ideas and information such as class books and bulletin boards

19) integrating and assimilating ideas; realization that reading is a personal experience

20) listening and reading critically; determining fact or fiction (Allen, ED 034 571, 2-14).

Creative writing would be an outcome of the essential language experiences. Stauffer lists steps for creative writing. His directions are clear and concise. There are five steps: 1) use 12 X 18 paper and leave the top half blank for a picture; draw five lines at the bottom for story writing, 2) children may write about anything they wish or take the teacher's suggestion, 3) expect the children to do their best writing, 4) expect them to spell as best they can and, 5) the teacher should move about and give help as needed. "What is wanted is a perfection of pupil expression unhampered by adult standards. Improved standards will follow automatically." (Stauffer, 1970, 82-83). He states a long list of topics that are commonly written about. Some of these are animals, teachers, games, church, busses, trains, airport, favorite books, grandparents, sports and holidays. It is important to note that these are not rules for success in creative writing.

Burns states that writing grows out of reading. He lists some suggestions to give to the students in spelling. These suggestions would be of value in their creative writing experiences. He asserts to leave a space for unknown words, write as much of the word as possible, try it out on scrap paper and see if it looks right, think the story through first and ask the teacher to list the difficult words on the board, keep a blank paper on the desk for the teacher to jot words, look up words in a picture dictionary, and keep a spelling notebook of frequently used words. (Burns, 1971, 187-188).

CONCLUSION

The writer found through reviewing the related literature, that most of the authors agreed upon a basic core inthe language experience approach to reading, but each merely stated it in a different manner. The researcher believes this program would meet the specific needs of each individual student provided it is supported wholeheartedly by the reading teacher, and the child's readiness for reading is carefully considered by the reading teacher.

Although authors advocated the importance of phonics, no one other than Burns was clear and concise in utilizing it in the language experience program. None of the researchers would specify which phonics program to utilize, but did emphasize not to stress words in isolation.

The language experience approach has been researched rather thoroughly. However, the area of reading is always open for research. Perhaps, some innovative game-like activities would aid a reading teacher in utilizing this approach.

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RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE TEACHER OF READING

The writer of this paper is not advocating that every teacher of reading utilize this approach. However she strongly believes that any reading program will be as effective as the teacher's enthusiasm. The writer does feel it is a good approach to beginning reading.

Strang states: "The child is ready for instruction in reading if he has built a meaningful listening and speaking vocabulary, has learned to carry on a conversation and tell a story in sequence, can identify and discriminate sounds in oral expression, and can see likenesses and differences in printed letters and words." The researcher believes if this were true of every child that came to the first grade reading teacher, then it would not matter which approach she used; any reading approach would work in that situation.

The reading teacher should be aware of the individual differences among children and utilize the best approach for each child. She should group for specific reading skills, and these groups should be flexible.

Some other "tips" the writer recommends for the reading teacher are to make the reading program challenging for each child, and develop within the child an understanding of reading. Let the students ask "why" and answer them honestly. Encourage discovering for themselves.

The reading teacher should use the teacher's manual as an aid, rather than as a "Bible". She should be flexible and adapt it to the needs of the students. Skip certain parts with some students, and provide extra practice for others.

The reading teacher should create a pleasant atmosphere for reading. A pleasant personality and a positive attitude are of value and should be continuous. Creative writing should not always occur at a certain time on a

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specified day. Creative writing should occur in a continuous creative climate. Allow children to move about quietly, and give them the freedom to choose a creative reading activity for themselves. The writer hopes this paper will aid the classroom reading teacher in the first grade in implementing a language experience approach to reading.

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BEGINNING READING

by

Lois Edwards

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Introduction

Generations of American children have learned to read. Some have learned by drill on ABC's, some by reciting verse from McGuffey's Readers, some have been taught by basic phonemic approaches, some by phonemics-reading approaches, some by the individualized reading approach, and many others. The number of beginning reading approaches has grown until Robert Aukerman, in his book, Approaches to Beginning Reading, list more than one hundred approaches.

Changes in American life have brought about changes in reading instruction. Reading is so intricately interwoven with life's activities and currents of thinking that it reciprocally reflects the larger trends in life itself (Smith, 1963:100

Yet, American children have learned to read and read well. Our nation produces and consumes more pounds of printed material than all other countries combined.

Though a discussion of all beginning approaches is impossible, the purpose of this writing is to briefly categorize and give examples of each category. The selection of categories are those used by Hukerman. It is hoped this simplification will ease some confusion concerning beginning reading. The United States Office of Education, First-Grade Studies of the Sixties, will be cited to aid the reader in making decisions and reaching a better understanding of beginning reading.

Basic Phonemic Approaches

Phonemics is used throughout as the broad term referring to systems of reading that pay special initial attention to presenting the sounds of the language matched with the graphemes, with subsequent efforts to sythesize those sounds into whole words (Aukerman, 1971:9).

A basic phonemic system is a method of teaching reading in which major and almost exclusive attention is directed toward learning the sounds of vowels and consonants, followed by blending and the construction of phonemic families or phonograms.

The authors of these approaches to teaching reading are convinced that our American English is regular enough in spelling to lend itself to this approach. Most of these systems start with the sounds of the letters, followed with work in which the student assembles those letter sounds into words. If our language were 100% phonemic the child would have little trouble learning to read.

Method varies with the basic phonemic systems. Some basic systems attempt to teach the child to learn to read with pure isolated drill using letter symbols, exclusive of any supplementery cues. The idea being that the printed page will not be sprinkled with pictures of apples and balls.

Emans (1969:581) said there are probably some advantages for teaching certain sounds in isolation near the beginning of reading instruction. However, extreme care should be taken to include in this part of the program only those letters for which the sound they represent can be pronounced in isolation and to be sure the sounds are purely made, e.g.--"m" not "mu".

Inasmuch as any phonemic system depends upon auditory perception and discrimination much time is spent in ear training. Rhyming words, words with particular final consonants, words with a particular vowel sound as the medial vowel, and finally word families lend themselves to this training.

Some teachers are such strong advocates of phonics that they overlook the fact phoneme instruction does not constitute reading. Actually, it is no longer a question as to whether or not we are to have "phonics" in reading instruction. There are three questions:

1. Do we use one of the basic phonemic approaches as a prelude basal readers or some other approach to reading?

2. Do we subscribe to one of the basic phonemics approach?

3. Do we wish to rely upon the phonemic exercise suggested in basal reader series and purchase some of the good basic phonemic systems to be used as supplementary aids?

Some of the basic phonemic materials available are:

The Phonovisual Method
Reading With Phonics
Your Child Can Learn to Read
Speech-to-Print Phonics
The Sound Way to Easy Reading
Functional Phonetics
The Landon Phonics Programs
Phonics We Use
Modern Curriculum Press

Phonemic-Pronunciation Approaches

A phonemic-pronunciation approach to beginning reading is one in which principles of phonemics and rules of pronunciation are presented as aids in pronouncing new words. These approaches are useful when the child encounters words reasonably regular phonemically. When the child becomes involved in the actual practice of reading, he encounters irregular spellings and non-regular phonemic elements, his need for the exceptions to the rule become greater.

There are problems encountered with these approaches:

1. Our American English utilizes only twenty-six symbols to handle the forty-four or more sounds.

2. The spelling of our language is one of the slowest

aspects of our culture to change.

3. Our language has a number of "silent" letters that should be thrown out.

Two strictly phonemic-pronunciation approaches are Sister Mary Caroline's Breaking the Sound Barrier and Sister Monica Foltzer's Phonics Gives Sound Advice.

Breaking the Sound Barrier is a little handbook of pronunciation rules to help the child through the maze of phonetic regularities and irregularities in our language. The program was developed by Sister Mary Caroline, I. H. M., after years of working with children of all ages and coming to the firm conviction that help in phonemic-pronunciation would solve reading problems. The teacher's manual is specific in showing exactly how BTSB work fits in with the phonemic analysis work in the basal reader. WhenBTSB is used as the phonemic analysis "Bible," it is always within arm's reach of the child, and is his reference companion. (Aukerman, 1971:100)

Professor Phonics gives sound advice and is a 112 page handbook of word lists and phonemic-pronunciation rules. It was developed by Sister Monica Foltzer, principal of St. Ursula Junior High School in Cincinnati. It carries a copyright of 1955, but is the result of thirty years work. The art work and approach is similar to BTSB. They both have rules of operation. In BTSB it is"Use the Rule, then Use your Head!" In Professor Phonics, the admonition is:

Think the key word; start the sound.

Both of these approaches are handbooks that provide guidelines in the form of phonics generalizations. Neither one claims to be a complete reading program.

Phonemics-Reading Program Approaches

To be classified as a phonemics-reading approach, the system has two elements: structured phonemics material and method, plus structured meaningful reading materials into which have been phased the phonemic elements in the sequence in which they appear in the program.

The steps are:

1. Auditory readiness--the child hears differences in sounds.

2. Practice in linking vowel and consonant phonemes to the printed symbols.

3. Planned structured meaningful reading materials provide on-the-spot practice in the actual phonemic elements being stressed.

Some of these systems are:

1. Phonetic Keys to Reading--a system that attempts to provide the young beginner with "keys" for learning phonemics, word attack, and comprehension simultaneously. In most cases it is used with a basal or other reading program.

2. The Royal Road Readers--the "phonic word method" were created by Hunter Diack and J. C. Daniels at the Institute of Education, University of Nottingham, England.

   The books are the reconstruction of ideas by means of utilizing alphabetical symbols which are arranged in a time sequence in order in which the sounds are made. Sounds or combinations of them in the form of words are not language, and, therefore, reading must be more than just pronouncing letters or words--it must be meaningful in context. This is the logic used in these books.

3. Another phonemic-reading approach is the structural Reading Series, published by L. W. Singer Co. in 1963. This was developed by Margaret B. Stern and Toni S. Gould. Marion Gantler is also an author. The structural reading series has developed a closely-structured phonemics sequence with sensible reading materials. Colors are used to indicate specific things.

> The First Grade program in the structural reading series provides the child with practice on over 800 phonemically-related words, plus interesting reading materials. By the end of the second grade books books more than 1,000 structurally-related words have have been covered.
>
> The main feature of a phonemics-reading approach is the correlation of the reading material with the phonetic drill that it accompanies.

Linguistics-Phonemics Approaches

A group of language scientists know popularly as linguists are proposing a variety of approaches to reading instruction. Within the group there are at least three schools of through as presented in Spache (1971: 150-151):

1. The Phonologists--Learnod Bloomfield is credited by most of his fellow linguists with the indentification of the various phonemes as the basic sounds of language.

2. The Grammarians--or structural linguists have investigated the structure of the language.

3. The third school concerns with psycholinguistics, which identifies the elements of prose style such as personalization, ornamentation, and abstractness. The implications of these studies have not been directly emphasized for reading instructions.

One example of the linguistic approach is known as the Bloomfield-Barnhart Let's Read, compiled by Clarence L. Barnhart after the death of Dr. Bloomfield. The system is based upon three generalizations: (1) Language is primarily speech. Instruction should be based upon the oral language acquired by the child the first five years of life. (2) English has an alphabetic writing system whose code is easily broken. (3) Language is systematic. The regular patterns are presented, repeated with the contrasting element in the pattern, and patterns are memorized by rote in isolation.

Basic Reading, a linguistics-phonemic series of basals published by J. B. Lippincott Co. is the work of Dr. Glenn McCracken and Dr. Charles C. Walcutt. Dr. McCracken became famous as the originator of the "New Castle Experiment."

The "New Castle" plan teaches reading in the primary grades through the use of filmstrips that accompany reading tests. According to the author, the "significance of the New Castle experiment is that it begins at the beginning. The program introduces phonic instruction in the first grade, and increased emphasis occurs in the second grade (Witty: 1966-201-202)."

Basic Reading provides an intelligent and restrained use of linguistics elements in its approach, includes good story content, plus many of the best features of basal readers.

Other examples of the Linguistics-Phonemics Approaches are SRA Basic Reading Series, The Linguistic Readers, published by Harper-Row, the Merrill Linguistic Readers, Programmed Reading by Buchanan and Sullivan, and published by McGraw Hill, The Michigan Language Program--a highly structured programmed sequence of stimulous response frames, the Miami Linguistic Readers--a linguistic oriented language arts program, the Palo Alto Program entitled, Sequential Steps in Reading, First Steps in Reading English by Gibson-Richards, Sounds and Letters by Frances A. Hall, and Lift-Off to Reading.

The main difference between a linguistic and a phonic approach to reading instruction is that phonics gave primacy to letters and seemed to place spoken language under their control whereas linguistics points to the priority of speech and demonstrates that writing is merely a way of recording that by the use of symbols (Seymour: 1969-102).

The Total Language Arts Approaches

A "total" language arts approach is a system that integrates listening, speaking, seeing, writing, spelling into a simultaneous and/or sequential process when dealing with our language. Some of these programs are The Carden Method designed by Miss Mae Carden, The Spalding Method--a "unified" phonics method is known as The Writing Road to Reading, Open Court Basic Readers, The McQueen Integrated Phonics Method, ProReading by Mrs. Gladys Stump--a program designed for first grade, and the Wenkart Phonic Readers by Mrs. Heni Wenkart Epstein, who wrote her books for her son, Johnny, to read.

The Listen Look Learn (LLL) approach to beginning reading is an extension of materials and equipment marketed by Educational Developmental Laboratories of Huntington Long Island. The LLL program is referred to by its promoters as a multi-media approach to be used as a total language arts approach to beginning reading.

The Mott Basic Language Skills Program was developed as a functional medium for the Mott Adult Reading Center in Flint, Michigan. Charles Stewart Mott, who for many years was associated with the Mott Foundation of Flint, was the donor of the Mott Center. Mr. Byron E. Chapman, director of the center, and Louis Schulz, Principal of the Adult High School and continuing education program in Mott. The program came about as a recognition of need for an approach to beginning reading designed for adults.

Language-Experience Approaches

The language-experience approach uses the language and thinking of dual children as the basis for skill development. As each child matures

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he thinks of reading in a rationale which has been outlined by Dr. Allen, the originator of the materials, as follows:

1. What I think about, I can talk about.
2. What I say, I can write (or someone can write for me).
3. What I can write, I can read (and others can read, too).
4. I can read what I have written for me to read.

(Allen: 1961)

The Van Allen approach, as the above indicates, is a very unstructured program. Language experiences in reading is not for the usual teacher. If it be for anyone, it is for the unusual teacher; the teacher, who like the authors of the program, is "searching" for a means of capturing the real languages and experiences of children and utilizing them as the avenues to beginning reading.

The Chandler Reading Program is a program that is a part of the Great Cities Project of the Ford Foundation and the Bank Street College of Education work with urban children. The program starts where "the child is", it includes photographs of urban children in urban settings and contains vocabulary and sentence patterns for urban culturally-different children.

Organic Reading is the name given to a most primitive method of teaching reading by Sylvia Ashton-Warner as found in her books Spinster and Teacher. Miss Warner devised the method while working in the Infant Room in New Zealand. Her name, Organic, relies on the innermost thought-language of children.

One-to-One Sound-Symbol Approaches

A one-to-one sound-symbol approach to beginning reading is one in which one symbol has been devised to represent one and only one sound of our language.

The Initial Teaching Alphabet, popularly known as i/t/a is the result of earlier work done over a period of years to simplify English spelling. Sir James Pitman, following the work of his ancestors, invented the initial teaching alphabet in 1959. Pitman's objective is not a spelling reform but the provision of a consistent teaching medium for the initial learning of the alphabet.

In the system one sign represents one sound only, with some inconsistences. There are forty-five characters including twenty-seven consonants, seventeen vowels and "y". Pitman used the fact that we read the upper part of the letters in designing new characters.

He made clear that it was not a design of reformed spelling but a device for teaching reading to be used in initial stages only. It was a "teacher tool" one to be left behind and forgotten when it achieved its purpose (Burg: 1971-15).

Unifon, a new forty-letter synthetic alphabet, may trace its origin to George Bernard Shaw, the playwright. Shaw left a considerable portion of his estate to be used to sponsor research and experimentation with new alphabet schemes. A sum of $23,240 was allotted for prizes to contestants and the expense of cutting type and producing 13,000 copies of "Androcles and the Lion" set in double pages of a new alphabet and traditional orthography.

John R. Malone of Park Forest, near Chicago, presented Unifon referring to a uniformly-phonemic representation of the sound of the English language.

The Laubach Method: Probably no one person in this century has dedicated his life more fully to the teaching of reading to the non-English speaking peoples than has the late Frank C. Laubeck, Ph.D. Dr. Laubeck went to the Phillippines as a Christian missionary. He realized that one of the greatest needs of the people was to learn to read and write. He won the friendship of the chief of the Moros who asked him to teach some of the leaders to read.

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The Moros did not have a written language. Dr. Laubach transliterated their speech sounds into English graphemes, of the language. Therefore, the language became completely phonetic. To fill the need for written materials, he made a little local newspaper which proved to be a very successful motivational devise. The chief spoke the words, "Each one, teach one", which really began the spreading of literacy. Dr. Loubach carried his method and his slogan to Africa, the Middle East, the Orient, and South America. He has been credited with bringing literacy to 100,000,000 of the world's people. He covered sixty-five countries and helped prepare lessons and teaching devices in 312 different languages!

Words in Color is a unique approach which attempts to code each of the various vowel sounds to a specific color, some of the consonants, vowel diagraphs and consonant diagraphs.

Color is used to help solve quickly and easily the problems created by the ambiguous graphene-phoneme relationship of English without affecting the usual spelling (Smith, James: 1967-73).

Psychololinguistic Color System--a system using color devised primarily for children by Dr. Alex Bannatyne. The materials consist of twenty-four medium-sized wall charts in color, flash cards, and kits of colored pencils for each child to use in the six workbooks.

Peabody Rebus Reading Series is a set of eight readers, each consisting of from sixty to eighty pages of text. In place of graphenes pictures are inserted in the text. The obvious problem involved in using these is the whole word emphasis.

Fonetic English is the outgrowth of efforts of famous critics of language such as Benjamin Franklin, Noah Webster, and George Bernard Shaw. The basic principle is the one-to-one relationship: each consonant, vowel, and letter combination is given one basic pronunciation or sound.

Of the eight approaches listed as one-to-one sound symbol approaches, only i/t/a is a major approach to beginning reading.

The Individualized Reading Approach

The individualized reading approach is based on a premise that a child's pattern of learning cannot be predetermined in either rate or manner and can best be guided within a highly flexible framework allowing for considerable pupil choice and teacher judgement. They should have time to explore the books that abound and to select those that touch their "growing edges" in terms of what they want to investigate and learn and enjoy (Harris: 1972-185).

The teacher-child conference is basic to this approach. In this conference, the child shares his book with the teacher. The teacher must be able to ask questions that tell her what the child has found in his book. On-the-spot instruction may occur and follow-through activities may be discussed. Jennette Veatch, in his book, How to Teach Reading with Children's Books, describes it thoroughly.

Obvious problems of adequate materials, skill development, and development of the skills must be considered.

Early Reading Approaches

The past few years have brought about a frowing number of research studies, learning materials, and debates concerned with the learning capabilities of very children. Our time honored concepts have been questiond, as follows:

1. When should a child begin formal reading activity?
2. How can a child be aided in becoming ready to read?
3. How is readiness to read measured?
4. Should kindergarten children be taught to read?
5. Should four-year olds be taught formal reading readiness learnings?
6. What should four and five-year olds be taught in the area of reading?
7. What approach to reading should be used with very young children?

Today the situation is usually that kindergartens stress only reading-readiness activities relagating formal reading instruction to the first grade.

Readiness for reading is quite another aspect of the larger concept of readiness. Readiness for reading is a point on the maturation growth curve when all physical, emotional, psychological, and perceptual systems are optimum for "GO". How early this optimum condition occurs depends on individual differences (Aukerman, 1971:393).

The Montessori Method, a method that grew out of a life time of work by Dr. Maria Montessori in the late 1800's in Italy has been revived. The original Montessori Method makes reference to "the prepared enviornment," or the "Preparing of the child" for certain learnings. This is also true in the case of reading. "Perperation" for reading is achieved through writing." (Aukerman, 1971:397).

Her methods include large letters of the alphabet. The first ones were enameled and cut of bronze, but a less expensive means had to be found. The now famous sandpaper surface letters came about, the birth of the "self-correcting materials." The child's "preparation" is necessary in three areas:

1. Muscular composition of the letter
2. Pronouncing the letter sound
3. Manipulation of the writing instrument.

Once the child is prepared he "writes." Language develops and he "explodes" into reading.

The child works alone or in very small groups. Oral reading is decried. One-to-one instruction is the by-word.

Karnes reported in a study in which five different programs for four-year old disadvantaged children were described, focused on the intellectual and language development of the children, reported that the Montessori program did little to alter the intellectual functioning of the disadvantaged child. This is not surprising in view of the fact that there is little verbal sharing in the program. However, Montessori schools are increasing in number rapidly. Many modern educators have the zeal of Maria Montessori.

Other early approaches to reading are:

1. Getting Ready to Read, a direct outgrowth of the work done by Dr. McKee and Miss Harrison in the Denver early reading experiment.

2. ABC Dictation Skills Program was developed by Dr. William C. McMahon of Western Connecticut State College--directed toward the kindergarten child using a learning sequence which teaches one skill at a time through the process of overlearning.

3. Read Along With Me, published by the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, were originally designed for one adult and one child.

4. The Responsive Enviornments Approach originated by Dr. Omar Khayyam Moore, Professor of Social Psychology and his colleague of the University of Pittsburgh. The "ERE" Edison Responsive Enviornment" is the first instrument invented. The machine is known as the "Talking Typewriter" and has been used in research since 1959 with amazing results.

5. Play "N Talk Phonics produced by Mrs. Marie LeDoux is a course in phonemics consisting primarily of five 12-inch L. P. recordings in albums with manuals in rhyme.

6. How to Teach Your Baby to Read created by Glenn Dorman and Carl Delacato. The program was first conceived for the brain injured child leading to the idea that when a child learns to speak, he may at the same time learn to read. The materials include a manual for parents and big cards 6" wide and 24" long. Until there is more definite proof that it is neurologically expedient to teach very young children to read at the time they are learning to speak, How to Teach Your Baby to Read (and its school counterpart, Reading A) will continue to be controversial.

7. Distar or Direct Instructions Systems for Teaching Arithmetic and Reading, was created by Mr. Sieafried Enaelmann and Dr. Carl Bereiter consists of a unitary concept of learning, centered upon the basic premise that children will learn those concepts and skills which they should know only if those concepts or skills are taught.

The only thing in common with the early reading approaches is the fact that they teach the very young child. Getting Ready to Read has had greatest exposure to tryout in the classroom which is natural because it is a part of a well known basil program and planned for a class. All others are designed for one-to-one.

Perceptual-Discrimination Approaches

The "perceptual-discrimination" approach to beginning reading is one which emphasizes auditory and visual perceptual factors of learning are an outgrowth of the gestalt school of psychology, which theorizes that reading is dependent upon the learner's ability to factor out appropriate sounds and shapes.

The advocates of perceptual-discrimination approaches to beginning reading e their strategies on the theory that the reading process is a visual tracking skill. Their materials and methods are designed to provide sequential practice in visual-motor skills. Most of the originators of materials are engaged in special programs for children with special learning disabilities.

Some of the materials are Frostig, Slingerland, Kephart technique, the Winter Haven Program, the Barsh Perceptual-Motor Sequences, Kelp Kindergarten, Evaluation of Learning Potential, ITPA (Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities), the Eric County Program, the Pathway School Eye-Hand Coordination Exercises, Cleves Program of Visual-Motor Perception Teaching Methods, and others.

The materials are divided into four categories: auditory perceptual-discrimination, Kinethetic and tactile perceptual-discrimination, and spatial directional orientation. The only validity that can reasonably be admitted for most of the perceptual-discrimination approaches to beginning reading is that they contain many elements of perceptual readiness.

Child development specialist, on the other hand, have not supported the theory of structural readiness for learning. Hymes, for example, a decade ago wrote, "When we spend time and energy trying to 'build' readiness to read, we move in the wrong direction." (Hynes:1958:41)

The USOE Cooperative Reading Studies

The United States Office of Education Cooperative Reading Studies of the mid-sixties were a comprehensive attempt to evaluate reading in First Grade. It was a massive study involving 25,000 children and costing about two billion dollars. Many projects concerning various aspects of First Grade Reading were included. Representative studies are summarized as follows:

PROJECT #2719: Elizabeth Ann Shape, N. H. "The Evaluation of Three Approaches to Teaching Reading in the First Grade", Reading Teacher, Vol. 20, Oct., 1966, p.6-11.

Three approaches were compared:

1. A Basil approach-BR
2. A BR + intensive phonics-P
3. B^Asil Reader & Phonics + Sensory experience.

The study concerned a population of 751 children (385- white, 366 negro, 7 schools, 28 classrooms, 30 per class). Correlations were made using total population, boys vs. girls and negro vs. white. The results showed significant differences (above .01 level) for all approaches favoring Approach #3. Conclusion: Based upon this study, varied approaches are probably best.

PROJECT #2679: Stauffer, Russell G. "The Effectiveness of Language Arts and Basil Reading Approaches to First Grade," The Reading Teacher, Vol. 20, Oct. 1966, p. 18-24.

Purpose: To compare a Language Arts Approach to a Basil Reading Approach,
Results: Language Arts earned significantly higher scores at .01 level, on tests of word meaning and paragraph meaning. Basil Reading Approaches were higher in arithmetic and vocabulary. Girls were better in language arts than boys. Language arts produced good oral reading.
Conclusion: More tests are needed to more adequately evaluate language skills. The study proves that the language arts approach to beginning reading is effective.

Robert DyKstra (Harris: 1972-110-115) reports results a study Chall (1967) concluding that code-emphasis programs tend to produce better overall reading achievement, at least in initial stages of instruction, than do meaning-emphasis programs. Although, the study supports in general Chall's conclusions concerning the superiority of code-emphasis programs in beginning reading a note of caution is needed. There is no clear evidence that the early evidence on code per se is the only or even the primary reason for the relative effectivemenss ness of the code-emphasis programs.

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PROJECT #2659: Marieta, Sister M. "Beginning Reading Achievement in Three Classroom Organizational Patterns." The Reading Teacher, Vol. 20, Oct. 1966.

Purpose: To compare three organizational patterns for reading instruction: a modified individualized organizational pattern, three to five group organizational patterns, and the whole class "child-centered" pattern.

Population: 810 heterogeneously grouped first graders. Ten classes were used for each of the three organizational patterns.

Procedures: All teachers volunteered. All teachers met one day prior to the beginning of school in September. Pre-tests were given all students. Post-tests were given all.

Results: It would seem that the "whole class" child-centered organizational pattern in a child-centered context might be as meaningful an approach as either of the two organizational patterns.

Conclusions: Further study needs to be made of this organizational pattern, since there is real danger of this pattern's reverting back to the traditional "whole class" approach.

The conclusion suggested by the USOE First Grade Studies that it is not the materials or method that makes the difference, but it is the teacher, should increase our concern. The possibility that such might be the case cannot be denied, but a careful analysis of the First Grade Studies reveals no evidence that teacher characteristics and/or performance were sufficiently controlled or accessed to warrant such a conclusion.

The danger of accepting without question the findings of any published study is always present. However, the temptation to do so may be increased when a number of studies were conducted cooperatively and sponsored by the USOE. The discerning professional should read carefully at least the journal accounts and judge each upon its own merits. Spivay listed the limitations of the study (Harris: 1972, 116-121) as follows: (1) The manner in which a program was implemented probably varied within the many projects. (2) Programs often were not clearly defined. (3) No one program proved to be superior for all children. (4) The programs and materials alone did not account for the growth in reading. (5) Treatment groups may not have been "equal" because of the

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way in which pupils and teachers were assigned to treatments. (6) The attrition of subjects may have influenced the results. (7) The appropriate experimental unit, the class, was not used in most individual projects. (8) The tests employed may have had a bearing on the obtained results. (9) The long-range effects of the program are yet to be determined. (10) The innovative programs probably profited from whatever Hawthorne effect was operative. (11) The reported findings and conclusions are not always accurate and may be misleading.

Recommendations

Any educator who thinks about the large number of approaches to reading, almost one hundred plus fifteen basil reading approaches, must remember that each approach to reading has within it a possibility of changing our stance in reading. The originators are sincere people who believe they have found better ways to beginning reading instruction. The diversity of approaches leads to the conclusion that some are better than others.

Few, if any comparitive studies provide adequate and definite statistical information that would prove one approach to be superior to others. Yet, in a few instances, statistical reports do, indeed, result in reading performance that is far enough above national norms to be beyond chance. The fact that these reports have come from a wide distribution of schools and teachers seem to rule out the possibility that superior performance of children is due to superior teachers alone.

"Which is the best method of teaching beginning reading?" is a question many persons would like to have answered. To say there is no one best method might be true, but teachers should not leave it there. The answer lies not within materials or methods, but within the committment which a teacher is willing to make. Some teachers are willing to "sift" and give their all, to finding the best from several methods and systhesizing those elements into their own method. Others are satisfied with the "easiest" method.

The teachers who are willing to commit themselves to beginning reading will find many sound practices of learning within the many approaches. The beginning for many must be the finding out about the various approaches. Even an elementary understanding is lacking for many teachers. Therefore, how can a teacher use "new" ideas if she makes no effort to find out about new ideas or to use the ones she knows?

After examining the methods and materials available, the committed teacher will seek out meaningful materials. Beyond this she will always remain aware that she is teaching individuals and individuals are different.

Responsible caution should lead to responsible choice.

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Readiness in Reading

by

Aloma Lytle Elliott

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Readiness in Reading

What Research Says About Readiness in Reading

Readiness for reading has to do with the time for the introduction of formal reading instruction, the best time for beginning the specific task of reading. There are those who advocate a formal readiness program as if the child could be readied for the process of reading. Others believe that readiness depends entirely upon maturity. Krogman explains, "Readiness as a whole is a 'ripening', i.e., an individual potential translated in terms of capacity and ability. There is a time (to paraphrase) in the tide of growth which, taken at the full, will lead to greater learning ability... Readiness implies a 'best-time' for initiating a specific task situation" (Leeper, 1968, pp. 10, 15, 21).

Some factors involved in readiness are wholly dependent upon maturation. Once this maturation has been achieved, opportunity for appropriate experiences may be supplied, and the child learns happily and effectively. According to Olson, "Synchronization between maturity and opportunity seems to be the safest guide to educational practice" (Leeper, Nu, 1973, p. 14).

A child is ready for reading, then, when he has reached the stage in his development - emotional, mental, physical, and social - when he can learn to read most easily. This explanation indicates that readiness for reading depends upon both nature and nurture, maturity and training. It is important that the nursery school or kindergarten teacher understand the factors involved in learning to read and the interrelationship of these factors. These include physical factors such as age, vision, hearing, and general health; emotional-social factors; and mental and intellectual factors.

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Pressures for early reading instruction are being felt in early childhood education. Austin reports the results of a survey of school systems maintaining kindergartens (Austin, 1972, pp. 16-20). Approximately one-fourth of the systems offer reading instruction at kindergarten level. Half of these offered the instruction at kindergarten level. Half of these offered the instruction for selected small groups of children, but one-third taught reading to all children in the class.

