1965

Meeting the Needs of the Slow Learner at the Secondary Level

Joan L. Takach
Central Washington University

MEETING THE NEEDS OF THE SLOW LEARNER AT THE SECONDARY LEVEL

A Thesis

Presented to

the Graduate Faculty

Central Washington State College

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Education

---

by

Joan L. Takach

May 1965

APPROVED FOR THE GRADUATE FACULTY

_____

Dohn A. Miller, COMMITTEE CHAIRMAN

_____

Maurice L. Pettit

_____

Azella Taylor

DEDICATION

In dedication to Miss Hedwig Zorb, formerly headmistress of Saint Paul's School for Girls, Walla Walla, Washington, and presently Administrative Assistant at Saint Hild's and Saint Hugh's School, New York.

My everlasting appreciation to her might best be exemplified in the following quote:

> "From compromise and things half done
> Keep me with stern and stubborn pride,
> And when the goal is won-----
> God, keep me still unsatisfied."

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My love and appreciation go to each: my husband, Andrew, and my children, Michael, Mary Jane, William, June, Vern, Eric and Fredrick for their untiring patience in doing without a wife and mother.

Thank you to my grandparents, Ross and Inez Dent, for their encouragement and financial assistance.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM AND DEFINITIONS OF TERMS USED

Education has been defined as,

> That process which seeks to promote the maximum development of every boy and girl in terms of his unique nature and needs (43:V).

The necessity for providing adequate and appropriate kinds of educational experiences for all children has become more and more acute. Today's educators are most anxious to arrive at a satisfactory solution. The need for a solution has been emphasized by legislation, general public clamor, and world events. There is a widespread demand that there be an elimination or at least a reduction of numerous sociological problems precipitated by inadequately and inappropriately trained persons.

Featherstone states very concisely why we as educators and members of a free American society should be anxious to reach a solution to our "educational inadequacy."

> If anyone doubts the need of sincere efforts to educate these slow learners, let him meditate on the fact that twenty out of every hundred pupils chosen at random means at least four million for the country as a whole. Then let him ponder the consequences for the general welfare of permitting the number of future adult citizens to grow up illiterate, uncultured, and uninitiated in the American way of life. If anyone doubts the soundness of investing a considerable sum in their education, let him forecast the consequences of not making that investment, bearing in mind, of course, diminished capacity to produce as well as to consume, but more important, not overlooking the declining zeal for the democratic way of life that invariably accompanies illiteracy and ignorance (15:vii-viii).

Educators throughout the world, especially in countries like the United States where education is provided for all, are deeply concerned about the inability of a segment of the school population to achieve up to the level of its potential or even up to a specific grade-age expectation. A specific area of underachievement, such as underachieving in reading, can have serious consequences in life activities (32:1).

The school's concern for the underachiever in reading is society's concern for the laborer who fails to master his most valuable tool; the worker who might reject the refined modern devices for a primitive approach to the tasks which confront him.

The school can well be anxious about the underachiever in reading. A citizen who cannot read discriminately and independently on public issues is confined largely to "canned and planned" information and to the "biases" of the people he happens to know. To misunderstand what one does read is equally undesirable. Without reading, one's personal individuality is lost in a habitual resort to mass pictorial and auditory media.

> The result for society is a population grooved in thought and habit and misfitted in vocation, a group of people whose attitudes and defenses mean a burden rather than a contribution (28:4-7).

There appears to be a lack of understanding of the characteristics and limited learning ability and potential

of the slow learners by most teachers. The teacher who daily faces the children is fully aware that a major problem exists. Undoubtedly, he realizes that the provision of meaningful experiences for the slow learner is one of his acute problems as a teacher. While the teacher may have relatively little understanding of the slow learner's characteristics and consequent educational needs, he is still aware that their attitude and behavior indicate that the educational experience being provided the other children in his room has little value or meaning to this child. The teacher, nevertheless, is expected to provide the slow learner with as adequate an educational program as is provided for the majority of the children.

The study is concerned with the problem of the slow learner and how the classroom teacher might meet his educational needs.

I. THE PROBLEM

The slow learner composes the largest group of exceptional children in the school. Among the general school population fifteen to twenty per cent of the children can be considered slow learners (17:13).

Since they are a very large group and do not deviate markedly from the average as do the other mentally retarded children, special education provisions have not been considered essential. The slow learners do provide one of the largest and most intense continuing problems facing the general classroom teacher. With our increasing school population, more children will be in the slow learning category, will need more parental help and understanding, will need a teacher who can provide, through an understanding of his characteristics and consequent educational needs, a program commensurate with his abilities (37:261).

This study is directed toward gaining a better understanding of the slow learner, determining means for educators to identify the educational needs of the slow learner based upon his characteristics, and ways to apply personalized instruction in meeting his reading needs at the secondary level.

Importance of the Study

The problem as it exists today is quite different at the two major levels or divisions of the school, elementary and secondary. The modern elementary schools using experience

units, individualizing instruction to the level of the child, forming small instructional groups within the classroom, and concerning themselves with the fundamentals in the skills, content, and personal relationship areas, have had much of value to offer the slow learner.

The 6-3-3 downward expansion of the secondary schools plus the widely practiced policy of social promotion has brought the problem of the slow learner to the forefront in the secondary school during the past two or three decades. Little has been done of a substantial and effective nature toward the achievement of a solution to the problem since it was first present. It is fully as acute today as when it first appeared (1:51-63).

According to Johnson, the thinking of teachers, administrators, and the general public and the resulting practices of the secondary schools are geared primarily to the average and superior students. The objectives are to prepare students to continue their formal education in institutions of higher learning or to take a productive place in society, primarily in business. States require minimum numbers of courses in civics, history, English or grammar, and physical education. Courses in these areas are assumed to provide the student with the information and understandings he needs to live a personally fuller life and to participate more intelligently in community, state, and national affairs. Beyond the basic core of subjects, a

student ordinarily has the choice of college preparatory, general education, commercial, fine arts, or home economics and industrial arts courses. There are more schools adding vocational skills and training to their courses of study in an attempt to meet the occupational needs of the slow learner.

Despite the rather wide diversity of courses available at the secondary level, seldom has a curriculum been designed specifically for the slow learner, except in a clinic or laboratory situation. The early, inherited objectives of the secondary schools have influenced the training program for teachers and administrators as well as curriculum and course offerings. The secondary teacher is most often a specialist trained in a specific subject-matter field. He is provided with techniques of instruction in his particular field, techniques that have been found to be of value for the majority of the students. These techniques are too often applied indiscriminately with the class expected to "catch on" and keep up. Those that cannot or do not keep up are failed, upon occasion given some supplementary help, or placed in a "slow" section of that course in the future (24:21-23).

How many times have educators heard teachers complain that students are no longer provided with the basic academic skills at the elementary level? As students they are unprepared to derive maximum benefits from instruction. They cannot read, write, spell, and do not know their number

combinations and tables. Many secondary teachers feel that the students' attitudes reflect disinterest in school and learning, together with resentment.

The secondary teachers and administrators who make statements such as these have failed to recognize the change that has taken place in the population attending public schools during the past half-century, that a number of students now entering the schools are intellectually incapable of achieving at the level traditionally expected in the high schools.

From where did these students come? Before the creation of the child labor and compulsory school attendance laws, these students were not encouraged to go beyond the elementary level. After social legislation was passed, the slow learner began to enter the schools in numbers. Hence, the educational problems of the slow learner were brought to the forefront.

The problem of the slow learner will not solve itself. The slow learners must attend school in accordance with compulsory attendance laws of the state. They must remain in school no matter how little they may apparently learn, no matter how discouraged they become, no matter what the extent of their academic failures may be.

Featherstone in defense of the slow learner says:

> In school, at home, no matter where, one must never forget that the slow learner is no less a 'person,' no less an individual, than any other human being. His talents may be few, his promise slight, but he is none the less a member of mankind, cast in the same mold and made of the same clay. He claims equal right with others in the

> regard of his fellow men, and to guidance and instruction designed to stimulate his growth to the fullest stature his powers permit. He, too, must be helped to stand on his own feet and face the world, self-reliant and unafraid (15:118).

> Working with the slow learner requires unlimited patience, ingenuity, resourcefulness and enthusiasm on the part of the teacher but she should keep reminding herself of that old adage: 'When you come to a stone wall, if you look far enough you will find a door in it' (42:143).

The purpose of this study then is to provide the writer, interested in the problems of the slow learner, with a key to his "door."

CHAPTER II

CHARACTERISTICS AND IDENTIFICATION OF THE SLOW LEARNER

Educators often wonder whether the problem of inefficiency or inability to learn is developed and somehow inherent in the way in which the students are taught, within the materials used or related to student-teacher relationships. With these concepts in mind, they tend to blame themselves for the creation of the slow learner.

The question of to blame or not blame is of little consequence, for there are many facets to consider and no one-to-one relationship discernible. Until the teacher understands the many causes and their relationship to the slow learner's consequent educational needs, his teaching will have little meaning or value (32:2-3).

The term slow learner has been applied to children with greatly differing characteristics, resulting in an ambiguity in terminology. It has been used by different authors to refer to all children who are not making adequate educational progress regardless of the cause.

Kirk feels that the term "slow learner" should be restricted to the child who does not have the capacity or potentiality to learn intellectual things, such as reading, at the same rate as average children. He is the child whose intellectual level on verbal intelligence tests indicates

that a retardation in intellectual development will affect the child's rate of learning intellectual material. The slow learner group should include the dull and border-line children with intelligence quotients of approximately 75-90, and if the term is stretched, the mentally handicapped with intelligence quotients of 60-70-80 (19:172-176).

Abrahams states that the term "slow learner" should be based upon the following descriptive ingredients:

1. The intelligence range should be approximately 75 to 90 I.Q. He warns that we must keep in mind the limitations of the test, the personnel giving it, variations in scores, when it is given, and other factors such as performance at 75 to 90 I.Q. level despite indications of higher potentialities.

2. Inaccurate measurement of intelligence may stem from one or more causes, related to such factors as family and home, neighborhood, culture, socio-economic conditions, or school.

3. These children may be in a regular classroom. They have not quite kept up in the earlier grades and have continued to lag further and further behind due to slower rates of learning.

4. These children are usually slow in intellectual matters, but not necessarily slow to the same extent in artistic, mechanical, or social activities (1:4-5).

Johnson classifies the slow learner according to his I.Q. of 85 to 90 and "obvious characteristics": his inability to "keep up" with the rest of the class in his rate of academic growth. For example, the slow learner learns to read approximately one year later than the majority of the children. This is also true of other skills and content areas. He states that their maximum mental growth range is "from 11 years to 13 years-6 months." These children form the lowest quartile, often dropping from school before graduation. Often the slow learner will show deviant, antisocial, unacceptable behavior in the classroom (24:9-10).

The writer feels that due to the ambiguity of terms used by the various authors, the designation of the term "slow learner" should be determined by competent personnel to fit a particular situation. They may wish to include all the above criteria, or limit them, depending on their needs.

The slow learners seen in the public schools are impossible to distinguish by merely looking at them. The cause of many of their problems is that they appear to be so normal and average that educators can fail to recognize or realize their disabilities and resulting educational problems.

I. PHYSICAL FACTORS

The slow learners are probably slightly below average in size, build, and motor ability. They deviate widely among

themselves in height, weight, and motor coordination. They do not tend to be outstanding athletes, but can participate in a socially acceptable activity. Johnson indicates that the slow learner's limitations confine him to the kind of athletics in which he can participate effectively and the manner in which he may be able to participate. He is not likely to be able to take part in a highly organized game. He may possess the physical requirements but usually lacks the intellectual ones. Physical activities involving less organization or even of an individual nature, such as golf and track, are more applicable (24:30-32).

In physical characteristics slow-learning children show as much variation as average children. There is some evidence that slow learners as a group show slight inferiority in physique and health as compared to average and superior children. Burt states that these children suffer more from general disability, either innate or environmental factors of poor feeding and poor medical care in early childhood. They do not have more major serious physical disabilities than average children, but a plurality of minor problems (8:206). They are likely to have two or more minor abnormalities per child whereas the normal seldom have more than one (2:261).

In general, it would appear that the slow learning and mentally retarded are slightly inferior physically to children of average intelligence. It would also be difficult

to generalize concerning a particular child, since there is the possibility a slow learner can be superior to an average child in physique and health.

II. EMOTIONAL AND SOCIAL FACTORS

In emotional and social behavior it is difficult to distinguish the slow learners from the average child except in specific situations. Featherstone observes:

> Slow-learning children very often alleged to be uncommonly lazy, and with good reason, but one should be careful not to assume that laziness is constitutional. Laziness is frequently due to ill health, and even more frequently to educational maladjustment (15:5).

In general, the behavioral characteristics of slow-learning children are adjustment processes to continual retardation and failure in school, compensating traits in other than intellectual areas, truancy, and dropping out of school at the end of the compulsory age limit of school attendance. Kirk suggests that these behavior traits show that the slow-learning are forced into showing the discrepancies between their capacity to perform and the requirements of the school environment (19:147).

In summarizing the emotional and social characteristics of the slow-learning child, it can be said that because of their slow progress in school, possibly due to poor health and home conditions as well as low intelligence, these children are usually at the lower end of achievement in academic

subjects in both the elementary and the secondary school. Nor did they tend to pursue intellectual activities, such as music, art, physical sciences, or hobbies, as they are intellectually prohibited. Many times they are older than the children in their grades because they have been held back a grade or two. In high schools they are usually placed in the lower sections of English, mathematics, and so forth. They tend to drop out of high school before completion and at the end of the compulsory school age, when they leave school at a younger age than their superior classmates. The high school, not being adapted to their learning rate, has tended to have a low holding-power for the slow learner. Because of increased attention to the slow learner and his educational problems in recent years, many schools are beginning to adapt instruction to the slow learner as they have done in the past for the average, gifted, and special education students.

III. PSYCHOLOGICAL AND EDUCATIONAL FACTORS

The slow learners are slow in their rate of intellectual development and retarded in their level of intellectual development compared to the average child, at any specific age. Due to retarded learning ability, adjustment problems and grasp of academic instruction are affected directly or indirectly. Many educators find it difficult to determine which characteristics of the slow learner are inherent and

which are acquired. Many educators are hesitant in their dealings with the slow learner. Rather than face the problem they might suggest that little or nothing of a positive nature can be done for them (24:32).

An understanding of the psychological evaluation of the rate and extent of intellectual growth of the slow learner is important for the initiation of an appropriate program. According to Johnson, the slow learner's rate of mental growth is between three-fourths and nine-tenths that of the average child. He states that they can learn to read, but do so one year later than the majority of the students. As a result of latent intellectual growth and/or psychological, physical, emotional, and social handicaps, they lag farther and farther behind as they grow older (24:10,32).

Ingram emphasizes the importance of early identification so that suitable educational opportunities from the beginning can be offered (23:14).

Among the kinds of information desired are the following: physical, emotional and mental development; defects and/or deviations from the normal; abilities, interests, achievements; family and community background; school data. Included in these areas of information should be specific details related to speech development, motor ability, vocabulary growth, and personality factors. The most widely used identification methods and materials in making a case study are:

1. Individual intelligence tests.
2. Group intelligence tests.
3. Personality tests.
4. Sociometric techniques to measure relationships among specific children in groups.
5. Achievement tests to measure subject-matter accomplishments.
6. Physical examinations to study growth and to discern defects.
7. Home and community information, based on forms filled out by parents, school social worker, and other professional personnel; use of home interviews and family history forms.
8. Anecdotal records objectively selected and prepared based on teacher observation.
9. Teacher judgments regarding the achievement and personality of the child.
10. Child interviews; other information from guidance counselors.
11. School history form which may include achievement test scores, grades, and other listed information.
12. Teacher-prepared materials: tests and games related to information and memory (1:21-22).

Kirk suggests that educators and service personnel should realize that although the slow learner learns to read in the same psychological pattern as other children, his learning progress can be handicapped by learning disabilities. Some of these specific disabilities as researched in the constructing of the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities as reported by Kirk and McCarthy are:

Auditory reception disability. This disability in its severe form has been termed "word deafness, sensory aphasia, or receptive aphasia." In minor forms the child has difficulty in understanding oral communication, even though he has no hearing loss. Much instruction in a classroom requires listening and understanding ability.

