Treating Reading Disabilities: The Specialist's Role.

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One of four books directed to reading specialists, the text provides information on methods for identifying problems that can be efficiently treated in a remedial reading group and on methods for handling these problems. Consideration is given to the scope of the problem and to three categories of disabilities. Levels of diagnosis, types of tests, environmental factors, and the use of tests are discussed. Also discussed are the following: selection of children, remedial classes, special equipment, and guidelines for effective programs; the role of the reading coordinator, tutoring, small group instruction, reteaching reading, a saturation program, junior high classes, working with parents, and full use of equipment; and the establishment of a remedial program, the extent of need, the establishment of objectives, personnel needs, the creation of facilities, purchase of material, schedules of treatment, regular evaluation, reports of results, and inservice programs. Appendixes include diagnostic and correctional procedures for specific reading skills and methods for individualizing instruction. (WV)
Treating Reading Disabilities: The Specialist’s Rote

Indiana University

International Reading Association
Conquering Reading Problems

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

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Target Series Book Three—The Reading Specialist

Treating Reading Disabilities:
The Specialist’s Role

by

Carl B. Smith
Indiana University, Bloomington

with

Barbara Carter and Gloria Dapper

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Newark, Delaware

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The International Reading Association attempts, through its publications, to provide a forum for a wide spectrum of opinion on reading. This policy permits divergent viewpoints without assuming the endorsement of the Association.

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Preface

This book is part of an interesting and promising series aimed at interpreting research to specific groups. It is an attempt to make known recent research data and promising activity in the teaching of reading.

The Bureau of Research, U.S.O.E., has funded several interpretive studies in a variety of subjects. The purpose of these studies is to shorten the time lag between the demonstration of successful research and practice and the implementation of that research in U.S. schools. The International Reading Association has an obvious concern for the dissemination of information on research and activity in reading and so it cooperated with the U.S. Office of Education and Indiana University in planning and publishing the interpretive studies on reading.

This series of target books enables IRA to contact a number of groups concerned with reading instruction and to speak to them in a more direct style and with a synthesis that usually cannot be found in their professional journals. Thus top-level administrators, school principals, reading specialists, and classroom teachers can each find a short, easy-to-read document that relates current research and activity on reading problems to their roles in the schools. In this manner IRA will hopefully help target audiences move more quickly in bringing about good practice in reading instruction. The Association needs to strive constantly for that kind of impact.

Leo C. Fay, President
International Reading Association
1968-69
Contents

5 Acknowledgments
6 Foreword
8 Introduction

11 Chapter I
THE SCOPE OF THE PROBLEM
The People Involved
The Goal

15 Chapter II
SCHOOL DIAGNOSIS OF READING PROBLEMS
Levels of Diagnosis
Which Tests To Use
Informal Inventories
Formal Tests
Individualized Tests
Environmental Factors
Use of Tests

23 Chapter III
TREATING READING DISABILITY
Establishing the Need
Selecting the Children
The Remedial Classes
Special Equipment and Materials
Guidelines

31 Chapter IV
PATTERNS FOR HANDLING READING DISABILITY WITHIN A SCHOOL
Reading Coordinator
Programmed Tutoring
Using Physical Education
Small-Group Remedial Work
Student Tutors
Reteaching of Reading
Saturation Program
Junior High Special Class
Full Use of Equipment
Compensatory Programs

42 Chapter V
PROCEDURES FOR ENACTING CHANGE
Establishing a Remedial Program
Determining the Extent of Need
Establishing Objectives
Finding Personnel
Creating Facilities
Purchasing Materials
Selecting Children
Scheduling Treatment
Evaluating Regularly
Reporting Results
In-Service Program

53 Appendix A
65 Appendix B
75 Appendix C
76 Bibliography
The following groups were involved in the cooperative development of the interpretive manuscript project on reading problems: Indiana University Reading Program, the U.S. Office of Education, ERIC/CRIER, and the International Reading Association. Editorial and writing assistance was provided by the David-Stewart Publishing Company.