It is important to examine the proposals for early reading and the effects of such programs on children. There are those who believe that teaching reading to young children will give them academic advantage in later grades. In analyzing the controversy regarding early reading, it is important to distinguish between prereading activities and formal reading instruction. It is also important to note whether the formal reading instruction is planned for all children or is recommended for those children who are ready to read or are already reading.

One investigation which has attracted wide attention is the Denver Study, a five-year research project which compared the effectiveness of beginning reading instruction in the kindergarten with that of beginning reading instruction in the first grade (Austin, 1972, pp. 80-86). The researchers concluded that beginning reading skills could be taught quite effectively to large numbers of typical kindergarten pupils without producing physical or emotional blocks to later reading. They noted, however, that the permanence of the gains made as a result of kindergarten reading depended upon subsequent instruction.

The results of the study seem to be controversial, and while some educators endorse them, others point to seeming contradictions. Mood analyzed the research design and concluded that the results must be considered with caution (Leeper, 1968, p. 15). She points out that two variables were included, the method and the materials, without any means of separating the effects. Another fundamental aspect which she questions is the random sampling technique.

Nila B. Smith expresses the point of view held by those who do not advocate early formal reading instruction (Austin, 1972, pp. 14-15).

Can preschool children learn to read? Is it desirable for them to do so?

Of course they can learn to read. Both Dr. Durkin and Dr. Almy found that many children read before they came to school. Back in 1926 Terman in his study of gifted children found that over one percent of his subjects learned to read before they were five. We have plenty of evidence that young children can learn to read...the main consideration is whether they should be taught to read at an early age.

Actually the human being begins reading symbols quite early in life. Symbols very quickly become meaningful as the individual associates experience with what he sees. A young child smiles at a bottle - a symbol that food is near. A young child frets at the sight of medicine - reading the symbol and interpreting it in the light of experience. This goes on contuously in the process of growth. As the individual moves from the real symbols to printed ones, however, we call this...in the academic sense..."reading". It is at this point that teachers actually define reading. All of the growth and experience prior to this time are actually preludes to the moment, or the gradual period of time, when a child actually decodes the printed word and understands it.

We may conclude, then, that before a child will read books successfully, he must grow in certain ways. He may begin to read before kindergarten, during kindergarten, during first grade, or after first grade, but regardless of when, chances are good that he will have developed some measure of success in...

1. vocabulary development
2. verbal facility
3. learning to listen
4. auditory discrimination
5. visual discrimination
6. motor coordination between eyes and hands
7. personal and social adjustment and
8. growth of independence

What then is reading readiness? It is doing those things necessary to begin reading. For the child it is the opportunity to develop in each of these areas. For the teacher of young children, it means planning learning experiences so that such development will happen to children. It means that vocabulary is extended. It means that children are encouraged to discover and experience. It means a chance to do things, and make things, and "be" things. Mostly it means that opportunities are countless for young children to develop in important ways, and as such growth takes place - reading will begin!

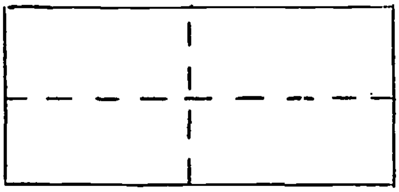
Recommendations

Problems	Suggestions
1. Language Development	a. giving directions b. telling stories c. reading aloud (very important) d. show and tell
2. Reading Vocabulary	a. ability to read labels b. picture-word cards c. dramatizing
3. Writing Skill Development	a. use monthly issues of Highlights for Children magazine b. writing letters to parents during special occasions
4. Auditory & Visual Discrimination	a. instruction given to differentiate between sounds of words and letters b. games referring to "left" and "right" and/or "top" and "bottom"
5. Motor Skills	a. tracing b. cutting out pictures c. block building

Other Activities for Pre-Schoolers

1st Game: DRAWING GAME

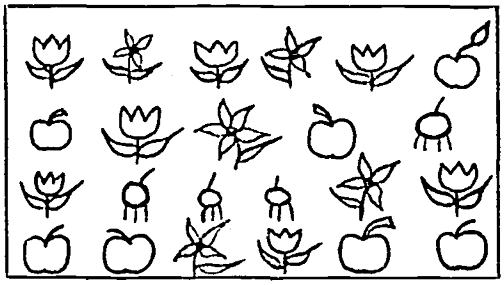
A. Preparations: Each child will need crayons and a sheet of drawing paper folded in fourths to make four drawing sections.



B. Introduction to class: Find the top section of your paper. (Demonstrate by pointing to the upper left hand section.) Listen carefully for I will give directions only once. In that square, draw a red flower. In the next section (point to the upper right hand section), draw a green snake. Continue in this way until all four sections have been used.

2nd Game: Seatwork DIRECTIONS

Example:



B. Introduction to class: Your seatwork sheet today has many pictures. Look at the pictures, one at a time. Draw a circle around each thing that can be eaten and tastes good.

3rd Game: FIND THE LETTER

A. Preparations: Make a set of 26 flash cards, one showing each letter of the alphabet. Prop the cards along the chalk tray of the blackboard in alphabetical order.

B. Introduction to class: All the letters of the alphabet are shown here. Let's read them together. (Point to the letters, one at a time in alphabetical order, while the children read the letters together, out loud).

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Other Activities for Pre-Schoolers (Cont.)

Can you find "D", Susan? Can you find "J", Mark? Can you find "T", Beverly? (Continue in this way until all letters have been named. Have each child take his card to his place as he finds it.)

Our cards are all gone now. Will each of you trade your card with someone sitting close to you? Now everyone has a new card, and we will go hunting letters again.

Who has "A"? Will you please bring up "A" and put it back on the chalk tray? Where is "B"? Will you put it beside "A"? (Continue in this way until all cards are once more in alphabetical order along the chalk tray.)

4th Game: LETTER TOSS

A. Preparations: Make a set of 26 flash cards, one showing each letter of the alphabet. The letters can be all capitals, all lower case, or a combination of the two, depending on the ability level of the children.

Seat the children on the floor, close to you.

B. Introduction to the class: I will hold up a letter. If you know the name of the letter, say it out loud quickly. I will toss the card to the first child who correctly names the letter. Let's see who can collect the most cards. Keep the game moving quickly.

C. Variation: Sometimes allow the brighter students to play alone and the slower students play by themselves.

5th Game: I SEE SOMETHING

A. Preparation: None. This is an ear training exercise.
No knowledge of letters is required.

B. Introduction to class: I see something in our classroom that begins with the sound, "S". (Say the sound, not the letter.) Can you guess what I see? (Children might guess such things as "scissors", "soap", "Sally", etc. The child who names the correct object becomes the new leader. He must give the beginning sound of what he sees, then may call on children to guess.)

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AN APPROACH USING DECODING

The learning disabled child needs a special approach. The following paper explains an approach which the author has used successfully with the learning disabled child. The author of this paper has for the past eight years been teaching learning disabled children in a variety of educational settings. Previously to her experience with learning disabled children the author had taught for seven years in a regular elementary classroom. The settings for teaching the learning disabled have been in a variety of educational settings. Settings have included a public school health room; a regular classroom set aside for the special reading class and a psychiatric hospital. The group sizes have ranged from one to twenty pupils. The children have represented various degrees of intelligence ranging from the border line mentally retarded to the gifted. The children's economic levels have ranged from extreme poverty to the wealth of the upper middle class. The cultural levels of the parents has been from homes with no books, etc. to homes with every reference book or other type of book one could possibly want. The parents' educational background has ranged from a completed third grade to advanced degrees characteristic of highly skilled professions (e.g. doctors, lawyers).

All of these children had these three things in common. They all could not read! They all wanted to learn to read and they all did learn to read!

The author believes that these children have learned to read successfully due to intensive instruction in the area of decoding.

Decoding defined

Chall interchanges the term decoding with phonics (Chall, 1967, 96). Goodman uses the term to mean a process which the reader uses to decode. (Goodman, 1969, 270). When the decoding process is completed the reader is

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able to reconstruct thought into meaning. Bateman distinguished between stage one "reading or converting symbols as sounds" and stage two "comprehension or attaching meaning to the sounds produced in stage one". Reading in stage one is to be interpreted as the decoding process (Bateman, undated University of Oregon publication, p. 3).

Basically the decoding process is, in terms of child behavior, a process where a child can look at an unknown word and independently decipher that word. (Cole, 1968 ERIC ________) and (McNeil and Coleman, 1967, ERIC ED 018 344). To be able to perform this process the child must be able to successfully perform several subsequent skills. (O'Brien, 1972, ED 06679).

The history of decoding can be traced back to the early American hornbook. Nila Banton Smith tells us that the first mention made of the hornbook is dated in 1678...Children learned their ABC's first before they actually learned to read. (Smith, 1965, 15-17). It is interesting that the early American educators used an alphabet method to teach reading.

It is even more interesting when one realizes that these early educators did not have the knowledge of research to back up their methods.

If one continues to investigate the teaching of reading even further in its early beginning stages it will be discovered that the early primers made use of syllables and syllable patterns. Smith shows a page from the New England primer where the vowel letters are paired with consonants for practice. (Smith, 1965, 21). Fries gives an account of John Hart's method which was written in 1551 and entitled The Opening of the Unreasonable Writing of our English Toung. "Hart's method also takes account of the diversity of sounds attaching to some of the letters and provides certain special symbols so that his spelling follows the rule of each symbol having only one sound and the same sound having only one symbol." His method is, therefore, a "phonic" approach using a rather consistent "phonetic" alphabet. (Fries, 1963, 8-9).

The more conventional word method began to affect reading text books in the early nineteenth century. It has been mentioned as early as 1842. In some of the examples of the different textbooks Fries includes in his descriptions some textbooks which seem to use both the word method and the alphabetic or similar spelling method. (Fries, 1963, 11-25).

Chall states that after 1930 reading methods begin to use principles. Definitions of the reading process have become more broadened with time. Goals and objectives for reading instruction begin to include terms like application, appreciation and even to include the study of personal and social problems. (Chall, 1967, p. 13). It is of the personal opinion of this author that when these more expansive goals became a part of the reading programs our problems in reading instruction began. If we leave the study of personal and social problems to themselves they, through proper channeling, in time take care of themselves. We need to narrow our goals down to the specifics of reading skills. Too many of us tend to treat children as young adults and we try to push too much to the child all at one time.

The particular specific skill that will be dealt with in this paper is what Bateman has described as the "mastering of the mechanical rote process of letter-to-sound conversion." (Bateman, undated University of Oregon publication, p. 2). The question which comes to mind is this: what takes place during this process and what practical methods should the teacher use to insure the mastering of this process? At this point it must be remembered that the kind of child we are discussing in this paper is the learning disabled child! What then do we do first? We are wanting to insure the mechanical rote process of letter-to-sound conversion. We will assume at this point that the child has been thoroughly diagnosed and a careful case study has been already made...We will state here that the diagnosis shows that the child does know the names of letters. The child cannot read anything. We have the child's ability to "see" images recorded and he functions well in this particular process. His sense awareness is good. His memory functioning ability is good. He can learn concepts as he has been able to relate a good fund of knowledge obtained through listening.

THE APPROACH FOR TEACHING EXPLAINED

Our first step in insuring mastery of the mechanical rote process of letter-to-sound conversion is to teach the child how to say the letter sounds. Normally the child can say them if the teacher models the sound for the child. The teacher should show the child only one sound at a time. A set of 3" x 5" cards with the letters printed on them are useful for this purpose. The teacher should show the child the card as she pronounces the sound the letter on the card makes. It is helpful to then have the child say the sound with the teacher. After the teacher and child say the sound together the teacher should ask the child to say the sound by himself. Sometimes for some of the more difficult sounds the teacher will need to show and explain to the child how to place his tongue, teeth and lips to make the sound correctly.

At first the child should only practice one sound at a time. A new sound can be added each day until the child knows all the sounds. As the child gets to be more proficient with the first sounds being taught it may be possible to add two new sounds. It must be stressed here that for some children this will be a very slow process for others it will be faster. Never push the child faster than he can learn! After the child has mastered being able to pronounce single sounds step two can be introduced.

Step two is the process of learning to sound out two letter words such as at; an; am; it; is; up; on; and etc.. The teacher can again go through the same process of sounding the word out for the child, having the child sound out the word with her and then having the child do it alone. Each of the two letter words are practices this way daily until the child can do it on his own.

Step three in the process of learning to sound out three letter words. The same process is used as before in step two. All through steps two and three the sound cards are reviewed at least once before the sounding out of words is practiced. During this third step a linguistic based reader may be introduced to the child. Any of the linguistic readers that uses word patterns may be used. Each of several such readers has a series of one page stories. Before these stories there is usually a list of words at the beginning of a series of stories in these readers. These pages of words should be sounded out in the same manner as the two and three letter words. The sounding out of the word lists in the readers is a most important process because this practice step helps to insure a carry over of the sounding out skill into the actual reading process. At this point when a child asks the teacher what a word is that he doesn't know the teacher should insist that the child sound out the word.

Usually at this time it is possible for the teacher to begin giving the child the real sight words or words which cannot be sounded out. If the teacher has followed the preceding steps carefully the child will have begun to gain confidence to be willing to learn the necessary sight words. The child is now on his way to being a reader.

At this time the child can also be started on the blends, diagraphs and dipthongs. O'Brien gives a good list of these sounds and suggests a practical order to be followed in teaching them. (O'Brien, 1972, ED066, p. 8-9).

It must always be remembered that the learning disabled child needs daily practice to become skilled. Never give the child too much too fast! It will be found that as the child gains self-confidence he can usually start reading from conventional readers at his reading level!

Compiled by
Ramona Ann Hooker

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Grouping

By Wanda Hutton

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The term "Grouping" is becoming a leading controversial issue in public education today, that is, homogeneous grouping versus heterogeneous grouping. This paper will elaborate on the meanings of these two terms and the advantages and disadvantages of both. It will also endeavor to illustrate various flexible methods of grouping children for reading, combining homogeneous and heterogeneous groups.

In a recent study Warren G. Findley stated:

> "Homogeneous groupings occur when classes are formed on the basis of similarity on some specific characteristic of the students. The criterion for this classification may be age, sex, social maturity, intelligence, achievement, learning style, or a combination of these." (Findley, 1971)[2]

It is impossible to form a group of individuals possessing the identical degree of any characteristic other than sex, and therefore the objective for homogenity is to produce a reduced range of a particular characteristic in the group.

Harry W. Sartain stated:

> "In each homogeneous class there are individuals who are as weak in adapting speed to purpose and materials as the lowest in the slowest group and others who are as strong in this trait as the best in the fastest group. The more individual traits we look at, the more we see that there is no such thing as a truly homogeneous group." (Sartain, 1963)[6]

Usually when school systems incorporate homogeneous grouping they are really attempting ability grouping. Ability grouping is one of many forms of homogeneous grouping and generally uses standardized measures of intelligence, ability or achievement in a given subject to classify students and place them into separate ability categories. Therefore, the term homogeneous grouping will be used interchangeably with ability grouping in this report.

"Heterogeneous grouping is generally accomplished by assigning children to classes alphabetically or by choosing every nth name on a list. Less often, classes are deliberately structured so that a wide range of ages, abilities, achievement levels, socioeconomic backgrounds, and ethnic status is assured in each class." (Findley, 1971)[3] Using these two definitions as guidelines one can see that homogeneous and heterogeneous grouping concepts are essentially at opposite ends of the pole. One may assume that homogeneous grouping could result in less sensitivity to individual differences in children by giving teachers the false notions that students in such classes are almost identical in achievement: Thus, the different patterns of abilities that emerge in heterogeneous groups will not emerge in homogeneous groups.

A study reported by Irving Balow was concerned with the extent to which a group can be truly considered homogeneous. The study was directed to answer two questions, 1) "Are homogeneous groups homogeneous?" and 2) "Do homogeneous groups make greater gains in reading achievement than heterogeneous groups?" After months of study and numerous tests the results showed no significant difference in the mean gain measured by Metropolitan Achievement Tests-Reading comparing homogeneous groups and heterogeneous groups. (Balow, 1965)[1]

Next come the various arguments for and against homogeneous groupings. Why do teachers employ homogeneous groupings? Findley's study listed numerous responses by teachers giving their opinions of the advantages and the disadvantages of homogeneous grouping. The responses are listed in order of the frequency with which they were mentioned by respondents. "Districts employing homogeneous grouping generally (189):

Improves attention to individual needs (45)
Permits students to progress at their own learning rate (36)
Allows the student to compete on a more equitable basis (33)
Reduces ability and achievement range within the classroom (25)
Facilitates curriculum planning (23)
Permits both remedial and enrichment programs (21)
Results in better teaching and more effective learning (18)
Makes it possible for each student to achieve success (18)
Permits the more effective selection and use of materials (17)
Makes instruction easier (13)
Reduces student frustration (10)
Is preferred by the teachers (8)
Improves teacher and student morale (6)
Encourages better use of teacher preparation time (5)
Offers no obvious advantages (4)
Facilitates scheduling (3)
Improves the student's self-image (3)
Facilitates motivation (3)
Is liked by parents of more talented students (2)"

(Findley, 1971)[4]

The most noted response by teachers is that homogeneous grouping enables the teacher to work within the framework of one major lesson plan which can accomodate for student individual differences rather than many specific diversified plans which may lead to confusion and be too time consuming. But if the teachers are trying to accomodate these so-called individual differences within the group they will perhaps find these differences to be just as diversified whether the group is homogeneous or heterogeneous.

Recent research uncovered findings suggesting that teachers prefer to teach children of higher ability. "The positive correlation .5215 of reading group assignment with teaching preference of the first grade child as expressed by female teachers suggests a strong degree of association between these variables. One should not infer, however, that one of these variables has an effect on the other per se." (Miller, 1971)[5]

If grouping is for sharing, and since society is based on the individual's dependence on group interaction of a heterogeneous nature, teachers must place children into flexible groups in order to meet the particular needs of each individual student.

"It is considered an unwise practice to seat children in groups according to ability. Such segregation tends to emphasize and make groups inflexible." (Wynn, 1953)[7] Wynn also states that flexibility is the key to success in using the device known as grouping.

Part II

1. Q. What is a good way to begin flexible grouping in the Fall?

   A. It would be wise to start the year with a buddy program, having the children pick a partner to share a library book, magazine article, etc.

2. Q. What are some of the various activities you can use for flexible grouping?

   A. There are numerous activities and lessons that can be used with children in any type group. Some examples are:

      1) show and tell
      2) listening to tapes
      3) playing games (reading)
      4) story time - one child reads, the others listen
      5) art projects, follow-up to a story or lesson
      6) sharing library books
      7) skill groups
      8) enrichment reading groups
      9) Rhyme Time
      10) Dramatization for Reading and Social Studies

   The main idea is to keep as flexible as possible by regrouping your children to meet specific needs.

3. Q. What is a good pattern for grouping for Basal Reading Program?

   A. The following pages are Patterns for Grouping - Summary Forms devised by the Reading Center, Memphis Board of Education. There are also some Skill Group Forms with directions for use.

PATTERN FOR GROUPING - SUMMARY FORMS

Day 1 Date ______________________

To do on Day 1:

1. Give Group Word Analysis Test to all pupils. (Or Primary Skills Test) Record results on Summary For Group Word Analysis Test.

2. Read around the room using Book A (that book you estimate will be suitable for the middle reading group.)

BOOK USED FOR READ AROUND ______________________

LEVEL ______________________

Use class summary below to record results of read around. (+ indicates very fluent performance in that book. ✓ indicates adequate performance in that book. - indicates poor performance in that book.)

READ AROUND CLASS SUMMARY

NAME	PERFORMANCE + ✓ -	NAME	PERFORMANCE + ✓ -

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Day 2 DATE ______________________________

To do on Day 2:

1. Teach a trial directed reading lesson in
   Book A ____________________ Level __________
   to group which had ✓ on yesterday's read around.

2. Teach a trial directed reading lesson in easier book to children who had - on yesterday's read around.
   Book B ____________________ Level __________

3. Teach a trial directed reading lesson in harder book to children who had + on yesterday's read around.
   Book C ____________________ Level __________

4. Record results on Trial Lesson Summary
   (+ indicates very fluent performance in that book.)
   (✓ indicates adequate performance in that book.)
   (- indicates poor performance in that book.)

TRIAL LESSON SUMMARY

Group + Level ________ Book ____________		Group ✓ Level ________ Book ____________		Group - Level ________ Book ____________	
Name Performance	+ ✓ -	Name Performance	+ ✓ -	Name Performance	+ ✓ -

Day 3 Date ______________________________

To do on Day 3:

1. Using results of yesterday's trial lessons regroup as necessary.
2. Teach 3 trial directed reading lessons to modified groups. Use the same groups and books as yesterday unless sheet indicates need for change.
3. Give Informal Reading Inventory to any children about whom you are in doubt. (Use to determine instructional reading level.)

TRIAL LESSON SUMMARY

Group + Level ______ Book ______			Group ✓ Level ______ Book ______			Group - Level ______ Book ______		
Name	Performance	+ ✓ -	Name	Performance	+ ✓ -	Name	Performance	+ ✓ -

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Day 3 (Continued)

INFORMAL READING INVENTORY RESULTS

Name	I. R. I. Results - Suggested Instructional Level

Day 4 DATE ______________________________

To do on Day 4:

1. Analyze group word analysis test results to find strength and weaknesses of each child. Record on Skill Summary.
2. Write a specific prescription for each child -- what should be done to fulfill skill needs.
3. Assign each child to one or more skill groups as need indicates. Use Skill Group Form.
4. Do any other testing that seems necessary to determine skill needs. (Basic Learning Screening Test, Individual Kottmeyer Diagnosis Disability Analysis, Auditory Discrimination Test, etc.)

SKILL SUMMARY

NAME	STRENGTHS-WEAKNESSES	PRESCRIPTION WHAT I WILL DO

Day 4 (Continued)

SKILL GROUP FORM
FLEXIBLE AND TEMPORARY SKILL GROUPS
(Children may be in more than one skill group)

SKILL NEEDED ____________
NAMES

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SKILL NEEDED ____________
NAMES

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SKILL NEEDED ____________
NAMES

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SKILL NEEDED ____________
NAMES

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SKILL NEEDED ____________
NAMES

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SKILL NEEDED ____________
NAMES

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* * *

Instead of regular reading, try skill groups one day a week.

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RECOGNIZING AND STIMULATING READING INTERESTS

By

Penny Nielsen Hawkins

July, 1974

Reading is the basis of education in the United States today. Students need reading skills to fulfill the necessary qualifications of schools today. Educators, especially reading teachers, are faced with the perplexing problem of finding material to meet the student's reading interests. Reading interests require teachers to be aware of the great variety of material available; but bringing the literature and the student together remains a challenge. We must get the right book to the right student at the right time.

Curriculum guides in reading usually have an objective relating to the development of interests and the establishment of a habit of reading, voluntarily, a wide variety of good literature. This objective is so important today because of the number of people who can read but who do not read. The process and results of reading become equally important goals since they are interdependent. (King, 1967)

Considering its position in the world, the United States lags behind in reading. Our nation does not read as widely as many other nations. We rank about eleventh in the amount of individual reading done. Sixty to seventy per cent of our adult population do not read a book a year. We buy fewer books, on a population basis, than most of the people in Western European countries. (Schick and Schmidt, 1969)

Some of this lag in reading is bound to affect our students. If they do not see their parents, friends, and teachers reading; they are less likely to read.

Interest is a key to broad reading. Students all want to read a book that they hear is forbidden. If they teacher can transfer a little bit of this motivation to non-sensational reading, he is on the right track. (Schick and Schmidt, 1969)

So many Americans are not reading. Evidently our schools are doing a better job of teaching children how to read than in teaching children to read. There are five major objectives for improving reading interests. The major objective for improving reading interests should be the development of individuals who want to read. Children should be exposed to a wide variety of books. Children should be involved with what they read in meaningful ways. Children should see that reading is really useful. Children should recognize the joy they can receive through reading. Once a child has learned to read he has the key to the gates of all knowledge. All that man has thought, dreamed, cried over, and discovered is written down somewhere in books. (Huck, 1956)

Children read for many reasons. Curiosity may send them to books. Reading may be done for self-discovery or for emotional safety valves. Many factors influence reading interests. Our success in guiding children to wide interests will depend on how close we can come to the individual's own tastes, needs, and capacity for understanding. (Walby, 1956)

Today when many forms of media compete with reading for the time of individuals, it is imperative that educators know and understand the student's reading interests. (Smith, 1956)

Children want to learn a great deal from their reading. They want many kinds of information. They want to be entertained. They want adventure, romance, and laughter. They want stimulation, and want to find themselves. (Jacobs, 1956)

It is a continuous process to discover, create, and maintain interest within each student. Stimulating interests cannot be accomplished once and for all at the beginning of the school year or by enticing a student to read a dozen books. To make maximal use of reading interests, teachers must know their students and must provide interesting, readable materials. (Hunt, 1956)

Major improvements in reading materials recently have come from the practical search for ways of meeting children's reading interests. Interest is a valid and crucial criterion in choosing reading materials.

Personal reading, done spontaneously, is a response to interest. Interests are as varied as children's physiological and psychological compositions. Knowledge of children's interests makes it possible to guide and motivate personal reading. (Suloway, 1956)

Whatever their motives, children are reading. But what are they reading? This question has long been of concern to educators. Investigators have sought the answer in many ways. They have devised questionnaires, analyzed library withdrawals, observed children, and talked with teachers, librarians, and parents. Research over a period of years show an amazing agreement and certain tendencies in reading interests.

Perhaps the first study of reading interests was done in 1893 when True reported "What My Pupils Read." One of the classics in the field of reading interests was done by Terman and Lima (1931) who found that boys favored adventure and vigorous action; while girls preferred fairy tales, poetry, and sentimental fiction.

Lazar (1937) found marked sex differences in book choices. Boys preferred mystery, adventure, detective, history, invention, and science books. Girls liked mustery, and stories of home and school life.

In studying the responses of 3,000 children, aged ten to fifteen, Thorndike (1941) reported that boys liked science, invention, sports, and violent adventure. Girls favored home and school, romance, fairy tales, and animals.

Norvell (1950) stated that over 50,000 students in grades seven to twelve had sex differences in book choices. Boys liked adventure, mystery, animal, and humor books. Girls chose mystery, adventure, poetry, humor, and home life books.

Shores (1954) found that science topics were favorites. Both boys and girls chose adventure, children's stories, animal, and mystery books. Boys chose science, sports, and Indian books. Girls liked fairy tales, mythology, biography, romance, and school.

Witty (1960) found that children showed sex differences in book choices, play activities, and vocational choices. Boys chose adventure and sports books while girls chose adventure and home and school life stories.

Sex differences in reading interests appeared in fourth grade and increased appreciably in fifth and sixth grades. Girls chose mystery books, whereas boys chose non-fiction. (McKenzie, 1962)

Hurley (1965) found a pattern of rapid change of interest in the elementary school as represented by animals, humanized animals, talking animals, real animals, or pets, farm animals, zoo animals, or wild animals.

Stanchfield (1962) found that interest preferences were the same among superior, average, and poor readers. Boys preferred outdoor life, explorations and expeditions, sports and games. Boys liked unusual experiences, excitement, action, suspense, historical fiction, and humor.

Vaughn (1963) reported the reading interests of eighth grade students. Boys preferred mystery, history, science invention, and biography. Girls chose home and school life stories, novels, and mystery.

Smith and Dechant (1961) found several trends in research from 1940-1960. Fictional materials were chosen over informational materials. Girls read more than boys. Sex, age, and intelligence are important factors which influence reading interests. Boys choose adventure and sports, while girls like family life stories. Primary children prefer animal stories, nature, and fairy tales.

History and science topics were preferred in a study done by Ford and Koplyay (1968). Age and sex were found to be more important influences on interest than socio-economic status.

However, Norvell (1950) found that age and intelligence are not significant factors in the choice of reading materials. Sex was a highly significant factor in reading choices. Girls like many books chosen by boys, but boys dislike many of the books chosen by girls.

Chiu (1973) investigated sex differences in relation to reading interests and reading ability. He found no differences in reading interests among the different ability groups. Boys preferred to read in the areas of biography, science, social studies, and sports. Girls preferred adventure, fantasy, humor, and poetry.

Meisel and Glass (1970) compared the interest areas of voluntary library books with interest areas in the 1956 edition of the Scott Foresman basal reader New Days and Deeds. In most cases the high interest areas in voluntary reading did not match well with the percentage of times that an interest appeared in the basal. Many of the children's interest areas were not included in the basal reader. Both boys and girls liked dog stories; but they were not included in the basal. Boys were interested in history and geography. But, unfortunately, these interest areas were not in the basal reader. The type of story found in the basal is not generally the type of story that children voluntarily choose to read.

The reading preferences of first graders were studied. First graders preferred pranks theme over polly-anna theme and peer interaction over child-parent interaction. The choice of stories with pranks theme over pollyanna theme is in direct contrast to the relative availability of these themes in primary reading textbooks. (Rose, Zimet, and Blom, 1972); (Rankin and Thames, 1968)

Primers overemphasize common day-to-day parent-child interaction and perhaps unwittingly take much of the fun and interest out of reading. Make-believe characters are seldom seen in primers. However, authors of children's trade books appear to be aware of the child's interest in fantasy. Children liked folk tales and preferred the pranks theme. The children did not prefer all pollyanna type books because his experience tells him that happiness is not always a constant, dependable phenomenon. Boys preferred boy activity stories; whereas girls showed no preference as to the sex of activity. (Wiberg and Trost, 1970)

This shows that writers of children's books need to demonstrate greater sophistication and awareness concerning the real life and developmental interests of children. (Blom, Waite, and Zimet, 1968)

Strang (1969) stated the importance of self-selection in relation to children's reading interests. Freedom of choice in reading encourages initiative and individuality.

Youngsters chose colorful books with attractive pictures. Comic characters have been popular with all age levels. (Burrucker and Becker, 1970)

Students in grades four through seven were found to have comics as a popular choice. They also liked mystery, adventure, and ghost stories. (Ashley, 1970)

Chall (1967) indicated that no reading method has ever been systematically tested in terms of pupil interest. Yet claims are made that a particular method is more interesting. The more interesting approach is often the one favored by the researcher rather than the child.

It has been observed that children's books are bought for the edification and satisfaction of parents. Children's interests often are not considered. There is a discrepancy between adults' and children's enthusiasm for the Newberry books. Perhaps children should select the award books. (Kaluger and Kolson, 1969)

Johnson (1969) reports that students like to read the newspaper because it appeals to them personally in its awareness, and because it will change tomorrow. The newspaper is alive and jet-propelled.

Today the movies, radio, and television play important parts in the lives of students. Sometimes these media serve as substitutes for reading. Educators can use them to provide stimuli for reading. Nothing could be a bigger motivator to reading interests than seeing films made from favorite books. A book can come alive in a dramatized or animated version. (Reid, 1972)

Research found that an individual adult-child conference increased the amount of independent reading done by elementary school children. (Schwenn, et. al., 1970, ED 040 841)

The goal is to expand reading interests both vertically and horizontally. Everyone has dropped a pebble into water and watched the growth of ever widening concentric circles. Growth in reading interests increases in a similar way. The reading habits formed by youth today influence society tomorrow.

Reading interests may determine not only the future use of leisure time; but also the future thinking of society. The true test of success or failure as reading teachers is not found in test results; but in the reading habits of children years from now. Will we have taught them to be readers or only to read?