Visual reception disability. With this type of deficiency the child has difficulty in interpreting the significance of meaningful visual materials such as pictures and objects. A deficit in this ability minimizes the effectiveness of visual aids.

Association disabilities. This refers to the inability of the child to relate meaningful auditory or visual material to past experience and to express these relationships either vocally or through motor expression. Reading contextual material requires the ability to form relationships. Reference to "reading between the lines," an

association process, actually means relating what is read to events and relationships from past experiences.

Vocal expressive disability. Some children can understand what is heard or seen but are unable to express themselves in words. A part of this type of disability is in the field of speech disorders. This disability is in the mental processes, or encoding function, rather than in the peripheral vocal apparatus. A child who has a cleft palate, or thick tongue, or other defects in the vocal apparatus would not be considered to have an expressive disability but rather a speech defect.

Motor expressive disability. Children with this type of disability tend to be defective in expressing themselves in motor or gestural ways. They tend to be disoriented in space, poor in dramatics, and defective in writing, not copying. They are generally unable to "show you" how things work, but may be able to "tell you" if they have intact vocal ability. Some children have expressive disabilities in both vocal and motor channels of communication (25:399-412).

Ability in auditory and visual reception, association, and vocal and motor expression is necessary for the effectiveness of the common methods of instruction and communication. Telling stories to children, giving them verbal directions, using visual aids, discussing the relationship of what has been seen or heard, and requesting children to express

themselves verbally and in motor terms, such as writing, drawing and dramatics, constitutes much of the work of a classroom (20:25-62).

II. DEFINITION OF TERMS USED

Slow Learner

A slow learner is a child who has a limited capacity or potentiality to learn intellectual concepts, especially in the area of reading. He is retarded in intellectual development which affects his rate of learning. He can still learn. His mental growth being three-fourths to nine-tenths slower than that of the average child retards the pace at which he learns. Although he can learn his maximum mental growth range, 11 years to 13 years-6 months handicaps him academically both on the elementary and secondary levels. In addition he may be handicapped psychologically, physically, emotionally, and socially.

Underachiever

The slow learner who is an underachiever is one who is not working at his level of capability. The underachiever is not necessarily a slow learner.

Individualized Instruction

Individualized Reading is a method of teaching by insight rather than by perscription. The teacher gains insight into the child's learning and the child develops

self-insight into his own learning needs. Under guidance, the child seeks, self-selects and paces his own rate of learning. He receives help in a particular skill when and if a problem appears. This may occur in individual conference, flexible skill groupings, or whole class groupings. Through individualized instruction the personal needs and learning characteristics of each child are realized and directed in such a way as to promote the maximum amount of growth.

Mental Age

Mental age is the child's verbal age or the intellectual level at which the child is functioning.

Chronological Age

Chronological age is the child's physical age in years.

Intelligence Quotient (I.Q.)

This term represents the relationship between the child's mental age and chronological age. It is calculated by dividing the mental age by the chronological age, and multiplying the obtained quotient by 100 to remove the decimal figure.

CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Tronsberg indicates that about eighty to ninety per cent of the school day is spent in some form of reading activity and it is highly essential that every child be given the opportunity to learn to read according to his ability. Through reading, the child learns to protect himself and acquires knowledge and contentment. To many children, reading is a pleasurable experience, but to the slow learner, with limited mental ability, reading too often brings discouragement and failure (42:138).

Teaching the slow learner to read is often regarded as one of the most troublesome problems in the whole curriculum. Reading retardation remains the greatest single factor among school dropouts, according to a 1961 report from Daniel Schreiber, Director of the N.E.A. Project on School Dropouts. If reading is one of the major causes of school dropouts, then our challenge as teachers is clear; we must help our slow learners achieve reading success by providing a good program, one commensurate to his learning ability, as well as to his individual needs (Secondary Resource 32:23).

I. DIAGNOSIS OF SLOW LEARNER'S READING PROBLEMS

The teacher must be aware of the wide range of needs among individual children and must seek to meet these individual needs rather than to treat them as group problems. This will require careful study of individual children.

One of the first and most important steps is to discover, if possible, the cause of the child's delay in learning to read (37:48-49).

Identification consists of two major steps; screening and selection. In screening, the students are tested and observed, then ranked according to test results and observed performance. This initial step requires the use of standardized tests of intelligence and reading, for the purpose of ascertaining an estimate of how students perform in major areas of reading in relation to their capabilities. The second step, selection, makes use of a combination of formal and informal measures to determine corrective and instructional needs of the individual.

In the process of identifying the problem of the slow learner, it is important that multidimensional criteria be used. Standardized tests should not be the final word on reading status and reading need (47:71). There are other important factors, according to Witham, such as intellectual and mental ability, level of reading achievement, interest,

and the motivation to achieve, which should be considered in the process of identification (32:27-32).

Davis warns that cultural loading in group intelligence and standardized reading tests is a powerful determinant of retardation and discouragement of the children and adolescents from the lower socio-economic groups (Secondary Resource 32:25-26).

Witham states that the scores the slow learner makes on group intelligence tests that fall below the average range of mental ability probably cannot be accepted with any degree of certainty. Underachievers and slow learners will often score higher on the non-verbal or performance section of a test than on the verbal. Whenever possible an individual intelligence test should be administered. It enables the teacher to probe for pupil strengths and weaknesses with greater accuracy. The same is true for survey tests in reading (32:24).

Formal measures. Perhaps the best available guide for the study and selection of standardized tests of intelligence and achievement is Buros' Fifth Mental Measurements Yearbook.

Strange, McCullough, and Traxler point out that the individual intelligence scales are not free from reading factors; items depending on the knowledge and use of words penalize the poor reader. They state further that the correlation between scores on reading comprehension tests

and group verbal tests is generally high, between .50 and .80, while the correlation of reading scores with quantitative intelligence test scores is much lower. Furthermore, they suggest that intelligence tests tend to correlate more highly with tests of reading comprehension than with tests of rate. They recommend that since the relationship between total reading scores and group intelligence scores tend not to reveal the true picture, individual tests and listening tests would offer a more accurate measure of capacity. Listening tests are based on the premise that if a student understands what he hears, he may be expected to get the meaning of similar material by reading it, since common language ability is believed to underlie both reading and listening (40:74-75).

In determining the reading problems of a slow-learning child, the mental level of a child on an individual intelligence must be established. After obtaining the mental level, we can determine whether the slow learner has a reading disability. Kirk observes that two children might have the same mental age but very different mental abilities. To just classify them as slow learners with reading problems is not enough. We need an intensive analysis of his problems correlated with his slow learning ability before we can organize corrective instruction, or develop more efficient learning in reading and other subjects (32:62-69).

ACADEMIC EXPECTANCY: READING GRADE LEVELS

CA	IQ 50-59	IQ 60-69	IQ 70-75	IQ 76-85
6.0 - 6.6	Readiness	Reading	Readiness	Reading
7.0 - 7.6	Readiness	Reading	Readiness	Reading
8.0 - 8.6	Readiness	Reading	1	1
9.0 - 9.6	Readiness	1	1	1.2
10.0 - 10.6	Readiness	1	2	2
11.0 - 11.6	1	2	2	3
12.0 - 12.6	1	2	3	3.4
13.0 - 13.6	1	3	3	4
14.0 - 14.6	2	3	4	5
15.0 - 15.6	2	4	4,5	5,6
16.0 - 16.6	2	4	5	6

Strang recommends caution when using any table of reading expectancy for the mentally slow child. However, such a table is useful because it calls attention to reading performance that might be expected of a slow learning child and the difficulty he might encounter with beginning reading. Kirk is in agreement with Strang's caution in predicting reading achievement from mental age, because two children with the same mental age may have very different mental abilities (40:216-217).

Standardized reading tests must be supplemented by informal reading tests, sampling reading perforamance at various levels, and from various content fields. Standardized reading tests do not reveal the true reading status; they are indicative of the level at which the individual experiences difficulty at the instructional level rather than the independent level. His level of instruction may be one or more grades below the achievement level obtained from a standardized test, due to guessing because of poor reading skills. Harris suggests that standardized tests are less accurate for poor readers than for good readers; hence, if there is a disagreement between the estimate provided by standardized tests and the result of informal tests, particularly those which require sample reading from books at various levels, the latter is usually a more dependable guide for approximating level of performance (20:180).

Informal measures. Informal techniques will help to identify more specifically the slow learner's problems. They might fall into the following three classifications: (1) classroom observation and conferences; (2) informal reading inventory; and (3) directed reading activity.

Smith recommends classroom observation and individual conferences, on a day-to-day basis. It can reveal much about the slow learner and the motivational defects he may possess. In addition, casual conversation can often reveal the student's

attitude toward himself and others as well as toward learning. The slow learner may show evidence of an inferior opinion of himself, little confidence in intellectual ability of solving problems and thinking, and poor study and work habits. He may show little self-direction in organized classroom activities, poor cultural background, emotional frustrations arising from tensions at home or school, little or no aspirations, and a disinterest in reading (37:49).

The second technique, the informal reading inventory, provides a systematic observation of performance in a controlled reading situation.

One method could be the assignment of a number of pages to be read silently in a particular textbook for rapid reading. Bamman suggests that the following steps be followed: Make a word count on the material, and determine the words read per minute by each student. Follow the reading exercise with good comprehension questions, constructed to determine:

1. Knowledge of stated facts.
2. Knowledge of author's opinion.
3. Ability to infer meaning implied by author.
4. Ability to identify the central idea.
5. Ability to recognize supporting details.
6. Knowledge of word meanings in the particular context.
7. Ability to read and follow directions (3:79).

Witham suggests a selection of approximately 200 words, with comprehension questions ranging from factual recall to inferential reasoning arranged in small groups roughly based on the order within a standardized reading test; hence easier interpretation of specific disabilities. He feels that this rapid survey does not yield the depth of information gained in an individually administered inventory, but does serve as a practical means of identifying the more universal needs of the class (32:26).

Strang points out that a group reading inventory can be used to determine the reading proficiency of every student in a given subject class. The most important part of the inventory is the informal test. These teaching tests have several advantages: They are closely geared to instruction, whereas formal diagnosis is divorced from instruction. These tests can be applied in daily instruction. The free or unstructured response shows how students approach a reading assignment, what they remember from it, and how well they communicate ideas in it. These tests also promote student self-appraisal by encouraging the student to take the initiative in analyzing his own reading process. A series of structured tests followed by a discussion of progress enables the student to assess his ability to profit from instruction.

Informal tests are fairly easy to construct and administer. The teacher selects a section of about a thousand words from a text which the students have not read. The

student reads the selection and computes his speed. He then answers the questions without referring to the selection. The text exercises can be varied to serve different purposes, such as to see how well students can answer questions they have formulated before beginning to read, how effectively they can extract ideas relevant to a particular topic, his ability to organize the main ideas and supporting details, to draw inferences and conclusions, to define key words, as well as to appreciate humor, character portrayal, or other qualities of literary style. Questions on study skills, location-of-information skills, and other skills needed in reading the particular subject may be added.

Students mark their own papers to see for themselves their strengths and their difficulties in reading. When the student has corrected his inventory, he tabulates the results on a front page under the appropriate headings.

According to Strang the grade level at which the student is able to read is not so important as the analysis of his reading skills. The check may indicate either skills in which he needs instruction and practice, or the skills he has mastered. If the student scores 65 per cent below the grade level, he should be given an individual reading inventory (41:121). Detailed directions for making group reading inventories can be purchased from Harper and Row. (See Appendix A for Summary Chart)

The third technique, the directed reading activity or individual informal inventory, is recommended by such specialists as Durrell, Dolch and Harris (14:93; 13:10-14; 21:118-146).

Robinson suggests that the informal inventory of an individual include: (1) reading in a group of basal readers or other graded materials, (2) check on sight vocabulary using lists such as Dolch's 200 words, (3) appraisal of abilities to use phonetic and structural analysis, (4) special interests, including reading (19:152-156). Another word list a teacher might use is: The graded Bucks County 1185 words list found in Botel's How to Teach Reading.

Botel discusses how to determine the reading level of each student in his book How to Teach Reading. Harris develops the concepts used in determining reading competence more thoroughly in How to Increase Reading Ability (20:VII). A teacher might find a commercially prepared inventory helpful in determining the reading levels of the pupils (6:33). If commercially prepared inventories cannot be purchased, it is possible to prepare (1) a word recognition test, (2) a word opposites test, and (3) a phonics mastery test, as well as to determine the reading level of the pupil.

Dolch suggests that a teacher may locate poor readers in a class by having each student read something orally. The teacher may determine whether a particular book is too

difficult for the child, or even if a book is suitable for the majority of the class (13:10-14).

A careful record of observations must be kept of each student. Betts Informal Inventory Form B-1 is an example of an outline a teacher might use for recording during an individual interview. (Refer to Appendix A for sample.) A teacher might vary this form to fit his particular needs.

Another aid for recording observations of reading skills might be reading skills check lists such as Barbe's (See Appendix A). This series of seven check lists, from the readiness level through sixth grade, covers the following areas of information on each level: (1) vocabulary, (2) perceptive skills, readiness level, (3) word analysis, word attack skills, (4) comprehension, and (5) oral and silent reading skills.

Russell recommends a method of recording errors which can be used as children read orally to the teacher. The teacher mimeographs a paragraph or selection and records the errors as the child makes them. (See the Appendix for suggested markings.) (34:553)

For independence in reading, it is important that phonetic disabilities be determined. Harris observes that many children who know the individual letter sounds seem unable to blend sounds into words. He recommends either a standardized analytical test or informal tests constructed by the teacher. The informal test should be oral. The

teacher can construct a list of words containing all the phonetic and structural analysis skills. He pronounces the words one at a time to the student, who repeats them one sound at a time (20:209).

Harris has devised an Interest and Activity Poll in questionnaire form. It can be used to help the teacher determine the reading interests of his students. This type of information will be valuable in selecting materials for an individualized reading program. (See Appendix A for questionnaire.) This form may be reproduced without special permission (20:480).

Elizabeth K. Graves has developed two types of projective devices, instruments for revealing something of the inner world of feeling and meaning in a student. Almost any experience can reveal personality type, but the more unfamiliar the situation the less likely will a habitual response be made. The projective technique presents unstructured stimulus situations, such as ink blots, pictures, which are interpreted by the student. The technique may also consist of such devices as incomplete stories, incomplete sentences, and thought provoking pictures. These observations can be of help in the diagnosis of reading difficulties (41:322-323). Examples of this technique are given in Strang, McCullough, Traxler's, The Improvement of Reading, Third Edition, and Strang's Diagnostic Teaching. The improvement of Reading, Third Edition of Problems In the Improvement

of Reading also contain examples.

A reading teacher, to be successful, must study the individuals in his class, identify their strengths and weaknesses, and meet their individual needs, in order to insure their steady progress in learning to read. It will be difficult to find the time to study all the children in a class, but if a sincere attempt is made, the effort will be richly rewarding.

II. MEETING THE SLOW LEARNER'S NEEDS THROUGH READING

Although the needs of normal and sub-normal children may be similar, differences exist in degree and emphasis.

> The sub-normal child, like the normal child, is a unique personality, having physiological drives, instincts and emotions which crave satisfaction; intellectual abilities, social potentialities, and the capacity to acquire modes of behavior, interests, attitudes, and skills. All of these must be developed and integrated. At each level of intelligence, however, for the normal to the defective, the vitality of these components of personality becomes weaker. This weakness is most noticeable in the intellectual skills, in the capacity for abstract thought and reasoning, in the power for controlling impulses and of adjusting to new circumstances. It is least noticeable on the level of instinct and emotional impulse (27:7).