Special thanks are given to Edward G. Summers, Indiana University, who originated the interpretive studies in reading project and wrote the proposal for the first funding period. He conceived the relationship of the interpretive studies to ERIC/CRIER and made available the bibliographic resources of the Clearinghouse on Reading.

The research data bank of ERIC/CRIER, Clearinghouse on Reading, Indiana University, was used in the initial information gathering stage of this project, as were the Title I Reading Program files at Case Western Reserve University. Reading Diagnosis and Remediation by Ruth Strang, commissioned by ERIC/CRIER and published by the International Reading Association, 1968, was quite helpful in distilling the research and it contains a complete bibliography from the ERIC/CRIER data bank on the subject of reading problems.

We wish to thank the many people who assisted in gathering information, writing program abstracts, reacting to written copy, and typing: William Dowdney, Charles Mangrum, Mary Jean Woodburn, Beth Hansmeier, Mary Kathryn Dunn, Virginia Ollis, Deborah Reagan, and Andrea Hines.

A special thanks also goes to the fine school systems which provided us guided tours of their reading programs. Those visited and contacted as part of this project are listed in the Appendix of this book.
Many people must make decisions about changing school programs. Before a program can be changed, and in order for it to be successful, parents, teachers, and school administrators must be committed to an idea or a program.

One of the areas undergoing rapid change these days is in the treatment of reading disability. This book is one in a series of four concerned with reading difficulties and adjustments in school programs to solve reading problems. Our schools must face the question of what to do about correcting reading difficulty. Each of the books in this series directs its message to a different person in a school staff and focuses on a different aspect of treating reading difficulty. Each attempts to give suggestions on what various staff members can do to make that treatment more effective. The four target audiences are the teacher, treating reading difficulty in the classroom; the reading specialist, treating reading difficulty within a school building; the principal, treating reading difficulty related to environmental factors; and the top-level administrator, who supervises treatment of reading difficulty through a multiservice diagnostic center.

It would be unwise for anyone to read only one of the four books and expect to acquire a complete picture of what schools can do to overcome reading difficulty. Each of the books is a part of the broad picture; all four parts should be read in order to visualize the scope of the treatment of reading difficulties at various levels. Naturally, the classroom teacher will attempt to deal with minor disabilities, whereas the diagnostic service center will focus on the types of more severe reading disabilities. It is possible, of course, for an individual to read only that book which is directed to him personally and to learn what research indicates about activities in his area. He can find descriptions explaining the establishment of programs that will enable him to overcome certain types of reading disability. As long as he understands that he is concerned with only a limited segment of the total picture, he will have some perspective in trying to make changes within his area of responsibility and influence.

The U.S. Office of Education contributed to the support of the preparation of these books because it believes that the technical research information compiled by researchers and reported in research journals should be interpreted in a readable presentation to those who conceive programs and effect changes in school systems. Therefore, the intent of the books is to reduce the time lag between research demonstration of worthwhile projects and the implementation of these projects in school systems. Naturally, the dissemination of information is necessary before change can take place. Knowledge of successful treatment of reading disability is only the initial step in bringing about change.

An individual with a strong idea and commitment to the improvement of the instructional program and the services offered by the school is required
to instigate change. Someone must be convinced that there are better ways of doing things and be willing to expend extra effort and time to bring about more effective teaching programs.

The overall strategy of these books considers reading difficulties ranging from slight to extreme and suggests that treatment, therefore, must move on many fronts with various professionals working simultaneously. Thus, the ideal is to provide action by teachers, supervisors, and administrators. If, for some reason or other, all of these persons do not act on the problem in their respective spheres of influence, an individual is not prevented from mapping plans appropriate to his responsibility and initiating action at his own level. The anticipation of such a situation was the motive in directing each of the four documents to a different person. Thus, an interested party is enabled to set up a program in his own area, regardless of what happens on other fronts.

Each book contains:

a) interpretation of research concerning a set of causes
b) model programs aimed at overcoming the problems
c) steps for setting up a program (directed to specific leaders in the school system)
d) recommendations and guidelines for those programs

The preparation of each manuscript was preceded by a review of research over the past ten years. Visits to two dozen operating research projects also backed up the descriptions of model programs.