Problem: Recognizing and stimulating reading interests

Recommendations:

1. Teacher enthusiasm for reading
2. Tell stories
3. Classroom interest inventory
4. Show films related to books
5. Invite authors and illustrators to visit
6. Bulletin boards relating to books
7. Read aloud
8. Book clubs
9. Books about famous people
10. Students share books
11. Adult-student book conferences
12. Variety of books on various levels of difficulty
13. Creative expression related to books
14. Book fairs and displays
15. Informal reading records kept by students
16. Short books for reluctant readers
17. Allow free time in school for reading
18. Allow self-selection of books
19. Comfortable place to read
20. Many paperback books
21. Variety of books and magazines
22. Relate books to radio, TV, movies
23. Relate current events to books
24. Relate holidays to reading
25. Colorful, recent reading material

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FUNCTIONAL READING

by

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and

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Traditionally teachers have taught reading with a set of basal readers at a certain time of the day. Reading was taught in isolation of other subject areas. Reading was taught at one time and it was assumed that reading would carry over well in other subject areas. With the steady and constant evaluation of education and educators, teachers soon realized that every student that reads the basal reader does not always have enough reading skills to read his textbooks in other subject areas.

Harris (1971, 333) states that "functional reading includes those activities in which reading functions as a tool in the learning process." A student does not succeed in school from grades three onward without any functional reading skills. He also states that functional reading is vital because it is "the most necessary tool of intellectual inquiry and learning."

Due to the complexity of the reading process in content areas and the simplicity of reading in the basal reader, Spache and Spache (1971, 275-7) say one cannot hope for success in the content areas only through the use of a basal reading program. According to them, basal readers draw heavily on narration. That is one of the least type of skills in reading children in intermediate grades need for achievement in the content areas. As one progresses through school one will soon realize the basal reader does not provide functional reading skills. "The basal reading program does offer developmental training in basic reading skills such as rate, vocabulary, word recognition and comprehension." With these types of skills, one develops training in literary appreciation and general reading, not reading in the content areas.

One skill that is necessary for functional reading is creative and critical thinking. "Creative thinking involves the production of new ideas, whereas critical thinking involves reactions to others' ideas or to one's own previous ideas. Critical thinking can be creative, in that it can produce new insights for the individual, but these insights are concerned with previously established conditions. Creative thinking is very close to the problem-solving process and may be described as problem solving plus." (Russell, 1956, 306)

"The difference between problem solving and creative thinking is that problem solving is more objective, more directed toward some goal which is usually external. Problem solving must be ~~more~~ constant with the facts. Creative thinking is more personal, less fixed. It achieves something new rather than coinciding with previously determined conditions." (Russell, 1956, 306)

Critical and creative reading are for students from grades one to the twelfth plus. Critical reading is a process which requires of the student to involve his own experiences and previous learning to read beyond the author's printed words. It also calls for the student to read the hidden implications presented by the author. During the process of critical reading, the student adds to her own knowledge. (Berg, 1964, 10) "He keeps adding to what the author writes. He adds his enrichment of meaning, he visualizes, he recalls experiences from his own life that confirm or deny certain statements, he sees their relevance to other current conditions, he decides what he is willing to accept, he guesses ahead (even if some guesses are wrong), perhaps he catches the author in some blunder. In short, he is truly creating a richer article than the author ever intended--richer at least for the reader." (Gainsburg, 1961, 19-26)

When one thinks in terms of content areas one can see the value of these skills in a subject like social studies. An elementary social studies book presents ideas and concepts from an American point of view. If the student is able to read critically, he may wonder about the Americans' point of views. If he is reading about England maybe he can from previous experiences about England react to the material as an Englishman might react. Also social studies books do not always give all the information necessary to examine an idea. Once there was a time when every student left school thinking the purpose of the civil war was to free the slaves. The other important reasons were not mentioned. They were carefully omitted from the text.

Although critical thinking is an important skill to be taught in content area courses, Herber (1970, 54-7) says many factors should be considered before a lesson is presented to the students. He lists three important factors that must be considered by the teacher when she chooses a reading assignment for her students which are:

1. the major ideas which students should acquire as a result of their reading;
2. the technical vocabulary which holds potential difficulty for students as they read the text;
3. the skills which students will need to apply in order to identify, understand, and apply the important ideas in that particular selection.

Content area teachers are well acquainted with their subject area and as a result may make assignments which they think convey the concept in which they hope the students will attain. Usually these assignments have gaps in them which prevents the student from actually gaining the concept. Also when the gap is present teachers have a tendency to fill in these gaps unconsciously. Also experts who write the books accentuate the problem by assuming these students have the understanding necessary to comprehend the concepts. As a result "the assumptions made by the experts become knowledge gaps for the students." Herber suggests the teacher read the material as if he were

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a student with limited knowledge about the subject. During the reading of the material, the teacher can then determine what concepts are actually presented and to what degree can the student understand the concepts. If this is done, frustration by the student is eliminated because the teacher actually knows what the student will perceive which will not be based on assumptions of what may be there.

Vocabulary is the most essential part of communication. If a student does not understand the vocabulary of a text, he cannot understand the knowledge being communicated to him by the author. Therefore it is the responsibility of the teacher to be sure there is an understanding of the technical vocabulary in the particular area. "Teachers must select texts that are written to assist learning and study them to familiarize themselves with the language barriers which pupils will meet." (Russell & Fea, 1963, 3) A student's communication in the area is improved and successful reading of the material is achieved when a student can develop adequacy and facility in the language of the material. If competence and facility of the language is not developed, the student will be a word caller for that particular material. As a result of word calling, there will be little comprehension, communication and retention.

When the teacher has identified "the major ideas which students should acquire as a result of their reading" and "the technical vocabulary which holds potential difficulty for the students as they read the text", he is then ready to evaluate the text to determine its organization pattern and the skills necessary for the student to apply to gain knowledge and develop ideas. "A subject-matter teacher...needs only ask himself...'What competencies must mu students have to carry out the learning tasks in this course as I teach it?'... forget the labels and think of the tasks that the students must perform.

These are the skills that must be taught or reviewed regardless of the factors that may emerge from an elaborate study." (Artlet, 1963, 73) Herber mentions some questions that the teacher must be able to answer after she has analyzed the text. They are as follows:

1. Does the text follow a sequential development?
2. Does it develop a cause-effect relationship?
3. Does it draw conclusions?
4. Must students, within the organization patterns use specific skills such as inference, deduction, and drawing conclusions?

He also says the student must be taught how to recognize the patterns and taught the skills that are necessary to acquire information from the text they are required to read.

Educators must equip students with skills so that they are able to function in school as well as in society. Educators must provide students with enough skills to read road maps, transportation schedules, income tax forms, and any other relevant matter that one must cope with in society.

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ACTIVITIES FOR TEACHING FUNCTIONAL READING SKILLS

Functional reading is defined by Harris and Sipay (1971, p. 181) as reading to gain information or understanding, or reading which functions as a tool for learning. Using this definition, the following activities can be used to teach the functional reading skills.

Skill: Interpreting Symbols
Purpose: To acquaint the students with symbols that they see regularly.
Materials: Replicas of traffic signs, interstate and highway signs, construction markers, and danger signs or symbols.
Procedure: Show students different signs and symbols and ask the students what they mean and where or when you might see them.
Activities:

1. Students could do individual or group projects on the history and utility of traffic signs.
2. Locate information that explains how interstate signs were developed and tell what the signs mean.
3. Locate the interstate and highway signs around Memphis.
4. List the reasons for using construction signs.
5. Find the many types of signs or symbols that mean danger.
   Example: skull and crossbones

Skill: Reading and Understanding Schedules
Purpose: To teach students how to obtain information from the many types of schedules.
Materials: Bus, train and airline schedules, university bulletins, class schedules and school calendars.
Procedure: Acquaint the students with the many varieties of schedules from the complex airline schedules to the more informal schedule of a family vacation.
Activities:

1. Have students plan a trip from Memphis to Los Angeles taking a bus, a train and an airplane. Have students list departure and arrival time (Central and Pacific), the cost of the trip, length of time required by trip and a schedule of planned activities for the stay.
2. Have students plan a class schedule they consider "ideal".
3. Let students list the schedules they follow in one week, one month, or one year.
4. Illustrate how college bulletins work and encourage a student to demonstrate how schedule conflicts occur and can be resolved.

Skill: Understanding Measurement
Purpose: To illustrate how a knowledge of measurement is an asset to everyone.
Materials: yard stick, ruler, tape measure, cup, scale, teaspoon, tablespoon, quart, gallon and a dress pattern.

Procedure: Explain the utility of each of the measuring utensils and explain how a pattern is used.

Activities:

1. Instruct students to convert height to inches and weight from pounds to ounces.
2. Measure the room and decide if it is longer than it is wide. Then explain the difference in inches.
3. Ask students to suggest the pros and cons of a uniform measurement system.
4. Have a committee research the history of measurement.
5. Decide why it is advisable to have measurements on patterns.
6. Divide the students into two groups to prepare a dish. One group has a recipe and the ingredients, the other group has only the ingredients, no recipe or measuring utensils. During and after the preparation, have students discuss the advantages of using a recipe.

Skill: Using Phone Directories and Catalogues
Purpose: To instruct students in the use of phone directories and catalogues.
Materials: City phone directory, school directory, and retail catalogues.
Procedure: Present directories and catalogues and explain how to best use them.

Activities:

1. List the advantages and disadvantages of directories and catalogues.
2. Investigate the history of both.
3. Find old copies and compare and contrast the old and new.
4. Make-up a "want list" for a catalogue.
5. Prepare a listing of unusual items found in a catalogue.
6. List information that can be found in the "yellow pages".

Skill: Preparing Forms, Orders, and Applications
Purpose: To teach students to recognize the utility of these items.
Materials: U.S. map, world map, state and city maps, graph paper, income tax charts, and diagrams.
Procedure: Present different maps, graphs, charts and diagrams and explain how to use them. Explain legends for each and their purpose.

Activities:

1. Plan the route you would take in a cross-country trip.
2. Develop a route for your around-the-world cruise.
3. Find the distance from Memphis to Nashville, from Memphis to Washington, D. C.
4. Plot a rain fall chart for Memphis.
5. Illustrate how a sentence could be diagrammed or present a circuit drawing diagram.

Skill: Reading Weather Instruments
Purpose: To teach students how to use weather instruments
Materials: Centigrade and Fahrenheit thermometers, and a barometer.

Activities:

1. Have students record temperature of room at various times of day.
2. Compare the readings using both thermometers.
3. Have a "weather show" every day. Use the information obtained to predict what kind of weather tomorrow will bring.
4. Record daily barometer readings and look for patterns in the weather.

Skill: Learning to Locate Information
Purpose: To equip children with the knowledge of how to find information and to be able to skim and scan material.
Materials: Reference works, encyclopedias, and newspapers.
Procedure: Present reference sources to children and ask them to suggest how they might be used.
Activities:

1. Plan a group or individual project that requires research.
2. Make a list of the library's reference books.
3. Compile a list of directions for using reference books.
4. Read a newspaper headline and have children skim and scan the paper to find the article.

Skill: Organizing and Recording What One Reads
Purpose: To instruct students how to summarize.
Materials: Pamphlets that tell about what to go see and do in Memphis
Procedure: Show the pamphlets to the students and let them suggest how the kinds of pamphlets could be organized.
Activities:

1. Let students organize a field trip from the pamphlets. They will list how they plan to go, what they plan to do, and what they plan to see.
2. Record the things that happen on the field trip.
3. Summarize what happens on the trip.
4. During a class meeting or announcements, have students to record minutes.
5. After a story is read, allow students to outline the plot.
6. Let students perform an experiment and record the results.

Skill: Learning Specialized Vocabularies
Purpose: To provide students with a knowledge of technical or specialized terms found in the content areas.
Materials: Content area books, dictionaries and a thesarus.
Activities:

1. Plan an experiment and introduce the terms necessary to understand the experiment.
2. Have students find synonyms for the technical terms.
3. Demonstrate how a math formula requires knowledge of special terms.

Skill: Understanding and Using Maps, Graphs, Charts and Diagrams.
Purpose: To teach students to recognize the utility of these items.
Materials: U.S. map, world map, state and city maps, graph paper, income tax charts, and diagrams.
Procedure: Present different maps, graphs, charts and diagrams and explain how to use them. Explain legends for each and their purpose.
Activities:

1. Plan the route you would take in a cross-country trip.
2. Develop a route for your around-the-world cruise.
3. Find the distance from Memphis to Nashville, from Memphis to Washington, D. C.
4. Plot a rain fall chart for Memphis.
5. Illustrate how a sentence could be diagrammed or present a circuit drawing diagram.

Skill: Proficiency in Using the Table of Contents
Purpose: To teach students how to better use the table of contents
Materials: Reference books, text books, anthologies, and library books.
Procedure: Point out the difference inthe table of contents of various books.
Activities:

1. List information obtained from the table of contents.
2. Have students suggest reasons for putting a table of contents in books.
3. Offer alternatives to the table of contents.
4. Compare the table of contents with the index in the back of the book.

Skill: Metric system conversion
Purpose: To provide students with practice in using a metric system conversion table.
Materials: Conversion chart, scale, and yard stick.
Activities:

1. Have students weigh themselves and convert their weight from pounds to the metric system.
2. Let students convert their height to the metric system.
3. Plan a road trip and convert miles to kilometers.
4. Convert a recipe to metric measurement.

READING IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

The teaching of reading skills has been considered the responsibility of primary teachers until fairly recently. (Bamman, 1961). Teachers and other educators are seeing that reading development is a kindergarten through college task. (Winkel Johann, 1973). As studies were made, it was evident that it is impossible to complete the instruction of all the reading skills in the three primary grades. Primary children are too immature to achieve the most advanced kinds of skills, and there are specific skills which must be introduced and learned in the middle and upper grades, at the earliest. (Bamman, 1961).

Programs after the primary grades are being set up more and more to meet the needs of this development of the reading process. Reading courses are beginning to be recommended in colleges for secondary school teachers. Even some state systems, such as Ohio, are requiring a three hour credit course in developmental reading for secondary English teachers. (Winkel Johann, 1973).

The larger school systems have realized from their studies that many high school students lack the reading skills needed for preparing their lessons. They are trying continuous developmental reading practices for the students for the whole twelve-year span of their public school curriculum. Such large city school systems as Denver, Los Angeles, Philadelphia, New York, and San Francisco began some time ago to estimate the value of the reading of their students. In 1946 San Francisco Public Schools issued a publication which stated that a definite provision should be made for reading instruction as an important part of the English period in junior and senior high school. (Bamman, 1961).

A questionnaire survey in 1955 was taken of 103 schools in the New York Public System of the status and characteristics of seventh and eighth grade reading instruction. It showed:

1. Organized reading programs which are found in grades one through six appeared on a very diminished scale at the seventh and eighth grade level.
2. Developmental and corrective reading programs were a function of the English program.
3. The geographical location, organizations of the school, or the size did not affect this except that larger junior high schools in well-to-do urban communities did offer more thorough programs.
4. The instruction of reading appeared to be dependent upon the quality of the school administrative leadership and the initiative of individual staff members.
5. Most of the reading staff members were not trained in reading.
6. A limited number of content teachers made any provisions at all for reading improvement. (Buck, 1955).

A study on improving the reading achievement level of a junior high program was made near San Francisco in 1968. It was made of 790 students in seventh and eighth grades in an older area of a suburb bordering the southern boundary of the city. There was a "widely varied ethnic and cultural mix" within the students. No emphasis was made upon importance of school achievement.

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The previous reading program had been for only 300 in the seventh grade with each student having 45 minutes of daily instruction from one of the seven reading teachers. The teachers had a general feeling of great dissatisfaction because it was not reaching all the children at their respective levels. Many high school teachers do not realize the need for complete coverage of the basic reading skills. Many times when they do realize there's a need they do not know how to go about meeting it.

The new program ran for a period of seven months. Even the teachers enjoyed the program and learned a lot from it. Out of the 790 students, 243 students had a mean gain of 1.1 years compared to .6 years over the previous seven years of school. The program was: (1) the first three periods of each day was for reading and (2) the classes stayed as small as possible, especially at the fourth grade reading level. The program was flexible so that students could be changed from one class to another for a number of reasons - "peer relations, teacher-student relations and achievement level changes". The basal series used was one designed for intermediate grades. (McCormick, 1968).

In the rest of this paper I would like to offer some recommendations which I came across in my research of junior high school reading programs. There are many things to be considered and thought through in setting up such a program.

As one author puts it "the cornerstone of any good high school reading program is the prevention of reading failures rather than the correction of reading problems". (Karlin, 1972).

Good reading programs must be established in a condition of cooperation between the administration and the staff. They have to work together for the program to succeed. In a successful program, the whole faculty participates and the whole student body profits. If at all possible, a well-trained reading specialist should head the program. By using in-service courses and demonstrations, the untrained teachers can learn how to teach subject skills to their students.

A reading center is a must in the school. The student and teachers can both benefit from such a center. The students gain from direct instruction while the teachers can consult with the reading expert.

Any program used must be tailored to fit the needs of the specific school. The key to the success of a reading program is the school administrator. The program will fail without his sincere support. (Karlin, 1972).

Another author writes that there isn't any one type of reading program which can fit the need of high schools in general. Each school must set up a program which will be suited to its specific group of students - "their backgrounds, potential abilities, and needs for supplementary reading instruction". The faculty must carefully examine the local situation, establish a trial program with continuous evaluation, modifying the trial program until it becomes a sound, workable plan. (Bamman, 1961).

In an article which appeared in 1962 the following recommendations were made:

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1. A thorough study of the reading needs of the students must be done and then set up a reading program which will meet the needs.
2. Acquire the help of a person well trained in the teaching of reading to aid in initiating the program and to help the teachers.
3. Start the reading program slowly with teachers volunteering, but do get the whole staff involved as soon as possible.
4. Acquaint the whole staff with the problems of teaching reading and of yearly results of the program.
5. Carefully check materials out before purchasing them for the reading program. When presented make sure the teachers using them are thoroughly acquainted with their purposes and uses. (Ellis, 1962).

In Pearl Jeffers' article which appeared in Journal of Reading, January, 1972, a checklist of guidelines for a junior high reading program. Here is some of it:

1. The reading program should have the same objectives and philosophy as the ones of the educational program as a whole.
2. It should be coordinated with the reading programs of the elementary and senior high schools.
3. It must be reviewed regularly to be sure it is reflecting the development of the objectives and philosophy of reading instruction in the state and the nation.
4. The administrators, supervisors, reading specialists, teachers, and other members of the professional staff should understand and accept the objectives and philosophy of the reading program.
5. The encouragement of a variety of individual and group learning activities which are appropriate for a comprehensive reading program should be done by the administrative and supervisory staff.
6. The administrators and supervisors should obtain adequate financial support for the needs of the program.
7. The administrators and supervisory staff should aid the teachers of all subjects as well as the reading staff and counselors.
8. The administrative and supervisory staff should lead the "developing, modifying and improving the total reading program". (Jeffers, 1972).

One author describes some types of reading programs which can be found in the junior high grades.

1. Separate Subject Plan - In this plan the English teacher is responsible for developing the general reading skills needed by the students. Teachers of other subjects are expected to identify and teach the specific reading skill needed for that subject's reading materials.
2. The Core Program - Students not only engage in the informational type reading but do a lot of pleasure reading. The classroom teacher and the librarian work together in getting the students interested in varied reading materials.
3. The Reading Laboratory - A very few secondary school teachers are qualified to help retarded readers. The reading laboratory will be successful if there is:
    (a) ample space for it
    (b) a capable reading specialists must be in charge of it
    (c) a wide variety of materials available for use

(d) an agreement among the school staff on a policy of the type of difficulty to be treated in the laboratory
(e) a follow-up by the other teachers of the school
(f) an extended in-service training to all the teachers in the school
(g) students should not be made to feel that attending special laboratory classes is a penalty
(h) a training place for the superior students as well as for the retarded reader
(i) plenty of money must be available for the purchase of materials and equipment, assistants for the students or faculty, and clerical help. (Bamman, 1961).

In summary I'd like to use some ideas from Margaret Early's article in 1969 which was entitled "What Does Research in Reading Reveal - About Successful Reading Programs?". Early said that the decade from the late 1950's to late 1960's witnessed much action on the high school reading front but not change in direction in accomplishing the final goal. This goal still is the instilling of reading skills instruction into all school subjects in which reading is an important part of learning. At the present, reading is mostly an "extra" scheduled course in the curriculum.

She suggested also that in the suitably ran school system, the teaching of reading would move smoothly and easily from the primary grades to the intermediate grades on through the secondary school. All reading instruction would be done in the regularly scheduled subjects of the curriculum.

The best reading programs in the junior high school, or in any other grades of school, will be when teachers are well capable of instructing students in how to read and study in all subjects. (Early, 1969).

Compiled by Virginia Bonner

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STUDY SKILLS:

RESEARCH AND TECHNIQUES IN DEVELOPING STUDY SKILLS

by Richard Potts
Curriculum and Supervision
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July 11, 1974

This paper will be presented in two parts. The first part is concerned with the research leading authorities in the field of education have contributed in the methodology and application of study skills. The second part is devoted to practical suggestions for developing classroom activities in the particular skill area.

The area of study skills has often been misconceived on the part of educators and teachers. A teacher in science may not believe there is any time to waste on skill development and thereby frustrates his students by asking them to perform certain tasks that in reality are based upon the necessity of having specific skills at hand. Herber identifies this attitude as "assumptive teaching." (Herber, p. 9) Teachers may assume a child has the background to accomplish certain tasks, but if the child has never acquired the necessary skills to perform the task, the task is left undone, or, at most, not accomplished to its full potential. Marksheffel states that "study skills must be taught. Few students learn how to study efficiently without directed practice and guidance by a teacher. And there are basic study skills that the student must learn and use for successful classroom learning." (Marksheffel, p. 216)

Marksheffel raises the point that is echoed by other researchers in this field, that the teacher, especially the content teacher, is responsible for developing study skills in the classroom that will be, and can be, extended to all levels of the learning process. David Shepard says that "the teachers own classroom procedure should exemplify the techniques the student is to use. The teacher will need to do four things with the students. One, an overview of the material is done to denote the author's treatment of the material. Second, the student's background is expanded and filled in as necessary. Third, basic conceptual terms are noted and clarified. And finally, the student is directed to read for specific purposes." (Shepard, p. 1) The point Shepard makes is "that the teacher occupies the crucial role and he guides the student in study technique by both example and direction."(Shepard, p.8)

Making the student aware of the need for developing study skills is only half the battle. Only telling a student that skills exist and must be learned is not the directed guidance Shepard was referring to. "It takes more than knowledge to improve study skills. Not only must the student know what effective study skills are, but also he must practice patiently until he has acquired them. He can quickly learn enough to tell someone how to study, but he will have to use continued effort in order to develop study skills himself." (Robinson, p.4)

Robinson goes on to say that not all students will need to have the same skills taught to them. Because of the infinitely varied backgrounds of the students, some will already be well versed in some skills but be lacking in others. Because of the varied background of each student, "the program (study skills) obviously has to be individualized to fit each student's needs, since each student progresses at a different rate and varies in the number and kind of errors he makes while learning new skills. Methods that are of value in dealing with one student's problems may be of little use to another student. More than other courses, this program demands a highly individualized laboratory approach. And unlike other courses, the subject for study is the student himself." (Robinson, p.4)

Robinson has made the inference that the methodology of study skills should be individualized to fit each student's needs since not all students will need help on the same skill. The course he is obviously referring to in the preceding paragraph is a class in reading. The question that then comes to mind is whether study skills should be taught only in a specific reading program. Herber says that "though reading can be performed without the process of study, studying generally assumes ability to read. (Gerber, p.2) Already knowing Gerber's position on "assumptive teaching" we might safely concede that he is implying more than meets the ear. Shepard makes the statement that "proper study techniques and the skills of vocabulary, comprehension, speed and reference interact upon each other." (Shepard, p.3)

Where then is the right place to teach study skills, in the reading class or in the content area? And if the skills are taught at all, should they be taught one skill at a time or as a divergence of many skills, not only study skills. Herber believes that "in actual practice, individual reading and thinking skills are not applied in isolation. They are combined in various patterns to form study skills. . . even as reading and thinking skills combine to form study skills, so it is that the various study skills are combined in various patterns to perform given study tasks. Therefore, though several study skills are treated in isolation, one must keep in mind that students would apply them in various combinations according to the purposes established for their study." (Herber, p.3)

This view that specific skills can be taught in isolation and yet have a collective purpose in the content areas is supported by Robinson. He says "to develop maximum motivation and to increase transfer of skills to actual studying, this work should be applied as closely as possible to a student's lessons in his other courses. Artificial excercises may produce gains on similar tests, but these gains do not transfer as well to actual studying as when the how-to-study suggestions are made in terms of the student's methods on other courses and his gains measured there." (Robinson, preface,xi)

Karlyn Kamm, in her study for the Study Skills Component of the Wisconsin Design gives further support in this direction. "There are two assumptions which underlie our fundamental skills and subskill framework in the subareas: a) that learning can best be achieved through the study of interrelated skills rather than isolated skills, and b) having the skills presented in a development sequence facilitates their being taught in context; e.g., map skills are an integral part of the social studies program. Creating a need to learn a skill is essential if learning and understanding is to be complete." (Kamm, p. 10)

Thus far we have made assumptions of what study skills are, where they belong, and who is responsible for facilitating the learning of these skills. In all of the research thus presented we have yet to discover why these skills are not treated as assidously or ardently as they should be. Horace Morse and George McCune have identified two reasons for the lack of teaching these skills, the first is that:

> There is a limited amount of training. Many teachers neglect the teaching of study skills and methods of inquiry because they are not themselves familiar with the necessary skills. The second reason for the unsatisfactory teaching of study skills is that there has not been generally available to the average classroom teacher any method of appraisal of the progress of pupils in learning the desired skills. The widespread interest in evaluation which has marked the last few decades resulted in the production of a large number of subject-matter tests. Outcomes of instruction other than factual information were given attention in many published tests, but study skills and critical thinking received relatively little consideration until very recently. As a result, the teacher emphasized informational outcomes for the most part, both in teaching and testing, and naturally tended to disregard the outcomes which had received less emphasis by leaders in the field. About the only ways a teacher could judge the degree to which pupils were mastering study skills were by the individual discussion during the recitation or supervised-study period, or by examining the results of the practice of the necessary skills in a theme or written report which the students might submit. Both of these methods of appraisal are excellent, and should remain a part of any program, but they may well be supplemented with exercises of a more objective type. (Morse and McCune, P. 11)

Now that the reasons for failure have been supplied, the only item remaining is to remedy the action. As for the first reason, teachers need more preparation in the teaching of reading concomitant with the teaching of study skills. In the state of Tennessee it is now required that a teacher have at least one course in reading before they will be certified.

As for the second reason, that the means of evaluation until recently have been lagging in the field of study skills, Morse and McCune offer their own suggestions.

> Any comprehensive test of skills must test a process which is in actual operation as well as the results of that process. There are two ways of doing so. One is to test the results of practice in the use of the relevant skills. The memorized material retained as a result of such actual practice is to some degree an indication that the process has been employed by the pupil, and therefore that he has developed the required skill. A second approch to testing skills is to present items which require the actual practice of a skill. (Morse and McCune, p. 12)

The concluding quotation summarizes what has previously been stated in detail and gives an overview of how a program in study skills can be developed along the adequate guidelines of other researchers. Although the program is directed toward secondary schools, it can be adapted to any level.

> The possibilities for developing study skills in secondary schools are based on adequate and satisfactory answers to three important questions: (1) What kind of program can be developed which fits the realities of secondary school education, with its pressures and demands on students and teachers? (2) Who is responsible for guiding students in developing these skills? (3) How is this responsibility to be discharged?
>
> A good study skills program has three phases of of development . . . Phase One of the program assigns responsibility for the direct teaching of study skills to the reading class . . . In Phase Two of the program, the direct teaching of study skills takes place in English class . . . The Third Phase incorporates the functional-incidental teaching in content areas (including literature in English classes) of those study skills demanded by the texts and curriculum. (Herber, p. 8-9)

The last two questions raised concerning who is responsible for guiding students in developing these skills, and how is the responsibility discharged, can be answered simultaneously.

Regardless of the phase of the program one considers, the classroom teacher is responsible to guide students' development of the skills, whether it be in a content area or developmental reading class. Notice the word: guide. Too often teachers assume that students have skills needed to perform successfully on tasks. Literally they assume that students already possess what they have come to receive: skills and ideas related to a given body of knowledge. One must not assume students' competence: one must assure it. And the assurance comes when students are guided by teachers. (Herber, p.8-9)

This portion of the paper is devoted to practical suggestions for particular skills. The skills are broken down into specific areas and suggestions made for classroom activities.

Summarizing: Here are some general hints which may help the beginner:

1) Read through and understand the material to be summarized;
2) Appreciate and extract the main points;
3) Write the main theme in your own words (do not string together phrases from the original);
4) Replace sentences by phrases and phrases by words;
5) Do not reproduce detailed lists of examples when a generalization will do;
6) Wait until you have read a complete section or paragraph before making notes (otherwise you will find it difficult not to rewrite the whole text).

(James, p.33)

Bring to class 3 or more accounts of the same event told in as many different ways. For example: a newspaper article, a speech, a letter, an official report, etc. Note the differences employed to summarize the same event. Then have the students make their own summary from something they have just finished reading, or have them read something for the specific purpose of summarizing and compare the stories.

Outlining: The very first job in outlining is to pick out the structure of the author's outline. Once you understand the author's order of headings and can supply more of your own, you should indicate this order in your notes by two simple devices. One is to indent one order under another. The highest order of heading starts at your left margin, the next order is indented under that, and so on. The other way of indicating structure is to use a consistent system of lettering and numbering the different orders. Use Roman numerals (I,II,III,...) for the highest-order headings, capital letters, (A,B,C,...) for the second order, Arabic numerals (1,2,3,...) for the third order, and lower-case letters (a,b,c,...) for the fourth order.

(Morgan, p. 64)

Outline a chapter from a history or social studies book. Use the prepared headings for your own order of headings. For more difficult work, have the students outline a well-structured example of literature.

Dictionary: Guide-words: If there are enough dictionaries available, call a word and have students race to find what page the word is on; if not enough dictionaries, group the students in different activities.

Entry word: Reproduce an entry from the dictionary. Besides giving pronunciation, accent, and syllabication, the entry gives part of speech, and etymology, then a series of definitions, and finally under synonyms a number of words with meanings that are similar to, but not identical with, those of the entry word. Reading and studying carefully this one entry can teach the correct use of a half dozen words.

Library skills: Get students familiar with the general layout of the library. Take a trip during class time to familiarize the students with the layout and introduce them to the librarian(s). Ask the librarian to give an informal or formal lesson in using the library and what sources are available. The library has many uses other than checking out books; by making students aware of this there will be less fear and misunderstanding about the library.

Students should be familiar with and be able to locate these materials:

- card catalog
- reading rooms or study areas
- reference workd
- periodicals
- classification
- reserve shelves
- special collections and facilities (A-V equipment)

Try making a game out of using the library. One idea would be to make a lesson from a "Scavanger Hunt." Make a list of books and such you would like the students to be able to find. Once they have found them they will bring the item to you and they can go on to the next item. Reward the winner, but make sure you help those who are having difficulty.

Locating Information: Specific skills in the use of sources of information

Students should have:

1. the ability to use the alphabet;
2. the ability to use the Dewey Decimal Classification;
3. the ability to use the card catalog;
4. the ability to use The Readers Guide to Periodical Literature;
5. the ability to use specific reference materials;
6. the ability to use guide words;
7. the ability to determine the best sources of information;

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8. the ability to differentiate between factual sources and fictional sources;
9. the ability to list a source of information properly in a research paper, and
10. the ability to skim.