If the activities and purposes in reading are directed toward fulfilling certain needs in all children, the slow learner's interest and desire to read will increase. Yoakam suggests the following list of needs:

1. The need for satisfactions gained from other than strenuous activities.
2. The need for fulfilling their curiosity about the world around them.
3. The need for broadening experience.
4. The need for guidance of personal needs.
5. The need for assistance in solving problems.
6. The need to gain new information.
7. The need to confirm truth.
8. The need for esthetic enjoyment--rhyme, rhythm, imagery.
9. The need for emotional excitement.
10. The need for release from monotony and boredom.
11. The need for the ability to locate reading materials.
12. The need for the ability to follow direction for making or doing something.
13. The need for sharing ideas and feelings.
14. The need for standards, patterns of behavior, concepts and values.
15. The need for therapeutic value of reading (42: 14-15).

The slow learner needs a balance between success and failure, physical well-being, recognition of abilities and problems, measurement in terms of capacity, and help in establishing worthwhile realistic goals. His difference is

not to be found in his needs, but in his inability to solve intellectual materials. The slow learner needs adaptions. His goals of learning must be "discernible, obvious, reasonably immediate and realistic" (12:331).

The activities of all children should, of course, be vital and meaningful; they must center around dominant purposes or interests which are understood by the pupils themselves.

According to Kirk, it is necessary, first, to determine the major difference which contributes to learning to read between the slow-learning and average child before adapting instruction. First, most slow learners make inferior progress at the first grade level. By the time he is ready to read, he is usually beyond the grade where initial instruction of reading is taught. Second, his rate of learning to read is slower. A longer period of time is required to cover the materials. Third, as the slow learner progresses in school, reading becomes more laborious, due to his slow pace. He cannot succeed because he cannot keep up. He experiences only failure and insecurity. Fourth, he may have possible handicaps, such as poor health and poor environmental factors, contributing to his reading retardation. Fifth, he has difficulty in the content areas, since he does not possess efficient reading habits. Lastly, reading does not become a part of his life, due to the difficulties he has encountered. He is generally disinterested in all reading (19:147).

In adapting instruction the teacher should keep in mind the learning disabilities or characteristics of the slow learner.

1. Tend to have a slow reaction time; learn slowly and need a lot of practice.
2. Tend to respond in sterotyped fashion; inept at finding new solutions.
3. Tend to have a short attention-span; periods of concentration on academic materials short.
4. Tend to be weak in initiative, versatility and originality.
5. Tend to be poor in working abstractions; prefer working with things rather than ideas.
6. Tend to be weak in making associations; not readily aware of relationships.
7. Tend to be inept in making generalizations; do not make deductions readily.
8. Tend to be weak in self-criticism; do not evaluate their own errors readily.
9. Tend to be weak in analyzing and in reasoning; memorize information without concern for understanding.
10. Tend to be weak in detecting absurdities; overlook the irrelevant and the absurd.
11. Tend to have a narrow range of interests.
12. Tend to be impressed by the physical, the concrete,

> or the mechanical; interested in the "what" rather than the "why" (22:272).

Keeping these characteristics of the slow learner's needs and learning disabilities in mind, a teacher might use these guidelines or general principles as a guide for adapting instruction in reading or other subject areas to the slow learner at the secondary level.

Relate the reading activities to the basic goals of the pupils. This will serve to motivate the work in reading. The goals and objectives must be realistically adapted to the slow learner's needs. The activities must be made concrete by being based on tangible features of his environment. Make every reading experience together a pleasant and satisfying one. Build an interesting background for the selection about to be read, leaving some purpose for reading pursuits. Let him select some books on his own, even though for nothing more than looking at the pictures. Being allowed to choose the books will add to his interest, pleasure and satisfaction in reading.

Begin where the pupils are. One of the greatest mistakes in teaching the slow learner is assuming that he knows more than he does. Provide him with materials that are easy enough to ensure some measure of success. Competitive pressures to keep up with the good readers in the class may in itself produce emotional maladjustment.

Provide for generous use of demonstrations and practical applications. The activities must be relatively simple in organization, clear-cut as to the purpose and plan. Generous and frequent provisions must be made for drill and practice in skills and habits.

Treat the slow learner with the respect of being a feeling human being. Be patient, not irritable; let him know he is your friend in both personal and teaching contacts. The teacher's personal disapproval might tend to make matters worse. Balance criticism with sympathy and understanding. Praise should be given for little successes. Express approval whenever possible. Be honest.

Provide a modified program in reading for the slow learning pupil at all grade levels of the secondary school. Much harm can be done when the slow learner must be thrown back into so-called "regular classes" after a semester or two of carefully adjusted work.

Give regular high-school credit for reading instruction which is specially geared to the needs of the slow learner. No harm would result from this practice, and much could be gained in terms of increased motivation and good morale on the part of the pupils (5:188-191).

A successful program for slow-learners, in reading as in other curricular areas, should be based on a realistic appraisal of what they can do now and what they are ready

for next. If the work was taken up gradually and each new achievement noted and praised by the teacher, nearly all of the children would make some progress (20:62).

According to Bamman, no reading program can exist as an entity. It is an integral part of the total instructional program in the secondary school. Although the students in the program receive special instruction in reading, providing for transfer of skills in the regular classroom is of utmost importance.

The total staff should clearly understand the purposes and limitations of the remedial program. Frequent meetings with the reading teacher. These meetings would serve two purposes: (1) to inform individual teachers of the progress made in skills by individual students and to suggest means of strengthening those skills in the regular classroom, and (2) to provide an exchange of information that may be of vital importance to both the reading teacher and the classroom teacher (34:105).

A good way to involve all the teachers in the high school in a program to improve student reading is to ask each teacher to list the reading needs he notices in his classes. Bamman suggests as an instructor takes part in identifying the reading needs peculiar to his subject he is likely to become interested in the reading problems of his students and to be willing to take an active part in improving skills that are important in his subject.

(Refer to Appendix A for A Check List of Reading and Study Skills for the Content Areas.)

III. INDIVIDUALIZED READING

Individualized reading is teaching by insight rather than by prescription. The teacher acquires insight into the child's learning and the child through self-insight recognizes his own learning needs. Reading is by choice, not compulsion. It allows the child to select those materials which meet his needs and interests (4:14). The individual child is not required to adjust to the interest and rate of the other children in the group or excluded from working together and sharing both the instruction of the teacher and one another's interests (26:7).

The child's motives for reading are best satisfied when he is allowed to choose, under guidance, those books which he is able to read and which he wants to read (20:114-115). According to Groff, the reader will pace himself at the rate at which he will best learn to read. He feels that the reader will experience little or no feelings of failure in this type of reading experience, as there are no group standards to be used in evaluation (16:70).

Leland Jacobs points out that individualized reading is not a single method but a general approach allowing various kinds of group reading, individual and whole class reading. It does not advocate a laissez-faire method of instruction (29:5). Olson emphasizes the importance of systematic skill

instruction, either individual or in flexible groups, using individual or group selected reading materials (31:3-10).

Methods

Organizing the classroom. According to Veatch, before individualized reading can be successful, it is essential to develop the organization pattern with the children. "Role-playing" can be used as a technique for introducing the new procedures. All the children actually go through the process of selecting a book they like, read for a while, then come up to the teacher one at a time to discuss the material and receive any needed skill instruction. Each child then returns to his seat to continue reading or to do certain follow-up activities decided upon in conferencing with the teacher. In this way each child understands what is expected of him. Working in groups can also be explained in this manner (45:7).

In researching, this writer found none of the authorities established class size in numbers per se. Recommended were small classes, individualized in nature. Perhaps for the success of "personalized" instruction, the class size to remain small might be limited to not more than twenty students, preferably less, if possible.

Some people might misunderstand that teaching the individualized plan means always working with the pupils individually. It is desirable upon occasion to make use

of a variety of group situations. As a supplement to individual teaching a teacher might use the following purposeful group types:

Total class grouping. This occurs when the whole class joins in reading activities. Smith suggests all the children might meet with the teacher to make plans for excursions, to discuss charts, ask questions to which fellow students reply, discuss directions, read notices, share activities, such as sharing a story read independently, give an oral book report, dramatize a story, and report on researched findings of interest to the entire class. The whole class may need to discuss book selection and individual conference procedures, as well as independent or continued activity work. Sometimes the teacher may feel that a new reading skill can be introduced to the class as a whole. Whole group activities help to motivate reading, as well as to develop a sense of togetherness, of social giving and taking, and belongingness (37:108).

Small groups for interest or skill development are useful to encourage sharing activities such as preparing dramatizations, puppet shows, mock radio or television programs. Sometimes children who have read the same book can gather in a group to "talk it over." The teacher may well wish to work with this small group rather than hold the individual conference period, if she finds a need or a reason.

Some children like to gather to read from their own individual books, orally or to help another with unrecognized words. Sometimes a group of children might be interested in sharing mutual interests, such as cooking or hotrods. In interest grouping regardless of different levels of ability the students can share information and interesting incidents from the book they are reading at their own level of ability. Skill groups of several children with identical reading problems can be formed. These children can meet with the teacher for development and practice in skills, and when the students have mastered the skill, the group is disbanded.

Arranging the environment. The teacher and students should determine the conference location. It should be located far enough removed from the center of activity so as not to disturb other students. The table or corner in which the books are to be selected should be either to the rear or at the side of the room. This facilitates the children going to and from the table without interrupting other children. Barbee suggests the reading corner should be as far from the point where the teacher is having her individual conferences as is possible (4:30).

The children, with the teacher's guidance, can work out displays of reading material which are invitingly attractive and easily accessible to the students. Smith suggests the teacher might have them arrange the books by subject or level to be used, thereby incidently allow the pupils time

to browse and choose the books he might like to select in the future (37:149).

Classroom management. Maintaining order in the classroom during the personalized reading period is, of course, vitally important. Neither the individual conferences in which the teacher is engaged nor the children working individually or in groups will meet with any degree of success if there are disturbances throughout the room. Barbe recommends that the teacher and the students prepare a list of rules governing behavior during personalized reading sessions. Children, by making the rules themselves, are much more willing to obey and to enforce them (4:30).

Another management problem might occur in controlling the number of children selecting books at the same time. For control of this condition, a teacher might allow only three to five children at one time to be browsing. The teacher could organize a carding system. A pupil selects a number from one to five, waits for another pupil to leave the table; then if his number is next in order, he takes his place at the table. Another technique might be to assign a student monitor.

Individual Interview or Conference. The conference period is the most important phase of individualized instruction. It is at this time that the child is with the teacher in a one-to-one relationship. During the conference the

teacher discusses the material read by the student. She gets to know his reading habits and interests and records this pertinent information on the child's record. In addition to checking his comprehension and the level of difficulty of the material he is reading, she will check his ability to analyze particular words in the story that are difficult and correct improper word attack skills, if necessary. At this time she may wish to assign individual follow-up activities.

Barbee warns the teacher not to make the conference "just another oral reading session" (4:46).

Remedial instruction. This instruction may be given to some children during the conference time. By working with the child who is far below his class level in reading privately, the pupil is less likely to be embarrassed. He may refuse to participate in the reading program if embarrassed.

Record keeping. In the individualizing of reading, it is necessary for the teacher to develop a plan for keeping records of each child's current status as a reader. Without systematic record-keeping, both the teacher and the child have only their memories to rely on. A teacher may use a folder, a notebook or cards. The procedures should be those that the teacher can manipulate with dispatch and clarity each time the child reads with the teacher (38:94-100).

Another aspect of record-keeping is the development of cummulative reading records of children's independent reading. These records can be kept by the children themselves. They may be notebooks, folders, cards, or commercially prepared materials. Student-made records should be useful to teacher and child in periodic conferences for discussion of the individual's interests and tastes, and for suggestions for further independent exploration in reading.

From these kinds of record-keeping, the teacher acquires important insights into the individual child as a reader, as well as valuable information as to the types of reading preferred in the classroom. It is an aid for selecting new books for the room collection (29:1-17. (Refer to Appendix A for examples of record-keeping the teacher and pupils might use in recording reading achievements.)

Skills instruction. As a child reads with his teacher, certain specific strengths and weaknesses in his skills will be observable. Through observation the teacher can provide preventive measures instead of remedial measures, if errors are corrected immediately.

Research says that all children do not need instruction in identical skills or practice in the same amount (10: 65).

Reading essentials need not be systematic as there is no absolute and rigid order of skill development for all children. Very few children need or learn the skills in the same way or in the same order. Such factors as each child's individual learning patterns, his learning rate, the skill needs peculiar to him, the amount of interest he has in learning to read, and the complexity of reading itself, all make the adherence to uniform standards of a universal sequence not only difficult but impractical.

Not all children need to be taught each and every skill. The following list of essential skills is thought to be necessary in order for children to read well.

I. The child must be able to see and hear words clearly and recognize their meanings.
   - A. Building a sight vocabulary.
   - B. Developing techniques for attacking words.
     1. To use configuration clues.
     2. To use contextual clues.
     3. To use word-analysis clues.
        - a. Develop auditory discrimination.
        - b. Develop visual discrimination.
        - c. Develop skill in phonic word analyses.
     4. To use structural analysis and word-building clues.

II. The child must be able to understand sentences, paragraphs, pages, and stories.

A. Getting the main ideas; selecting and organizing the important ideas of the passage.

B. Assimilating and evaluating ideas.

C. Making inferences; reading "between the lines."

D. Understanding relationships; judging cause and effect, abstracting generalizations from specifics.

E. Noting details; finding details stated in the passage; inferring details not expressly stated.

F. Making judgments and anticipating outcomes.

G. Following sequence of steps or events.

H. Reading and following directions; carry through on a series of directions.

III. The child must be a creative reader.

A. Develop an understanding of the emotional tone of the passage and reconstruct the author's intent.

B. Recognize the beauty of words and phrases.

C. Evoke sympathy or identification with persons or problems in the story.

D. Interpret figurative language.

E. Distinguish between fact and fancy.

IV. The child must be able to find the information he needs and seeks.

a. Understand the function of and use of such book aids as index, chapter headings, title pages, table of contents.

B. Alphabetizing; using the sequential order of letters for use with reference materials.

C. Using dictionary aids for pronunciation, spelling, definitions.

D. Using simple reference materials; e.g.

E. Recognizing and using relevant materials; relating to the correct source.

F. Reading for a specific purpose, for special assignments, research.

G. Locate information; finding proper source material skimming for quick spotting of ideas.

H. Organize facts; arranging materials in sequential order.

I. Using graphic aids; interpreting graphic figures, diagrams, charts, and maps.

J. Using books more effectively; selecting and evaluating what is read in the light of the various problems under consideration.

V. The child must be able to read aloud effectively.

A. Develop extended eye-voice span for more facile reading.

B. Develop good enunciation and pronunciation; using good oral speech patterns.

C. Develop good phrasing to convey meaning units.

D. Reading with understanding to give proper expression and to provide full enjoyment and appreciation.

Many children develop their own power to make generalizations about some of these skills and do not have to be specifically to them.

If the teacher uses the above list of essential skills as a reference or a check list such as Barbee's Reading Skills Check List, kindergarten through sixth grade, to see what it is that the child consistently needs in order to be a more effective reader, the actual reading needs of the child will be served (26:64-71).

If a teacher wishes to use small groups for skill development, these groups should be flexible and short-term. The teacher may use a variety of materials for skill development. Some of the materials she can use are: workbooks, worksheets, discussion, questions and answers, or oral reading from the pupil's book. These practice materials can be either commercially-prepared, or teacher made. Some may even be in the form of puzzles or games (29:12).

Independent activities. Independent activities and sharing activities provide the opportunities for children to choose their own jobs, to make decisions, to manage their own time, and to set their own goals. The activities should be planned with the children. In planning with the teacher, the children are learning to share responsibility (29:28-32).

During independent work time the children work, individually or in small groups, on activities directly

related to reading, while the teacher circulates among the children offering individuals or small groups assistance. Specific types of independent "follow-up" activities which have actually been used in practice are described by Sharpe.

I. Fictional stories.

A. Recording.

1. Keeping individual records of titles read; dates; pages.
2. "Beginning book report": Title, author, publisher. List important characters; illustrate, name. For more capable learner: comment about--what liked or not liked; why someone else should read it.
3. If a book contains several stories, list titles of most interesting ones, as well as book title.