Book Three is directed to reading specialists in their roles in overcoming reading problems in a single school. Reading supervisors, coordinators, resource teachers, and remedial teachers have the specific responsibility for organizing and operating a remedial reading program within a school. The purpose of this book is to identify the kinds of problems that can be treated efficiently in a remedial reading group and to suggest methods of handling those problems in the setting of the school.
Introduction

John Steinbeck has said, "Learning to read is the most difficult and revolutionary thing that happens to the human brain."

Despite the difficulty of the task, most adults who went through the public school system twenty or twenty-five years ago did learn to read, and they are baffled by evidence that a large proportion of children today are not learning to read at all or are acquiring only limited ability in reading.

The reasons for today’s failures are many: more children in school, larger classrooms, more complex psychological problems, more distractions, less compulsion to learn, and insufficient money to provide personnel, space, and materials to cope with all the other problems. Furthermore, when recalling the good old days, it is easy to forget that those who could not learn quietly dropped out of school, taking their problems and failures off the record.

The truth is that, until fairly recently, not a great deal was known about reading problems—why some children learn and others do not, what kind of training to give to those who teach reading, what materials best facilitate learning to read, and what separate skills combine to turn an illiterate child into a discriminating reader. In the past two or three decades, various disciplines have discovered more about basic skills than was known previously. With the infusion of funds to support experimentation and innovation, more new approaches have been tried in the past few years than ever before.

These books have been prepared with the objective of informing educators of the discoveries and existing successful programs. The last two books in this series—Book Three, directed toward the reading specialist, and Book Four, for the classroom teacher—concentrate on reading problems within a single school and suggest methods of dealing with the student who has difficulty learning to read.

No one person can solve all the reading problems in a school district nor can any one type of activity satisfy all needs. Every school system encounters reading difficulties which vary from slight misunderstandings of rules to severe disabilities accompanied by psychological and social deviations. A comprehensive reading program, therefore, includes the diagnosis and treatment of reading problems at all levels, slight to severe. It must be a program which ranges from correction by a classroom teacher to treatment by a clinician. It is inevitable that, without that range of treatment, some children will suffer serious defeat in learning to read.

The classroom teacher, the reading specialist, and the administrator must make certain contributions to a workable comprehensive reading program. When one or more fails to fulfill his part, he destroys a significant portion of the program.

The classroom teacher provides the diagnostic and corrective bases, identifying problems and determining application of corrective treatment in the classroom, or if the needed treatment cannot be accomplished in the classroom, referring the child to the proper source.
If the classroom teacher sees that the child needs additional diagnosis
or treatment on an individual basis, he sends the child to a remedial reading
teacher (reading specialist). The reading specialist works with individuals
or with small groups and provides specific and concentrated treatment as
long as the child needs the help. It is estimated that 10 to 25 per cent of
the school population needs such specific help in reading (Strang, 1968,
p. 2). The specialist and the classroom teacher remain in constant touch
and cooperate in bringing the individual child to satisfactory performance in
reading. Often a specialist will work only in one school building or divide
his time between two buildings.

If the remedial reading teacher (a reading specialist) shares his time with
four or more schools, he does not have the opportunity to keep in touch
with the classroom teacher concerning the progress of students in his own
remedial classes. Thus, the classroom teacher cannot reinforce the activity
initiated in the remedial class. In fact, he may even counteract the activity,
and the remedial teacher, on the other hand, does not get the feedback from
the classroom teacher who could inform him of significant interests and
attitudes observed while the remedial treatment is being conducted.

Should the remedial reading teacher within a school building find that
working on an individual basis fails to bring satisfactory results, he must
refer the child for more specialized diagnosis. This kind of diagnosis usually
takes place at a reading or a learning disabilities clinic.

Estimates also show that 1 to 5 per cent of the school population
should have highly technical diagnosis and treatment for severe reading
disabilities which may have their roots in emotional, social, or physical
problems (Strang, 1968, p. 5). Such clinical diagnosis and treatment require
support of the central school administration. Funds, communications, sup-
port, and encouragement for a comprehensive program must come from the
top-level administrator. Unless this administrator and the principal, the
reading specialist, and the classroom teachers see reading problems from
various levels and work together in referrals, treatments, and evaluations,
not every child with a reading problem will get the help he needs.