(Herber, p.42)

An assignment somewhat similar to the game used for library skills would be appropriate. Assign specific research problems and ask the student to make a list of all available research that can be found on that topic. Make the problems fun and exciting and yet challenging to the student.

Reading maps, graphs, charts and tables:

> Develop clues that are available in determining what is important: (1) The legend accompanying the graph or table usually states what main idea is being presented. (2) The written text near the map, graph or table frequently summarizes the main point or two that the graph or table shows. (3) Note the major trend in the graph, map or table. Does the line in the graph go up or down or remain level? The reader's skill is in his ability to glance at a map, graph, chart or table and note the major trends.

(Robinson, p.49)

Prepare a vocabulary list of important words that deal specifically with maps, graphs, charts and tables. Then make up or take some maps, graphs, charts and tables from content area books and go over carefully what each one has to say. Once the student has grasped an idea of what to look for, make up some humorous maps, graphs, charts and tables for the student to identify the main idea or trend behind the purpose.

Notetaking: Recommended practice: From readings-

First, no notes should be written down until the whole headed section is completely read. Second, the notes should be jotted down from memory and not from the book. And third, the notes should be taken in the student's own words and should be brief, i.e., little more than a word or phrase.

(Robinson, p.35)

From listening-

Notes should be kept on the main ideas expressed by the speaker. Do not spend time trying to write every little detail or fact. Organize your notes like you would organize an outline with the same procedure of headings.

Give students practive after discussion of notetaking both from reading assignments (preferably from the content areas) and from listening. If they have taken good notes they should be able to give you some feedback on the main ideas from their own notes.

SQ3R: Explain and discuss the SQ3R method of studying. This formula develops specific skills in the areas of previewing, rate of reading for content areas, and retention.

Survey: Preview the material to be read. Look at the headings, pictures, graphs, maps, etc.

Question: Make up tentative questions that could be answered while reading the material. Read for a purpose.

Read: Read at the rate the material calls for. Literature can be read faster than a science or math book. Develop several different reading rates.

Recite: Have you answered the questions you raised before you began to read? Has the reading developed anymore questions to be answered?

Review: Go back over the material you have just finished reading. Now is a good time to take a few notes while the ideas are fresh in your mind. You may find them helpful in the future.

Give students practice in using this technique. Ask them to prepare a sample sheet of the SQ3R technique from a reading in their content area classes. Once they see how useful it is, it may catch on.

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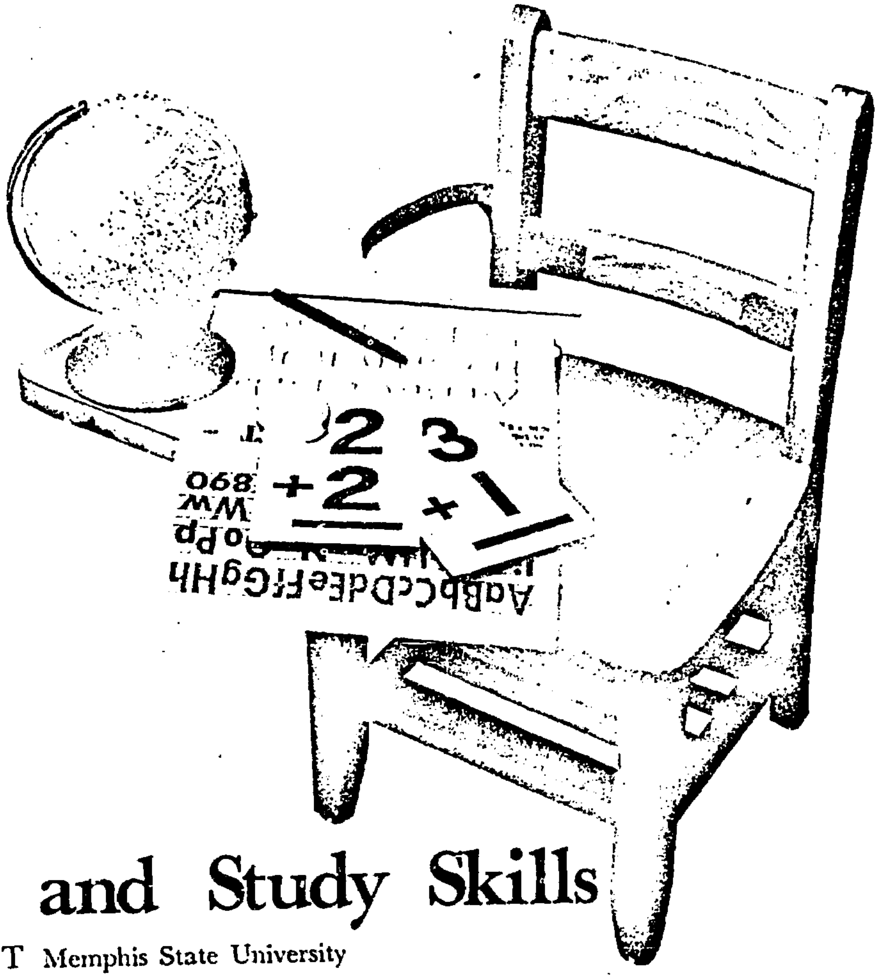
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Reading and Study Skills

STUDENT SELF-ASSESSMENT Memphis State University

ERIC

Name ______________________ Grade ________ School ______________________

MEMPHIS STATE UNIVERSITY
STUDENT SELF ASSESSMENT
READING STUDY SKILLS

Name ______________________________ Grade __________
School ______________________________ Date __________

Directions: *Ask yourself the following questions and rate yourself as honestly as you can. Place an x over the yes, sometimes or no.*

		Yes *3*	*Sometimes* *2*	*No* *1*
I.	**General**			
1.	I preview all of my reading tasks.	☐	☐	☐
2.	I can outline materials I have read.	☐	☐	☐
3.	I prepare a schedule for my study plans.	☐	☐	☐
4.	I use the dictionary when I do not know the meaning of a new word.	☐	☐	☐
5.	I record all new words I meet.	☐	☐	☐
6.	I can locate the main idea in a paragraph.	☐	☐	☐
7.	I can use the card catalog.	☐	☐	☐
8.	I can use the encyclopedia.	☐	☐	☐
9.	I take notes as I read.	☐	☐	☐
10.	I summarize what I have read.	☐	☐	☐

TOTAL SCORE..............General................. ☐

		Yes *3*	*Sometimes* *2*	*No* *1*
II.	**Social Studies**			
1.	I read each assignment in my social studies text twice.	☐	☐	☐
2.	I take notes as I read.	☐	☐	☐
3.	I read the titles and the pictures before I read the social studies text.	☐	☐	☐
4.	I can read and interpret a graph.	☐	☐	☐
5.	I can read and interpret the symbols on a map.	☐	☐	☐
6.	I can summarize what I have read.	☐	☐	☐
7.	I record all the new vocabulary terms I meet in my social studies text.	☐	☐	☐
8.	I read other books on special topics in social studies.	☐	☐	☐
9.	I develop questions and read to find the answers in my social studies text.	☐	☐	☐
10.	I can read and interpret tables.	☐	☐	☐

TOTAL SCORE..........Social Studies........... ☐

		Yes 3	Sometimes 2	No 1
III.	Science			
1.	I read each assignment in my science text twice.	☐	☐	☐
2.	I take notes on what I read.	☐	☐	☐
3.	I understand the symbols used in the science text.	☐	☐	☐
4.	I read the headings and sub-headings before I begin to read the textbook.	☐	☐	☐
5.	I can read diagrams.	☐	☐	☐
6.	I can summarize what I read.	☐	☐	☐
7.	I record the new vocabulary terms I meet in my science text.	☐	☐	☐
8.	I can read and understand charts in my science text.	☐	☐	☐
9.	I read other materials in science besides the textbook.	☐	☐	☐
10.	I can find other science materials in the library.	☐	☐	☐

TOTAL SCORE....................Science........... ☐

		Yes 3	Sometimes 2	No 1
IV.	Mathematics			
1.	I read each problem in the math text twice.	☐	☐	☐
2.	I analyze the problem before I attempt to work an answer.	☐	☐	☐
3.	I approximate an answer.	☐	☐	☐
4.	I know the meanings of the symbols used in math.	☐	☐	☐
5.	I can read and understand tables.	☐	☐	☐
6.	I can read drawings and diagrams.	☐	☐	☐
7.	I record the new vocabulary words I meet in my math text.	☐	☐	☐
8.	I can read a ruler.	☐	☐	☐
9.	I can summarize my reading.	☐	☐	☐
10.	I understand the special words I read in math.	☐	☐	☐

TOTAL SCORE..............Mathematics.......... ☐

Total Score I ____________
Total Score II ____________
Total Score III____________
Total Score IV____________

Grand Total ____________

Average ____________

SUMMARY CHART

	I	II	III	IV	Average
30					
28					
26					
24					
22					
20					
18					
16					
14					
12					
10					
8					
6					
4					
2					

To improve my reading in the subject areas I plan to do the following:

1. ____
____
2. ____
____
3. ____
____
4. ____
____
5. ____
____

THE DISADVANTAGED

BY

Marie Austin Milam

In dealing with the disadvantaged teachers must remember three important questions:

1. Who are the disadvantaged?
2. Where are they found?
3. How can they be taught to read?

Who are the disadvantaged?

The children commonly considered disadvantaged are the result of poverty; of chronically unemployed or unemployable fathers; of one-parent homes, frequently mother-dominated. They are city slum dwellers, rural uneducated farmhands, and migrants. They are children of unassimilated lowest class Negroes, Puerto Ricans, American Indians, Mexican Americans, and Caucasians. They are one of every three city children who have too little of everything.

The term "disadvantaged children" is used to describe boys and girls who come from widely differing peoples about whom teachers need to be informed in order to understand traditional value and culture patterns that make the children behave and react differently. (Noar, 1967, p. 8)

Most of the problems of the disadvantaged are related to the factors of self-concept, language development and readiness. Teachers tend to view these children as inferior in these three areas. Most teachers are products of middle-class parents and even if they were formerly lower class they may show superciliousness toward those they have left behind on a lower class social step. The high self-concept of these teachers has aided their upward mobility, and it is not surprising that they deny the identification with the less capable children or their former peers (for in all probability they never did identify themselves with their original group). (Spache, 1970, p. 9)

How can we expect any teacher to comprehend the problems of groups about whom she knows literally nothing, and with whom she has so few experiences in common? How can we expect a teacher to recognize the influence upon learning and school behavior when:

One's sole meal each day is the school lunch (all others are catch-as-catch-can)
One is constantly tired from sleeping in a bed shared with four or five siblings
One's irritability is high because of a constant lack of calcium in the diet (coffee, wine, or soft drinks are substitutes for milk)
One's attention span is poor because of a low protein diet
One faces the pointlessness of going home, for there isn't any food or any mother, or anyone else there, until the evening
One hears and speaks (if indeed anyone speaks more than a few words) only some other language or dialect than that accepted by the teacher who sees her role as that of constantly correcting (and hence squelching) one's version of English
One has learned, in self-protection, to tune out the loud voices and reverberating noises of crowded living (and also to tune out selectively the remarks of one's teachers)

> One's sense of appearance is so poor (for lack of a mirror in the home) that one can't even draw a recognizable self-portrait or profile.
> One has never owned a toy, a ball, or blocks which might have fostered form perception or experiences with object in space or in movement
> One's earlier experiences with teachers from the kindergarten on have been filled with frustration, threats, and punishments because of one's inability to meet or understand their demands
> (Spache, 1970, p. 9-10)

How does the middle-class teacher deal with these distasteful indicants? How does she learn to accept and work with children who violate most of her standards for what is right and proper, clean, and good? Does she continually strive to pull these children up out of their level in the naive belief that, after all, the main purpose of a public school education is to fit pupils into her kind of society?

What are some of the basic beliefs of the teacher that she may have to deny, if she is to help her pupils?

> To succeed in life, people must:
> 1. be bodily clean, and cleanly dressed
> 2. use correct English
> 3. live in quiet, clean, and attractive surroundings
> 4. be thrifty
> 5. show good social and table manners
> 6. believe wholeheartedly in the ultimate values of education
> 7. aspire to ever higher vocational and social goals
> 8. be attentive, quiet, and industrious in school
>
> (Spache, 1970, p. 11)

Where are the disadvantaged found?

There are disadvantaged in every place, but most are concentrated in certain areas. Most of the disadvantaged Black children are found in Northern cities and the rural South; most Mexican-Americans in the rural Southwest and West; most Puerto-Ricans in a few large Northern cities such as New York and Chicago; most Caucasians in the rural South and the Appalachian Mountains area; and most disadvantaged Indians on reservations and in the cities of the Southwest and West. (Johnson, 1970, p. 17)

How can the disadvantaged be taught to read?

Actually, there is no one method to teach disadvantaged children to read. Children who are ready - who have all the prerequisites for reading - learn to read regardless of the method used to teach them. Culturally disadvantaged children generally lack the prerequisites to become good readers in the present school curriculum. They aren't ready to read and some never become ready during their school careers. Reading is a symbolic process, and culturally disadvantaged pupils generally do not handle well the kinds of symbols that are necessary for learning reading in the middle-class curriculum. It is obvious that one should be able to speak the variety of English he will be taught to read - or, at least, to be able to hear the sounds of the variety of English he will be taught to read. Many disadvantaged children can do neither. (Johnson, 1970, p. 57)

Part of their language handicap is due to the nonstandard varieties they speak, and part is due to the lack of concepts that generate a vocabulary for learning to read. Language development tends to lag behind intellectual development in a cumulative fashion. One of the reasons offered for this lag is the lack of verbal interaction between disadvantaged adults and their children. Even the beginning speech sounds of disadvantaged children appear later. Many early studies show that lack of mothering retards vocalization and the mastery of speech sounds among the very young of the economically disadvantaged. (Spache, 1970, p. 25)

The background of disadvantaged children give them less access to books, fewer experiences of being read or spoken to. They have had much less opportunity for the development of cognitive or thinking skills because of a lack of intellectual stimulation. They are accustomed to receiving immediate rewards and punishments, based largely on the parent's interpretation of the consequences of the child's action, not upon his intentions. (Spache, 1970, p. 26)

The problem of the school is to use the backgrounds of these pupils as a foundation for teaching them to read. Compensatory programs must be designed.

Some Compensatory Programs

The U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare has funded some compensatory programs for the disadvantaged:

More Effective Schools Program   K-6   New York, New York   1972

Objectives:

1. To help poverty area children make substantial gains academically, particularly in reading and math.
2. To help children become more relaxed in using materials and develop their ability to use language functionally.
3. To sharpen teacher's alertness to children's individual differences and learning styles, thus enabling them more effectively to formulate appropriate countermeasures in dealing with reading difficulties.

4. To develop a fuller appreciation of the community's importance for the school's educational effectiveness through a positive attitude and an increased understanding of the community life styles on the part of the school personnel and students.

5. To help the children develop positive attitudes toward school, toward the adults with whom they come in contact, and toward their classmates.

6. To help cement parent-school relationships by encouraging active parent participation.

The More Effective Schools Programs did not attempt to implement any radical curriculum innovations. Rather it attempted to improve the quality of a more or less traditional educational program through reducing the pupil-teacher ratio; offering more small-group and individual instruction; providing remedial, tutorial, and enrichment instruction; extending instruction to prekindergarten and after school periods; and encouraging teachers to employ innovative methods such as team teaching.

This program was evaluated as being moderately successful in raising student achievement over those of control groups in matched schools.

Higher Horizons 100 9th grade Hartford, Conn. 1969

The HH 100 program is characterized by small classes, individualized instruction, intensive counseling services, and remedial language instruction integrated within a special ninth grade curriculum. As an adjunct to the instructional program, a program of cultural activities, civic trips, and guest speakers is provided. As a school-within-a-school, HH100 has the scheduling and curriculum flexibility required to individualize instruction and yet allow the entire student body and instructional team to participate as a group in various activities. Subjects rotate daily so that students attend a different class during period 1 each day. This system insures that at least once a week students are fresh in each content area.

HH 100 students have consistently demonstrated statistically significant gains in writing skills and reading achievement.

Some other programs (a listing) are:

Project MARS (Make All Reading Serviceable)
Leominster, Mass. 1-4

Project Early Push
Buffalo, New York preschool

Project R-3
San Jose, California 7-9 progression

Problems	Recommendations
Language Development	1. Use his language background in the activities designed for the language experience approach. e.g. Have him write stories about his neighborhood, his friends and his family. (see the recommendations listed under Language Experience)
	2. Don't constantly correct his English, but always use standard English when talking with him.
	3. Give him frequent opportunitites to talk with you and his classmates concerning his interests (and others who may share his interests).
Readiness	1. Provide him with many sensory objects in the classroom, things to feel - to smell - and to taste. e.g. flower boxes, an aquarium, freshly baked cookies, soft, silky, rough and crumbly things to feel
	2. Schedule field trips to many places; museums, stores, zoo, circuses, the parks, etc.
	3. Have available many toys (for younger children) or items that will foster size, shape or motion concepts. e.g. blocks, a mirror, a football pennant, a doll, a model airplane, etc.
	4. Provide books and magazines of all kinds in the classroom for the student to choose if he wishes.
	5. The classroom must provide a friendly, interesting atmosphere.
Self-Concept	1. Give individual, positive attention.
	2. Vary the learning environment by letting the child participate in selecting an activity.

3. Be affectionate; patting, snuggling, hugging.

4. Make rewards a part of the class day.

For behavioral problems, mostly caused by a low self-concept, the list of books for disadvantaged children found in this book will provide answers for the students and the teachers. (e.g. If a child is constantly bullying others in the class, the teacher may choose The Bully of Barkham Street by Mary Stolz to read in story hour or to suggest that the child read this book for enjoyment. It is the story of a boy who bullies in retaliation for his parents' lack of interest in him.) There are books in this list to fit almost every situation, for almost every minority group.

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EVALUATION

By Maurice T. Rainey
July 8, 1974

Full Text Provided by ERIC

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TOPIC 1

INTRODUCTION

This paper consists of purposes for testing, research studies of examination, aptitude, the theory of intelligence, special abilities, evaluating information from reading readiness and achievement reading score, listings of intelligence, reading survey, diagnostic reading, oral reading tests. Informing interested parties of achievement and I.Q. tests are discussed.

The main purposes of evaluating is to improve instruction. We evaluate one's achievement for placement, diagnosis assessment or prediction. Each of these purposes requires some type of judgment strong or weak, high or low. We describe instructional action that we shall take.. Achievement tests give information that will provide a rational basis for action and decision. The information is expressed in test scores and statistics associated with test scores. For placement, many are concerned with the achievement status of pupils in relation to each other; for assessment, with relation between end-of-course achievement and beginning-of-course achievement. Test scores may be useful in comparing. Here are five ways of comparison:

1. One may compare a pupil's achievement test score with the scores of other pupils in his school (placement).
2. One may compare a pupil's (or group's) score on a subtest with his score on another subtest (diagnosis).
3. One may compare a pupil's (or group's) achievement test score with his score on a previous testing (assessment).
4. One may compare a pupil's score on one achievement test with his score on another achievement test (prediction).

5. One may compare a school's achievement test scores with achievement scores of a comparable group of schools (evaluation).
6. One may compare a pupil's (or group's) achievement test score with some fixed standard of mastery.
7. One may compare a pupil's (or group's) achievement test score with his scores on other kinds of tests (aptitude, interest, personality, or attitude scales).
8. One may compare a pupil's achievement test score with other data about his achievement (school marks, ratings). (Educational Testing Service, Evaluation and Advisory Series, 1969, 17-22).

TOPIC 2

RESEARCH

Hahn and MacLean defined aptitudes as "latent potential, undeveloped capacities to acquire abilities and skills and to demonstrate achievement." Tests are designed to measure these latent capacities. And on the basis of the scores, predictions of future performance or behavior are made. As an evaluation of one's mental status, the test may be considered measurement of ability. (Hahn and MacLean, 1955, 207).

Vernon proposed two major group factors in the theory of intelligence, the verbal-educational group and the spatial-practical-mechanical group. He noted the first included minor group factors, number, divergent thinking, word fluency, and scholastic factors. The second group includes psychomotor, perceptual, physical, mechanical and spatial factors. (Vernon, 1961, 1965, 211-213).

In contrast to general ability and achievement there are special abilities, Paterson, Gerken, and Hahn (1941, 1953) constructed the Minnesota Occupational Rating Scales.

1. Academic - Understanding and manipulating ideas and symbols
2. Mechanical - Manipulating objects, tools, machinery
3. Social - Ability to understand and manage people
4. Clerical - To handle numbers and names accurately
5. Musical - Sense sound, reproductions
6. Artistic - Artistic merit
7. Physical - Ability to perform physical tasks (Paterson, et. al., 1953, 225-227).

Evaluation of information done by Roger C. Farr on Readiness Tests and Elementary Level Reading Achievement Tests supplied by the publishers is as follows:

Does the test measure what it purports to measure?

1. Evidence is complete and satisfactory

   None

2. Evidence as given is satisfactory but not complete enough to support test purposes

   Reading Readiness
   Murphy-Durrell Reading Readiness Analysis

   Elementary Level Reading Achievement Tests
   *California Reading Test - Lower Primary
   *California Reading Test - Upper Primary
   *California Reading Test - Elementary
   Stanford Reading Test Primary I
   Stanford Reading Test Primary II
   Stanford Reading Test Intermediate I
   Stanford Reading Test Intermediate II

3. Data given but indicate test is not valid enough for stated purposes.

   None

4. Not enough information given.

   None

*Additional information available from publisher

The Harrison - Straud Reading Readiness Profiles
Lee - Clark Reading Readiness Test
Metropolitan Readiness Test

Reading Achievement Tests

Gates Mac Ginitie, Primary AA
Gates Mac Ginitie, Primary B
Gates Mac Ginitie, Primary C
Gates Mac Ginitie, Primary C S
Gates Mac Ginitie, Survey D
Iowa Silent Reading Tests - Elementary Test
Metropolitan Achievement - Primary I
Metropolitan Achievement - Elementary
Metropolitan Achievement - Intermediate

5. No information given

Reading Readiness

Gates Mac Ginitie Readiness Skills Test Reliability

Are the test results consistent?

1. Evidence is complete and satisfactory

Readiness Test

None

Elementary Reading Achievement Tests

Gates Mac Ginitie, Primary A
Gates Mac Ginitie, Primary B
Gates Mac Ginitie, Primary C
Gates Mac Ginitie, Primary C S
Gates Mac Ginitie, Survey D
Metropolitan Achievement - Primary I
Metropolitan Achievement - Primary II
Metropolitan Achievement - Elementary
Metropolitan Achievement - Intermediate

2. Evidence as given is satisfactory but not complete enough to support test purposes.

Readiness

Lee - Clark Reading Readiness Test

Murphy-Durrell Reading Readiness Analysis
Achievement Tests
*California Reading Test - Lower Primary

*Additional information available from publisher

*California Reading Test - Upper Primary
*California Reading Test - Elementary
Stanford Reading Tests - Primary I
Stanford Reading Tests - Primary II
Stanford Reading Tests - Intermediate I
Stanford Reading Tests - Intermediate II

3. Data given but indicate test is not reliable enough for stated purposes.

Readiness

None

Achievement

Iowa Silent Reading Tests; Elementary Test

4. Not enough information given

Readiness

*Metropolitan Readiness Test

5. No information given

Readiness

Gates Mac Ginitie Readiness Skills Test
The Harrison - Straud Reading Readiness Profile

Norms

Are grade or age equivalent scores usable?

1. Description of norming population is complete and usable

Readiness

Metropolitan Readiness Test

Reading Achievement Tests

Stanford Reading Tests - Primary I
Stanford Reading Tests - Primary II
Stanford Reading Tests - Intermediate I
Stanford Reading Tests - Intermediate II

*Additional information available from publisher

2. Description is not complete but norms seem usable

    Readiness

    Lee-Clark Reading Readiness Test

    Murphy-Durrell Reading Readiness Profiles

    Reading Achievement

*California Reading Test - Lower
*California Reading Test - Upper
*California Reading Test - Elementary
Gates Mac Ginitie, Primary A
Gates Mac Ginitie, Primary B
Gates Mac Ginitie, Primary C
Gates Mac Ginitie, Primary C S
Gates Mac Ginitie, Survey D
*Metropolitan Achievement - Primary I
*Metropolitan Achievement - Primary II
*Metropolitan Achievement - Elementary
Metropolitan Achievement - Intermediate

3. Description is complete but norms are limited for most purposes

    Readiness Tests

    The Harrison-Straud Reading Readiness Profiles

    Achievement Tests

Iowa Silent Reading Tests: Elementary Test

4. Not enough information given

    Readiness Test

Gates Mac Ginitie Readiness Skills Test

1. Subtests are not long enough for reliable use (only total test scores should be used)

    Readiness Tests

Gates Mac Ginitie Readiness Skills Test
The Harrison-Straud Reading Readiness Profiles

⋮

*Additional information available from publisher

Lee-Clark Readiness Readiness Test
Metropolitan Readiness Test
Murphy-Durrell Reading Readiness Analysis
Achievement Tests
California Reading Test - Lower
California Reading Test - Upper
California Reading Test - Elementary
Iowa Silent Reading Test
Metropolitan Achievement - Primary I
Metropolitan Achievement - Primary II
Metropolitan Achievement - Elementary
Metropolitan Achievement - Intermediate

2. Subtests do not seem to be valid measures of subskills (only total test scores should be used)

Readiness

Gates Mac Ginitie Readiness Skills Test
The Harrison-Straud Reading Readiness Profiles
Lee-Clark Reading Readiness Test
Metropolitan Readiness Test
Murphy-Durrell Reading Readiness Analysis
Achievement
California Reading Test
California Reading Test
California Reading Test
Gates Mac Ginitie, Primary A
Gates Mac Ginitie, Primary B
Gates Mac Ginitie, Primary C
Gates Mac Ginitie, Primary C S
Gates Mac Ginitie, Survey D
Iowa Silent Reading Tests: Elementary Test
Metropolitan Achievement - Primary I
Metropolitan Achievement - Primary II
Metropolitan Achievement - Elementary
Metropolitan Achievement - Intermediate
Stanford Reading Tests - Primary I
Stanford Reading Tests - Primary II
Stanford Reading Tests - Intermediate I
Stanford Reading Tests - Intermediate II

3. Several test items are either outdated or misleading or should be used only with special population

Readiness

None

Achievement

Iowa Silent Reading Tests: Elementary Test (Farr, 1969, 48-49)

TOPIC 3

TEST LISTINGS

Tests of Intelligence

1. Arthur Point Scale of Performance (The Psychological Corporation, New York). For ages 5-15 measures abilities of deaf children, reading, disabilities, delayed or defective speech and non-English speaking population. The test consists of five nonlanguage subtests. Knox Cube Test, Seguin for Board, Arthur Stencil Design Test I, Healy Picture Completion Test II, and Porteus Maye Test (Arthur Modification).
2. California Test of Mental Maturity (California Test Bureau Monterey, California). Memory, Spatial Relationships, Logical Reasoning and verbal concepts are measured to determine I.Q. Levels kindergarten to adult.
3. Chicago Non-Verbal Examination (The Psychological Corporation, New York). Designed for those handicapped in English language usage for the deaf, reading difficulty, foreign language background. This is a standardized test for verbal and pantomime directions. Levels - age 6 to adult.
4. Columbia Mental Maturity (Harcourt, Brace and World Chicago, Illinois), ages 3-12, one hundred items on cards 6 x 19 each containing three to five drawings. This individual scale is suitable for cerebral palsy patients. The individual selects one drawing which does not belong with the series.
5. Full Range Picture Vocabulary Test (Psychological Test Specialists, Missoula, Montana) Level - ages 2 to adult using cartoon cards in verbal comprehension.

6. Gessell Development Schedules (Psychological Corporation, New York) These preschool age tests measure mental growth through language, motor development, adaptive behavior, and social behavior.
7. I.P.A.T. Culture Fair Intelligence Tests (Institute for Personality and Ability Testing, Champaign, Illinois) Measures general intelligence with freedom from cultural and educational influences. Scale 1, ages 4-8 or adult defective requires 30 minutes. Two other scales range to superior adult level.
8. Kahn Intelligence Tests: Experimental Form (Psychological Test Specialists, Missoula, Montana) No reading, writing or verbal knowledge required. A scale for assessment of the blind and a scale to measure concept formation, recall, and motor coordination.
9. Ruhlmaum-Anderson I.Q. Test (Personal Press, Inc., Princeton, New Jersey) There are tests at each grade level kindergarten through grade twelve, measuring learning ability in general.
10. Ruhlmaum-Finch I.Q. Test (American Guidance Service, Inc., Minneapolis, Minnesota) Grades 1-12 measures general mental development and gives an I.Q. score.
11. Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Tests (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, Massachusetts). Levels 4-12 verbal series measure scholastic aptitude through subtests of verbal reasoning, vocabulary, verbal classification, sentence completion, arithmetic reasoning and verbal analogy. The non-verbal series is available for kindergarten through twelve. These tests measure abstract reasoning ability.
12. Otis-Leavon Mental Ability Test (Harcourt, Brace and World, Chicago, Illinois). Pictorial and geometric items sampling the mental process of classification following directions, quantitative reasoning, verbal

conceptualization and analogy reasoning are found in levels k-3. Levels 4-13 contain verbal and nonverbal items sampling fourteen different mental processes.

13. Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (American Guidance Service, Inc., Minneapolis, Minnesota). Ages 6-18. This is an individual wide range picture vocabulary test of 150 plates in graduated series containing four pictures each.

14. Pictorial Test of Intelligence (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, Massachusetts). Ages 3-8. This is an individual test to be administered by a trained examiner to the normal or handicapped. The response is verbal choosing one of four drawings.

15. Pintner General Ability Test (Harcourt, Brace and World, Chicago, Illinois). Level k-12. This is a four-battery series designed to measure aspects of general mental ability.

16. Pressey Classification and Verifying Tests (Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis, Indiana). Measures general intelligence. Grades 1-2 pictures; 3-6 and 7-adult similarities and opposites, information, and practical arithmetic.

17. Quick Test (Psychological Test Specialists, Missoula, Montana). Ages 2-adult. This is an individual standardized intelligence test in three forms. Those who can see the drawings hear or read the words, and signal yes and no can be tested.

18. Slosson Intelligence Test for children and adults (Slosson Educational Publications East Aurora, New York) This is an abbreviated form of the Stanford-Binet. It is an individual, short test taking about twenty minutes to score and administer.

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19. S.R.A. Primary Mental Abilities Test (Science Research Associates, Chicago, Illinois.) This is a grade placement test for ability grouping. The test consists of verbal meaning, perceptual speech, spatial ability, reasoning and number.

20. Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scales: 1960 Revision (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, Massachusetts). Forms 1 and 2 of the 1937 revision are combined. The examiner must have special training.

21. Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC) (Psychological Corporation, New York). These twelve tests are divided into two, verbal and performance. The I.Q. tables are calculated from ten test administered on the subject. (Dechant 1970, pp. 586-591).

READING SURVEY TESTS

1. American School Achievement Reading Tests (Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis, Indiana). Levels 1-9, Test materials on ability, skill, progress, and reading difficulties, word, sentence and paragraph meanings are measured in this reading test.