B. Illustrating.

1. Illustrating main characters.
2. Pictures of main events in sequence.
3. Illustrate most exciting events, or best liked.
4. Make book jacket for story.
5. Make diorama of favorite part of story.
6. Make miniature stage setting for exciting scene.

C. Committee work.

1. Prepare a dramatization of a part of the story.
2. Prepare parts to identify characters in story.
3. Make list of questions to ask others who have read the story.
4. Prepare answer to such questions.
5. Report on books or stories relating to unit studies sections of basal readers.
6. Arrange book displays: "Our Favorite Books"; new and old books.
7. Classify book lists according to subjects; illustrate.

D. Oral reporting-audience situations.

1. Show illustration and tell about it.
2. Prepare interesting part of story to read; tell why you like it.
3. Decide if story could be true; could not be. Choose selections from story to read orally to prove decision. Lower ability pupil could illustrate and tell to prove.
4. Interview adults concerning author; report orally.
5. Tell portion of story; predict how it might end, or make up different ending, or tell how

reader would end it, and why, if he were the author.

E. Written activities.

1. Write title or sentence for illustrations.
2. Write sentence which tells of author's illustrations.
3. Make list of unusual, how, or difficult words.
4. Write something about the author (upper grades).
5. Write answers to blackboard or mimeographed questions prepared by teacher; group; committee.
6. Creative writing; original poems, plays, stories, essays; illustrate.
7. Select important news and write a summary for class or school paper.
8. Make a bibliography: organize for mutual interests.

II. Factual interests.

A. Recording

1. Make a record of what was done to follow directions of a simple experiment.
2. Keep records of temperatures, weights, measures.
3. Title and page where directions were found.

B. Research.

1. To identify collections, such as shells, stamps.

2. Make scrapbooks of pictures of collections--pets, animals, social studies interests, science.
3. Find pictures to illustrate each letter of alphabet: find pictures to illustrate these words or draw own illustrations.
4. Find stories which will answer questions of the group concerning social studies, science, other interests.
5. Before taking a trip: plan what to see, how to go, places of interest to visit.

C. Committee work.

1. Group work to find facts concerning interests.
2. Organizing and recording information and realia.
3. Organizing bulletin board, book table, or collections.
4. Classify book lists according to subjects.
5. Illustrating: time lines, murals, experiments.
6. Compile bibliography for background of current news events; arrange display.

D. Oral reporting--make preparation for the following:

1. Tell about a simple experiment and results.
2. Report findings concerning group interests which have been learned through trips or interviews.

3. Tell about collections.
4. Report interesting facts found when reading about interests.

E. Written activities.

1. Make lists of subject words: colors, food, phases of science, flowers, pets, etc.
2. Make a "picture" dictionary illustrating picture or subject words.
3. Find answers to questions of the group; list pages; make a bibliography file for reference.
4. Record references to information found in library; pictures; junior encyclopedias, topical interests; including topic, pages, authorities, dates.
5. Summarize information learned from charts, graphs, maps.
6. Compile bibliography of mutual interests; make 3 x 5 card file for reference and expansion.

III. Study Skills.

A. Games

1. Word drill, such as "I know--I Do Not Know."
2. "Bingo" type games.
3. Following direction games for word drill.
4. Matching words and pictures.

B. Committee work, to study teams.

1. Word analysis exercise.
2. Sight vocabulary practice.
3. Phrasing and expression in oral reading.
4. Help in speed reading and skimming.

C. Oral--with teacher.

1. Word analysis--structural, auditory, visual discrimination.
2. Word meanings--reminding children of own experiences which will help get new meanings and mental pictures and ideas.
3. Discuss special needs: prefixes, suffixes, unusual vowel sounds, rhyming words.
4. Work out group discussion standards.

D. Written activities.

1. Make own study word cards.
2. Make list of unknown words; indicate location; check list with teacher.
3. Find words that look alike.
4. Find words that:
   -mean the same
   -mean the opposite
   -are written the same but have different meanings.
5. Find and illustrate picture words.
6. Choose a page in a story; make a list of all the words that begin with capitals; be able to tell why.

7. Organize scrap books showing words of:
   -similar structure, beginnings, endings
   -rhyming characteristics (36:21-23).

Sharing Activities. Sharing activities provide individuals with a sense of satisfaction in progress and accomplishment. Some of the preceding independent activities can be used by the teacher to motivate new reading in the whole class, in a small group, or with an individual child. In sharing, the child is motivated to choose what he likes and does best "to sell" to his classmates. His peers eagerly listening benefit themselves by gaining information, sharing leads to new reading adventures, as well as learning to share and radiate their youthful joy of reading for "fun" (43:25-26).

Materials. Materials, selected in quality and quantity, are of the utmost importance in the personalized reading program. Availability of interesting books at the children's reading levels, tastes and personality needs should be considered in choosing materials for the individualized reading program. As Jeannette Veatch states:

> This new reading program is based upon the idea that children can and do read better, more widely, and with vastly increased interest, when allowed to choose their own reading materials (44:160).

Book selection includes all varieties of materials, whose subject matter are of a common interest level to boys and girls at the particular grade and age level being

instructed. In addition to being concerned with areas of interest and interest level, Barbe points out that the teacher must select a number of books which will be of interest and challenging to children at different reading levels (4:103-104).

Reading material should include easy to read books of high interest level, such as simplified classics, basal literature texts, simplified texts in various subject fields, trade books, pamphlets, brochures, teacher-made and pupil-made materials, magazines, and newspapers, and work type skill materials.

William H. Burton suggests some standards of quality a teacher might use in determining the suitability of reading material.

> 1. Interesting and vivid. The material must appeal to the typical known interests of children. . . be vividly presented, without sacrifice of literary values.
>
> 2. Useful and purposeful. The materials must help children (a) to expand their experiences, understand better the physical and social world in which they live; (b) to solve their personal problems or to obtain pleasure and enjoyment; (c) to develop appropriate creative abilities.
>
> 3. Truthful and honest. If the materials include real life content, as travel stories, historical writings, biographical items, scientific materials, they must be objectively accurate from the standpoint of facts. If they include fictional content of a realistic nature, they must be honest in the portrayal of human life and action, objectively possible in activities and outcomes. If they include make-believe or exaggerated content, as fanciful stories, tall tales, nonsense items, they must possess enough credibility to make them seem possible.

> 4. Meaningful to the reader. The concept and vocabulary must be suited to the reader's maturity, experience background, and educational development. . .
>
> 5. Effectively written. The language must be competent in terms of correct usage and vividness of style. . . appropriate to the reader's ability to read and understand. It must introduce humor, nonsense, and fancy. . . without using bizarre, extreme, and unlikely devices.
>
> 6. Well-illustrated, attractively bound, and of good format. . . The illustrations must help to stimulate interest in, and to strengthen comprehension of, the materials.
>
> 7. As wide as life itself in range, giving numerous, varied, and vivid opportunities for vicarious experiencing (9:367-368).

In individualized reading, choice of materials grows from the individual needs. Therefore, materials must provide for skill development, for enjoyment, for gathering information, and for satisfying personal needs.

Skill development materials should be provided in abundance. A variety of practice and self-testing materials, ranging in difficulty, such as commercially prepared work type exercises, self-testing exercises, games, puzzles, flash cards are available. If the teacher cannot purchase prepared materials, the teacher and students can make their own (29:12). The workbooks and self-testing reading materials should include exercises in developing readiness skills, comprehension skills, vocabulary meanings, word analysis skills, organization skills, interpretation skills, and locating information skills. Harris recommends that none of the materials should carry grade designators on the

jacket, if they are to be used by secondary level pupils (5:201-205).

Harris feels that "variety adds spice." Children tend to become bored doing the same thing over and over again. He recommends that such practices as word and phrase recognition, learning phonic skills, and doing workbook exercises to sharpen comprehension are not particularly enjoyable. Many drills can be disguised as games, rather than work. Children have a competitive urge to compete either with each other or themselves (20:380-383). Refer to Appendix B for a list of sources a teacher might use in locating appropriate games.

Reading materials need not be restricted to books. It is desirable to have an abundance of magazines and newspapers available to students. A resourceful teacher can sometimes locate wholesome magazines without vicious or immoral actions on the newsstands. These might include such topics as western or detective themes, cars, home economics, e.g. The librarian of the school or public library would be a good resource person in the best selection of magazines and newspapers to be purchased by the school for the individualized reading classroom.

A good rule to follow is:

> Begin where the pupil is, even if that must be with comic strips. Only by beginning there and working patiently and long can the pupil be led to more worthy selections (30:22).

It is unwise for a teacher to forbid and condone comics altogether. The most fruitful, positive approach would be to use them for "promoting the best reading and personality development of the pupils." A teacher might make use of the current reading of comic by directing the pupils toward reading tastes on a higher level. The teacher could: (1) help the class appraise the comics, (2) use comics to initiate reading habits, (3) transfer interest from the comics to related lessons, (5) relate materials in comics to desirable books (33:391-392).

Although there are many reading specialists who question the use of comic books as valuable educational media, according to Harris, in the upper grades a skillful teacher can lead the more "voracious" readers of comics gradually toward more desirable reading materials.

> Anything to which children respond as enthusiastically as they do to comic books must have educational values that can be developed (20:472-475).

Selecting materials for individualized reading is a continual process throughout the year. Expanding interests, growth in reading ability, and changing emotional-social needs of children make it important to change the book collection from time to time and to add new materials to satisfy particular needs or choices of certain children. A wide variety of carefully selected reading materials stimulates children to read, to expand their interests, and to develop healthy attitudes toward reading.

Barbee, in Educator's Guide to Personalized Reading Instruction, summarizes the goals of personalized "individualized" instruction when he writes:

> The goal of personalized reading instruction is to help all children to learn to read better and to enjoy both the process and the results of reading. To the extent that the teacher using personalized reading instruction achieves these goals, she has been successful. When reading is more than just a school assignment, the reading program has been successful (4:231).

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

I. SUMMARY

It has been the intent of this study to research and present a description of the slow learner, whose characteristics and consequent educational needs, require individualized consideration.

The writer has examined (1) the problem of the slow learner in the secondary school; (2) the slow learner's physical, emotional, social and intellectual characteristics; (3) an approach to the diagnosis of his reading problems; (4) the slow learner's personal needs and learning disabilities relative to reading; (5) personalized instruction as a technique useful in meeting the slow learner's educational dilemma in our public schools.

It is hoped by the writer that teachers who wish to help the slow learner with his learning problems will attempt to use the individualized method of instruction.

II. IMPLICATIONS

Individualized instruction appears to be an educational trend. With the advent of automated education, we as educators must keep abreast of the times.

Perhaps the college should include courses on the

psychology of learning and "personalized instruction" preparatory to issuance of teacher certification.

As educators and members of a free American society, we have reason to be concerned about those who fail to "learn," especially our most important tool of communication--reading. Perhaps if reading instruction was continued throughout the secondary level, the efficient reading skills, so necessary to an informed citizen, might be achieved. Possibly the number of school dropouts and failures would diminish considerably if reading instruction were given to those in need.

In conclusion, the diagnosis of the slow learner's problems requires the knowledge and assistance of many to insure proper identification and treatment of his problems. In order to insure an adequate educational program for the slow learner, the teacher should enlist the aid of specialists, psychologists, and medical personnel, to insure an adequate diagnosis.

In initiating a program geared to the slow learner, the teacher should be able to explain the merits of a program to administrators, faculty, and parents. To insure success, a cooperative effort on the part of the participants must be effected.

III. RECOMMENDATIONS

In conclusion, the writer suggests the following recommendations for the reader's consideration:

1. Administrators, educators and the general public must reassess the values and goals of education relative to the slow learner's needs.

2. The classroom teacher must develop an understanding of the characteristics and limited learning ability and potential of the slow learner and be malleable in instruction. Treat him with the respect of being a feeling human being.

3. Educator's need to have a greater understanding of diagnostic methods and materials. Early identification of the slow learner and his educational needs are important.

4. Teachers need to be aware of the wide range of needs among individual children and seek to meet these individual needs rather than to treat them as group problems.

5. A successful program must be commensurate to the slow learner's learning ability, as well as his individual personal needs. It should be based on a realistic appraisal of what each pupil can do now and what he is ready for next.

6. Provide a modified program in reading for the slow learning pupil at all grade levels of the secondary school.

7. Give regular high school credit for reading instruction which is especially geared to the needs of the slow learner.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Abraham, Willard. The Slow Learner. New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1964.

2. Baker, Harry. Introduction to Exceptional Children. New York: Macmillan Co., 1945.

3. Bamman, Henry A., and Ursula Hogan, and Charles E. Greene. Reading Instruction in the Secondary School. New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1961.

4. Barbee, Walter B. Educator's Guide to Personalized Reading. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1961.

5. Blair, Glenn Myers. Diagnostic and Remedial Teaching. New York: Macmillan Company, 1961.

6. Botel, Morton. How to Teach Reading. Chicago: Follett Publishing Company, 1963.

7. Bruos, Oscar Krisen (ed.). Buros' Fifth Mental Measurements Yearbook. Highland Park, N.J.: Gryphon Press, 1959.

8. Burt, Cyril. The Backward Child. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1937.

9. Burton, William H., Clara Belle Baker, and Grace K. Kemp. Reading in Child Development. New York: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., 1956.

10. Darrow, Helen Fisher, and Howes, Virgil M. Approaches to Individualized Reading. New York: Appleton-Century-Croft, Inc., 1960.

11. Davis, Allision, "Society, the School and the Culturally Deprived Student," Address. Detroit: Wayne State University, 1960.

12. Dodds, B.L. "What is a Good Program for the Slow Learner?" Bulletin of the National Association for Secondary-School Principals, Vol. 36, No. 185; March, 1952.

13. Dolch, E.W. "How to Diagnose Children's Reading Difficulties by Informal Classroom Techniques," The Reading Teacher, Vol. 6, January, 1953.

14. Durrell, Donald J. Improving Reading Instruction. New York: World Book Company, 1956.

15. Featherstone, W.B. Teaching the Slow Learner. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952.

16. Figurel, J. Allen (ed.). "Challenge and Experiment in Reading," Scholastic Magazines, Vol. 7. New York: International Reading Association Conference Proceedings, 1962.

17. Frain, Thomas J. Administrative and Instructional Provisions for Rapid and Slow Learners in Catholic Secondary Schools. Washington, D.C.: The Catholic University of America Press, 1956.

18. Gray, W.S. "Classroom Techniques in Improving Reading," Supplementary Educational Monographs published in conjunction with The School Review and Elementary Journal, No. 69. Chicago, Illinois: The University of Chicago Press, October, 1949.

19. Gray, W.S. and Nancy Larrick (eds.). Better Readers of Our Times. New York: Scholastic Magazines, 1956.

20. Harris, Albert J. How to Increase Reading Ability. New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1962.

21. Harris, Albert J. Effective Teaching of Reading. New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1962.

22. Hoover, Kenneth H. Learning and Teaching in the Secondary School. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1964.

23. Ingram, Christine P. Education of the Slow-Learning Child. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1960.

24. Johnson, G. Orville. Education for the Slow Learners. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963.

25. Kirk, Samuel A., and McCarthy, James J. "The Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities--An Approach to Differential Diagnosis," American Journal of Mental Deficiency, Vol. LVI, November, 1961.

26. Lazar, May (ed.). A Practical Guide to Individualized Reading. Board of Education, City of New York, Bureau of Educational Research, Publication No. 40, October, 1960.

27. Lloyd, Francis. Educating the Sub-Normal Child. New York: Philosophical Library, 1953.

28. McCullough, Constance M. "The School's Concern with the Underachiever," Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 92. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, December, 1962.

29. Meil, Alice (ed.). "Individualized Reading Practices," Practical Suggestions for Teaching, No. 14. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1958.

30. _____. "Reading Instruction in Secondary Schools," National Education Association Research Bulletin. Vol. 20, No. 1; January, 1942.

31. Olson, Willard C. "Seeking, Self-Selection and Pacing in the Use of Books by Children," The Packet. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., Spring, 1952.

32. Robinson, H. Alan. "The Underachiever in Reading," Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 92. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, December, 1962.