2. Botel Reading Inventory (Follett Publishing Company, Chicago, Illinois). Levels 1-12. Measures word recognition, listening comprehension and phonics. This test determines if a pupil is reading at frustration, instructional or free-reading level.

3. California Reading Test (California Test Bureau, Monterey, California) Levels 1-14. Testing reading vocabulary and comprehension.

4. Developmental Reading Tests: Primary Level (Lyons and Carahon, Chicago, Illinois). These tests measure vocabulary, general comprehension and specific comprehension.

5. Developmental Reading Tests: Intermediate (Lyons and Carahon, Chicago, Illinois). Measures basic vocabulary, factual reading, reading to organize, reading to evaluate, interpret and appreciate.
6. The Durrell-Sullivan Reading Capacity and Achievement Tests (Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., New York) Grade levels 2-6. Determine reading capacity composed of pictures; reading achievement section consists of word meaning, paragraph meaning, a spelling test and written recall test. The reading achievement test is read by the pupil without help from the examiner.
7. Gates-Mac Ginitie Reading Tests (Bureau of Publications Teachers College, Columbia University). Different levels from Primary A Grade One-Survey D-E grade 9.
8. Iowa Silent Reading Test (Harcourt, Brace and World, Chicago, Illinois). Grades 4-8 and 9-13. Elementary-measures rate, comprehension answers to factual questions word meaning, sentence meaning, paragraph comprehension and location of information. The advanced level measures the same.
9. Lee-Clark Reading Tests (1963 Revision) (California Test Bureau, Monterey, California) Grades k-2. Measures readiness reading achievement and silent reading skills.
10. Metropolitan Achievement Tests: Reading (Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc. New York). Grade levels: Primary I, II, Elementary, Intermediate, and Advanced (7-9). The primary measures word knowledge discrimination; the elementary measure adds heading comprehension and the intermediate and advanced tests measure word knowledge and reading comprehension.
11. Monroe Revised Silent Reading Tests: (Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis, Indiana). Grades 3-12. The student reads seventeen short paragraphs and answer a question on each. Reading comprehension and rate are measured.

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12. National Achievement Test (Acorn Publishing Company, Long Island, New York). The test measures sentence meaning speed and paragraph meaning. Grades 4-9.

13. Nelson Lahmann Reading Test (American Guidance Service, Inc., Minneapolis, Minnesota) Grades 4-8. Measures comprehension with a graduated sequence of difficulty.

14. Nelson Reading Test (1962 Edition) (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, Massachusetts) Grades 3-9. Measures reading ability in terms of vocabulary and comprehension. This replaces the Nelson Silent Reading Test.

15. Pressey Diagnostic Reading Tests (Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis, Indiana). Grades 3-9. Measures speed, vocabulary and paragraph meaning.

16. Primary Reading Test (Acorn Publishing Company, Long Island, New York) Grades 2-3. Measures word recognition, sentence meaning and paragraph meaning.

17. Pupil Progress Series Reading (Scholastic Testing Service, Inc., Bensenville, Illinois) Grades 1-8. Reading achievement test measuring total comprehension rate, vocabulary, and knowledge and use of sources.

18. Sequential Tests of Education Progress: Reading (Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey). Grades 4-14. This measures five categories of comprehension skills abilities and attitudes.

19. SRA Achievement Series: Reading (Science Research Associates, Inc., Chicago, Illinois). Comprehension, vocabulary, verbal-pictorial association and language perception. Levels 1-9

20. Stanford Achievement: Reading (Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., New York). Three levels: elementary (grades 3.0 to 4.0), intermediate (grades 5.0 to 6.9), and advanced (grades 7.0 to 9.0). It gives a paragraph meaning score, a word meaning score, and a total score.

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21. Straud-Hieronymus Primary Reading Profiles (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, Massachusetts). Evaluates progress on completion of the first grade reading program. Level 2 helps determine strengths, and weakness in the pupil's ability in the end of the second year of instruction aptitude. Auditory Association, Word Recognition, Word Attack and Comprehension. (Dechant, 1970, 592-594).

DIAGNOSTIC READING TESTS

1. Bond-Clymer-Hoyt Silent Reading Diagnostic Tests (Lydns and Garahon, Chicago, Illinois). Group test - grades 2.5 to 6 for retarded readers. The test measures silent reading skills.
2. Botel Reading Inventory (Follett Publishing Company, Chicago, Illinois). A composite of Word Recognition Phonics and Word Opposites. It determines whether the pupil is reading at a frustrated, instruction or free level.
3. Diagnostic Reading Examination for Diagnosis of Special Difficulty in Reading (C.H. Stoeting Company, Chicago, Illinois). Grades 1-4, combination of assessment procedures of special areas in reading.
4. Diagnostic Reading Scales (California Test Bureau, Monterey, California). Grades 1-8. Individually administered Tests designed to identify reading deficiencies.
5. Diagnostic Reading Tests (Committee on Diagnostic Reading Tests, Inc., Mountain Home, North Carolina distributed also by Science Research Associates, Chicago). Kindergarten-fourth, four to eight, eight to thirteen. There are tests for word recognition, comprehension, vocabulary, story reading, story comprehension, and rate of comprehension (upper level).
6. Diagnostic Reading Test (Scholastic Testing Service, Inc., Bensenville, Illinois). Primary I, II, Grades 4-6, Grades 7, 8. The tests measure rate, comprehension, knowledge and use of scores.

7. Doren Diagnostic Reading Test (American Guidance Service, Inc., Minneapolis, Minnesota). Remedial instruction tests for beginning sound, sight words, rhyming, etc.

8. Durrell-Analysis of Reading Difficulty, New Edition (Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., New York). Grades 1-6 with fifteen subtests.

9. Duorak-Van Wagener Diagnostic Examination of Silent Reading Abilities (Psycho-Educational Research Laboratories, Minneapolis, Minnesota). It measures rate of comprehension to the ability to interpret inferences from paragraph ideas.

10. Gates-McKillap Reading Diagnostic Tests (Bureau of Publication, Teachers Colleges, Columbia University). This battery, for grades one through eight, is for detailed diagnosis of specific deficiencies in reading performance.

11. McCullough Word-Analysis Tests (Experimental Edition, Ginn and Company, Chicago, Illinois). Grades 4-6. This test provides ten scores; initial blends and digraphs, phonetic discrimination, etc.

12. Monroe Diagnostic Reading Tests (C.H. Stoelting Company, Chicago, Illinois). Offers diagnostic profile of specific reading retardations, in arithmetic spelling and mental age.

13. Pupil Progress Diagnostic Reading Tests (C.H. Stoelting Company, Chicago, Illinois). Levels Primary I, II, elementary (grades 4-6), advanced (grades 7-8).

14. The Raswell-Chall Diagnostic Reading Test of Word Analysis Skills (Essay Press, New York, New York). Grades 2-6. Used to supplement information from standardized silent and oral reading tests.

15. Stanford Diagnostic Reading Test (Harcourt, Brace and World, Chicago, Illinois). Grades 2.5-8.5. Aids in identifying specific strengths and weakness. (Dechant, 1970, 595-598).

TOPIC 4

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

There are two principles for communicating information from tests results:

1. Parents have the right to know what ever the school knows about the abilities, the performance and the problems of their children.
2. The school has the obligation to see that it communicates understandable and usable knowledge.

Transmitting general knowledge requires attention to content language and audience, content means that the one must know what he is trying to get across and language how is he going to say it.

1. Values and weaknesses of test scores
2. Expectancy table or chart

   Top quarter of class

   Secondary quarter

   Third quarter

   Lowest quarter of the class

I.Q.'s should rarely if ever be reported to students or parents because it is often seen as a fixed characteristic of the person tested. It serves as a final conclusion about the individual.

Percentiles are the safest and most informative numbers to use. Do not refer to per cent of questions answered correctly but to per cent of people whose performance the student has equalled or surpassed. With whom are the students being compared? The "norm" group is pertinent in meaning relationship of 1st.

A verbal technique to use is "you score like people who . . ." to a parent. "Your son or daughter scores like students who . . ." students who have more than average difficulty passing in arithmetic you may need some extra help on this in the next few years. (Seashore, 1959, 1-3).

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Profile of Roger C. Farr

Roger C. Farr attended State University of New York College at Brockport where he received the B.S. in 1961; State University of New York College at Buffalo - M.S., 1965; State University of New York at Buffalo - Ed.D., 1967. His office is at the Reading Clinic of Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana 47405.

His career started as a junior and senior high school English teacher in Akron, Ohio; State University of New York at Buffalo, Instructor in Educational Psychology, 1966-67; Indiana University, Bloomington, Assistant Professor, 1967-70, associate professor of education, 1970.

Some of Farr's writings (with Edward G. Summers) are Guide to Tests and Measuring Instruments for Reading. Indiana University, 1968; Multidisciplinary Aspects of College - Adult Reading, National Reading Conference, 1968; (with James Laffey and Carl Smith), A Taxonomy of Evaluation, Techniques for Reading Programs.

Some of his work in progress include editing with William Blanton and J. Joap Tuinman, Reading Tests for the Secondary Grades: A Review and Evaluation for International Reading Association.

Farr is a member of the International Reading Association (Chairman of Evaluation of Tests Committee). National Council on Measurement in Education, American Educational Research Association, Phi Delta Kappa.

LEARNING DISABILITIES

by

Doris Rosson

LEARNING DISABILITIES

INTRODUCTION

Learning disabilities or communication disorders is a difficult subject to define. Many terms are used to describe this condition. Educators often use the terms dyslexia, perceptual handicap, brain damage, and learning disability, not really knowing if there is a difference. In this paper, dyslexia, perceptual handicap, and learning disability are used synonymously.

The child with learning disabilities has baffled parents and educators for years. This child, who has average or above average intelligence, is often referred to by teachers as immature, a slow learner, undisciplined, or emotionally maladjusted. Parents and teachers have considered him lazy, hard to control, scatterbrained, or just highstrung. These perceptually handicapped children have been pressured by their parents and teachers, and failure has been more the rule than the exception. They are often on the defensive, and many feel quite hostile toward their parents and teachers. (Love, 1970, 85-88)

The behavioral patterns most frequently seen are a short attention span, distractibility, hyperactivity, and impulsiveness. The normal child usually inhibits his response to stimulation situations, and his overt behavior is not intense. One of the most obvious of the difficulties that are characteristic of the child with learning disabilities is his distractibility, or oversensitivity to stimuli. His activities are very intense, he responds to many stimuli, and he expends a great amount of energy. He seldom stays still. This child's bizarre behavior and inability to learn in the traditional classroom are usually the forces that instigate parents to take the first steps toward seeking help. (Love, 1970, 85-88).

Early diagnosis of the child's learning disability is of extreme importance. In Schiffman's (1962) study of about 10,000 children, he found that when diagnosis of dislexia is made within the first two grades of school, nearly 82% of dislexic children can be brought back to normal grade classwork. When diagnosis is not made until the third grade, the percentage drops to 46%. By the fourth grade, it is down to 42%. If the diagnosis is later, only 10 to 15 percent can be brought to a normal grade level. (Keeney, 1968, 92)

One of the most important principles of either corrective or remedial reading instruction is that it should be based specifically on diagnosed reading difficulties. The specific deficiencies that a disabled reader has can be determined from a standardized diagnostic reading test such as the Durrell Analysis of Reading Difficulty. The Spache Diagnostic Reading Scales, The Developmental Reading Test, or the Doren Diagnostic Reading Test (Miller, 1971, 83).

The teacher must be able to accept each disabled reader with his difficulties and be able to help him develop a positive self-concept. The child usually has met defeat in all learning experiences in school. The disabled reader then has often become emotionally involved with his reading disability to the point that he feels negatively toward all reading situations (Miller, 1971, 79-108).

It has been assumed that all children can master three kinds of language symbols: Aural: Aural symbols used in speaking and listening; printed symbols used in reading; and written symbols used in handwriting. Educators have also assumed that all children are capable of automatically progressing from left to right across the page, as well as from top to bottom down the page. This is not true (Jordan, 1972, 5).

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The most prevalent form of dislexic handicap is that of visual dyslexia, but it is the easiest corrected. Visual dyslexia has little to do with vision, but it is a matter of not interpreting accurately what is seen. Certain letters are seen backwards or upside down. Parts of words may be reversed (Jordan, 1972, 1-9).

The most difficult form of dyslexia to correct is auditory dyslexia, which is the inability to perceive the separate sounds. A third type of dyslexia is the inability to coordinate hand and arm muscles to write legibly. Their writing may be hard for them to read and impossible for others to read. But rarely does a child exhibit only one form of dyslexia. It is essential that all disabilities, as well as the severity of each one, be identified as early as possible (Jordan, 1972, 1-9).

Several methods of teaching have been successful in children with learning disabilities.

METHODS

The Orton Gillingham Method

Samuel T. Orton, a neurologist and often referred to as the father of dyslexia in America, identified a syndrome of developmental reading disability. Anna Gillingham, a psychologist, was assigned the task of organizing a step-by-step method of remedial instruction for teachers. This method, called the VAK method, is based upon visual-auditory-kinesthetic training. Training usually starts with the teaching individual letters of the alphabet and phonemes and by strengthening the visual and auditory patterns by introducing motor elements of speech and writing at the same time. The pupil must sound out and trace the visually printed word. Using step-by-step progressions, the pupil is gradually prepared for longer units, such as more syllables, phrases, and whole sentences. Each letter is presented on a separate card with consonant letters on white cards and vowel letters on salmon-colored cards. After a list of letters is learned, emphasis is placed on the process of blending as the basis for reading (Miller, 1971, 79-108).

The Fernald Tracing Method

The Fernald Tracing Method is similar to the Orton-Gillingham Method. It also used the VAK or VAKT approach. In the Fernald Method, the disabled reader chooses a word that he wishes to learn The teacher writes the word on a piece of oaktag. The child traces the word with his index [illegible] [illegible] in syllables as he traces it. He then attempts to write the word from memory. If he cannot do so, he retraces and repeats the procedure until he can write the word correctly. When he is able to write the word from memory, he copies it on an index card and files it in a box for further study. He also uses the word in a sentence or story. As he improves, he can write the words and say them in syllables as he writes. At the final stage, he is able to read or write the words without tracing them or writing them from copy. He continues to file the newly learned words in his box and to use them in sentences and stories (Miller, 1971, 79-108).

Miller (1971) favors the Fenald Method rather than the Gillingham Method because it uses syllables rather than isolated sounds. He feels that children have trouble blending each individual sound into words.

Words in Color

Since children with learning disabilities have trouble distinguishing letters such as b, p, and d, Gattegno states that the Words in Color Method has been helpful in teaching children to recognize letters. In Words in Color, each letter or sound has its own color. The child first recognizes the color and then the shape of the letter. He gradually learns to recognize black letters on a white page (Gattegno, 1966, 175-188).

The Color Phonics System

The Color Phonics System, which Bannatyne (1966, 193-214) recommends, is a set of individual letters and letter combinations printed on small cards, the letters being color coded in such a way that once the principle of the coding has been learned, the child can identify each sound. The theory behind the method is that most dyslexic children suffer from an inability to remember constantly changing patterns of sound-symbol association, and therefore, the simultaneous manual, auditory, and visual sequencing of phonemes and letters is the essential element in learning to read. A small mirror is often used in order that the child watch his lips and tongue as he makes the sounds. This helps him to understand how the sound is produced.

The APSL Approach

Dr. Charles Shedd (1968, 4-6) uses what he calls the Alphabetic-Phonetic-Linguistic-Structural Approach. Materials require the student to learn the name of a letter and the sound of the letter. This is the operation of alphabetic-phonetic approach. As letters are introduced, the student is asked to identify the letter by name, to trace the letter on a model with a finger of the preferred hand, to reproduce the letter on sandpaper without the model, and then to write the letter with a pencil. A sound is then given to the letter, and the student is asked to write the letter while making the sound. As soon as the student learns two letters, such as a and t, they are added together to form a larger language unit, a phonogram or word family. This operation is termed structural-linguistic. By the way of this procedure, the student is able to read at the first session. From this elemental beginning, there is a continual progression to more complex linguistic units. The consonants selected for initial introduction are high incidence ones. Only short vowels are introduced in the beginning. After all the short vowel phonograms are introduced and related to all beginning consonant sounds, all initial consonant blends are related to already recognizable phonograms. The same is true for diagraphs. Then there is an expansion by means of the vowel shift from short to long by the addition of a terminal e. As reading or decoding progresses, the instructor makes frequent inquiries to have assurance that the student knows the meaning of the words in the material.

Other Techniques

Various methods or techniques have been used with dyslexic children. Keeney (1968, 92) states that twenty-five therapeutic techniques are used in Maryland. Every method, in some way, uses visual, auditory, kinesthetic, and tactile stimuli as a means of learning. A talking typewriter is said to be one device that can be helpful. Morsink (1971, 109-217) suggests that an ordinary teacher without expensive materials or impressive credentials can achieve remarkable results, if she uses concrete experiences, and overlearning combined with a reward to all successes. The reward is initially candy, then candy and praise, and finally, praise. Mazurkiewick (1966, 161-174) recommends using the Initial Teaching Alphabet with dyslexic children in the early stages of their reading difficulties. He says the most significant barrier to reading, the ability to recognize or analyze words, is removed by i/t/a materials. The length of time that the dyslexic reader continues to read i/t/a material, after achieving independence in reading, is governed primarily by the length of time necessary to develop his confidence in commanding the printed page and his efficiency and effectiveness in oral and silent reading.

The Waterford School District in Michigan has achieved a successful program by concentrating on early discovery of disabilities and working on a small group individualized approach. In some of the severe disabilities, the children are in a one-to-one learning situation (Heckeral, 1969, 199-204). In this program and others, such as Dr. Shedd's program, it was economically feasible to have a one-to-one learning situation by the use of parents and college students tutoring, under the guidance of a teacher (Jones, 1972, 61-68, ED 160 166).

A simplified method that any classroom teacher could use was proposed by Eddy (1967, 195-6). The method, simply described, is that the teacher writes each word on the chalkboard. She enunciates the word and underlines each syllable as she pronounces it. She writes each word of the sentences in this way. The children read the sentence aloud. The lesson is developed word by word, and sentence by sentence. The lesson is then transferred for a class reading book.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Until recent years, children with learning disabilities were a neglected group of children. Scant attention was given these children that seemed so bright in some areas and so slow in other areas. Now, educators are beginning to have a better understanding of these communication disorders. Several methods have proven to be helpful in teaching these children to read, and these methods use a multisensory approach. The prime concern is the early discovery of this disability.

There should be a concentrated effort by teachers in the lower grades to determine why a child is not learning. Teachers in the primary grades should be required to take courses or attend workshops on communication disorders. Each primary teacher should become an expert in recognizing the symptoms of dyslexia and make referrals to the Guidance Department in the child's early school life.

The Psychological Service Department has the complex task of making an accurate diagnosis. Extremely competent people should be available. These people should be familiar with all tests available and understand the validity of each test. Administering and scoring the tests must be done with painstaking care, and the interpretation of the tests requires complete consideration of all aspects. Other behaviors have a direct and indirect relation to reading. Highly qualified personnel must be available for the final interpretation of the data. Diagnosis is a series of attempts at identification of the problem areas, and must be carefully done before remediation begins.

To be successful, remedial instruction must focus upon the specific learning needs of each individual. A variety of situations should be available to meet these specific needs. The most severe disabilities may require a one-to-one relationship for any successful learning to take place. Small group work with abundant individual attention is necessary for most learning disabilities. A self-contained classroom may be recommended for some of the children. Other children may learn best by working with a Resource Teacher for a small portion of the day.

A variety of teaching materials and methods should be used by the teachers. A multisensory approach is required, but each child cannot learn by the same sense in the same degree. If a child learns best by hearing, then many situations that utilize his listening ability must be used to reinforce his reading skills. If touching helps him to see the words better, then many concrete items must be provided for him to touch.

Research has shown that the dyslexic can be taught to read. He can be educated in a way to reach his full potential. A dyslexic can become a productive citizen if the diagnosis is made in his early years and a remedial program begun.

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Research Paper

Title: Understanding Human Motivation

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Date: July 8, 1974

Student: Vera T. Anderson

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Introduction

How do we learn? Two modern principles of behavior have opened a whole new world for education. During recent years, psychologists have discovered that the self-concept (or the beliefs we hold about ourselves) is so tremendously important that it affects practically everything we do

Through this paper I shall convey how research shows that the self-concept acts very much like a quota for an individual.

At any given time a person may be motivated by a wave of internal and xternal factors. The strength of each motive and the pattern of motives influenc he way we see the world, the things we think about and the actions in which we engage.

Motives fluctuate and arrange themselves in various patterns at different times. Some of a person's motives are always operating, and his behavior is argely controlled by them. The effect of motivation on learning and performance has been a matter of central importance to education for many years. The basic nature of the effect of motivation on learning and performance can be more easily nderstood in a simplified situation and then generalized to a more complex behavior.[1] J. F. Hall - 1961 p. 34-39

According to Yerkes and Dodson, motivation does facilitate learning and performance. A large number of experimental studies with animals, children and dults have shown that all kinds of maze running, bar pressing verbal responses will be learned faster when drive is increased to moderate levels. A considerable amount of evidence now suggests that increasing a drive up to a certain point acilitates behavior; but extreme degrees of drive may result in deterioration. This effect may be due to physical weakening, the emergence of irrevelant and interfering responses, or the induction of an emotional state. The exact point at begins to interfere with learning and performance depends on the nature of the task. As tasks become more difficult, the facilitating level of drive gets lower d lower.

Simply stated, the optimum motivation for learning decreases with increasin sk difficulty.[2] 1964, Yerkes and Dodson pp. 12-14; pg. 64

3.

Motivation is a key factor that determines how a person will behave. All kinds of behavior involves motivation such as learning, performance and perceiving. The relationship between motivation and behavior is sometimes complex.

Motivation is distinguished from other factors that influence behavior such as past experiences and physical capabilities. A motive is an internal factor that arouses, directs and integrates a person's behavior. The uses to which a person puts his human capabilities depends on his motivation; such as desires, wishes, wants, needs, yearnings, hungers, loves, hates and fears.

Motivation is inferred from other aspects of behavior. The vigor, frequency and speed of a response is sometimes an indication of motivation. The dominance of a theme in a person's conversations, fantasies and dreams also suggests certain underlying motives. Social or achievement motivation is strongly influenced by child rearing methods, parental values and family structure. Most historians, economists and sociologists explain individual motives in terms of the conditions in the society in which a person lives. An important factor in economic growth is that motivation to achievement precedes economic growth. McClelland tested the idea that the great civilizations of the past such as the classical Greek civilization depended on achievement motivation. Ancient Greece began developing economically during the eighth and seventh centuries B.C., but it was not until the sixth century B.C. that Athens began to show the kind of civilization it was going to become. During the fifth century B.C. it reached its Golden Age of Pericles. This was the period when the familiar figures of Aeschylus, Sophocles, Euripides, Socrates. Plato and Aristotle lived and made their tremendous contribution to western civilization.

This was also a period of great economic strength. Shortly after this, Athens lost the Peloponnesian War to Sparta and began to decline. McClelland takes the position that the motivation for achievement preceded the period of maximum growth and that the decline of the civilization was preceded by a ne in achievement motivation.[3] D.C. McClelland 1953 p. 99-108

4.

The question still remains: What factors determine an increase in achievement motivation in a society?

Achievement motivation is fostered by 'parental warmth', a non-dominant father and high achievement standards. Why do parents behave this way? One possibility is that the parents want independence in their children and incidentally produce high achievers. However, if parents push their children too much towards achievement they may find their children rejecting achievement altogether.

Murray listed twenty social motives (or psychogenic needs) that were used in his TAT test, which is most influential.[6] TAT is a Thematic Apperception Test which is widely used as a personality nationwide. Consisting of a series of pictures of people in various situations. The subject is asked to use his imagination and write a story about each picture.

[1] Abasement- To submit to external force. ex. Accept blame, criticism and punishment. To admit defeat or error. To seek and enjoy pain, illness, punishment and misfortune.

[2] Achievement- To accomplish something difficult as rapidly and independently as possible. To excel self and to rival and surpass others.

[3] Affiliation- To draw near and enjoy cooperating with one who resembles or enjoys the subject. To remain loyal to a freind.

[4] Aggression- To overcome opposition forcefully. To fight, oppose forcefully, or punish another.

[5] Autonomy- To get free, shake off. To resist coercion and restriction.

[6] Counteraction- To overcome weaknesses, to repress fear. To search for obstacles and difficulties to overcome.

[7] Defendance- To defend the self against assault, criticism and blame.

[8] Deference- To admire and support a superior. To praise, honor or eulogize.

[9] Dominance- To control one's human environment. To influence or direct

the behavior of others by suggestion, seduction, persuasion or command.

10 Exhibition- To make an impression; to be seen and heard.

11 Harmavoidance- To avoid pain, physical injury, illness and death. To escape from a dangerous situation.

12 Infavoidance- To avoid humiliation; to quit embarassing situations which may lead to belittlement, scorn or indifference to others.

13 Nurturance- To give sympathy and gratify the needs of a helpless object; an infant or any object that's weak, lonely, disabled, tired or inexperienced.

14 Order- To achieve cleanliness, arrangement, balance and neatness.

15 Play- To act "for fun" without further purpose. To laugh and make jokes; to participate in games,sports and dancing.

16 Sentience- To seek and enjoy sensuous impossions.

17 Sex- To seek and enjoy an erotic relationship.

18 Succorance- To have one's needs gratified by the sympathetic aid of an allied object. To be nursed consoled, supported, protected, advised and guided.

19 Understanding- To ask or answer general questions.

When we examine Murray's list and apply it to our freindswe find it a remarkably sensitive description of the motivational patterns in everyday life.

Curiosity notives can be found in very young children. Jean Piaget, the great Swiss developmental psychologist, observed curiosity in his three month old son, Laurent. Piaget suspended a rattler above Laurent's crib and attached a string. For fifteen minutes Laurent shook the rattler and laughed repeatedly. No extrinsic rewards were involved. The strength of the motive depended on the nature of the visual stimulus.

Maslow has suggested that man has a number of primary instinctive motives ranging from lower to higher motives. These are arranged in a hierarchy that corresponds to the assumed evolutionary level of the motive. First, the psychological motives, like hunger, come. Then the safety motives like fear; the love motives, the esteem motives and finally the motive for self-actualization (or self- fulfillment) to reach one's highest potential. The lower the motive the more critical it is for survival and the earlier it appeared in evolution. A higher motive does not appear until the ones below it are all satisfied.[7] 1954, Abraham Maslow, Pg. 112-115

Motivation affects memory. For example, if a person is asked to look at the photographs of faces and later describe them, he will remember them in line with his feelings and attitudes at the time he saw them and at the time he is trying to remember them. Because of this tendency a great deal of the eyewitness testimony given in courtrooms tends to be inaccurate and distorted. Details are forgotten, nonexistent weapons are remembered and the actions of one person attributed to another.

Zeller demonstrated a forceful type of distortion experiment called repression. Showing that an experience of failure threatening self-confidence of a person could interfere with the retention of material learned just before the failure experience. First, he asked a group of college students to memorize a list of nonsense syllables. He gave a meaningless syllable such as MOV and they responded with something like BIV . After they had learned their list perfectly, they were asked to perform a cube-tapping task in which a cube held in the hand must tap out a pattern of four cubes on the desk. Here's where the failure was induced: No matter how well they did, the subjects were told that they had failed and that no one with such poor memory could ever have hopes of getting through college. When the threat of self-confidence was removed, memory returned. The students were asked to return and perform the cube-tapping test in easy stages with success assured. They visually brightened up after this and when tested later for their memory of nonsense [illegible]bles they did as well as they had done at the beginning. Here we can see that motivation and emotion affect what we remember and forget.[8]

A.F. Zeller-1968- pp. 78-81

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Summary

When a student has self-confidence in himself he is ready to learn, to cooperate with others and to behave as a responsible individual. Each student must see himself as liked, wanted, accepted, able and worthy. Acceptance by the group can be the most important factor in helping the child achieve a well adjusted concept of himself. This is motivation within itself. To motivate our students, we as teachers can build confidence and the right kind of self concepts through a warm, freindly classroom atmosphere, individual recognition, discipline that teaches control, emotional stability and spiritual values, love and understanding, and knowing each pupil through his background interests, fears, hopes, joys and dreams.

Remembering what a person believes about himself establishes what he can and will do.

O.

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CREATIVITY IN READING

Lillian S. Bumpus

CREATIVITY IN READING

"Bringing into birth some new reality." (Plato)

Creativity is the drawing on past experiences and the arrangement of these particular experiences into new forms, new ideas or the formation of a new end-product. This definition of creativity will serve as a frame of reference throughout this paper.

Why read creatively? Just the acquisition of information through reading is not enough. Children should find reading exciting and useful in solving problems and coping with stress in their daily lives. The ability to think is limited primarily to one's personal experiences and the uses he makes of them in problem solving, abstracting, generalizations, judgments and decision-making. The creative teacher increases his students' personal experiences through reading. What is read becomes real to him and he can use it. A reader who lacks the skill of reading creatively does not get this experience. Other creative reading skills include getting the truth from what is read, ability to remember what is read in a meaningful way and an attitude toward what is read.

A team of researchers (E.P. Torrence and J.A. Harmon, 1961) conducted a study to determine what happens in creative reading. This study stated two groups of students were given identical reports to read. One group was instructed to read the report critically, the other group was to read the report creatively. At the conclusion of the readings the group with instructions to read the report with a creative attitude performed better in reading the report critically. This group presented new ideas and alternate opportunities to explore that were judged to be more creative than the findings of the group which read critically. (Torrence, 1970, p. 59).

"Encouraging Creativity in the Classroom" by E. Paul Torrence presents an inventory of the kinds of things that teachers can do before, during and after a reading lesson to heighten anticipation and expectation and to encourage the reader to do something with what he reads. This inventory listed below reveals a vast amount of ideas which aid in the facilitation of creative functioning, however some are overlapping:

A. Activities before lesson (Reading)

1. Confrontation with ambiguities and uncertainties precipitated.
2. Anticipation and expectation heightened.
3. Awareness of problem to be solved, difficulty to be faced, gap in information to be filled, etc. heightened.
4. Building onto existing information or skills facilitated.
5. Concern about a problem heightened.
6. Curiosity and wanting to know stimulated.
7. Familiar made strange or strange made familiar by analogy.
8. Freedom from inhibiting sets facilitated.
9. Looking at same material from several different psychological or sociological viewpoints promoted.
10. Provocative questions requiring learner to examine information in a different way and in greater depth asked.
11. Predictions from limited information required.
12. Purposefulness of activity made clear.
13. Assignment structured only enough to give clues and direction.
14. Taking the next step beyond what is known encouraged.
15. Warm-up provided in some way (easy to difficult, familiar to unfamiliar, bodily involvement, etc.).

B. Activities during lesson (Reading)

This is where the unexpected happens to keep the process going.

1. Awareness of problems and difficulties heightened during progress of lesson.
2. Creative and constructive rather than cynical acceptance of limitations in information, skills, etc. facilitated.
3. Creative personality characteristics or predispositions (willingness to attempt the difficult, freedom to conform or nonconform, etc.) encouraged.
4. Creative problem-solving process replicated in stories, accounts of history and invention, etc.
5. Creative processes described, illustrated, and illuminated in stories, historical accounts, etc.
6. Exploration made deliberate and systematic.
7. Incompleteness of information presented.
8. Juxtaposition of apparently irrelevant elements precipitated.
9. Mysteries explored and examined.

10. Open-endedness preserved.
11. Outcomes not completely predictable.
12. Predictions from limited information required.
13. Reading with imagination (to make it sound like the thing is happening) encouraged.
14. Search for truth facilitated by honesty and realism of materials.
15. Skills for finding out identified and encouraged.
16. Surprises heightened and deliberately used.
17. Visualization encouraged.

C. Activities after Lesson (Reading)

This is where opportunities are realized for one thing to lead to another.

1. Ambiguities played with.
2. Awareness of problem, difficulty, gap in information, etc. facilitated.
3. Awareness and acknowledgment by teachers of pupil potentialities based on response.
4. Concern about problem heightened.
5. Constructive response called for (other ways, better ways, etc.)
6. Continuity with previously learned skills, information, etc. facilitated.
7. Constructive rather than cynical acceptance of limitations encouraged.
8. Digging more deeply required, going beyond the obvious.
9. Divergent thinking made legitimate.
10. Elaborating upon what is read encouraged.
11. Elegant solutions (simplest solutions taking into account largest number of variables) encouraged.
12. Emphatic metaphor to give new feeling or understanding of object, person, or state facilitated.
13. Experimentation required.
14. Familiar made strange or strange made familiar by analogy.
15. Fantasies examined to find solutions to realistic problems.
16. Future projection encouraged.
17. Going beyond text materials encouraged.
18. Improbabilities entertained.
19. Irrelevance (apparently) accepted and used.
20. Judgment deferred until pool of ideas has been produced.
21. Knowledge from one field brought to bear on another.
22. Looking at same material from several different viewpoints encouraged.
23. Manipulation of ideas, objects, information encouraged.
24. Multiple hypotheses encouraged.
25. One thing permitted to lead to another.
26. Paradoxes confronted and examined.
27. Play in pushing a fundamental law to its limit encouraged.
28. Possible causes and consequences called for.
29. Provocative questions used.
30. Potentialities discovered and tested.
31. Reorganization of information required.
32. Returning to previously acquired skill, information, etc. to see new relationships encouraged.

33. Self-initiated learning encouraged.
34. Skills for finding out practiced.
35. Synthesis of different and apparently irrelevant elements facilitated.
36. Systematic testing of hypotheses encouraged.
37. Taking next step beyond what is known facilitated.
38. Testing and revision of predictions provided.
39. Transformation and rearrangement of materials encouraged.

(Torrence, 1970, pp. 62-63)

According to E. Paul Torrence creativity has been a persistent and recurrent issue throughout the history of education. The idea of creative ways of teaching has never had an opportunity to prove its value. The nature of creative functioning, the conditions that facilitate and inhibit creative growth and means of rewarding creative achievement are experiences which educational leaders and teachers are constantly struggling to understand. Creative teaching is a special method of teaching. Although it utilizes many of the principles of all good teaching, it is attainable only when the teachers understand the factors which make it different. It is believed that every area of the curriculum can be a tool for developing creativity if certain basic principles are understood and applied. Through creative teaching, a teacher can develop creatively while he is developing basic reading skills. (Smith, 1967, vi).

Listed below are some principles basic to creative teaching which Alex Osburn developed:

1. Something new, different or unique results.
2. Divergent thinking processes are stressed.
3. Motivational tensions are a prerequisite to the creative process.
4. Open-ended situations are utilized.
5. There comes a time when the teacher withdraws and children face the unknown themselves.
6. The outcomes are unpredictable.
7. Conditions are set which make possible preconscious thinking.
8. Students are encouraged to generate and develop their own ideas.
9. Differences, uniqueness, individuality and originality are stressed and rewarded.
10. The process is as important as the product.
11. Certain conditions must be set to permit creativity to appear.
12. It is success--rather than failure-oriented.
13. Provision is made for learning knowledges and skills; but provision is also made to apply these to new, problem-solving situations.

14. Self-initiated learning is encouraged.
15. Skills of constructive criticism and evaluation are developed.
16. Ideas and objects are manipulated and explored.
17. It employs democratic process.
18. Methods are used which are unique to the development of creativity.

(Osburn, 3rd ed., 1963, pp. 69-327)

Reading, when efficient and enjoyable, is an exciting adventure for each child. It never has to be dull, especially is this true provided the teachers understand what reading is and what creative teaching is--and put them all together.

Research reveals many of the skills listed below are developed to a more refined degree by creative children than by noncreative children. Some of the characteristics may be recognized as objectives stated in various teaching manuals. The skills generally taught as part of the reading program are:

1. Visual acuity.
2. The ability to organize.
3. Independence.
4. The ability to redefine.
5. Associational fluency.
6. Expressional fluency.
7. Word fluency.
8. Ideational fluency.
9. The ability to elaborate.
10. Evaluation ability.
11. Sensitivity to problems.
12. Ability to analyze and abstract.
13. Ability to synthesize.
14. Ability to think abstractly.
15. The ability to retain.
16. The ability to identify.
17. The ability to concentrate.
18. The possession of a wide range of information.
19. An openness to experience.
20. High perception ability. (Smith, 1967, p. 58)

If these objectives are added to the principles of creative teaching it is hoped that the process of creative teaching is formed.

Teachers should be made aware of certain pitfalls which defer the creative teaching of reading. Some of these barriers include:

1. Patterns of grouping for reading which do not meet individual needs in children and which often destroy the ego-concept of a child so that he loses his desire to read because reading is associated with unpleasantness.
2. The false belief that reading can be effectively taught in the same method to all children.
3. The slavish dedication that all children can be taught to read in the same manner.
4. Failure to view socio-economic level or racial background of the children in the school when selecting reading materials.
5. The extreme pressure placed on children that they must read due to the recent criticism of the public schools.
6. The lack of understanding on the part of teachers as to the exact place of reading in the school program, as well as a lack of understanding as related to the total reading act.
7. The excessive emphasis placed on reading "periods" rather than emphasis placed on reading as a skill to be used all day.
8. The inability of many schools to keep reading on a personalized level or individualization.
9. The inability to recognize the change in emphasis and need for reading in the space age.
10. The inability for reading programs and textbooks to construct material within the child's range of interest and experience.
11. Some teachers' lack of understanding of the structure of the English language. (Smith, 1967, p. 60)

When a teacher cares enough about each pupil to analyze and make certain the child's known experiences are assembled into new concepts each day, it is at this point that the teaching of reading becomes individualized and creative principles of teaching unite to produce creative reading.

A creative reader often identifies with the author or a character in the story he is reading. Then through the process of imagination the reader can predict what is going to happen next and give some ideas about what could have happened instead. Reproducing literary material imaginatively by oral reading, elaborating on what is read, rearranging and transforming what is read and going beyond what is read provide creative opportunities to do something with what is read. (Torrence, 1970, pp. 60-61).

Reading manuals can be of priceless help in planning creative reading lessons. There are three basic ways to motivate children:

1. Meeting their immediate needs and interests.
2. Appealing context.
3. Technique. (Smith, 1967, p. 62)

Creative teaching could be used in most of the current reading approaches, however, if the approach is taught in the manner their creators intended, creativity would be limited.

Listed below are some of the most common current approaches in the teaching of reading and by each is a statement regarding the possibilities of creativity in that approach, as mentioned by James A. Smith:

1. Phonics approach limits creativity due to its rigid, preconceived program in developing sounds. Creativity is limited in this approach.
2. The language experience approach offers unlimited opportunity for development of creativity.
3. The initial teaching alphabet approach (ita) was relatively new in this country at the time Smith's book was published. Therefore, he withheld judgment on its contribution to creative development. However, this writer talked with a teacher that has used this approach for four years and she expressed the belief that creativity is allowed and she also felt she had executed many of the principles of creative teaching in her classroom.
4. The words in color approach does not distort the traditional spellings and can lead to extensive creative development.
5. The linguistic approach in its early stages limited creativity but recent approaches create an opportunity for creative development.
6. The individualized reading approach has conditions which enhance creativity.
7. The ungraded reading program has as a prerequisite to teaching reading that teachers know their children and their backgrounds. This is not a necessary condition for creative development.
8. Departmentalized reading and ability grouping have drawbacks for creativity due to the preplanned material and the little carry-over into other areas of the curriculum.
9. Grouping within the self-contained classroom has tremendous potential for creative teaching of reading.

RECOMMENDATIONS
FOR
THE TEACHING OF READING CREATIVELY
IN
PRIMARY AND INTERMEDIATE GRADES

1. The teacher should develop an atmosphere which sets conditions for each child to see the need for reading and should read to the children each day.
2. The teacher should be respectful of children's questions.
3. The teacher should be respectful of imaginative and unusual ideas.
4. The teacher should show pupils that their ideas have value.
5. The teacher should provide opportunities for practice or experimentation without evaluation.
6. The teacher should encourage and evaluate self-initiated learning.
7. The teacher should tie in evaluations with causes and consequences.
8. Individual records of reading growth and power should be maintained.
9. A classroom library which provides many books and materials on all levels of reading about many topics.
10. A strong program in children's literature.
11. Continued expanding of vocabulary.
12. Provide opportunities to give new, different and unique results to old circumstances or events.
13. Provide open-ended situations for students should be utilized.

The teacher should remember that creative activities alone are insufficient for producing creative growth. The attitudes and values of the teacher must reward creative behavior.

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Adult Remedial Reading

Dr. Harry Miller
John Sadowski

Adult Remedial Reading

Adult remedial reading is what Hayes, Lighthall, and Lupton term the introductory stage of reading. This introductory stage is developing students' reading skills to the point where they can progress independently. (OTTO and Ford, 1967, p. 43) Adult remedial reading is an integral part of adult basic education which "according to the Standard Terminology for Instruction in Local and State School Systems, adult basic education is defined as:

> Instruction in communicative, computational and social skills for adults whose inability to effectively use these skills substantially impairs their getting or retaining employment commensurate with their real ability, in order to lessen or eliminate such inability, raise their level of education, and enable them to become more productive and responsible citizens. This usually is considered to include instruction for adults whose educational attainment is below the eighth grade level." (R. Cortwright, Edward Brice, 1970, p. 408)

The objectives of such a reading program may include:

1. Stimulation of compelling motives for learning to read.
2. Development of accuracy and independence in word recognition.
3. Assistance in making use of the ideas acquired by clarifying thinking, in acquiring rational attitudes and in solving personal problems.
4. Promotion of the ability to read aloud to others.
5. Broadening of reading interests and establishment of the habit of reading for personal pleasure. (Angelica W. Cass, p. 108-9).

The continuation of the motives which start pupils in reading class is vital because, "Though, such differences (in motives) as there are often taken into account in recruiting, they are almost always forgotten immediately thereafter." Teachers and organizers "have learned that if adults are to be induced to attend, their distinctive motives must be discovered and appealed to." But when class is assembled "then everybody, 'by and large', is set to work at the same tasks, everybody reads the same material, everybody writes the same exercises, regardless of their relationship to compelling motivations." (R. Kotinsky, 1941, pp. 82-3) The primary goal of these objectives of adult remedial reading "is to bring meaning to the printed word for the reader." (Cass, p. 114)

There are five basic teaching principles for the successful adult reading class:

1. Motivation must be sustained
   - The teacher must understand each pupil's motivational basis
   - The early motivation must be maintained throughout the period of instruction
   - Progress should be continuous and short-term
2. Instruction should make use of the learner's strength
   - Teaching must appeal to what the pupil has already achieved
   - Special areas of interest should be covered
   - Students levels of skill development and his ability to progress must be both known and utilized by the teacher
3. Effective instruction is carefully paced, sequential and productive
   - Each student should be helped to start at his appropriate place
   - There should be orderly sequence of skill development at the student's pace
   - Each step should be repeated until mastered
4. Learning tasks and materials should be based upon familiar experiences
   - Past experiences must be utilized
   - Existing knowledge should be appealed to
5. Instruction should be structured to facilitate remembering
   - The features of new learning must be stressed, the differences of new learning will separate it from old knowledge
   - But, students must be able to see relationships (OTTO and Ford, 1967, pp. 163-6)

The utilization of these five basic teaching principles should provide the teacher with a good outline of principles to be followed in adult remedial reading class.

Having good objectives, a goal, and good teaching principles should lay the groundwork for a solid reading program. Now it would also be beneficial to review what are to be considered the factors that affect learning to read;

1. Attitude of the teacher toward the individual. "The attitude of the instructor is very important in a reading improvement program. The participants in the program often feel discouraged with their progress and need the feeling of your confidence (the teacher) and your encouragement". (Selma E. Herr, 1966, p. 1)
2. Individual differences of the adult students
3. Methods of instruction
   1. meet the needs and goals of the learner
   2. use an approach and vocabulary familiar to the learner
   3. insure a degree of immediate success and mastery for him that will provide satisfaction and create confidence in his own ability to learn." (p. 113)
   4. Content and level of materials selected for reading "particularly in adult basic reading. This task (material selection) is crucial to the successful implementation of the instructional program." (OTTO and Ford, 1967, p. 135)
   5. Experience with various types of reading materials.
   6. A good foundation in the techniques of the reading processes.
   7. Continuation of encouragement and assistance as needed. (Cass, p. 112)

The use of wise and prudent judgement in the selection and usage of materials cannot be over-stressed. Otto and Ford have provided us with an adult Education Check List which serves as a guide in assessing materials.

1. Do materials contribute to the widely held feeling that "school is for kids"?
2. Was important informational content being conveyed through the practice selections while reading skills were being learned?
3. How is the new pupil incorporated into the program and at what point in the program sequence does he enter?
4. What is the source of vocabulary that the program introduces?
5. Does the program contain enough practice materials?
6. How is progress assessed?
7. Are other language arts skills taught in conjunction with reading?
8. How does the pupil gain self-reliance and self-respect?
9. What provisions have been made to test the material previous to their being sold?
10. Has the material been published with some consideration for the audience?
11. Are there illustrations that facilitate instruction?
12. Do the manuals describe the program in detail? (OTTO and Ford, 1967, pp. 46-51)

Using this check list, material evaluation and assessment should be possible and should permit the teacher to choose reliable and fitting material for the adult classroom.

The method of teaching is to be encountered next. Whatever method is used it should be learner-centered. The method should be based on the learner's interests, immediate concerns, previous experience, special aptitudes, deficiencies and needs. (Cass, p. 114) Cass' method of instruction relies on her five steps in teaching reading.

1. Diagnose
   -simple objective testing should be used such as, oral word recognition lists.
2. Teach
   -the teaching process should include both homemade and commercial materials
   -a variety of media should be incorporated into the program
3. Reinforce
   -various techniques of reinforcement should be utilized
4. Evaluate
   -evaluate through daily observation
5. Provide for individual differences
   -materials available on a wide range of levels and interests
   -more than one type of material should be made available
   (Cass, pp. 114-5)

These five steps allow for personal differences and allow for each student to progress at his own rate.

Cass also lists concept and skill development in five steps. They are:

1. Word recognition
2. Comprehension
3. Adapting the rate of reading to his individual ability and achievement levels.
4. Adapting the understanding of what is read to his own interests and needs. It should be practical and useful, provide pleasure and relaxation and be of help in emergency or danger.
5. Reading for temporary use (daily news items) or for permanent use (vital information). (Cass, p. 113)

OTTO and Ford have constructed a sequential development of reading skills which is comprised of two major steps.

1. Sight words
   -use experience stories
   -establish good reading habits
   -practice auditory perception
   -establish left-to-right sequence
2. Word analysis
   A. Phonics
   -Principles of phonics program
   1. Provide a great deal of auditory perception
   2. Proceed from whole word to its parts
   3. Be sure sounding is smooth and continuous

Use the 11 phonics principles OTTO and McMenery established in 1966. These 11 principles are concise and allow few exceptions. (OTTO and Ford, 1967, pp. 140-2)

   B. Structural analysis
   -Four areas of structural analysis
   1. Syllabication
   2. Compound words
   3. Inflected forms
   4. Derived forms

Both methods of skill development start with the basic and aim toward the more sophisticated skills. Although different in means each may serve satisfactorily. It would be wise to assess each individual independently to arrive at the system that allows optimum success.

Testing of adult remedial readers should not mean using tests designed for children! Adults have different requirements for tests and should not be subjected to tests not designed expressly for them. Adult tests should:

1. assess strengths and weaknesses of individual students
2. locate materials that meet specific instructional needs
3. provide instruction which uses strength, overcomes weaknesses
4. examine success of desired outcome
5. revise instructional program to reflect new findings(OTTO and Ford, 1967, p. 150)

Informal reading inventories allow the teacher to observe oral and silent reading skills and are recommended for use with adults. They contain materials already in classroom use, prove to be very valid, can sample a wide range of skills, and don't create a negative feeling sometimes associated with formal or standardized tests. (OTTO and Ford, 1967, p. 152) If word lists are found to be needed it is recommended that Mitzel's list of 5,000 words be used. This list is based on research of adult reading materials. This list is based on adult reading needs. (Cass, p. 118) (OTTO and Ford, 1967, p. 44)

Of highest level and closely associated with motivation is the topic of interest in adult reading class. Interest leads people to class and sustains them through class, but a lack of interest will cause students to drop from class attendance. Perhaps this has best been summed-up by Kotinsky. "The adult cannot be compelled to come to school and so must be interested, enticed, even inveighed to come." (Kotinsky, 1941, p. 84)

The adult remedial reading class will sustain itself and be very successful if the layout outlined in this report is used as a guide, but as with any teaching situation this is only a guide and not a strict formula to follow. A good ground work, a good course of endeavor, and a good teacher should make the adult reading class very successful.

Check List to Evaluate Adult Basic Reading Materials

YES NO 1. materials have an adult appearance
YES NO 2. covers mark the owners as illiterates
YES NO 3. contents reflect adult tastes and interests
YES NO 4. contents reflect adult basic education need for acculturation and re-socialization
YES NO 5. presents problems of social maintenance as filling in forms, keeping accounts, making time purchases
YES NO 6. presents citizenship or civic responsibility content
YES NO 7. presents problems of social adjustment
YES NO 8. presents special information such as technical content suitable for specific trades or job descriptions
YES NO 9. suitable for English as a second literate language class
YES NO 10. placement test(s) included in materials
YES NO 11. placement test easily administered
YES NO 12. placement test quickly places individual into materials at appropriate level of difficulty
YES NO 13. materials programmed
YES NO 14. includes practice reading materials
YES NO 15. practice readings are short
YES NO 16. practice reading includes comprehension questions
YES NO 17. failure in program difficult
YES NO 18. sequentially organized skill building
YES NO 19. includes phonic skill training
YES NO 20. includes context skill training
YES NO 21. includes word analysis skills by word form
YES NO 22. includes dictionary skills
YES NO 23. includes other fact locating skills such as reading telephone directories
YES NO 24. includes map or graph reading training
YES NO 25. includes list of vocabulary introduced
YES NO 26. vocabulary list analyzed according to frequency by standard list, i.e., how many taken from list 400, etc.
YES NO 27. vocabulary taken from a standard frequency list such as the Lorge or Mitzel list
YES NO 28. includes teaching manual
YES NO 29. manual includes lesson plans
YES NO 30. manual includes teaching methods
YES NO 31. manual describes organization of material
YES NO 32. provides means for self-evaluation
YES NO 33. self-evaluation is frequent
YES NO 34. self-evaluation is part of learning program
YES NO 35. includes handwriting training and practice
YES NO 36. includes speech training and practice
YES NO 37. pupil works mainly by himself with minimum of teacher help
YES NO 38. group work supports the effort of individual
YES NO 39. materials have been field tested
YES NO 40. population upon which materials tested is described

YES NO 41. results of field testing are reported
YES NO 42. materials have been revised according to results of field testing
YES NO 43. illustrations augment instruction
YES NO 44. illustrations are tasteful
YES NO 45. illustrations are clearly and unambiguously related to text
YE NO 46. materials are durable
YES NO 47. materials are inexpensive
YES NO 48. materials are consumable
YES NO 49. style of type is pleasing
YES NO 50. layout design is pleasing

(Otto and Ford, 1967, p. 52-4)

Adult Remedial Reading

Problem	Solution
Objectives	Formulate a set of objectives that will include: 1. a motivation source 2. word recognition development 3. use of ideas acquired 4. ability to read aloud 5. increase of good reading habits
Motivations	Make a positive use of distinct motives for learning and increase this motivation. Create long term motivations that will last after immediate motives are satisfied.
Goal	A good goal for an adult remedial reading class would to be make each student an independent reader.
Making use of learner's strengths	The teacher must be aware of the level of each student's skill development and his ability to progress. Also the teacher must appeal to the pupil's strengths by allowing him to use them. A wide range of materials may be needed to utilize each student's strong areas.
Instructional pace	In order for each student to achieve the utmost from the reading class it is advised that each student be allowed to progress at his own pace. Learning, evaluation, and re-learning may be what sets the pace for many students. This class is designed for individual achievement at the learner's pace.
Instructor attitude	It is very important in adult education that the instructor have a good attitude toward the students, and that the instructor reinforces the confidence of the students.
Method	The method of instruction used should be one which is designed to be of the highest benefit to the students. The method used should meet the needs of the student, and the approach and vocabulary should be familiar to the student. Also, a degree of immediate pupil success should be insured and a feeling of confidence enstored in the student.

Material Selection	In selecting materials it is suggested that OTTO and Ford's "Check List to Evaluate Adult Basic Reading Materials" be used. This check list brings many important features of materials to light. Although not all of the check list is suitable for all materials it does cover a wide range of materials.
Reading Level	Reading level as used in context with grades based on child achievement is not satisfactorily used with adults. For example, low grade level material for children usually does not contain long, mature sentences because children cannot use or comprehend a sentence structure that is very involved. But according to Ford and OTTO, "sentence length itself is not known to be a restraining factor for adults." Therefore it serves no purpose to stigmatize adults with short, choppy, designed for children sentences.
Interest	Because adults are not compelled to attend school is extremely necessary for the teacher to keep student interest alive. It may be said that using materials which reflect childhood interests is a quick way to lose the interest of an adult group.
Progress assessment	Each pupil's progress should be assessed frequently to reinforce the student of his achievement.
Phonics	It is suggested that OTTO and McMenery: 11 phonics principles be used in the classroom. This group is concise and allows few exceptions.
Standardized Tests	Only designed for adult tests should be used.
Word Lists	It is suggested that Mitzel's list of 5,000 words be used. This list is comprised of words from adult reading materials and is based on adult needs.

Biographical Sketch

MARY CARRINGTON AUSTIN

Professor of Education at University of Hawaii in 1974

Born in Sherrill, New York on June 10, 1915. Age - 59 years.

She received her B.S., M.S., and Ed.D. from Syracuse University. Her areas of contributions have been as:

1. supervisor of the Reading Clinic and instructor at School of Education - Syracuse University
2. Assistant Professor of Education at Western Reserve University
3. Director of U.S. Office Education Title I, Reading Programs Study

Her area of work: Kindergarten and First Grade Reading

Honors:
1. President of Ohio Reading Association - 1951-52.
2. Past President International Reading Association, 1960-61.
3. President, National Conference Research in English, 1966-67. This is just a few of the organizations which she belongs to.

She is best known for her study, The Torch Lighter published in 1961 and from this study came The First R in 1963. This was a study on how much money teachers were allowed to spend in education. In the report also was mentioned, recommendations for teacher preparation at colleges and universities.

She has co-authored:

1. Sheldon Basic Reading Series, 1957
2. Reading Evaluation, 1961
3. The Sound of Poetry, 1963

Hobbies: travel, reading, writing, music, and antiques

Listed in: Who's Who of American Women

Walter Barbe

Walter Barbe was born October 30, 1926 in Miami, Florida. He represents the epitome of perseverance and has a quest for knowledge by the fact that he he received his B.S. from Northwestern University in 1949,

M.A. from Northwestern University in 1950,

Ph.D. from Northwestern University in 1953.

The title of his Ph.D. Dissertation: A Follow-Up Study of the Graduates of Special Classes for Gifted Children.

He served on the Board of Public Instruction at Dade County, Florida in 1946. During 1950-51 he was instructor of Psychology and Director of Reading Clinic at Baylor University at Waco, Texas. From 1951-53 he served as Assistant Professor of Elementary Education at Kent State University. Tennessee was honored with his presence at the University of Chattanooga from 1955-60 as Associate Professor of Education and Director of the Reading Center. While at University of Chattanooga he wrote a book entitled Educator's Guide to Personalized Reading Instruction. This book is available at the John W. Brister Library. The purpose of the book is to acquaint the readers with another method of teaching reading called Personalized Reading Program.

He is the author of many books, including Educating Children with Learning Disabilities, The Exceptional Child, One in a Thousand, Psychology and Education of the Gifted: Selected Readings and Teaching Reading: Selected Materials.

From 1960-64 he served as Head Professor of the Department of Special Education at Kent State University. In 1964 Barbe became editor of a popular children's magazine - Highlights.

He became a licensed psychologist in the state of Tennessee; a member of the Board of Directors of International Council for Improvement of Reading Instruction; a member of American Psychology Association and N.E.A.

Profile of S. Allen Cohen

by

Marie A. Milam

Bachelor of Science - Suffolk University, 1953

Educational Masters - Harvard, 1956

Educational Doctorate - Boston University, 1965

He was an assistant professor of Psychology at New Jersey City State College. He has been a lecturer-educator at Boston University.

He is now Associate Professor of Reading at the Ferkauf Graduate School of Humanities and Social Science at Yeshiva University and is the Director of the Reading Center. The university is located in New York.

He has been a consultant for the Job Corps, the U.S. Office of Education, and he is the Education Editor for Random House Publishers.

He is a member of Phi Delta Kappa.

His main interest is in teaching the disadvantaged to read.

His published books on this subject are numerous. Below is a partial listing:

Teach Them All To Read - theory, methods, and materials for teaching the disadvantaged.

Teaching Reading to Urban Disadvantaged High Schoolers - methods for teaching.

His address is:
172 Everett Place
Englewood, New Jersey 07631

CARL HENRY DELACOTA

Carl Henry Delacota was born September 10, 1923 in Pottstown, Pennsylvania. He is married and three children. He received his B.S. from West Chester State Teacher College in 1945. He received his M.S. in 1948 and his Ed. D. in 1952 from the University of Pennsylvania.

He was assistant headmaster at Chestnut Hill Academy in Philadelphia from 1945 to 1965. He was associate director at Institutes for the Achievement of Human Potential in Philadelphia from 1955-1973. He was chairman of Department of Human Development at the University of Plano in Plano, Texas from 1965-1973.

Delacota has traveled extensively to study the primitive children of Brazil, the Kalahari Desert and around the equator as well as Eskimos and the American Indians of Texas and Arizona.

He has written four books: The Treatment and Prevention of Reading Problems, The Diagnosis and Treatment of Speech and Reading Problems, Neurological Organization and Reading, and New Start for the Child with Reading Problems: A Manual for Parents. In his books, he expresses his belief that the utilization of neuropsychological training seems to be far greater value in helping retarded readers than reading remediation. He believes that man evolves in a set pattern, and if there is any deviation, or skipped steps, then he must be taken back to learn those steps. In his programs, children are taken back through the crawling, creeping, and walking developmental pattern before any work is done on the talking, reading, and writing development.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH OF DR. JO M. STANCHFIELD

by Penny Nielsen Hawkins

Dr. Jo M. Stanchfield is currently professor of education at Occidental College and consultant to the California Reading Institute. Dr. Stanchfield earned both her Masters and Doctoral degrees at the University of California at Los Angeles. She has professionally taught high school, adult education and all levels of elementary school. In 1969-70 Dr. Stanchfield was president of the California Reading Association. In 1964 she was president of Southern California Council of the International Reading Association. Since 1960, Dr. Stanchfield has presented a paper each year at the annual Council of the International Reading Association on such research topics as sex differences in reading interest, motivation and individualized reading. Dr. Stanchfield has written articles for many educational journals.

Dr. Stanchfield developed a series of nine reading books for the first three grades. She developed a program to teach reading readiness skills in kindergarten. In 1970, she co-authored a secondary reading program of 8 books entitled The Action Series. She completed the Holiday Series. A supplemental series for individualized reading in grades 3-6. Dr. Stanchfield is a dynamic conference speaker.

Ramona Hooker

Arthur I. Gates

Dr. Arthur I. Gates was born on September 22, 1890. He died in August of 1972. Dr. Gates was born in Red Wing, Minnesota but moved to Fortuna, California in 1891.

Dr. Gates married Georgina Strickland in 1920. They had two children. Robert Gaylord was born in 1929 and Katherine Blair was born in 1934.

Dr. Gates attended elementary and high school at Fortuna, California. He attended the University of California at Berkeley and earned his B.L. dgree in 1914. He earned his masters from the same university in 1915.. Dr. Gates received his Ph.D. in Psychology in 1917 from Columbia University.

Dr. Gates occupational history is a long one of service to Columbia University in New York. He began as a teaching fellow in 1916 and then became full professor sometime between 1917 and 1956. Dr. Gates became the head of the Department of Educational Research of section D in 1921. He held that position until 1930. In 1933 he became the head of the Department of Educational Research in the Advanced School and held that position until 1942. Dr. Gates was the director of the Division of Foundations of Education from 1948 through 1956. Dr. Gates became professor emeritus in 1956. In 1956 he also became the supervisor of the Institute of Language Arts.

The obituary in the New York Times spoke of Dr. Gates many writings. On that date in August of 1972 the Times noted that Dr. Gates had had over 300 publications published.

Dr. Gates received a ciation from International Reading Association for distingusihed service and other medals from the Phi Delta Kappa in 1964 and from Teachers College, Columbia

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EDUCATION AND EXPERIENCE

Doctorate from Boston University, 1959

Public School teaching: English, Social Studies, Reading; Grades 7-12; 1955-63

University and Inservice teaching: "Reading instruction in content areas."

Supervision: Curriculum Supervisor for English and Reading in secondary schools; 1959-1963

Program Coordinator for Project English Demonstration Center; 1963-1966

Acting Director, Reading and Language Arts Center, Syracuse University; 1970-1971.

PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITIES

Professor: Reading and Language Arts Center, Syracuse University, 1963 -

Director: Public school programs for teaching reading in content areas.

Consultant and Lecturer: Various school districts and university workshops, conferences, and summer institutes.

Director: Experienced Teacher Fellowship Program in Reading at Syracuse University - USOE (1967-68).

Director: Research and Demonstration Centers in Secondary Reading, Syracuse University - USOE (1968-1971).

Director: Commission on Reading National Council of Teachers of English.

Member: Board of Directors, International Reading Association, 1972 -

PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITIES (Cont.)

Co-Editor: Journal of Reading, International Reading Association, 1968-1971.

Member: IRA; NCTE; PDK; NCRE; AAUP; AERA.

SELECTED PUBLICATIONS

Teaching Reading in Content Areas, a college text published by Prentice Hall (1970)

Success With Words, developing a basic vocabulary in the English, Social Studies, Science, and Math for junior high students, published by Scholastic Book Services (1964)

Learning Your Language, an English series for low achievers, published by Follett Educational Corporation (1965, 1967)

GO, a series for teaching reading in Social Studies, Science, Literature, and Math, Grades 4 through 8, published by Scholastic Book Services, 1973

Articles on reading instruction: for example, "Inservice Education: On Whose Time?' The Journal of Reading, November, 1968; "Reading in Content Areas: A District Develops Its Own Personnel," Journal of Reading, May, 1970.