33. Russell, David H. Children Learn to Read. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1961.

34. Schick, George B. (ed.). Journal of Reading, International Reading Association, Vol. 2. Newark, Delaware, November, 1964.

35. Schreiber, Daniel. "Fugitives from Failure--School Dropouts," NASSP Convention Address. St. Louis, February, 1962.

36. Sharpe, Maida Wood. "Individualized Reading: Follow-up Activities," Elementary English, 36:21-23, January, 1959.

37. Smith, Nila Banton. Reading Instruction for Today's Children. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964.

38. Spache, George D. Reading in the Elementary School. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1964.

39. Strang, Ruth and Constance McCullough, and Arthur Traxler. Problems in the Improvement of Reading. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1955.

40. _____. Diagnostic Teaching of Reading. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1964.

41. _____. The Improvement of Reading, Third Edition. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1961.

42. Tronsberg, Josephine. "Adjusting Reading Materials to the Slow Learner," A Report of the Ninth Annual Conference on Reading. Pittsburg, Pennsylvania: University of Pittsburg Press, July, 1953, p. 13-24.

43. Veatch, Jeannette. Individualizing Your Reading Program. New York: C.P. Putman's Sons, 1959.

44. _____. "Children's Interest and Individual Reading," The Reading Teacher. Vol. 10, No. 3, February, 1957.

45. _____. "Individualized Reading for Success in the Classroom," The Educational Trend. New London: Arthur C. Croft, No. 654, 1954.

46. Witty, Paul. Reading in Modern Education. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1949.

47. Woolf, Maurice and Jeanne Woolf. Remedial Reading. New York: McGraw-Hill Company, Inc., 1957.

APPENDICES

A

RECORDS

INTEREST AND ACTIVITY POLL

By A.J. Harris

Name_____ Class_____ Date_____

The purpose of these questions is to find out what kinds of things boys and girls of your age like and what kinds of things they dislike.

1. Who is your favorite movie star?_____

2. Who is your favorite radio star?_____

3. Who is the greatest man in the world today?_____

4. What things do you like to do most in your spare time?

   (a)_____

   (b)_____

   (c)_____

5. (a) About how many comic books do you read a week?_____

   (b) What comic books do you like best?

   (1)_____

   (2)_____

   (3)_____

6. What famous man would you most want to be like?_____

   What famous woman would you most like to be like?_____

7. What magazine do you sometimes read?

   (1)_____ How often?_____

   (2)_____ How often?_____

   (3)_____ How often?_____

   (a) What do you like most in the magazines?_____

   (b) what do you like least in the magazines?_____

8. How many books have you read just because you wanted to in the past three months?_____

(1)_____ Like_____Dislike____

(2)_____ Like_____Dislike____

9. If you had one thousand dollars ($1,000), what would you do with it?

(1)_____

(2)_____

(3)_____

10. (a) About how many hours a week do you spend listening to the radio and T.V.?_____

(b) What are your favorite radio or T.V. programs? List the one you like best first.

(1)_____ (4)_____

(2)_____ (5)_____

(3)_____ (6)_____

11. What three changes would you make, if you could?

(1)_____

(2)_____

(3)_____

12. (a) What newspaper do you read most often?_____

(b) What other paper do you read sometimes?_____

(c) Make a 1 in front of the part of the newspaper that you usually read first. Now make a 2 in front of the part that you read second. Now make an X in front of any other part that you sometimes read.

_____ sports news _____ war news

_____ comic strip _____ fashion news

_____ editorials _____ crime news

_____ financial news _____ store advertisements

_____ movies and theatres_____ radio programs

_____ political news _____ headlines

_____ columnists _____ news pictures

T.V._____

13. (a) About how often do you go to the movies?_____

(b) Make an L in front of the kinds of movies you like.

_____ adventure pictures _____ comedies

_____ religious movies _____ sad pictures

_____ love stories _____ murder mysteries

_____ musical pictures _____ Western pictures

_____ war pictures _____ cartoon pictures

_____ travel pictures

(c) Name the three pictures that you have liked most in the past two years.

(1) _____

(2)_____

(3)_____

14. What kind of stories do you like? Make an L in front of each kind of story you like. Place a D in front of each kind that you do not like.

_____ science	_____ sports	_____ love
_____ crime	_____ war	_____ how to make things
_____ nature	_____ flying	_____ travel
_____ spy	_____ history	_____ adventure
_____ murder	_____ romance	_____ cowboy
_____ fighting		

Teachers' and Clinicians'
CHILD STUDY RECORD

Paul Witty and David Kopel
Northwestern University Psycho-Educational Clinic
Evanston, Illinois

Revised by Paul Witty and Anne Coomer, 1948

FORM VI. PUPIL REPORT OF INTERESTS AND ACTIVITIES

Part 1. The Interest Inventory

Name..... Date of birth..... Age.....

Grade..... School..... Teacher..... Date.....

These questions are to find out some of the things boys and girls do and how they feel about certain things. Answer each question as accurately as you can. If you do not understand a question, you may ask your teacher about it.

1. When you have an hour or two that you can spend just as you please, what do you like best to do?.....

.....

2. What do you usually do:
   After school? .....
   In the evening? .....
   On Saturdays? .....
   On Sundays? .....

3. At what time do you usually go to bed?.....When do you get up?.....
   Are you ever tired in the morning?..... Sometimes?..... Often?.....
   Are you ever late for school?..... Sometimes?..... Often?.....
   Do you ever have headaches?..... Sometimes?..... Often?.....
   Are you ever absent from school because of illness?..... Sometimes?..... Often?.....
   Do you ever cry?..... Sometimes?..... Often?..... Why do you cry?.....

4. In the space below write the full names and ages of your close friends.

.....

.....

.....

Underline the name of your best friend. Do you have many friends or few?.....
Do you have a nickname?..... What?.....Do you like it?.....
What do you like to play best?.....
Would you rather play by yourself, with other boys, girls, boys and girls. Underline.
Do you fight with your friends? Never, sometimes, often. Underline.
Do you have as much time to play as you would like? .....
Do you have any brothers or sisters? Write their names and ages here: .....

.....

With which of them do you play? .....
Does your father or mother ever play with you?..... What? .....
Do you like to be with your mother much of the time? ..... With your father?.....

5. To what clubs or organizations do you belong?.....

.....

What do you do in your club?.....

.....

How long have you been a member?.....Are you an officer?.....

Where do you meet?..... When?.....

Do you go to Sunday School?.....

Do you take any kind of special lessons outside of school?.....

What kind?.....Do you like them?.....

How long have you been taking lessons?.....

Is there another type of lesson you would prefer to take? .....

6. What tools, toys, playthings do you have at home?.....

.....

Which do you like best?.....

Do you let other children use your toys?.....If not, why?.....

Is there any tool, toy, or equipment that you especially want?..... What?.....

Do you have a workshop?.....

Are you carrying on any experiments?..... What?.....

Do you ever give shows?.....

7. Do you receive spending money?.....How much?..... Regularly or occassionally?.....

Do you have a job after school or on Saturdays?..... What do you do?.....

..... How many hours each week do you work?.....

Have you ever earned any money?..... How?.....

How do you spend the money you receive or earn?.....

Do you save money?..... How?.....

Do you have chores or other regular duties to do at home?..... What?.....

Do you enjoy these duties?.....Do you like your home?.....

8. How often do you go to the movies?..... With whom, usually?.....

What are the names of the two best movies you have ever seen?

a. ..... b. .....

Underline the kinds of pictures you like best:

comedy western "sad" news love serial mystery gangster educational society cartoons

Who is your favorite actor?..... Actress?.....

If you were going into the movies, what kind of parts would you like to play?.....

What stage plays have you seen?.....

Do you prefer movies or plays? Underline.

9. Have you been to a farm?..... A circus?..... A zoo?..... A museum of art?.....

Other museums? .....

Have you been to an amusement park?.....Have you ever been on a picnic?.....

Do you ever go to concerts?..... How often?.....

Have you ever taken a trip by boat?.....By train?..... By airplane?..... By bus?.....
By automobile?..... By bicycle?.....Where did you go?.....

.....

.....

Where did you go during your last summer vacation? .....

.....

Underline *once* the places you *liked* and would like to see again; underline *twice* the places you *did not like.*

To what other places would you like to go?.....

.....

Who takes you to different places, or do you go alone? .....

10. What would you like to be when you are grown?.....
What would your father and mother like you to be? .....

11. What is your favorite radio program?..... Second?.....
Third?..... How much time a day do you spend listening to the radio?.....

12. What is your favorite television program?..... Second?.....
Third?..... How much time do you spend each day watching television?.....

13. Do you have a pet?..... What?.....
Are you making any collections?..... Of what? .....
Do you have a hobby?..... What?.....

14. Do you like school?.....
What school subjects do you like best?..... Second.....
Third.....
Do you take any electives?..... What?.....
What school subjects do you dislike?.....
What do you do best in school?.....

15. About how much time each day (outside of school) do you spend doing school work?.....
Do your parents help you with this? Never, sometimes, often. (Underline.)

16. Suppose you could have three wishes which might come true, what would be your first wish?.....
Second wish?.....
Third wish?.....
Have you told these wishes to any one?..... to whom? .....
Have any of your wishes ever come true?.....
Have you ever pretended to be someone else?..... Who? .....

17. Do you dream at night? Never, sometimes, often. (Underline.)

What do you dream about?.....

Are your dreams pleasant?.....

Are you ever frightened by dreams?.....

18. What things do you *wonder* about?.....

.....

19. Are you afraid of many things?.....

Name some of the things you fear.....

20. Do you enjoy reading?.....

Do you like to have someone read to you?..... Who? .....

Apart from lessons, about how much time each day do you spend reading?.....

Do your parents encourage you to read at home?.....

What are the names of some books you have been reading during the last two months?.....

.....

.....

.....

Draw a line through the names of those books which you did not finish.

Do you have a card for the public or school library?.....How often do you get books from the library?.....

How many books do you have of your own?..... Name some: .....

.....

What other books would you like to own?.....

About how many books are there in your home?.....

Underline the kinds of reading you enjoy most: history, travel, plays, essays, adventure, stories, science poetry, novels, detective stories, fairy tales, mystery stories, biography, music, art.

21. What newspapers do you read?.....

What parts do you like best?.....

Name the comic strips you read and underline your favorites .....

.....

22. What magazines are received regularly at your home? .....

.....

Underline those which you read.

Name your favorite magazines:.....

Name the comic books you read and underline your favorites .....

.....

Where do you get your magazines and comic books? .....

Sample Informal Reading Inventory

Name_____ Age_____ Grade_____ Date____

A. Preliminary questions (subjects liked best and least; current reading; pupil description of reading problems, etc.)

B. Word Recognition:

Rest used_____Score timed___Score untimed_____

Difficult word:

Typical errors:

Analysis techniques:

C. Comprehension:

Reading Series_____. Level achieved: Independent:

_____ (pre-primer, primer, third reader, etc.)

Level achieved: Instructional:_____

1. Main idea:
2. Sequence:
3. Details:
4. Critical thinking:
5. Drawing conclusions:

Betts, Emmett A., Informal Inventory Form B1. Betts Reading Clinic, Haverford, Pa.

REMEDIAL READING DIAGNOSTIC SUMMARY

Name_____ Date of Birth_____ Age_____

Class_____ Teacher_____ Home Address_____

Test Results

Test	Date	Result	Test	Date	Result
Reading			Intelligence		
			Other		

Physical: General Condition

Defects

Lateral Dominance: Eye_____Hand_____Converted_____

School History

Grade Progress

Attendance

Marks in Reading

Other Subjects

Remarks

Difficulties in Reading

Word Recognition

Oral Reading

Silent Reading

Attitude Toward Reading

Remarks

Family

Cultural

Parents

Siblings

Treatment of Child

Personality

Relations with Adults

Relations with Children

Temperament, Mood

Remarks

Hobbies, Interests, Skills

Recommendations

Reading

School Adjustment

Advice to Parents

Other

Date of Summary_____ Made by_____

Harris, Albert J., How to Increase Reading Ability. New York David McKay Company, Inc., 1961.

TEACHER RECORDS

The teacher can keep a running anecdotal record on progress in wording of each child in a notebook. The date, pages, and books read, difficulties, strengths, attitudes, work-sheets and written work completed are some of the items which can be noted. Each child is given a page in the teacher's notebook. It might look like the following example:

NAME:_____

DATE	COMMENTS	WORDS FOR PRACTICE
12-12	Around Green Hills, pp. 3-11	blows
12-13	pp. 12-31, read orally p. 12	things
12-16	pp. 67-91, oral, p. 67, 68	has
1-6	pp. 113-125, oral, p. 124 (Is easily distracted--should read without disturbance.)	thing find that

To systematize observations a teacher might keep a summary page. Divide the double pages in a notebook into columns as illustrated:

Page 1:

Name_____

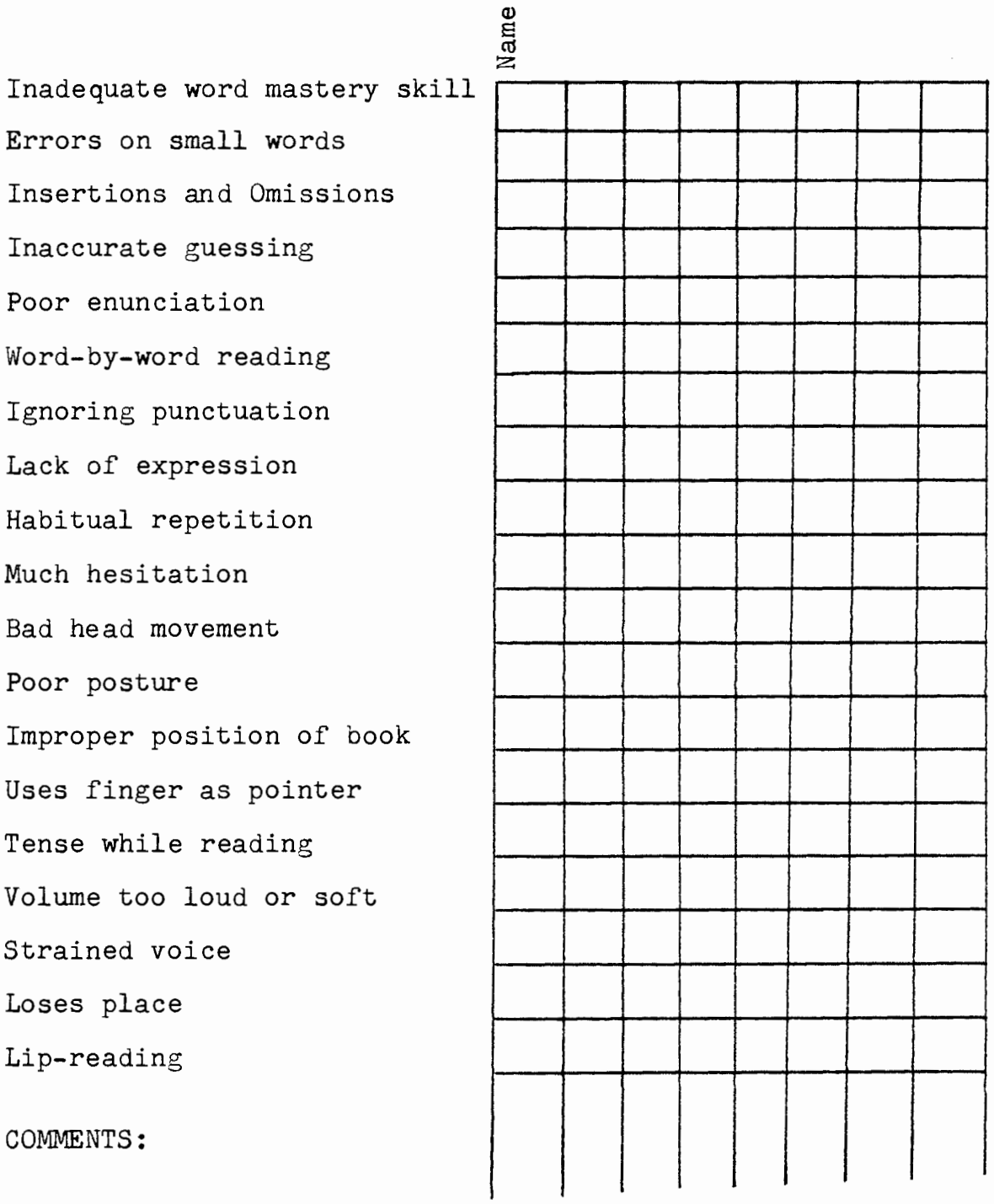
Date	Book Title	Level	Pages Read	Progress in Skills

Page 2:

Independent Activities	Written Work	Sharing Comments

Darrow, Helen Fisher and Howes, Virgil M. Approaches to Individualized Reading. New York: Appleton-Century-Croft, Inc., 1960.