Contributor and editor: Developing Study Skills, International Reading Association, 1966; Research in Teaching Reading in Content Areas: First Year Report, Syracuse University Press, 1969; Research in Teaching Reading in Content Areas: Second Year Report, Syracuse University Press, 1973.

Contributed to and supervised the production of the Syracuse University - Jamesville-Dewitt film series, "Reading Instruction in Secondary Schools," an inservice education course for secondary school teachers, funded by a grant from the U.S. Office of Education. (1963-7)

Authored and produced 10 films and manuals, "Teaching Reading in Content Areas", a series comprising an inservice education course distributed by Norfolk, Virginia School System. (1970)

EDMUND BURKE HUEY

Born: December 1, 1870

Edmund Burke Huey received his A.B. degree from Lafayette College in 1895 and his Ph.D. from Clark University in 1899. His dissertation was on the psychology and physiology of reading.

He spent a year in Europe where he developed interests in the feeble-minded or backward children. After Europe, he returned to the United States and is regarded as the founder of the laboratory of experimental psychology at the University of Western Pennsylvania (now Pittsburgh).

When his book, The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading, came out in 1908, it was said to be the most readable book on reading, and perhaps J.B. Carroll says, may still be.

Huey foreshadowed most of the issues that have been raised in Jeanne Chall's The Great Debate about how reading should be taught.

These are some of the ideas in Huey's book:

1. Don't teach words in isolation. Words are best taught by using them in a context that suggests their meaning.

2. Let the children make records of activities at school and then let them use these activities as "Readers".

3. The child must be taught the effective use of the library.

4. As to reading rate, the children should read as fast as the nature of the matter read and their purpose with it will permit, but without hurry.

5. There should be more practice in silent reading than oral reading.

Huey died in 1913, after withdrawing from further work on the topic on which he had been one of the most creative pioneers---the psychology of reading.

Judy Robertson

Roy Alfred Kress

This noted University Dean was born in Elmira, New York, October 4, 1916. He is the son of Roy Alfred Kress and Alice Elaine (Whitaker) Kress.

He received his B.S. in Education at Rock Haven State College in 1939; his M.A. in Education at Temple University in 1949, and his Ph.D. in 1956.

He married Doris Ethel Parker March 29, 1940 (deceased July, 1969). Three children were born from this marriage. He remarried Eleanor Murphy Ladd, December 4, 1969.

Dr. Kress is known for being an outstanding teacher, supervisor, lecturer, professor of psychology, chairman of the psychology of reading department, and dean of a graduate school. He was a member of the board of the International Reading Association 1964-67, National Council of Research in English 1966-69 and College Reading Association 1971-74.

Dr. Kress is the co-author of several books including A Place To Start (with Marjorie S. Johnson, 1963), Informal Reading Inventories (with M.S. Johnson and J. McNiel, 1965), and is the author of The Read System, revised edition, 1971.

He was on the editorial advisory board of the Reading Research Quarterly, 1965-70; Journal of Learning Disability, 1968- ; The Reading Researcher, 1971 - . Dr. Kress was also on the Advisory Board of ERIC/GRI12, 1969-71.

Dr. Kress is now living at 290 Moreden Road, Meadowbrook, PA 19046.

Source - Who's Who in America

By Wanda Hutton

MORTON JEROME (JERRY) WEISS

From: Who's Who in American Education. Vol. XXII, 1965-66

He was born in Oxford, North Carolina, April 16, 1926 to Max and Fannie (Cohen). He received his B.A. degree from the University of North Carolina in 1949, M.A. and Ed.D. degrees from Teachers College, Columbia University in 1951 and 1952. He married Helen Schwartzbard of Highland Park New Jersey, October 21, 1950. Five children were born named Sharon, Ellen, Frann Lynne, Eileen Beth, and Michael Samuel.

His experiences include being an English Teacher at Chase City High School in Chase City, Virginia from 1949-50; Research Assistant in the Guidance Division of New York City Board of Education from 1951-52; Director of Remedial Reading at Rhodes Preparatory School in New York City from 1952-56; Associate Professor of English and Director of Reading Improvement at Defiance College from 1956-58; Associate Professor of Secondary Education at Pennsylvania State University from 1958-61; Professor of English, Chairman of Department of Special Education and Director of A. Harry Moore Center for Special Education at Jersey City State College from 1961- ; and the summer session of 1951 had an honorary position as a visiting professor at the University of Toledo.

He belongs to many organizations in which a few are International Reading Association, Commission on Lifetime Reading Association, International Reading, National Educational Association, Phi Delta Kappa, Kappa Delta Phi, Phi Lambda Phi, and Lions.

He wrote several books which are Reading in the Secondary School, An English Teacher's Reader, Man and War, Ten Short Plays, Studies in the Mass Media, Guidance through Drama, The Use of Paperback Books, and co-authored A Guide to Play Selection.

His hobbies include theatre, collecting books and amateur drama.

Home address: 131 Gordonhurst Avenue, Upper Montclair, New Jersey.

Terry Lake

Sartain, Harry Wendell, born Becker County Minnesota, April 7, 1920; Married 1943; Children 2; B.S. Benidji State College 1948; M.A. University of Minnesota 1949; Ph.D. (Education) 1957. Elementary teacher grades 1-8, Becker County Schools, Minnesota 1946-47; Elementary Supervisor, Watertown Schools, South Dakota, 1949-52; Instructor of University Minnesota 1952-54; Director of Elementary Education, Roseville District Minnesota, 1954-60; Professor of Education and Director Falk School, University of Pittsburgh, 1960- ; Summers Instructor, Macalester College 1956-58; Marquette University, 1959; Member, International Reading Association (Co-Chairman, Commission Teacher Education); National Council of Teachers of English Elementary; National Social Studies Education; Assistant Supervisor and Curriculum Development; American Education Association; Phi Delta Kappa; Publish: Language Arts for Beginners, 1964; Senior Author English is Our Language, Organizational Patterns of Schools and Classrooms for Reading Instruction, Innovation and Change in Reading Instruction. The Research base for Individualized Reading Instruction, Reading and Realism, International Reading Association Proc. 1969, Interest: Reading; Elementary English Research on Reading Vocabulary. Add: Falk School, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.

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George Daniel Spache

Born: New York, New York, February 22, 1909
B.S.: School of Education of New York University, 1933
M.A.: N.Y.U., 1934
Ph.D.: N.Y.U., 1937
Taught Elementary, Junior High School, and High School from 1930 to 1936, in New York.
School psychologist: 1944-48, Chappaqua, New York
1949-50, Westchester County, New York
Head of the Reading Laboratory and Clinic of the University of Elorida, 1950 to present.
President of the National Association for Remedial Reading, 1954-55.
President of International Reading Association, 1958-59.
President of National Reading Conference, 1961-64.
President of Reading Research Services, 1962.
Association Membership:
- American Psychological Association
- National Council of Teachers of English
- American Educational Research Association
- National Conference on Research in English
- International Reading Association
- American Academy of Optometry

Books authored:
- Resources in Teaching Reading, 1955
- Good Reading for Poor Reading, 1966
- Faster Reading for Business, 1957
- Toward Better Reading, 1963

Books Co-Authored:
- Arts of Efficient Reading, 1966
- Reading in the Elementary School, 1969

Published, Diagnostic Reading Scales in 1963.
Apollo Award for Distinguished Service from the American Academy of Optometry in 1961.
Recognitions:
- Who's Who in: American Education
  - The Southeast
  - The South
  - The Southwest
- American Men of Science

Dissertation topic: An Experiment in Consumer Education
Hobbies: Golf, writing

A BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH
of
RUTH MAY STRANG

She was born in Chatham, New Jersey, on April 3, 1895. She received her B.S. degree from Columbia University in 1922, M.A. in 1924, and Ph.D. in 1926. From 1917 to 1920 she taught in the New York City Public Schools. She was an instructor in Health Education at Teachers College of Columbia from 1924 to 1925. One of her longest held positions was professor of education at Columbia which ran from 1939 to 1960. In 1960 she then became director of the Reading Development Center in the Department of Education of the University of Arizona until 1968. She then became a Sandiford professor at Ontario Institute of Studies in Education until her death in 1971 or 1972.

Some of her writings were:

(1) *Problems in the Improvement of Reading in College and Secondary Schools* in 1938
(2) *Exploration in Reading Patterns* in 1942
(3) *Teenage Tales* from 1952 to 1957
(4) *The Adolescent Views Himself* in 1957
(5) *Making Better Readers* in 1957
(6) *Helping Your Gifted Child* in 1960
(7) *Helping Your Child Improve His Reading* in 1962
(8) *Target: Tomorrow* in 1964
(9) *Diagnostic Teaching of Reading* in 1964
(10) *Helping Your Child Develop His Potentialities* in 1965
(11) *Gateways to Readable Books* in 1966 with Phelps and Withrow

This information taken from *Who's Who in American Education* 1969 and *Who's Who in American Women* 1972-73.

Virginia Bonner

Profile: Dr. Robert Mills Wilson

I had the rare pleasure of interviewing Dr. Wilson during the Reading Conference at Memphis State University the week of June 12, 1974, thanks to Dr. Miller, my instructor!

Dr. Wilson was born March 20, 1929 in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania to Mr. and Mrs. C. B. Wilson. He was married to the former Barbara Stewart of Burnham, Pennsylvania in 1951. They have three children; Richard, James and Sharon. He received his B.S. at California State College in 1950, M.S. at the University Of Pittsburgh in 1956 and his Ed. Doctorate in reading in 1960.

Dr. Wilson is a member of Phi Delta Kappa and the International Reading Association. His Education Doctorate Dissertation was written on " Scholastic Success of Successful Remedial Reading Students. "

He was an elementary teacher at W. Mifflin School from 1954 to 1959 and a private school teacher at Kiski Preparatory School from 1959 to 1960. He was also a Graduate Assistant at the University Of Pittsburgh from 1959 to 1960 and a professor at Edinboro State College in 1960.

Presently, he is the Associate Professor of Education and the Director of the Reading Center at the University Of Maryland at College Park, Maryland.

Dr. Wilson is a very warm and dynamic speaker. As a top authority on Diagnostic and Remedial Reading he has authored many books, namely, (1) *Diagnostic and Remedial Reading for Classroom and Clinic*, (2) *Reading and the Elementary School Child* , (3) Co-Author of *Readings for Diagnostic and Remedial Reading* and (4) Co-Author of *Programmed Word Attack for Teachers.*

The basic emphasis on the Second Edition of Diagnostic and Remedial Reading for Classroom and Clinic is that diagnostic teaching is the first essential for the teacher who desires to be considered accountable. I found many excellent " how to do it " examples and an added chapter on " Diagnostic and Remedial Pre-reading or Readiness Skills " in his book.

We, as Memphis State students are very fortunate to have seen and heard such a remarkable speaker as Dr. Wilson; and the opportunity to read and share his textbooks is wonderful and helpful.

ERIC

PAUL A. WITTY

1898-

Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois

A. M. Columbia-1927, Phd 1931

by

Lois Edwards

Paul A. Witty has made many contributions to American education. He served as a school psycholist in Scarborough 1924, as an associate professor and later professor of education in Kansas (24-30). He later was a professor and director of the Psycho-educational Clinic at Northwestern. He was a member of the summer faculty of Southern California in 1937.

The list of periodicals and books he has written, edited, and served is long. He was editor of "Reading for Interest Series" and "Mental Health in the Classroom." Dr. Witty has had educational appointments to "My Weekly Reader," "Childhood Education," "Journal of Educational Psychology," "Journal Exploring Education," and the "National Parent Teacher."

He served as a Major in the U. S. Army from 1942-44. He received much recognition for the success he had in teaching the soldiers to read.

He has been active in the Association Childhood Education, Council Teachers of English, Education Research Association, and other groups. Dr. Witty's books include: Child Clinical and Education Psychology, Reading and the Educative Process, Mental Hygiene in Modern Education, Helping the Gifted Child, The Teaching of Reading as a Developmental Process, and How to Become a Better Reader.

At the present he is retired. However, when you see a 1972 date of publication on major writings, you wonder if he really is.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Professor Roach Van Allen was born in Lockney, Texas on September 24, 1917. He received his B.A. from West Texas State University in 1938, and his M.A. in 1940. He received his Ed. D. in Elementary Education from the University of Texas in Austin, in 1948. He taught language arts in Spade Public Schools, Texas from 1938- 1939. He taught social studies in Canyon Public Schools, Texas from 1939- 1941. He was at the University Of Texas Lab School from 1947- 1948.

He served as: Director of Elementary Teacher Education at South Methodist University from 1 949- 1953, Director of Division of Instruction in Harlingen Public Schools, Texas from 1953- 1955, Curriculum coordinator, San Diego County, California from 1 955- 1963, consultant for Los Angeles County Schools from, 1957- 197 0, consultant for Montgomery County Schools in Rockville, Maryland from, 1964- 1969.

Roach Van Allen has taught summer sessions at the Universities of Alabama, California and Hawaii. He has taught summer sessions at the University of Arizona since 1963.

He is a member of I.R.A. and A.C.E. In 1970 he became a member of the Board of Directors for the Encyclopedia of Britannica. He is the author of Reading As A Language Experience. He has co-authored: Learning To Read Through Experience, Language Experiences In Reading, and Asking Questions: an essential reading experience.

His home address is: 5151 E. 6th St., Tuscon, Arizona 85719. He married Claryce Whitten in 1943; they have three children, Lynda Kay, Larry Van, and Elva Claryce. He is in Phi Delta Kappa. His Ph.D. dissertation was entitled, " Development and Application of Criteria for Evaluating Elementary Reading Programs in City School Systems." He served in the U.S. Army from 1941- 1946. He has traveled to the Philippine Islands and Mexico.

His hobbies include crafts, landscaping, and music. He has also authored Expanding [illegible] School and Independent Activities for Teaching Reading.

MEMPHIS STATE UNIVERSITY
Reading Center
Curriculum and Supervision in Reading

BASIC READING SKILLS

Grade Levels

(Check (✓) where appropriate)

READING READINESS

	K	1	2	3	4	5	6
Language Development							
Perceives new concepts and words							
Understanding language							
Developing large stock of words							
Appreciation of spoken and written language							
Following direction							
Visual Discrimination							
Reading pictures							
Seeing likes and differences in objects							
Seeing like symbols							
Seeing like parts in words							
Auditory Discrimination							
Hearing gross differences							
Hearing fine differences							
Hearing like beginning sounds							
Hearing like ending sounds							
Discriminating similar sounds							
Hearing like middle sounds							
Visual Motor Development							
Cutting, tracing, drawing, coloring							
Drawing letter and word forms							
Left to Right Progression							

WORD RECOGNITION

	Grade Levels						
	K	1	2	3	4	5	6
Word Identification							
Picture Clues							
Identifying objects in pictures							
Developing and enriching understanding by picture							
Configuration Clues							
Analyzing general shapes and patterns of words							
Comparing identical words							
Identifying and matching words							
Context Clues							
Using experience clues to identify words							
Using experience clues to develop understanding of words							
Knowledge that pronunciation and meaning depend upon other words in sentence or paragraph							
Knowledge of word identity and meaning by inference							
Word Analysis Clues							
Phonetic Analysis							
Differentiating sounds							
Recognizing initial consonant sounds							
Recognizing final consonant sounds							

	Grade Levels						
	K	1	2	3	4	5	6
Recognizing variable consonant sounds: Hard C: Soft C Hard G: Soft G							
Recognizing consonant blends (nt, ed br, dr, fr, gr, str, gl, spe, pe, cl, cr, st)							
Recognizing initial consonant diagraphs (ch, th, sh, ph)							
Recognizing variations in vowel sounds (oo) (ee) (ow)							
Recognizing vowel combinations (ai, ae, ei, ew, ow)							
Recognizing long and short vowel sounds							
Recognizing long vowel in final 'e' words							
izing the variable vowel when preceding 'R' or 'L'							
Recognizing Y and W as a vowel							
Developing use of vowel generalizations 1. final 'e' principle 2. vowel at end of syllable °. or word principle 3. two vowels together principle							
Structural Analysis							
Recognizing varied inflectional endings: s, ed, ing							

	Grade Levels						
	K	1	2	3	4	5	6
Recognizing possessives							
Recognizing compound words made of two familiar words							
Recognizing contractions word + not = 'nt word + is + 's							
Recognizing comparatives small, smaller, smallest							
Understanding the principle for inflectional endings 1. drop final 'e' to add ending 2. drop final 'e' to add 'er' or 'ed' 3. change F to V for adding 'es'							
Understanding the number of syllables in a word by counting the sounded vowels							
Recognizing the number of syllables in . discriminating auditorally							
Recognizing word roots							
Recognizing word root and pre-fix							
Recognizing stress (accent) on many syllable words.							
Understanding syllabication generalizations 1. words usually separate into syllables between double consonants							
2. a single consonant between two vowels usually goes with the second vowel							

	Grade Levels						
	K	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. 'le' ending on words usually take the preceding consonant to form the final syllable							
4. blends, diagraphs, pre-fixes and suffixes are usually never broken							
Dictionary							
Appreciation of organization of materials							
Understanding of the value of words							
Knowledge of alphabetical order of words							
Knowledge of index, guide words, pronunciation, key							
Ability to syllabify and pronounce word entries							
Ability to select from many meanings the proper understanding							
Ability to note etymology of word entry							
Vocabulary							
Word Understanding							
Precise meaning for words							
Knowledge of word roots							
Understanding of pre-fixes							
Understanding of suffixes							
COMPREHENSION							
Interpretive Comprehension							
Phrase comprehension							
Sentence comprehension							
Gathering facts							
Identifying characters							
Putting ideas in sequence							
Developing related facts							

	Grade Levels						
	K	1	2	3	4	5	6
Reading for immediate recall							
Locating significant details							
Reading to follow directions							
Expanding concepts from words							
Locating words of description and words of action							
Locating the speaker in discourse							
Critical Comprehension							
Drawing an inference							
Reading beyond the printed word							
Understanding relationships							
Locating absurdities							
Developing logical reasoning							
Making generalizations							
Interpreting riddles							
Interpreting feelings							
Predicting an outcome							
Seeing associations							
Developing sensory images							
Separating fact from opinion							
Interpreting author's purpose							
Rate of Comprehension							
Skimming							
Scanning							
Developing an effective silent reading rate							
Reading in Content Subject Areas							
Mathematics							
Science							
Social Studies							

SUGGESTED FOR PROFESSIONAL LIBRARY

([illegible])

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

American Childhood Education International Publications

American Educational Research Journal

Childhood Education

Ebony, Jr.

Education Digest

Educational TV Guide

Elementary English

Elementary School Journal, The

English Journal

Journal of Educational Research

Exceptional Children

Grade Teacher, The

Highlights

Humpty Dumpty

Instructor, The

IRA Annual

Jack and Jill

Journal for Disadvantaged Readings

Journal of Educational Research

Journal of Learning Disabilities

Journal of Negro Education

Journal of Reading

Journal of Reading Behavior

Learning

National Education Association Journal (Today's Education)

Newsweek

[illegible]

[illegible] Special and [illegible] Child[illegible]

Phi Delta Kappan

Reading [illegible]

Reading [illegible]

Reading [illegible]

Reading [illegible]

Reading World

[illegible] Reading [illegible]

[illegible] (IRA Journal)

[illegible]

[illegible] Steps to Reading by [illegible]

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[illegible]

Dictionary of Education

Effective Teaching of Readers
by Harris & Sipay

Foundations of Reading Instruction, Betts

Good Books for Disadvantaged Readers, Spache

Good Books for Poor Readers, Spache

P.S. You're not Listening

Roget's Thesaurus

OTHER MATERIALS

Audio-Visual Presentations of Conferences in Area

Catalogue for Listening Aids

Catalogue for Professional Films (Wisconsin)

Directory of Field Trip Opportunities

Directory of Resource Personnel (trips, hobbies, [illegible], publications)

File on classroom activities

File on directions for new personnel

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Recommended Books for Disadvantaged Readers

1. Black American

Epstein, Sam and Beryl, George Washington Carver: Negro Scientist. Champaign: Garrard, 1960. R.L. [illegible] Good for introducing biography in the lower grades or for slow readers in the upper grades.

Keats, Ezra J., John Henry: An American Legend. New York: Pantheon, 1965. R.L. 3-4. Story of a favorite folk hero.

Patterson, Lillie, Booker T. Washington: Leader of His People. Champaign: Garrard, 1962. R.L. 3.0. Biography of the Negro leader and educator.

Patterson, Lillie, Frederick Douglass: Freedom Fighter. Champaign: Garrard, 1965. R.L. [illegible] Biography of an American Negro who devoted his life to fighting slavery.

Bontemps, Arna, The Story of the Negro. New York: Knopf, 1958. R.L. 5-6. Through the contributions of many Negro leaders, the author presents a brief history of the Negro in America.

Durham, Philip and Jones, Everett L., The Adventures of the Negro Cowboys. New York: Dodd, 1965. R. L. 3-4. Adapted from the adult book.

Epstein, Sam and Beryl, Harriet Tubman: Guide to Freedom. Champaign: Garrard, 1968. R.L. 4.0. A prominent Negro figure in the Underground Railroad.

Felton, Harold W., Jim Beckworth: Negro Mountain Man. New York: Dodd, 196 . R.L. 5-6. Account of an extraordinary man and his stories.

Finlayson, Ann, Decathlon Men: Greatest Athletes in the World. Champaign: Garrard, 1966. R.L. 4.0. Stories of the greatest of the Olympic Athletes.

Graham, Shirley, Booker T. Washington. New York: Messner, 1966. R.L. 5.9. Biography of the Negro educator.

Hughes, Langston, The First Book of Negroes. New York: Watts, 1952. R.L. 4-5. In a fictional manner, the author provides historical data concerning the accomplishments of several famous American Negroes.

Meadowcroft, Enid L., By Secret Railway. New York: Crowell, 1948. R.L. 5-6. Jim, a freed slave, is kidnapped by slave traders. The story depicts the warm friendship of two fifteen-year-old boys.

Millender, Dharathula H., Crispus Attucks, Boy of Valor. Indianapolis: Bobbs, 1965. R.L. 4.5. Story of a Negro hero in Revolutionary times.

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[illegible] [illegible] of the [illegible] blues [illegible].

Rollins, Charlemae H., They Showed the Way. New York: Crowell, 1964. R.L. [illegible] [illegible] who triumphed over great obstacles and achieved success in various fields.

Spangler, Earl, The Negro in America. [illegible] [illegible], [illegible] R.L. [illegible] A brief history of the Negro in America.

Sterling, Dorothy and Quarles, B., Lift Every Voice. New York: Doubleday. (Paperback). R.L. 5-. Biographies of four outstanding Negroes.

Adams, Russell L., Great Negroes Past and Present. Chicago: Afro-American, 1964. R.L. [illegible] Brief biographies of 170 outstanding Negroes.

Keats, Ezra J., Whistle for Willie. New York: Viking, 1964. R.L. 2.8. Willie, a little Negro boy, tries to learn to whistle.

Keats, Ezra J., The Snowy Day. New York: Viking, 1962. R.L. 3.1. Peter a Negro boy enjoys the excitement of snow.

Lexau, Joan M. Benjie. New York: Dial, 1964. R.L. 3-4. Benjie tries to find his grandmother's earrings.

Martin, Patricia M. The Little Brown Hen. New York: Crowell, 1960. R.L. 3-4. An easy to read story about Willie and how he finds his lost hen.

Young, Margaret B., The Picture Life of Martin Luther King, Jr. New York: Watts, 1968. R.L. 2-3. Told in pictures and simple text.

Beattie, Jessie L., Black Moses: The Real Uncle Tom. Toronto: Ryerson, 1957. R.L. 5-6. Story of a slave who escaped to Canada and founded a Negro refugee colony in Ontario.

Bontemps, Arna, Sad Faced Boy. Boston: Houghton, 1937. R.L. 4. Three small Negro boys from Alabama visit New York.

Brodsky, Mimi, House at 12 Rose Street. New York: Abelard, 1966. R.L. 4-5. Two boys, one white and one black, bring harmony to the neighborhood.

Clayton, Ed., Martin Luther King: the Peaceful Warrior. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1964. R.L. 4-5. An official biography of this martyred civil rights leader.

Cobb, Alice, The Swimming Pool. New York: Friendship, 1957. R.L. 4-5. Preston is not allowed to use the new swimming pool; but, with the help of his friends raises money for one in his part of town.

Freeman, Don, Corduroy. New York: Viking, 1968. R.L. 4.0. This is the story of a toy bear that no one wanted. He was finally bought by a little Negro girl.

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Gould, Jean, That Dunbar Boy. New York: Dodd, 1958. R.L. 5-6. Biography of the great Negro poet.

Lenski, Lois. Mama Hattie's Girl. Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1953. R.L. 4-5. Lula Bell goes north with her mother, to meet the joys and prejudices of a new life.

Miles, Miska, Mississippi Possum. Boston: Little Brown, 1965. R.L. 5-6. A Negro family took refuge at the top of a hill during a flood in the lower Mississippi. Among the evacuees was a shy, frightened possum who was befriended by the two children of the family.

Palmer, Candida, Snow Storm Before Christmas. Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1965. R.L. 4-5. Two Negro brothers are caught in a snowstorm which nearly ruins their presents and the holiday.

Robinson, John R. and Duckett, Alfred. Breakthrough to the Big League: The Story of Jackie Robinson, New York: Harper, 1965. R.L. 6-7. Biography of Jackie's childhood and early manhood.

Robinson, Louie, Arthur Ashe Tennis Champion. New York: Doubleday, 1967. R.L. 4.6. Biography of the tennis champion.

Schoor, Gene, Roy Campanella. New York: Putnam, 1959. R.L. 4.9. Story of the baseball figure.

Schoor, Gene. Willie Mays. New York: Putnam, 1960. R.L. 5.2. Tells story of Willie Mays' career in baseball.

Sullivan, George. The Cassius Clay Story. New York: Fleet, 1964. R.L. 6-7. The colorful career of the famous heavyweight fighter.

Weik, Mary H., The Jazz Man. New York: Atheneum, 1966. R.L. 5-6. Music and courage give hope to a crippled Negro boy who lives in poverty and deprivation.

II. American Indian

Anderson, A.M., Squanto and the Pilgrims. New York: Harper. R.L. 2.6. The story of the first interracial friendship in the New World.

Chandler, Edna W. Juanito Makes a Drum. Chicago: Benefic, 1961. R.L. 1-2. Story of a Pueblo Indian boy who makes a drum for the rain dance.

Graff, Stewart and Polly A., Squanto: Indian Adventurer. Champaign: Garrard, 1965. R.L. 3.0. Another semi-historical story of Squanto, friend of the Pilgrims.

Meadowcroft, Enid L., Crazy Horse: Sioux Warrior. Champaign: Garrard, 1965. R.L. 3.0. Biography of the great Sioux war chief.

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[illegible]

[illegible] R.L. [illegible]

Butler, [illegible] New York: [illegible] R.L. 6.7. [illegible]

Baldwin, Gordon C., America's Buried Past. New York: Putnam, 1962. R.L. 5.5. [illegible]

Baldwin, Gordon C., How Indians Really Lived. New York: Putnam, 1967. R.L. 5.2. [illegible]

Buff, Mary and Conrad, Hah-Nee of the Cliff Dwellers. Boston: Houghton, 1956. R.L. 4-5. The tribe is forced to leave its home site during a great drought.

Chafetz, Henry, Thunderbird and Other Stories. New York: Pantheon, 1964. R.L. 5-6. American Indian explanations of thunder and lightning, evil and the use of the peace pipe.

Colver, Anne, Bread-and-Butter Indian. New York: Holt, 1964. R.L. 4-5. Barbara makes friends with a hungry Indian and learns the difference between friends and enemies

Cooper, James F., The Last of the Mohicans. Chicago: Scott, Foresman, 1950. R.L. 4.5. Adapted version of the classic.

Famous Indians--A Collection of Short Biographies. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, R.L. 5-6. Vignettes of historical chiefs and other American Indians.

Lenski, Lois. Indian Captive. Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1941. R.L. 4-5. True story of Mary Jemison who chose to remain with the Indians who had captured her

Martin, Patricia, Pocahontas. New York: Putnam, 1964. R.L. 4.4. Story of an Indian princess who was courted by an Englishman.

Oberreich, Robert, The Blood Red Belt. New York: Doubleday, 1961. R.L. 4. Peter and a friendly Iroquois boy outwit dangerous spies.

Scheele, William E., The Mound Builders. Cleveland: World, 1960. R.L. 6.6. Semi-historical account of the Mound Builders of the Ohio Valley.

Schoor, Gene, The Jim Thorpe Story. New York: Messner, 1965. R.L. 5.3. Biography of Thorpe, one of America's greatest athletes.

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Stevenson, Augusta, Sitting Bull: Dakota Boy. Indianapolis: Bobbs, 1960. R.L. 4.2. Biography of the great Sioux chieftain.

Stevenson, Augusta, Tecumseh. Indianapolis: Bobbs, 1962. R.L. 4.2. Childhood [illegible] of [illegible] Tecumseh, leader of the Shawnee against the encroachment of the white man.

Van Riper, Guernsey, Jr., Jim Thorpe. Indianapolis: Bobbs, 1961. R.L. 5.0. Biography of the greatest athlete America has probably ever produced.

[illegible], The Adventures of [illegible]. Champaign: Garrard, 1969. R.L. 4.6. A famous Indian figure.

[illegible], [illegible]. Chicago: Follett, 1960. R.L. 5.3. [illegible] frontier life, a fictional account.

Wyatt, Edgar, Geronimo: The Last Apache War Chief. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1952. R.L. 5-6. A biography of the great chief, with many line drawings by his great-grandson.

Benchley, N., Red Fox and His Canoe. New York: Harper. R.L. 1.5. Red Fox's canoe is large enough for him but not for the bears, otters, raccoons and [illegible] that join him.

Farquhar, Margaret C., Indian Children of America. New York: Holt, 1964. R.L. 2.9. Family life in various North American Indian tribes.

Friskey, Margaret, Indian Two Feet and His Eagle Feather. Chicago: Childrens Press. 1967. R.L. 3.1. See also Indian Two Feet and His Horse by the same author.

Harvey, Lois, Toyanuki's Rabbit. Chicago: Melmont, 1964. R.L. 2.9. Simple story of a North American Indian boy.

Allen, T.D., Tall as Great Standing Rock. Philadephia: Westminster Press, 1963. R.L. 5-6. Conflict between the Navajo and the white man is eventually resolved for the central boy character.

Bleeker, Sonia, The Navajo. New York: Morrow, 1964. R.L. 5.2.

Bothwell, Jean, The Silver Mango Tree. New York: Harcourt, 1960. R.L. 5-7. Indian family life.

Clark, Ann N., In My Mother's House. New York: Viking, 1941. R.L. 4.6. Life in a pueblo.

Hoffine, Lyla, Jennie's Mandan Bowl. New York: McKay, 1960. R.L. 4-5. Jennie is ashamed of her Indian ancestry until she appreciates the values of her people. See also Running Elk and Carol Blue Wing by this author.

Hooker, Forester C. Star: The Story of an Indian Pony. New York: Doubleday, 1964. R.L. 6.4. Indian life as viewed by a pony.

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[illegible], [illegible]. [illegible]. New York: [illegible], [illegible]. R.L. [illegible]. [illegible] to run.

[illegible], [illegible] and [illegible]. [illegible] Boy. San Francisco: Field, 1967. R.L. [illegible]. Story of American Indian boy written to portray the contribution of [illegible] to America.

Sandoz, Mari, [illegible]. Philadelphia: Westminster, 1963. R.L. 6-7. [illegible] attempts to record the story of his people, the Plains Indians.

Smucker, Barbara, Wigwam in the City. New York: Dutton, 1966. R.L. 4-5. Problems of an Indian girl who moves to Chicago.

Sutton, F., The [illegible] Wonder Book of North American Indians. New York: Grosset, 1967. R.L. 6-7. Pictures, drawings and text give broad background on the American Indian.

Thompson, Hildegard, Getting to Know American Indians Today. Chicago: Follett, 5-8. Informational material on present-day Indians.

Waltrip, Lela and Rufus, Quiet Boy. New York: McKay, 1961. R.L. 5-6. Conflict between the Indian and white cultures as seen through the eyes of a twelve-year-old Navajo boy.

Warren, Mary P., Walk in My Moccasins. Philadelphia: Westminster, 1966. R.L. 5-6. A young Sioux girl, adopted by whites, finds understanding and friendships.

III. Eskimo

Beim, L. L., Little Igloo. New York: Harcourt, 1941. R.L. 3-4. A simple Artic story.

Bonsall, Crosby, What Spot? New York: Harper, 1963. R. L. 2-3. An Artic story. An easy to read story for the beginner.

Copeland, Donald M., True Book of Little Eskimos. Chicago: Childrens, 1953 R.L. 2.9. Informational materials on Eskimo life.

Crisp, William, Ook-Pik. Toronto: Dent, 1952. R.L. 4-5. Simple story of an Eskimo boy.

Hermanns, Ralph, Children of the North Pole. New York: Harcourt, 1964. R.L. 5-6. A boy and a girl try to take the place of their injured father, and to secure food for their family.

Jenness, Aylette. Gussuk Boy. Chicago: Follett, 1967. R.L. 4.7. Boy story of adventure in Alaska.

Machetanz, Sara. Puppy Named Gih. New York: Scribner, 1957. R.L. 4-5. Children and puppies are much the same anywhere in the world.

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[illegible] New York: Viking, [illegible]. R.L. [illegible]

[illegible] New York: [illegible] 1957. [illegible] the people. [illegible] love and understanding [illegible] for the [illegible]

[illegible] New York: Doubleday, 1958. R.L. [illegible]

[illegible] Chicago: [illegible], 1956. R.L. 4.[illegible] [illegible] their grandparents and learn more about the customs of their homeland.

[illegible] New York: Coward, 19[illegible]. R.L. 5.[illegible] Factual material on Japan.

Joy, Charles R., Getting to Know the Two Chinas. New York: Coward, 1960. R.L 5.0. It tells about the people, land, economy, and life in China today.

Lattimore, Eleanor F., Chinese Daughter. New York: Morrow, 1960. R.L. 5-6. Chinese family life.

Masters, Robert V., Japan--in Pictures. New York: Sterling, 1966 R.L. 6.4. A pictorial geography of Japan.

Mears, Helen, First Book of Japan. New York: Watts, 1953. R.L. 4.9. Factual material on Japan's history and geography.

Piggott, Juliet, Japanese Fairy Tales. Chicago: Follett, 1967. R.L. 5.3. Favorite fairy tales from Japan.

Rambeau, John and Nancy, China Boy. San Francisco: Field. R.L. 4.3. Story of a Chinese boy, written to portray the contributions of his group to America.

Sherer, Mary H., Ho Fills the Rice Barrel. Chicago: Follett, 1957. R.L. 5.2. A fictional story of family life in China.

Toland, John. The Flying Tigers. New York: Random, 1963. R.L. 5.3. Biography of General Chennault and his immortal Flying Tigers of World War II.

Uchida, Yoshiko, Sumi's Special Happening. New York: Scribner, 1966. R.L. 4-5. A little girl helps the village's oldest man celebrate his birthday.

Yashima, Taro, Crow Boy. New York: Viking, 1955. R.L. 4.5. Story of a shy young Japanese boy who was ignored by his classmates until they found out he had much to share with them.

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Lenski, Lois, Papa Small. New York: Walck, 1951. R.L. 2-3. Daddy's daily activities in and about the home.

Lenski, Lois, Policeman Small. New York: Walck, 1962. R.L. 2.3. The work of the city policeman.

Lenski, Lois, We Live in the City. Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1954. R.L. 3-4. A city [illegible] outlook on life and people.

Lexau, Joan, I Should Have Stayed in Bed. New York: Harper, 1965. R.L. 1-2. A small boy's misadventures on a school day.

Miles, Betty, A House for Everyone. New York: Knopf, 1958. R.L. 2-3. All different kinds of houses.

Scott, Ann H., Sam. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967. R.L. 3-4. Sam thinks his family is too busy to care about him.

[illegible], George. The Steam Shovel That Wouldn't Eat Dirt. New York: Dutton, 1956. R.L. 3.5. Picture-story of a misbehaving steam shovel.

Wright, Betty R., I Want to Read! Chicago: Whitman, 1965. R.L. 3.0. Semi-picture book for the beginning reader.

Bacmeister, Rhoda W., The People Downstairs. New York: Coward, 1964. R.L. 5.3. Stories about city children.

Chandler, Edna W., The Boy Who Made Faces. Chicago: Whitman, 1964. R.L. 5.4. A slight story about peer relationship among city children.

Coles, Robert, Dead End School. Boston: Little, 1968. R.L. 4-5. Life in a ghetto school.

Ets, Marie H., Bad Boy: Good Boy. New York: Crowell, 1967. R.L. 3-4. Problems of an immigrant family.

Friedman, Frieda, The Janitor's Girl. New York: Morrow, 1956. R.L. 4.5. She is snubbed because she is the "janitor's daughter."

Hays, Wilma P., The Pup Who Became a Police Dog. Boston: Little, 1963. R.L. 4.6. Story of the training of a police dog.

Lenski, Lois, High-Rise Secret. Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1966. R.L. 4-5. Problems of children in a low-income housing project.

Merrill, Jean, The Pushcart War. New York: Scott, 1964. R.L. 4-5. A witty fictional story of the fight between the truckers and the pushcarts in the crowded streets of New York.

Stolz, Mary, The Bully of Barkham Street, New York: Harper, 1963. R.L. 4-5 Story of a boy who overeats and bullies in retaliation for his parents' lack of interest in him.

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Taylor, Sydney, All-of-a-Kind Family. Chicago. Follett, 1951. R.L. 4.7. Life of an East Side Jewish family.

Wilson, Penelope C., [illegible]. Chicago: Reilly, 1964. R.L. 4-5. A pony in a city backyard causes some problems.

V. Mexican-American & Hispanos

Amescua, Carol Conner, adapted by, The Story of Pablo Mexican Boy. Chicago: Encyclopaedia Britannica, 1962. R.L. 3.7. Mexican family life.

Bell-Zano, Gina, Presents for Johnny Jerome. Boston, Ginn, 1965. R.L. 3-4. Pedro brings his uncle's guitar to the birthday party.

Bemelmans, Ludwig, Quito Express. New York: Viking, 1965. R.L. 2-3. Pedro who can say only one word, "Dadadada" takes a trip on the Quito Express.

Bulla, Clyde R., Benito. New York: Crowell, 1962. R.L. 3-4. Benito stands up against his uncle to demand his right to go to school.

Clark, Ann N., Tia Maria's Garden. New York: Viking, 1963. R.L. 3-4. A little boy and his aunt discover beauty in a desert.

Ormsby, Virginia H., What's Wrong with Julio? Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1956. R.L. 2-3. Julio wouldn't talk in either English or Spanish.

Ormsby, Virginia H., Twenty-one Children. Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1957. R.L. 5-6. Emalina can't speak English, but the class finds it fun to teach her, while she teaches them Spanish.

Politi, Leo, Rosa. New York: Scribner, 1963. R.L. 3.2. Rosa finally achieves her long-desired doll.

Prieto, Mariana B., A Kite for Carlos. New York: John Day, 1966. R.L. 3-4. Story is told in both English and Spanish.

Shannon, Terry, A Playmate for Puna. Chicago: Melmont, 1963. R.L. 2.5. Puna, a Mexican Indian child, seeks a playmate.

Storm, Dan, Picture Tales from Mexico. Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1941. R.L. 3-4. Short stories about "Senor Coyote" and other animals.

We Say Happy Birthday. New York: Funk, 1967. Parallel Spanish and English simple texts.

When We Go to School. New York: Funk, 1967. Parallel Spanish and English texts introduce the young student to another language.

Bulosan, Carlos, America Is in the Heart. New York: Harcourt, 1946. R.L. 5-6. Filipino emigrants experience discrimination on the west coast.

Clark, Ann [illegible]. [illegible] Farrar, 196[illegible]. R.L. 4-5. [illegible] in New Mexico.

Davey, Frank and Johnston, Anita, [illegible]. Philadelphia: Westminster, 196[illegible]. R.L. 4-5. [illegible]

Dolch, Edward, Stories from Mexico. Champaign: Garrard, 1960. R.L. 4.2. Folk stories that help children understand Mexican people and their ways.

Epstein, S. and Williams, B., The First Book of Mexico. New: Watts, 1967. R.L. 5-6. Informational material.

Garthwaite, Marion, Mario: A Mexican Boy's Adventure. New York: Doubleday, 1960. R.L. [illegible] Left alone by his mother's illness, Mario is smuggled into California and into trouble as a wetback.

Hader, B. T. and Elmer. Story of Pancho and the Bull with the Crooked Tail. New York: Macmillan, 1942. R.L. 4-5. Fantasy story set in Mexico.

Hoff, Carol, Chris. Chicago: Follett. 1969. R.L. 4.3. Because Chris's father, an oil driller moves frequently, Chris attends many schools: how Chris eventually solves his problem.

Krumgold, Joseph, And Now Miguel. New York: Crowell, 1953. R.L. 4.6. Miguel tries to take his place with the sheep herders.

Lenski, Lois, Cotton in My Sack. Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1949. (Paperback) R.L. 5-6. Joanda's family become tenant farmers but find it very difficult to solve their money problem.

Phillips, Eula M. Chucho--The Boy With the Good Name. Chicago: Follett, 1957. R.L. 4.5. Home life and customs of the Mexican family.

Politi, Leo, Song of the Swallows. New York: Scribner. 1949. R.L. 4.5. A Spanish boy learns to love the swallows that return yearly to the mission.

Rambeau, John and Nancy, The Magic Door. San Francisco: Harr Wagner. R.L. 4.5. Depicts the problems of growing up for an only girl in a ranchero family.

Robinson, Benelle H., Citizen Pablo. New York: John Day, 1967. R.L. 5-6. The efforts of a poor Mexican family to find a better way of life.

Sawyer, Ruth, The Year of the Christmas Dragon. New York: Viking, 1960. R.L. 4-5. Fantasy story of Pepe and the dragon who save the Christmas fiesta.

Shotwell, Louisa R., Roosevelt Grady. Cleveland: World, 1963. (Paperback) R.L. 4-5. A migrant worker family's hard life.

Snyder, Zilpha K., The Velvet Room. New York: Atheneum, 1965. R.L. 4-5. Robin's migrant family has a hard life in the depression of the 30's.

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Tarshis, Elizabeth K., The Village That Learned to Read. Boston: Houghton, 1941. R.L. 4-5. Once it got started, the entire community wanted to learn to read.

Waltrip, Lela and Rufus, White Harvest. New York: McKay, 1960. R.L. 4-5. Sarah, daughter of a migrant worker, longs to stay in one school long enough to make friends.

VI. Orientals

Bishop, Claire H., The Five Chinese Brothers. New York: Coward, 1938. R.L. 3.4. A well loved Chinese folktale.

Buell, Hal, Festivals of Japan. New York: Dodd, 1965. R.L. 4-5. Beautifully illustrated, with simple text.

Cloutier, Helen, The Many Names of Lee Lu. Chicago: Whitman, 1960. R.L. 3.6. A simple story of Lee and his names and nicknames.

Dolch, Edward, Stories from Japan. Champaign: Garrard, 1960. R.L. 3.1. Simple Japanese folktales.

Flack, Marjorie and Wiese, Kurt, The Story About Ping. New York: Viking 1933. R.L. 3.8. Story of a Chinese duck who fishes for his master.

Headland, I. T., Chinese Nursery Rhymes. Old Tappan: Revell, 1967.

Politi, Leo, Moy Moy. New York: Scribner, 1960. R.L. 2-3. Moy Moy enjoys the Chinese New Year celebration in Los Angeles.

Wyndham, R., Chinese Mother Goose Rhymes. Cleveland: World, 1968.

Yolen, Jane, The Emperor and the Kite. Cleveland: World, 1967. R.L. 3-4. An heroic little Chinese girl rescues her father from evil men.

Appel Benjamin, Why the Chinese Are the Way They Are. Boston: Little, 1968 R.L. 6-7. A social and political history of China.

Buck, Pearl S., The Big Wave. New York: Day, 1948. R.L. 4-5. Adventure in Japan.

Buck, Pearl S., The Good Earth. New York: Grosset, 1931. R.L. 6.5. Adult fiction laid in China.

Caldwell, John C. and Elsie, Our Neighbors in Japan. New York: John Day, 1960. R.L. 4.1. An introduction to the Japanese way of life.

Cavanna, Betty, Jenny Kimura. New York: Morrow, 1964. R.L. 6-7. Jenny visits her grandmother in America.

Darbois, Dominique, Kai Ming, Boy of Hong Kong. Chicago: Follett, 1960. R.L. 4.7. The life of people in Hong Kong who live on the junks.

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O'Neill, Hester, Picture Story of Alaska. New York: McKay, 1951. R.L. 4-[illegible]. Simple history and geography aided by many pictures.

[illegible]. [illegible] and the Reindeer. Champaign: Garrard, 1962. R. L. 2.5. Family life of the Eskimos.

[illegible], Dorothy I., [illegible] in Alaska. New York: Holt, 1962. R.L. 3-4. A simple introduction to the history of Alaska, and its flora and fauna. Good illustrations.

Tolboom, Wanda, Little Eskimo Hunter. New York: Longmans, 1956. R.L. 3-4 Simple story of Eskimo life.

Tolboom, Wanda, Tosie of the Far North: An Eskimo Story. New York: Aladdin, 1954. R.L. 4-5. Daily life of an Eskimo child.

IV. Inner City

Appell, Clara and Morey, Glenn Learns to Read. Des Moines: Duell, 1964. R.L. 2-3. A reassuring story for young people struggling to learn to read.

Beim, Jerrold, The Smallest Boy in the Class. New York: Morrow, 1949. R. L 3.5. Jim was the smallest, but the noisiest and busiest.

Belmont, Evelyn, Playground Fun. Chicago: Melmont, 1955. R.L. 1.9. Playground fun at an easy to read level.

Burchardt, Nellie, Project Cat. New York: Watts, 1966. R.L. 3-4. Betsy finally convinces the officials of the housing project that she should be allowed to keep a cat.

Chapin, Cynthia, Squad Car 55. Chicago: Whitman, 1966. R.L. 2.4. Police work in a large city.

Elkin, Benjamin, The True Book of Schools, Chicago: Children. R.L. 2.8. All about schools, in a simple style.

Francoise, What Do You Want to Be?, New York: Scribner. R.L. 3.9. Role-playing games for primary children.

Harwood, Pearl A., Mrs. Moon and the Dark Stairs. New York: Lerner, 1967. R.L. 3.0. Children visit neighbor who lived in a large apartment house.

Heilbroner, Joan, This is the House Where Jack Lives. New York: Harper, 1962. R.L. 2-3. Jack lives in an apartment house.

Holland, Marion, Billy's Clubhouse. New York: Knopf, 1955. R.L. 4-5. Billy and his friends solve all the problems in building and using a clubhouse.

Lattin, Anne, Peter's Policeman. Chicago: Follett, 1958. R.L. 3.1. The police fight against crime in a great city. A semi-factual account.

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[illegible] New York, 195[illegible]. R.L. 4-6. [illegible] Japanese children.

VII [illegible]

Belpré, Pura, The Tiger and the Rabbit. Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1965. R.L. 4. [illegible] Puerto Rican folk tales.

Brenner, Barbara, Barto Takes the Subway. New York: Knopf, 1961. R.L. 5-6. A Puerto Rican boy and his sister experience their first subway ride.

[illegible] Doubleday, 1967. R.L. 4. [illegible] transferred to another school under difficult conditions.

Keats, Ezra J. and Cherr, Pat, My Dog Is Lost. New York: Crowell, 1960. R.L. 4-5. Children of Harlem join in a search for Pepito.

Lewiton, Mina, That Bad Carlos. New York: Harper, 1964. R.L. 4-5. Carlos finds his new home in New York demands many changes in his behavior.

Lexau, Joan M., Jose's Christmas Secret. New York: Dial, 1963. R.L. 3-4. Jose and his family learn to like New York City.

Lexau, Joan, Maria. New York: Dial, 1964. R.L. 2-3. The family sacrifices a treasure to secure a doll for Maria.

Manning, Jack, Young Puerto Rico. New York: Dodd, 1962. R.L. 3-4. An introduction to the schools, housing and industry of Puerto Rico.

Schloat, C. W., Maria and Ramon: A Girl and Boy of Puerto Rico. New York: Knopf, 1966. R.L. 4-5. Typical day in a Puerto Rican town.

Talbot, Charlene J., Tomas Takes Charge. New York: Lothrop, 1966. R.L. 5-6. Two motherless Puerto Rican Children try to establish a life of their own.

Tor, Regina, Getting to Know Puerto Rico. New York: Coward, 1955. R.L. 4-5. Simple, informational material.

VIII. Social Science

Goldin, Augusta, Straight Hair, Curly Hair. New York: Crowell, 1966. R.L. 3-4. A scientific, informational book.

Map Skills for Today. Columbus: American Education. R.L. 2-6. A series of workbooks for successive elementary grades. A two book series for junior high is also offered.

Parish, Peggy, Let's Be Indians. New York: Harper, 1962. R.L. 3-4. Indian games, dress-up activities, etc.

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[illegible], [illegible], [illegible]. Chicago: Melmont, 196[illegible] R.L. [illegible]. The [illegible] of the city bus driver.

Brell, Catherine, [illegible]. Chicago: Follett, 1963. R.L. 3.4. Play and fun activities in a big city.

[illegible] Pictorial History of the American Negro. Maplewood, N.J.: C.S. Hammond, [illegible].

Dorian, Edith, Hokahey! American Indians Then and Now. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1957. R.L. 5-6. Attempts to cover the customs and leaders of the seven Indian groups of our country.

Feigenbaum, Lawrence H., This Is a Newspaper. Chicago: Follett, 1965. R.L. 4.6. The insides of a city newspaper.

Hughes, Langston, The First Book of Africa. New York: Watts, 1964. R.L.5. History, government and problems of the new nations of Africa.

Lerner, Marguerite R., Red Man, White Man, African Chief. New York: Lerner, 1961 R.L. 4-5. A simple explanation of skin coloring.

McCarthy, Agnes, Let's Go to Vote. New York: Putnam, 1962. R.L. 4.9. How our government works.

McIntyre, Alta and Hill, Wilhelmina, Working Together. Chicago: Follett, 196[illegible]. R.L. 4.3. Workers of the community.

Platt, Kin, Big Max. New York: Harper, 1965. R.L. 4.1. The work of the police department of a large city.

Romano, Louis G., and Georgiady, Nicholas P., This Is a Department Store. Chicago: Follett, 1962. R.L. 4.3. The workings of a large department store in a big city.

Speiser, Jean, Unicef and the World. New York: John Day, 1965. R.L. 4-6. The activities of UNICEF in the areas of health and education.

Table and Graph Skills. Columbus: American Education. R.L. 3-6. A series of four workbooks for successive grades.

IX. Reading Improvement

Bank Street College of Education, The Bank Street Readers. New York: Macmillan. A basic reading series from preprimer to third grade for urban children.

Baugh, Dolores M., and Marjorie P. Pulsifer, Chandler Language-Experience Readers. San Francisco: Chandler, 1964-66 (Paperback). Readers for urban children based on the language experience approach.

[illegible] Holiday, 1967. R.L. 2.1. [illegible]
[illegible] reader.

[illegible] R.L. 2-3. A weekly [illegible] such features as short stories, skill development exercises and reading tests.

Lexau, Joan M. Olaf Reads. New York: Dial, 1961. R.L. 2.1. Humorous story of a boy who [illegible] read very well.

[illegible] See under: English Literacy. Parallel editions of weekly newspapers at grades 2-4 and 5-6.

[illegible] New York: [illegible] 1967. [illegible] pictures to stimulate verbal expression and interpretation among young children.

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SOME RECOMMENDED READING MATERIALS

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

SKILL	MATERIAL	ADDRESS	GRADE LEVEL
READINESS	Read-On Criterion Tests	Random House Singer School Division 201 East 50th St. New York, NY 10022	K 1
	New Phonics We Use	Lyons Carnahan Educational Division Meredith Corp. Chicago 407 East 25th St. Chicago, IL 60616	
PHONICS	McCormick - Mathers Speedboat Streamliner	McCormick Mathers Publishing Co. Wichita, KA	1 2
INITIAL CONSONANTS	Specific Skill Series by Richard A. Boning	Barnell Loft Ltd 958 Church St. Baldwin, New York 11510	2
MULTI-SKILLS	S.R.A.	Science Research Ass. Chicago, IL	All grade levels
	Individualized Scholastic	Scholastic Magazines, Inc. 50 West 44th Street New York, NY 10036	
COMPREHENSION	BARNELL LOFT SKILLS SERIES	Barnell Loft Ltd. Rockville Center New York	grades 1 on up

SKILL	MATERIAL	ADDRESS	GRADE LEVEL
COMPREHENSION	New Practice Readers	Webster Division McGraw-Hill Book Company	grades one on up
COMPREHENSION	Readers Digest	Pleasantville, NY	grades 1 on up

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INTELLIGENCE TESTS FOR READING CONSULTANTS

TITLE	PUBLISHER	GRADE	TIME	[illegible]
A HUR POINT SCALE O PERFORMANCE	THE PSYCHOLOGICAL CORPORATION, NY	5-15	TEACHER'S DISCRETION	[illegible]
CA IFORNIA TEST OF TAL MATURITY	CALIFORNIA TEST BUREAU MONTEREY, CA	KINDERGARTEN TO ADULT	TEACHER'S DISCRETION	[illegible] VERBAL [illegible] [illegible] I.Q.
CAGO NON-VERBAL MINATION	THE PSYCHOLOGICAL CORPORTATION, NY	6-TO ADULT	TEACHER'S DISCRETION	[illegible]
C MBIA MENTAL MATURITY	HARCOURT, BRACE AND WORLD	3-13	TEACHER'S DISCRETION	INDIVIDUAL SCALE [illegible]
F RANGE PICTURE ABULARY TEST	PSYCHOLOGICAL TEST SPECIALISTS	2TO ADULT	TEACHER'S DISCRETION	VERBAL [illegible]
G SELL DEVELOPMENT SCHEDULES	PSYCHOLOGICAL CORPORA- TION, NY	PRE-SCHOOL	TEACHER'S DISCRETION	MENTAL GROWTH [illegible] [illegible] ADAPTIVE [illegible] SOCIAL BEHAVIOR

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telligence Tests for Reading Consultants
ge 2

TITLE	PUBLISHER	GRADE	TIME	PURPOSE
I.P.A.T. CULTURE FAIR INTELLIGENCE TESTS	INSTITUTE FOR PERSONALITY AND ABILITY TESTING	4 TO SUPERIOR ADULTS	TEACHER'S DISCRETION	[illegible]
KAHN INTELLIGENCE TESTS: EXPERIMENTAL FORM	PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTS SPECIALISTS MISSOULA, MONTANA		TEACHER'S DISCRETION	[illegible]
KUHLMANN-ANDERSON I.Q. TEST	PERSONNEL PRESS, INC. PRINCETON, NJ	KINDERGARTEN-GRADE 12	TEACHER'S DISCRETION	[illegible]
LORGE-THORNDIKE INTELLIGENCE TESTS	HOUGHTON MIFFLIN CO. BOSTON, MA	LEVELS 4-12	TEACHER'S DISCRETION	[illegible] AND ABILITY
KUHLMANN-FINCH I.Q. TEST	AMERICAN GUIDANCE SERVICE, INC. MINNEAPOLIS, MN	GRADE 1-12	TEACHER'S DISCRETION	[illegible]
OTIS-LENNON MENTAL ABILITY TEST	HARCOURT, BRACE AND WORLD CHICAGO, IL	K-3	TEACHER'S DISCRETION	[illegible] REASONING
PEABODY PICTURE VOCABULARY TEST	AMERICAN GUIDANCE SERVICE INC., MINNEAPOLIS, MN	6-15	TEACHER'S DISCRETION	VOCABULARY TEST

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TITLE	PUBLISHER	GRADE	TIME	PURPOSE
PICTORIAL TEST OF INTELLIGENCE	HOUGHTON MIFFLIN CO BOSTON, MA	3-8	TEACHER'S DISCRETION	INTELLIGENCE TEST
PINTNER GENERAL ABILITY TEST	HARCOURT, BRACE AND WORLD CHICAGO, IL	K-12	TEACHER'S DISCRETION	GENERAL MENTAL ABIL
PRESSEY CLASSIFICATION AND VERIFYING TESTS	BOBBS-MERRILL CO. INDIANAPOLIS, IN	1-ADULT	TEACHER'S DISCRETION	GENERAL INTELLIGENCE
QUICK TEST	PSYCHOLOGICAL TEST SPECIALIST MISSOULA, MONTANA	2-ADULT	TEACHER'S DISCRETION	INDIVIDUALIZED [illegible] INTELLIGENCE TEST
SLOSSON INTELLIGENCE TEST FOR CHILDREN AND ADULTS	SLOSSON EDUCATIONAL PUBLICATIONS EAST AURORA, NY		TEACHER'S DISCRETION	SHORT FORM OF STANFORD- BINET
S.R.A. PRIMARY MENTAL ABILITIES TEST	SCIENCE RESEARCH ASSOCIATES CHICAGO, IL		TEACHER'S DISCRETION	GRADE PLACEMENT FOR ABILITY GROUPING
STANFORD-BINET INTELLIGENCE SCORES: 1960 REVISION	HOUGHTON MIFFLIN CO., BOSTON, MA			
WECHSLER INTELLIGENCE SCALE FOR CHILDREN (WISC)	PSYCHOLOGICAL CORPORATION, N.Y.			MEASURES I.Q.

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T	PUBLISHER	GRADE	TIME	PURPOSE
PICTORIAL TEST OF INTELLIGENCE	HOUGHTON MIFFLIN CO BOSTON, MA	3-8	TEACHER'S DISCRETION	[illegible] TEST
PINTNER GENERAL ABILITY TEST	HARCOURT, BRACE AND WORLD CHICAGO, IL	K-12	TEACHER'S DISCRETION	GENERAL MENTAL ABILITY
PRESSEY CLASSIFICATION AND VERIFYING TESTS	BOBBS-MERRILL CO. INDIANAPOLIS, IN	1-ADULT	TEACHER'S DISCRETION	GENERAL INTELLIGENCE
QUICK TEST	PSYCHOLOGICAL TEST SPECIALIST MISSOULA, MONTANA	2-ADULT	TEACHER'S DISCRETION	[illegible]
SLOSSON INTELLIGENCE TEST FOR CHILDREN AND ADULTS	SLOSSON EDUCATIONAL PUBLICATIONS EAST AURORA, NY		TEACHER'S DISCRETION	[illegible] FORM OF [illegible] BINET
S.R.A. PRIMARY MENTAL ABILITIES TEST	SCIENCE RESEARCH ASSOCIATES CHICAGO, IL		TEACHER'S DISCRETION	[illegible]
STANFORD-BINET INTELLIGENCE SCORES: 1960 REVISION	HOUGHTON MIFFLIN CO., BOSTON, MA			
WECHSLER INTELLIGENCE SCALE FOR CHILDREN (WISC)	PSYCHOLOGICAL CORPORATION, N.Y.			MEASURES I.Q.

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DIAGNOSTIC TESTS FOR READING [illegible]

[illegible]	PUBLISHER	GRADE	[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible] ORAL READING TEST	HARCOURT BRACE AND WORLD, CHICAGO	[illegible]-8 (IND)	[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible] READING DIAGNOSTIC TEST	[illegible] AND CARNAHAN, CHICAGO	3-8 (group)	[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible] DIAGNOSTIC READING TEST	AMERICAN GUIDANCE SERVICE, INC. CIRCLE PINES, MN	1-9	[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible] ANALYSIS OF READING DIFFICULTY	HARCOURT, BRACE AND WORLD, CHICAGO	1-6 (IND)	[illegible]	[illegible]
GA[illegible]-MCKILLOP READING DIAGNOSTIC TEST	TEACHER COLLEGE PRESS 1234 AMSTERDAM AVE NEW YORK, NY	2-6 (IND)	[illegible]	[illegible]
SPA[illegible] DIAGNOSTIC READING SCALES	CALIFORNIA TEST BUREAU, MONTEREY	1-8 (IND)	[illegible]	[illegible]
STANFORD DIAGNOSTIC READING TEST	HARCOURT, BRACE AND WORLD, CHICAGO	FORM W LEVEL II GRADE 4-8 (GROUP)	[illegible]	[illegible]

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GENERAL ACHIEVEMENT TESTS FOR READING CONSULTANTS

TITLE	PUBLISHER	GRADE	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
AMERICAN SCHOOL ACHIEVEMENT TEST	BOBBS-MERRILL CO., INC 4300 W 62nd ST. INDIANAPOLIS, IN 46206	7-9	FALL		[illegible]
CALIFORNIA ACHIEVEMENT TEST	CALIFORNIA TEST BUREAU 5916 HOLLYWOOD BLVD LOS ANGELES, CA 90029	1-12	FALL	4	[illegible]
COOPERATIVE ENGLISH TEST	EDUCATIONAL TESTING SERVICE PRINCETON, NJ 08540	9-12	FALL	2	[illegible]
DOLCH BASIC SIGHT WORD	GARRARD PRESS CHAMPAIGN, IL 61820	1-3	SPRING	1	VOCABULARY
DURRELL LISTENING-READING SERIES	HARCOURT, BRACE AND JOVANOVICH, INC TARRYTOWN, NY 10591	1-3 4-6	FALL	1	[illegible]
GATES-MACGINITIE READING TEST	BUREAU OF PUBLICATIONS TEACHERS COLLEGE COLUMBIA, NY 10027	1-6	SPRING	3	[illegible] AND VOCABULARY
IOWA TEST OF BASIC SKILLS	HOUGHTON-MIFFLIN COMPANY 53 W 43rd STREET NY, NY 10036	1-12	SPRING	2	[illegible]
METROPOLITAN ACHIEVEMENT TEST	HARCOURT, BRACE AND JOVANOVICH, INC TARRYTOWN, NY 10591	1-12	FALL	4	[illegible]

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[illegible]

[illegible]	PUBLISHER	GRADE	[illegible]	NUMBER OF [illegible]	[illegible]
SLOSSON ORAL READING TEST	SLOSSON EDUCATIONAL PUBLICATIONS PRESS 140 PINE ST EAST AURORA, NY	1-12	SPRING	1	[illegible]
STANFORD ACHIEVEMENT TEST	HARCOURT, BRACE AND JOVANOVICH, INC TARRYTOWN, NY 10591	1-9	FALL	[illegible]	[illegible]

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