CLASS ORAL READING PROFILE



Harris, Albert J., How to Increase Reading Ability. New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1961.

Russell suggests that teachers use a mimeographed paragraph or selection and record errors as the pupil makes them. He suggests the following symbols.

1. Underline any whole word mispronounced and write in the attempt above, as

trick
tip

2. Underline part of a word mispronounced and write in above to show the wrong part, as

small
sm<u>ile</u>

3. Draw a circle around an omitted word or words, as

(was)

4. Draw a circle around part of a word omitted, as

play(ing)

5. Write in R in front of the first word repeated and continue it under any more repeated words, as

R
<u>Once again we</u>

6. Draw a caret and note any word inserted, as

the
I like^meat

Russell, David H. <u>Children Learn to Read</u>. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1961.

Name of class_____ Section_____ Teacher_____

SUMMARY CHART

Comments						
Use of parts of book						
Vocabulary						
Meaning						
Contextual meanings						
Synonyms and antonyms						
General knowledge						
Word recognition						
Syllabication						
Accent						
Prefixes and suffixes						
Part of speech						
Comprehension						
Main ideas						
Supporting details						
Drawing conclusions						
Sequence of ideas						
Skimming						
Speed in wpm						
Name of Students						

Strang, Ruth, Diagnostic Teaching of Reading, New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1964.

A CHECK LIST OF READING AND STUDY SKILLS FOR THE CONTENT AREAS

Subject_____ Teacher_____

Skills	Relevance to the Subject				Status of Students		
	Very Imp.	Important	Of little Importance	Of no Importance	Superior	Adequate	Poor
WORD-ATTACK SKILLS							
1. Phonetic attack on new words							
2. Knowledge of inflectional endings							
3. Use of context clues for pronouncing new words							
4. Knowledge of principles of syllabication							
5. Knowledge of compound words							
6. Extensive sight vocabulary							
7. Recognition of prefixes, suffixes, and roots							
WORD-MEANING SKILLS							
1. Understanding of technical terms							
2. Use of the dictionary							
3. Use of the glossary							
4. Use of new terms in speaking and writing							
5. Understanding of prefixes, suffixes, and roots							
6. Understanding of figurative language							
7. Understanding of personal and general connotations of words							
8. Understanding of technical vocabulary related only to this subject							

COMPREHENSION SKILLS

1. Recognition and understanding of main ideas
2. Recognition of relevant details
3. Recognition of relationships among main ideas
4. Organization of ideas in sequence
5. Understanding of time and distance concepts
6. Following directions
7. Reading maps, tables, and graphs
8. Distinguishing between facts and opinions
9. Judging and criticizing what is read
10. Reading widely to seek additional evidence
11. Drawing inferences
12. Listening attentively and critically

STUDY SKILLS

1. Using textbooks efficiently
2. Using the library efficiently
3. Taking notes
4. Scheduling time efficiently
5. Preparing for examinations
6. Preparing for discussions and reports
7. Using reference materials efficiently

MECHANICAL SKILLS

1. Adjusting rate of reading to suit purpose and content
2. Reading orally
3. Reading selectively
4. Skimming with a purpose

INTERESTS

1. Developing new interests
2. Developing wide interests
3. Shifting interests without losing motivation

PUPIL RECORDS

A 4" x 6" card, divided into columns, shows the date, the book or story title, the anticipated plan, and the result. In a few words a child records his plan for reading, sharing, or some reading activity. Later he records the actual results, evaluates his achievements or notes a change in the plan.

Name_____

Date	Title	Plan	Results
10-27	Home for Sandy	Decide later	Draw picture
11-14	Rain or Shine	Peepshow Read extra story	
12-11	Lost and Found	Peepshow	Draw pictures Told story to class
1-8	Down Singing River	Diorama	Told story to teacher

A running diary of reading activities helps children to feel a sense of accomplishment. Daily they record in a notebook their reading activities for the day, anticipated projects, and accomplishments.

Mary

Monday: Read. Took turns reading with John.

Tuesday: Talked over my work with the teacher.

Wednesday: Helped John, Susan, May, and Dolores on a play about a story we read. Read in my book.

Thursday: Read to the teacher.

Friday: Drew a picture of my favorite story for our bulletin board.

This record can be used to increase the awareness of the reader of the many types of reading materials. The name of each story, article, book, or headline is listed at the bottom of the sheet and the appropriate number is then placed in the box at the top to classify the sources and characterize the content.

Name_____

Kind of story	Books	Newspapers	Magazines
Adventure			
Science			
People			
Fairy Tale			
Places			
Animals			
Mystery			
Facts			
Poetry			
Music			

NAME OF STORY AND DATE

1._____ 3._____

2._____ 4._____

The teacher and students can share the responsibility for developing record.

For example, the class can place a large wall chart on a bulletin board to record books read by everyone in the class. As each pupil finishes a book, he records the author, title, and date on the chart. He does not write his name, as the purpose of the chart is not to show individual achievement but class achievement. If when a pupil goes to record his book and finds it already recorded, he merely makes a tally mark by it. It soon becomes evident which books are class favorites.

Another recording system might be a file card catalogue. As each child finishes a book, he records it on a 5" x 8" mimeographed card.

TITLE OF STORY:
AUTHOR:
NUMBER OF PAGES:
COMMENTS:

The students should be encouraged to make interesting comments. They might describe the plot, ask a thought-provoking question, tell an exciting episode without telling the outcome. They might even draw a picture.

Darrow, Helen Fisher and Howes, Virgil M. Approaches to Individualized Reading. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1960.

BARBE READING SKILLS CHECK LIST
READINESS LEVEL

(Last Name) (First Name) (Name of School)

(Age) (Grade Placement) (Name of Teacher)

I. Vocabulary:

A. Word Recognition

1. Interested in words _____
2. Recognizes own name in print _____
3. Knows names of letters _____
4. Knows names of numbers _____
5. Can match letters _____
6. Can match numbers _____
7. Can match capital and small letters _____

B. Word Meaning

1. Speaking vocabulary adequate to convey ideas _____
2. Associates pictures to words _____
3. Identifies new words by picture clues _____

II. Perceptive Skills:

A. Auditory

1. Can reproduce pronounced two and three syllable words _____
2. Knows number of sounds in spoken words _____
3. Can hear differences in words _____
4. Able to hear length of word (Which is shorter? boy - elephant) _____
5. Able to hear sound:
   - At beginning of word _____
   - At end of word _____
   - In middle of word _____
6. Hears rhyming words _____
7. Aware of unusual words _____

B. Visual

1. Uses picture clues
2. Recognizes:
   - Colors _____
   - Sizes (big, little; tall, short) _____
   - Shapes (square, round, triangle) _____
3. Observes likenesses and differences
   - in words _____
   - in letters _____
4. Left-right eye movements _____

III. Comprehension:

A. Interest

1. Wants to learn to read _____
2. Likes to be read to _____
3. Attention span sufficiently long _____

B. Ability

1. Remembers from stories read aloud:
   - Names of characters _____
   - Main ideas _____
   - Conclusion _____
2. Can keep events in proper sequence _____
3. Uses complete sentences _____
4. Can work independently for short periods _____
5. Begins at front of book _____
6. Begins on left hand page _____
7. Knows sentence begins at left _____

IV. Oral Expression:

A. Expresses self spontaneously _____

B. Able to remember five word sentence _____

C. Able to make up simple endings for stories _____

D. Able to use new words _____

Teacher's Notes:

Reprinted by permission.

BARBE READING SKILLS CHECK LIST
FIRST GRADE LEVEL

94

(Last Name) (First Name) (Name of School)

(Age) (Grade Placement) (Name of Teacher)

I. Vocabulary:

A. Word Recognition

1. Recognizes words with both capital and small letters at beginning _____
2. Is able to identify in various settings the following words usually found in preprimers:

___ a	___ do	___ jump	___ show
___ airplane	___ dog	___ kitten	___ sleep
___ an	___ down	___ like	___ something
___ and	___ father	___ little	___ splash
___ apple	___ fast	___ look	___ stop
___ are	___ find	___ make	___ surprise
___ at	___ fine	___ may	___ table
___ away	___ fish	___ me	___ thank
___ baby	___ for	___ mitten	___ that
___ ball	___ funny	___ mother	___ the
___ be	___ get	___ morning	___ tree
___ bed	___ girl	___ my	___ to
___ big	___ give	___ near	___ toy
___ birthday	___ go	___ no	___ two
___ blue	___ good	___ not	___ up
___ boat	___ good-by	___ oh	___ want
___ bow-wow	___ green	___ on	___ we
___ cake	___ has	___ one	___ what
___ call	___ have	___ party	___ where
___ can	___ he	___ pie	___ will
___ cap	___ help	___ play	___ with
___ car	___ her	___ pretty	___ work
___ Christmas	___ here	___ puppy	___ yellow
___ come	___ hide	___ ran	___ you
___ cookies	___ home	___ red	___ your
___ cowboy	___ house	___ ride	
___ daddy	___ I	___ run	
___ did	___ in	___ said	
___ dinner	___ is	___ see	
___ dish	___ it	___ she	

Only additional words found in six of seven leading primers were:

___ about	___ fun	___ night	___ they
___ again	___ had	___ new	___ this
___ all	___ happy	___ now	___ too
___ am	___ him	___ of	___ us
___ as	___ his	___ put	___ walk
___ back	___ how	___ rabbit	___ was
___ black	___ just	___ sat	___ water
___ boy	___ know	___ saw	___ way
___ but	___ laugh	___ so	___ went
___ came	___ let	___ some	___ were
___ could	___ long	___ soon	___ when
___ cow	___ man	___ take	___ white
___ eat	___ many	___ them	___ wish
___ farm	___ Mr.	___ then	___ who
___ from	___ must	___ there	___ yes

(List prepared by Olive Reeve, Whitewater (Wisc.) State College.)

II. Word Analysis:

A. Phonics

1. Recognizes single initial consonants and can make their sound:

b ___	k ___	q ___	w ___
d ___	l ___	r ___	x ___
f ___	m ___	s ___	y ___
h ___	n ___	t ___	z ___
j ___	p ___	v ___	

_____

2. Knows single consonant sounds in final position (hat) _____
3. Knows single consonant sounds in middle position (seven) _____
4. Names of vowels are introduced _____
5. Knows sounds of initial consonant blends _____ (listed in order of difficulty)

sh___	fr___	cl___	sw___
st___	wh___	gl___	tw___
bl___	th___	sp___	
pl___	ch___	sm___	
tr___	fl___	sn___	

B. Structural Analysis

1. Knows endings _____
   - ed sound as "ed" in wanted ___
   - ed sound as "d" in moved ___
   - ed sound as "t" in liked ___
   - ing ___
   - s ___
2. Recognizes compound words (into, upon) _____
3. Knows common word families:

all___	et___	an___	ay___
at___	en___	ill___	ake___
it___	in___	ell___	or___

C. Word Form Clues

1. Notices capital and small letters _____
2. Notices length of words _____
3. Notices double letters _____

III. Comprehension:

- **A.** Understands that printed symbols represent objects or actions _____
- **B.** Can follow printed directions (Find the boy's house.) _____
- **C.** Can verify a statement (See if Sandy ran away.) _____
- **D.** Can draw conclusions from given facts (What do you think happened then?) _____
- **E.** Can recall what has been read aloud _____
- **F.** Can recall what has been read silently _____
- **G.** Can place events in sequence _____
- **H.** Can remember where to find answers to questions _____

IV. Oral and Silent Reading Skills:

A. Oral Reading

1. Uses correct pronunciation _____
2. Uses correct phrasing (not word-by-word) _____
3. Uses proper voice intonation to give meaning _____
4. Has good posture and handles book appropriately _____
5. Understands simple punctuation:
   - period (.) ___
   - comma (,) ___
   - question mark (?) ___
   - exclamation mark (!) ___

B. Silent Reading

1. Reads without vocalization: _____
   - Lip movements ___
   - Whispering ___
2. Reads without head movements _____

BARBE READING SKILLS CHECK LIST
SECOND GRADE LEVEL

95

(Last Name) (First Name) (Name of School)

(Age) (Grade Placement) (Name of Teacher)

I. Vocabulary:

A. Word Recognition

1. Recognizes 220 Dolch Basic Sight Words (by end of year) _____

___ a	___as	___again	___about	___any
___ all	___away	___ate	___after	___better
___ am	___be	___black	___always	___both
___ an	___black	___but	___around	bring
___ and	___brown	___cold	___ask	___carry
___ are	___by	___cut	___because	___clean
___ at	___came	___fast	___been	___could
___ big	___did	___first	___before	___done
___ blue	___eat	___five	___best	___don't
___ call	___fall	___fly	___buy	___draw
___ can	___find	___four	___does	___drink
___ come	___for	___give	___for	___eight
___ do	___get	___goes	___found	___every
___ down	___going	___going	___full	___hurt
___ funny	___have	___got	___gave	___know
___ go	___her	___green	___grow	___light
___ good	___him	___had	___hold	___myself
___ he	___his	___has	___how	___never
___ help	___if	___hot	___just	___own
___ here	___into	___its	___keep	___pick
___ I	___laugh	___long	___kind	___right
___ in	___let	___made	___much	___seven
___ is	___live	___many	___must	___shall
___ it	___may	___new	___now	___show
___ jump	___my	___not	___off	___their
___ like	___no	___of	___once	___them
___ little	___old	___open	___only	___then
___ look	___on	___please	___round	___there
___ make	___one	___or	___sleep	___these
___ me	___put	___our	___small	___think
___ out	___saw	___pull	___take	___those
___ play	___said	___read	___tell	___together
___ pretty	___she	___saw	___thank	___use
___ ran	___sit	___say	___that	___very
___ red	___some	___sing	___they	___want
___ ride	___stop	___six	___this	___warm
___ run	___three	___soon	___too	___wash
___ see	___today	___ten	___try	___went
___ so	___two	___upon	___under	___what
___ the	___was	___us	___walk	___when
___ to	___will	___who	___well	___where
___ up	___work	___why	___were	___which
___ we	___yes	___wish	___white	___would
___ you	___yellow	___your	___with	___write

2. Use word form clues
   a. Configuration _____
   b. Visual similarity of rhyming words (call, fall, ball) _____
3. Is familiar with structural analysis
   a. Little words in big words (many) _____
   b. Compound words (barnyard) _____
   c. Possessives and word endings:

's___	er___
d___	est___
ed___	y___
ing___	ly___
t___	

   d. Contractions: _____

I'm___	don't___
I'll___	won't___
can't___	

B. Word Meaning

1. Multiple meanings of words _____
2. Synonymous meanings (jolly-happy) _____
3. Opposites (up—down) _____
4. Words pronounced the same (rode—road) _____

II. Word Analysis:

A. Phonics

1. Knows consonant sounds taught in first grade (b, d, f, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, w, x, y, z and st, tr, fr, sm, sn, sw, tw, bl, gl, fl, pl, cl, sh, ch, wh, th) _____
2. Applies these sounds and blends to:
   a. initial position in words (let) _____
   b. final position in words (bank) _____
   c. medial position in words (little) _____
3. Knows word families:

ou as in out___	er as in her___
ow as in show and cow___	ur as in fur___
	ir as in bird___
oi as in oil___	eck as in neck___
oy as in boy___	ick as in sick___
oo as in balloon___ and book___	ack as in back___
aw as in straw___	uck as in duck___
ew as in new___	ing as in sing___
ight as in night___	ike as in like___
ind as in find___	

4. Short vowel sounds (a, o, i, u, e) (taught in this order) _____
5. Long vowel sounds _____
6. Understands function of "y" as a consonant at beginning of word (yard) and vowel (bicycle) anywhere else _____
7. Knows two sounds of c and g:
   C followed by i, e or y makes s sound _____
   C followed by a, o or u makes k sound (examples: city, cent and cat, cot) _____
   G followed by i, e or y makes j sound _____
   G followed by a, o or u makes guh sound (examples: ginger, gym and game, gun) _____
8. Knows initial consonant sound includes all consonants up to first vowel _____
9. Knows three letter initial blends _____

str___	spr___
sch___	spl___
thr___	chr___

10. Phonics rules:
    a. A single vowel in a word or syllable is usually short (hat) _____
    b. A single e at the end of a word makes the preceding vowel long (hate) _____
    c. A single vowel at the end of a word is usually long (she) _____
    d. When there are two vowels together, the first is long and the second silent (pail, train) _____
    e. Vowels are influenced when followed by "r," "w" and "l"
       star___
       saw___
       all___

B. Structural Analysis

1. Recognizes root or base words (mines, mined, miner) _____
2. Recognizes word endings _____
   en as in waken ___
   ful as in careful ___
3. Knows contractions: _____

isn't___	you're___
I've___	let's___
I'm___	it's___
he's___	we've___

4. Knows possessives (Bill's) _____
5. Can disconnect printed fi and fl (fish and fly) _____

III. Comprehension:

A. Association of ideas of material read

1. Can draw conclusions _____
2. Can predict outcomes _____
3. Can find proof _____
4. Can associate text with pictures _____

B. Organization of ideas

1. Can follow printed directions _____
2. Can find main idea _____
3. Can follow plot sequence _____

C. Locating information

1. Can use: _____
   table of contents ___
   page number ___
   titles ___
2. Can find specific information _____

D. Appreciation

1. Able to dramatize stories read _____
2. Able to illustrate stories read _____
3. Able to tell a story which has been read previously _____
4. Owns at least several books which he particularly likes _____

IV. Oral Reading:

A. Reads clearly and distinctly _____
B. Reads with expression _____
C. Reads fluently _____
D. Reads so that listeners enjoy the story _____

BARBE READING SKILLS CHECK LIST
THIRD GRADE LEVEL

(Last Name) (First Name) (Name of School)

(Age) (Grade Placement) (Name of Teacher)

I. Vocabulary:

A. Word Recognition

1. Recognizes Dolch 220 Basic Sight Words _____

___ a	___as	___again	___about	___any
___ all	___away	___ate	___after	___better
___ am	___be	___black	___always	___both
___ an	___black	___but	___around	___bring
___ and	___brown	___cold	___ask	___carry
___ are	___by	___cut	___because	___clean
___ at	___came	___fast	___been	___could
___ big	___did	___first	___before	___done
___ blue	___eat	___five	___best	___don't
___ call	___fall	___fly	___buy	___draw
___ can	___find	___four	___does	___drink
___ come	___for	___give	___for	___eight
___ do	___get	___goes	___found	___every
___ down	___going	___going	___full	___hurt
___ funny	___have	___got	___gave	___know
___ go	___her	___green	___grow	___light
___ good	___him	___had	___hold	___myself
___ he	___his	___has	___how	___never
___ help	___if	___hot	___just	___own
___ here	___into	___its	___keep	___pick
___ I	___laugh	___long	___kind	___right
___ in	___let	___made	___much	___seven
___ is	___live	___many	___must	___shall
___ it	___may	___new	___now	___show
___ jump	___my	___not	___off	___their
___ like	___no	___of	___once	___them
___ little	___old	___open	___only	___then
___ look	___on	___please	___round	___there
___ make	___one	___or	___sleep	___these
___ me	___put	___our	___small	___think
___ out	___saw	___pull	___take	___those
___ play	___said	___read	___tell	___together
___ pretty	___she	___saw	___thank	___use
___ ran	___sit	___say	___that	___very
___ red	___some	___sing	___they	___want
___ ride	___stop	___six	___this	___warm
___ run	___three	___soon	___too	___wash
___ see	___today	___ten	___try	___went
___ so	___two	___upon	___under	___what
___ the	___was	___us	___walk	___when
___ to	___will	___who	___well	___where
___ up	___work	___why	___were	___which
___ we	___yes	___wish	___white	___would
___ you	___yellow	___your	___with	___write

2. Refinement of skills previously taught _____

a. Compound words

b. Prefixes and suffixes:

a ___	dis ___	ful ___	
un ___	in ___	less ___	
ex ___	th ___	ness ___	
be ___	ty ___		

c. Identification of root words _____

d. Knows all initial consonant sounds (single sounds and blends—up to first vowel in word) _____

e. Can read all contractions _____

B. Word Meaning

1. Provided many experiences to increase speaking and reading vocabulary _____
2. Able to select descriptive and figurative words and phrases _____
3. Able to supply synonyms, antonyms and homonyms _____
4. Understands use of elementary school dictionary to find word meaning _____

II. Word Analysis:

A. Review and refine previously taught skills:

1. All initial consonant sounds _____
2. Short and long vowel sounds _____
3. Changes in words by:
   a. adding s, es, d, ed, ing, er, est _____
   b. dropping final e and adding ing _____
   c. doubling the consonant before adding ing _____
   d. changing y to i before adding es _____
4. Compound words _____
5. Contractions _____
6. Vowel rules
   a. vowel in one syllable word is short _____
   b. vowel in syllable or word ending in e is long _____
   c. two vowels together, first is long and second is silent _____
7. Possessive forms _____
8. C followed by i, e, y makes s sound _____
   C followed by a, o, u makes k sound _____
9. G followed by i, e, y makes j sound _____
   G followed by a, o, u makes guh sound _____
10. Silent letters in kn, wr, gn _____

B. Learns new skills of:

1. Forming plurals
   by adding s, es, ies _____
   by changing f to v and adding es _____
2. Similarities of sound such as x and cks (box—blocks) _____

C. Syllabication rules

1. There are usually as many syllables in a word as there are vowels _____
2. Where there is a single consonant between two vowels, the vowel goes with the first syllable (pu/pil) _____
3. When there is a double consonant, the syllable break is between the two consonants and one is silent (example: lit/tle) _____

D. Can hyphenate words using syllable rules _____

E. Understands use of primary accent mark _____

F. Knows to accent first syllable, unless it is a prefix, otherwise accent second syllable _____

III. Comprehension:

A. Can find main idea in story _____
B. Can keep events in proper sequence _____
C. Can draw logical conclusions _____
D. Is able to see relationships _____
E. Can predict outcomes _____
F. Can follow printed directions _____
G. Can read for a definite purpose:
   1. for pleasure _____
   2. to obtain answer to question _____
   3. to obtain general idea of content _____
H. Classify items _____
I. Use index _____
J. Alphabetize words by first two letters _____
K. Knows technique of skimming _____
L. Can determine what source to obtain information (dictionary, encyclopedia, index, glossary, etc.) _____
M. Use maps and charts _____

IV. Oral Reading:

A. Reads with a pleasing voice quality _____
B. Reads with adequate volume _____
C. Reads with clear and distinct enunciation _____
D. Accuracy in pronunciation _____
E. Ability to convey meaning to listeners _____

BARBE READING SKILLS CHECK LIST
FOURTH LEVEL READING SKILLS

(Last Name) (First Name) (Name of School)

(Age) (Grade Placement) (Name of Teacher)

I. Vocabulary:

A. Word Recognition

1. Introduce new words in content fields _____
2. Recognizes similarities of known words _____
   a. compound words___ d. plurals ___
   b. root words ___ e. hyphenated words ___
   c. suffixes, prefixes___ f. contractions ___
3. Recognizes unusual characteristics of words ___

B. Word Meaning

1. Develop ability in getting meaning from context _____
2. Use new words in sentences to show meaning _____
4. Knows punctuation _____
   a. italics ___ c. parenthesis ___
   b. quotation marks ___ d. exclamation marks ___
5. Use of map skills _____

C. Review Dolch Words

II. Word Attack Skills:

A. Structural analysis

1. Knows rules for syllables
   a. Each syllable must contain a vowel and a single vowel can be a syllable _____
   b. Suffixes and prefixes are syllables with meanings of their own _____
   c. The root word is not divided _____
   d. If the first vowel is followed by two consonants, the first syllable usually ends with the first consonant (example: pen cil) _____
   e. If the first vowel is followed by a single consonant, the consonant usually begins the second syllable (example: a maze, am ple) _____
   f. If a word ends in le preceded by a consonant, that consonant begins the last syllable _____
   g. The letter x always goes with the preceding vowel to form a syllable (example: ex it) _____
   h. The letters ck go with the preceding vowel and end the syllable (example: chick en) _____
2. Knows accent clues
   a. The first syllable is usually accented, unless it is a prefix _____
   b. Beginning syllables de, re, be, in and a are usually unaccented _____
   c. Endings that form syllables are usually unaccented (run ning) _____
   d. ck following a single vowel is accented (example: jack et) _____
3. Teach these suffixes and prefixes:
   a. Suffixes:

ness	(being)	sickness	___
ment	(result of)	movement	___
ward	(in direction of)	backward	___
ous	(full of)	joyous	___
ious eous	(abounding in)	gracious	___
et	(little)	leaflet	___
able	(capable of being)	capable	___
ible		credible	___
ic	(like, made of)	magic	___
ish	(like)	foolish	___
ant	(being)	vacant	___
ent	(one who)	president	___
age	(collection of)	baggage	___
ance	(state of being)	disturbance	___
ence	(state or quality)	violence	___
wise	(ways)	crosswise	___
ling	(little)	duckling	___
ty	(state)	unity	___
ity		vicinity	___
ure	(denoting action)	pleasure	___
ion	(condition or quality)	action	___

   b. Prefixes:

dis	(not, apart)	dismiss	___
in	(not)	invade	___
mis	(wrong)	mistake	___
anti	(against)	anticlimax	___
non	(not)	nonsense	___
com	(with)	combine	___
con	(with)	connect	___
pre	(before)	prepare	___
super	(over)	superior	___
tri	(three)	tricycle	___
sub	(under)	submarine	___
post	(after)	postscript	___
ab	(from)	abnormal	___
trans	(across)	translate	___
em	(in)	embark	___
de	(from)	depart	___
inter	(between)	interurban	___
pro	(in front of)	promote	___
ex	(out of or out)	explain	___
en	(in)	enter	___
ob	(against)	object	___
per	(fully, through)	perfect	___

B. Phonic analysis

1. Review phonic skills
   a. Single consonants and blends _____
   b. Short and long vowels _____
   c. Vowel teams:

ee___	au___	oi___
ea___	aw___	oy___
ai___	oa___	ou___
ay___	oo___	ow___

2. Review Vowel rules
   a. In attacking a vowel sound try first the short sound; if the word then doesn't make sense try the long sound.
   b. Vowels are usually short when they appear as single vowels and are followed by a consonant.
   c. Vowels are usually given the long sound when they appear alone and are the last letters of a word.
   d. When two vowels appear together in a word, the first vowel is long and the second is silent.
   e. In short word containing two vowels where one of the vowels is a final e, the first vowel will have a long sound while the final e is silent.

C. Training in use of dictionary and glossary

1. As taught on third grade level.
   a. Review order of letters in alphabet.
   b. Review the alphabetical arrangement of words.
2. Teach the division of dictionary to determine in which 1/3 or 1/4 the word may be found.
3. Teach the meaning and use of the phonetic spelling that follows in parenthesis each word in the dictionary.
4. Teach the meaning and use of the pronunciation key given at the bottom of every page.
5. Teach the selecting of the meaning which fits best according to the context in which the word is used.
6. Teach the meaning and use of guide words.
7. Teach the meaning and use of the secondary accent mark.

III. Comprehension:

A. Finding the main idea

1. Choosing titles for material read
2. Summarizing
3. Can identify key words and topic sentences

B. Finding details

1. Finding specific information
2. Interpreting descriptive words and phrases
3. Selecting facts to remember
4. Selecting facts to support main idea
5. Using study guides, charts, outlines
6. Verifying answers
7. Arranging ideas in sequence

C. Creative reading

1. Able to interpret story ideas (generalize)
2. Able to see relationships
3. Able to identify the mood of a reading selection
4. Able to identify author's purpose
5. Able to identify character traits

D. Formal outlining

1. Form _____
   a. Main ideas (I, II, III)
   b. Subordinate ideas (A, B, C)
2. Talking from an outline

IV. Oral Reading:

A. Review previously taught skills _____

B. Eye-voice span of three words _____

BARBE READING SKILLS CHECK LIST
FIFTH LEVEL READING SKILLS

98

(Last Name) (First Name) (Name of School)

(Age) (Grade Placement) (Name of Teacher)

I. Vocabulary:

A. Word recognition of vocabulary in content areas

Social Studies—English—Arithmetic—Science—Miscellaneous

_____ _____ _____ _____ _____
_____ _____ _____ _____ _____
_____ _____ _____ _____ _____
_____ _____ _____ _____ _____
_____ _____ _____ _____ _____

B. Meaning of words
1. Interpreting word meanings
2. Semantics
3. Synonyms, antonyms, homonyms, heteronyms
4. Knows abstract meanings of words
5. Understands figurative and colorful expressions
6. Understands colloquial speech

II. Word Attack Skills:

A. Phonics skills
1. Syllabication
   a. Each syllable must contain a vowel and a single vowel can be a syllable.
   b. The root or base word is a syllable and is not divided.
   c. Blends are not divided. (th str)
   d. Suffixes and prefixes are syllables. (dust y in come)
   e. If the vowel in a syllable is followed by two consonants, the syllable usually ends with the first consonant.
   f. If a vowel in a syllable is followed by only one consonant, the syllable usually ends with a vowel.
   g. If a word ends in le, the consonant just before the l begins the last syllable.
   h. When there is an r after a vowel, the r goes with the vowel to make the "er" sound. (er ir ur)
2. Vowel sounds (review long and short sounds)
   a. When there is only one vowel in a word or syllable the vowel is short.
   b. When there are two vowels in a word or syllable, the first vowel is long and the second is silent.
3. Accent.
   a. In a word of 2 or more syllables, the first syllable is usually accented unless it is a prefix.

B. Dictionary
1. Alphabetization.
   a. Division into quarters and thirds.
   b. Classifying words by second, third, and fourth letters.
2. Using a dictionary.
   a. Recognize and learn abbreviated parts of speech as n. = noun; v. = verb; adj. = adjective; adv. = adverb.
   b. Learning the preferred pronunciation.
3. Use of guide words.
4. Syllabication and accent.
5. Interpreting diacritical markings. (bottom of page)
6. Interpreting key to pronunciations. (bottom of page)
7. Interpreting phonetic re-spellings.
8. Cross references.
9. Plurals — irregular. (deer, deer shelf, shelves)
10. Comparative and superlative adjectives. (many, more, most)
11. Change in accent and its effect on pronunciation and meaning of words. (pre'sent, present')
12. Secondary accent.
13. Parts of a verb. Tenses — present and past.
14. Adverbs derived from adjectives. (ly ending as a clue or help.)

C. Glossary
1. Dictionary of words for one particular book.
2. Use guide words.
3. Find meanings to understand what is being read.

D. Context clues
1. Review using context clues.
2. Review associating ideas with words.
3. Review associating ideas with characters.
4. Sentence structure. (Noun, verb)
5. In poetry, Rhythm scheme can sometimes help.

III. Comprehension:

A. Locating information
1. Table of contents.
   a. Examine tables of contents of several books.
   b. List titles and have pupils use table of contents to locate pages.
2. Examine books to find: title page, pictures, key, guide words, publisher, copyright year.

B. Reference materials
1. The encyclopedia
   a. Topics arranged alphabetically.
   b. Show meaning of characters on back of each volume.
   c. Compare dictionaries and encyclopedias for differences of materials.
   d. Pupils should know names of important children's encyclopedias.
2. The atlas and maps.
   a. Examine atlas to find answers for questions on location, relative size, direction and distance.
   b. Use maps to explain latitude and longitude. Compare with known facts about streets and highways.
3. Magazines and newspapers. Use to supply more recent information than textbook could contain.
4. Knows proper use of dictionary.
5. Time tables.
   a. Reading and interpreting.
   b. Following directions.
6. Card catalogue.
   a. Explain that every book has its place on the shelf.
   b. Each class of books has its own call number.
   c. Examine cards. Author, title, subject
   d. Give practice in location of titles and call numbers.
7. Using a telephone book.
8. Catalogues.

C. Reading to organize
1. Outlining. Use roman numerals and letters.
2. Establish a sequence. Pupils list sentences in order of event.
3. Follow directions.
4. Summarize.

D. Note taking
1. From reading
2. From lectures

E. Reading for appreciation
1. To derive pleasure
2. To form sensory impressions
3. To develop imagery
4. To understand characters
   a. physical appearance
   b. emotional make-up

IV. Oral Reading:

A. Recognize and pronounce words with speed and accuracy.
B. Group words into meaningful phrases.
C. Interpret marks of punctuation accurately.
D. Re-express to an audience the meaning and feelings expressed by an author.
E. Express emotion sincerely.
F. Read in a pleasant, well-modulated voice.
G. Read with poise and self-confidence.
H. Dramatize portions of the story.
I. "Televise" or give radio version of story incidents.
J. Take part in a stage version of a story.
K. Verify answers to questions.
L. Interpret characterizations.
M. Interpret word pictures.
N. Interpret general mood of text. e.g. humor—suspense.
O. Interpret sensations given by words.
P. Interpret the organization of text.
1. Main thought in the paragraph.
2. Main events in sequence.
3. Main heads and sub-heads in outline.
4. Directions for carrying out an activity.

BARBE READING SKILLS CHECK LIST
SIXTH LEVEL READING SKILLS

(Last Name) (First Name) (Name of School)

(Age) (Grade Placement) (Name of Teacher)

I. Vocabulary:

A. Word recognition.

1. Context clues.
   a. How the word is used in a sentence.
   b. Function of word.
2. Picture clues.
   a. Visual impressions of words.
   b. Configuration.
3. Language rhythms.
   a. Rhyming clues.
   b. Appreciation for general rhythm of well-expressed ideas.

B. Prefixes.

Prefix	Meaning
ab	from, away
an	without, not
ad	to, toward
ante	before
bi	two, twice
circum	around
de	from, down from
dis	apart, not
dia	through, around
ex	out of, from
im	not, in
il, un, in. ir	into, not
inter	between
in, en	in, into, among
intro	within, against
mis	wrong, wrongly
non	not
pan	whole, all
per	fully, through
peri	around, about
post	after, behind
pre	before
pro	for, in front of
re	back, again
se	aside
semi	half, partly
sub	under
super	over, above
trans	beyond, across
tri	three, thrice
un	not

Suffixes.

Suffix	Meaning
able, ible	capable of being
acy, ace, ancy, ance	state of being
an, ean, ian	one who, relating to
age	act or condition
ant	n.—one who, adj. being
er, ar	relating to, like
ary	n.—one who—(Place where)
	adj.—relating to
ante	
en	one who is little, made
ence	state of quality
ent	adj.—being, n.—one who
full	full of
fy, ify	to make
hood	state, condition
ic	like, made of
ice	that which, quality or state of being
id	being in a condition of
ion	act or state of being
ize, ise	to make
ist, ite	one who
ity, ty	state
ive	relating to
less	without
ly	in a way
ment	act or state of being
ness	state of being
or, ar, er	one who, that which
ory	
ose, ous	abounding in
some	full of
ward	turning to, in direction
y	like or full of

Prefixes and suffixes list prepared by Ruth Strang.

4. Initial and ending sounds.
   a. Listening for beginning sounds.
   b. Completing sounds of words.

C. Word Meaning.

1. Multiple meanings.
2. Associating words and feelings.
3. Formal and informal language.
   a. Speech pattern.
   b. Level of language usage.
4. Recall.
   a. Aided.
   b. Unaided.
5. Hyphenated words.
6. Synonyms—same or nearly same.
7. Homonyms—pronounced same—different meaning and spelling.
8. Antonyms—opposites.
9. Heteronym (pronounced differently—same spelling)
10. Interpreting colloquial and figurative expressions.
11. Enriching imagery.

II. Word Attack Skills:

A. Phonic and structural characteristics of words.

Initial consonants—word families—simple endings.

2. Consonant blends and short and long vowels.
3. Syllabication, prefixes, suffixes.
4. Teams—oi, oy, aw, au.

B. Vowel sounds.

1. Vowel rules.
   a. When there is only one vowel in a word or syllable, the vowel is short.
   b. When there are two vowels in a word or syllable, the first vowel is long and the second is silent.
   c. When there are two vowels together, the first vowel is long and the second is silent.
2. Rule I—Every syllable has at least one vowel in it. eg. ever—never—children.
3. Rule II.—Two vowels in a word or syllable—first is long, second is silent. kit—kite; at—ate.
4. Rule III—When 2 vowels are together, the first is long and the second is silent. ("ou" an exception) mail, meat, pie, boat.
5. Blended sounds of vowel forms. The combination of au and aw makes a sound like awe. Ou and ow make the sound "ow" like when you are hurt. Oy and oi make sound like boy.

C. Syllabication.

1. Rules for syllables.
   a. Each syllable must have a vowel and a single vowel can be a syllable.
   b. The root word is a syllable and not divided.
   c. Blends are not divided (th, str, wh, etc.)
   d. Suffixes and prefixes are syllables.
   e. Suffix—ed if preceded by a single d or t usually forms separate syllable. (rest ed)
   f. If vowel in a syllable is followed by two consonants, the syllable ends with the first consonant.
   g. If vowel in a syllable is followed by only one consonant, the syllable ends with a vowel.
   h. If a word ends in le, the consonant just before the l begins the last syllable. (ta-ble han-dle)
   i. When there is an r after a vowel, the r goes with the vowel to make the "er" sound.

D. Accents. (Rules)

1. In a word of two or more syllables, the first syllable is usually accented unless it is a prefix.
2. In most two syllable words that end in a consonant followed by y, the first syllable is accented and the last is unaccented.
3. Beginning syllables de, re, be, er, in, and a are usually not accented.
4. When a suffix is added, the accent falls on or within the root word.
5. Endings that form syllables are usually unaccented.
6. When a final syllable ends in le, that syllable is usually not accented.

E. Possessives.

F. Contractions.

G. Silent letters.

H. Dictionary skills.

I. Glossary.

III. Comprehension:

A. Outlining.

1. Note taking.
2. Sequence of ideas or events.
3. Skimming.
   a. Locating facts and details.
   b. Selecting and rejecting materials to fit a certain purpose.
4. Main ideas of paragraphs.
5. Interpreting characters' feelings.
6. Topic sentences.

B. Following directions.

C. Drawing conclusions.

D. Reading for verification.

E. Locating information.

1. Reference Materials in reading.
   a. Graphs.
   b. Maps—Reading and interpreting in detail.
   c. Encyclopedias—Locating materials or research.
   d. Headings and other typographical aids.
2. Library skills.
   a. Card catalogs, use of. (Cross reference)
   b. Book classifications.
   c. Care of books and other materials.
3. Periodicals or sources of information.
   a. Authors.
   b. Introductions—author's.
   c. Table of Contents.
   d. Index—use of.
   e. Glossary.
   f. Title page.
   g. Copyright.
   h. Date of publication.
   i. Footnotes.
   j. Tables.
4. Resource materials.
   a. Packets and pictures.
   b. Charts—detail.
5. Resource people.

F. Rate or Reading.

1. Different rate for different purpose.
2. Comprehension at high level.

G. Critical reading.

IV. Oral Reading:

A. Choral reading and poetry.

1. Pronunciation.
2. Phrasing.
3. Rhymes.
4. Interpretations.

B. Listening appreciation.

B

MATERIALS

TEXTBOOKS AND WORKBOOKS FOR TEACHING READING SKILLS

The following list of materials is suggested as none have age or grade designations on the cover. They can be used at any grade level without causing embarrassment to the student using them.

Bessey, Mable A., and Isabelle P. Coffin, Reading for Understanding, New York, D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 325 pp.

Center, Stella S., and Gladys L. Persons (a three-book series), Experiences in Reading and Thinking, 657 pp.; New York, The Macmillan Company.

Gainsburg, J.C. and S.I. Spector, Better Reading, New York, Globe Book Company, Inc., 350 pp. (especially designed for junior high school pupils.)

Gates, Arthur I., and Celeste Comegys Peardon, Practice Exercises in Reading, Book III, IV, V, and VI, New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Guiler, W.S. and J.H. Colemann, Getting the Meaning, Philadelphia, J.B. Lippincott Company.

Hart, Archibald, Twelve Ways to Build a Vocabulary, New York, E.P. Dutton and Company.

Hovious, Carol, Flying the Printways, Boston, D.C. Heath and Company, 525 pp.

Hovious, Carol, Following Printed Trails, Boston, D.C. Heath and Company, 371 pp.

Hovious, Carol, Wings for Reading, New York, D.C. Heath and Company.

Knight, Pearle E., and Arthur E. Traxler, Read and Comprehend, New York, D.C. Heath and Company.

Phonics Skilltexts, Columbus, Ohio, Charles E. Merrill Company.

Reader's Digest, "Skill Builders," Reader's Digest Educational Department, Pleasantville, N.Y.

Reading Skilltexts, Columbus, Ohio, Charles E. Merrill Company.

Simpson, Elizabeth A., SRA Better Reading Books (Book 1, Book 2, Book 3), Chicago, Illinois, Science Research Associates.

Lewis, Norman, How to Read Better and Faster, New York, Thomas Y. Crowell Company.

McCall, W.A., and Lelah Mae Crabbs, Standard Test Lessons in Reading, Books A, B, C, D, and E, New York Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. (Grades 2-12).

Murphy, George and Helen Rand Miller, Reading for Fun, New York, Henry Holt and Company.

Simpson, Robert G., and Ellen C. Gilmer, Developmental Reading Series, Books II and III, Minneapolis, Minnesota, Educational Test Bureau.

Strang, Ruth, Study Type of Reading Exercises, New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Strang, and Ralph Roberts, Teen-Age Tales, Books 1 and 2, New York, D.C. Heath and Company.

Witty, Paul, How to Become a Better Reader, Chicago, Illinois, Science Research Associates.

Blair, Glenn Myers. Diagnostic and Remedial Teaching. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1961, pp. 201-205.

BOOK SELECTION

There are many sources of information available to the teacher for the finding of books which fit the individual child in both interest appeal and ease of reading. Harris warns teachers that:

> . . . the age and grade designations in many book lists are very broad; when specific, they are sometimes misleading in stressing the maturity of interest appeal rather than the level of readability.

Following is a list of sources which a teacher might consult when recommending books to individual pupils or when adding books to the library, school or classroom.

A Practical Guide to Individualized Reading, Board of Education, City of New York, Bureau of Educational Research, Publication No. 40, October, 1960.

Adventure with Books, Chicago, National Council of Teachers of English, 1950.

"Bibliography for Retarded Readers," Reading Clinic, St. Louis Public Schools, St. Louis, Missouri, 5 pp. (mimeographed).

Bibliography of Books for Children, Washington, D.C., Association for Childhood Education, 1948.

Books for Adult Beginners (Grades 1 to 8), American Library Association, Chicago, 1946.

Botel, Morton, How to Teach Reading, Chicago, Follet Publishing Company, 1963.

Bush, Bernice C., Anita E. Dunn, and Mabel E. Jackman, "Fare for the Reluctant Reader," State University of New York, State College for Teachers, Albany, New York, 1951, 43 pp. (mimeographed).

Children's Catalog, compiled by Ruth Giles and Dorothy Cook, Eighth Edition Revised, New York, H.W. Wilson Company, 1951. (Ninth edition scheduled for publication, Fall, 1956).

Durrell, Donald D., and Helen B. Sullivan, High Interest Low Vocabulary Book List, Education Clinic, Boston University School of Education, Boston, Massachusetts, 1952, 35 pp.

Eakin, Mary K., "Trade Books for Poor Readers," Clinical Studies in Reading, II, Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 77, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Illinois, January, 1953, pp. 177-181.

"Easy Books Which Appeal to Poor Readers," Reading Clinic, Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio, 2 pp. (mimeographed).

Hill, Margaret Keyser, A Bibliography of Reading Lists for Retarded Readers, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa, Bulletin No. 681, April 1, 1953.

La Plante, Effie, "Rapid Reading Books," Cataloging Section, Division of Libraries, Chicago Public Schools, Chicago, Illinois, November, 1952, 9 pp. (mimeographed).

Patterns in Reading, American Library Association, 1954.

Richards, Marget, "Books for Slow Readers," Wilson Library Bulletin, Vol. 14, May, 1940, pp. 642-645.

Slater, Russell, Books for Youth Who Dislike Reading, Bulletin of the Ohio Conference on Reading, No. 2, Ohio State University Press, Columbus, Ohio, 1941, 16 pp.

Smith, Nila B., "Helpful Books to Use with Retarded Readers," Elementary School Journal, Vol. 52, March, 1952, pp. 390-397.

Spache, George, Good Books for Poor Readers, Reading Laboratory and Clinic, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida, 1954.

Standard Catalog for High School Libraries, Sixth Edition, New York, H.W. Wilson Company, 1952. (Seventh Edition scheduled for publication, Fall, 1957).

Strange, Ruth, Christine B. Gilbert, and Margaret C. Scoggin, Gateway to Readable Books, H. W. Wilson Company, New York, 1952, 148 pp. Subject Index to Books for Intermediate Grades, and Subject Index to Books for Intermediate Grades. First Supplement, American Library Association, Chicago, Illinois.

The Booklist: A Guide to New Books, Chicago, American Library Association.

The Horn Book Magazine, Boston, The Horn Book, Inc.

The Right Book for the Right Child, Third Edition, John Day Company, New York.

Warner, Dorothy, "Bibliography of Reading Materials Suitable for Mentally Retarded Children (Pre-Primer to Grade Five)," Division of Special Education, State Department of Public Instruction, Topeka, Kansas, 4 pp. (mimeographed).

Woolf, Maurice and Jeanne Woolf, Remedial Reading, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1957.

Cloy S. Hobson, and Oscar M. Haugh, "Materials for the Retarded Reader," Lawrence, Kansas, University of Kansas Bulletin of Education, Vol. 8, No. 1, November, 1953, pp. 18-29.

PHONIC DEVICES AND WORD GAMES

There are many devices and games that can be used by a teacher to add variety and interest to the process of learning to read. They serve to break the monotony of individualized instruction.

Following is a list of sources which a teacher might use in locating suitable games for her individualized reading classroom.

Dolch, E.W., A Manual for Remedial Reading, Second Edition, Champaign, Ill.: Garrard Press, 1945, 460 p.

Durrell, D.D., Improving Reading Instruction, Yonkers, N.Y.: World Book, 1956, 402 p.

Eckgren, B.L., and Fishel, V., Five Hundred Live Ideas for the Grade Teacher, Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson, 1952.

Harris, Albert J., How to Increase Reading Ability, New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1961, pp. 378-383.

Kingsley, Bernard, Reading Skills: Simple Games, Aids and Devices to Stimulate Reading Skill in the Classroom, San Francisco: Fearon, 1958.

Let's Play a Game, Boston: Ginn, 1954, 30 p.

100 Good Ways to Strengthen Reading Skills, Chicago: Scott Foresman, 1956, 24 p.

Russell, David H., and Elizabeth F. Russell, Listening Aids Through the Grades, New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959.

Russell, David H., and Etta E. Karp, Reading Aids Through the Grades, Revised Edition, New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951.

This list includes only a limited number of sources. A teacher can send to the various publishing houses for information on games commercially prepared. She should refer to

a textbook directory for the names of publishers and their addresses.