It should be evident, therefore, that a comprehensive attack on reading
problems comes about through the cooperation of many people. Certainly
it is not possible for the classroom teacher to conduct an in-depth clinical
type diagnosis and treatment of severe reading problems in his classroom.
Neither his time nor his training permit him to do so. But the classroom
teacher does have the obligation and the opportunity to identify specific
reading skill deficiencies and can direct the child toward improving his
reading by appropriate classroom exercises. Ordinarily, there will be chil-
dren in every classroom needing attention beyond that which the classroom
teacher can provide. Those outside services must be provided through a
cooperative decision by the classroom teacher, the principal, the reading
specialist, and the central administration. Even if the corrective activity

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**Figure 1**

**TREATMENT ARRANGEMENTS FOR READING PROBLEMS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Severity of Problem</th>
<th>Group Size</th>
<th>Program Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mild</td>
<td>Large, 40-60%</td>
<td>Classroom correction</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Very severe</th>
<th>Small, 1-5%</th>
<th>Individual (clinic) treatment</th>
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</thead>
</table>
Definition of Terms

can be accomplished within the classroom, the teacher will need financial support to obtain sufficient materials for implementing the various diagnostic and treatment activities. This must come from school finances and entails cooperative action, especially when the need for corrective activities is not obvious to the outsider.

A number of terms will be used in reference to the roles of various people involved in the teaching of reading. The following definitions should serve as a guide to the particular duties of each. These definitions, and analyses of qualifications for each of the roles, were developed by the International Reading Association Professional Standards and Ethics Committee and are taken from the Journal of Reading for October, 1968.

A reading specialist is that person 1) who works directly or indirectly with those pupils who have either failed to benefit from regular classroom instruction in reading or those who could benefit from advanced training in reading skills and/or 2) who works with teachers, administrators, and other professionals to improve and coordinate the total reading program of the school.

A special teacher of reading has major responsibility for remedial and corrective and/or developmental reading instruction.

A reading consultant works directly with teachers, administrators, and other professionals within a school to develop and implement the reading program under the direction of a supervisor with special training in reading.

A reading supervisor (coordinator) provides leadership in all phases of the reading program in a school system.

Developmental reading instruction starts at the instructional level of a child, helping him proceed at his own rate, and follows a sequential series of reading activities. This kind of instruction takes place in the classroom by the classroom teacher.

Remedial reading instruction includes the characteristics of developmental instruction but deals with children who read at two or more years below their capacity or grade level. This kind of instruction is given by a remedial reading teacher outside of regular classroom settings, usually in a clinic or special classroom.

Corrective reading instruction, like remedial instruction, includes the characteristics of developmental instruction. It deals with children who read up to two years below capacity or grade level and is given by the classroom teacher in the regular classroom.
It is probably safe to say that there is no school in the world without some students who have difficulty in learning to read. The numbers will vary according to the home backgrounds of the children, their intelligence, the excellence of the teaching staff and the materials available, and the motivation and attitudes of students and staff. But every school, even those with ample funds, qualified staffs, and selective clientele, has reading problems.

Reading programs can be divided into three categories based on the degree of disability involved. The most severe cases include seriously disabled readers who show evidence of physical, psychological, or neurological interference. These children may display perceptual difficulties and may be classified as nonreaders. The extent of such serious reading difficulties is estimated at 1 to 5 per cent of the school population (Strang, 1968, Chapter I). Children in this category usually require clinical treatment.

The second category encompasses moderately severe disability cases, including children who read significantly below capacity level. They are lacking in basic reading skills but show no evidence of major physical, psychological, or neurological interferences. Their skill weaknesses can be corrected without clinical services but require more time, expertise, and individual attention than can be given in the classroom reading program. Such students profit from remedial classes in which their skill weaknesses can be treated individually. It is estimated that from 10 to 25 per cent of the school population suffers from this type of disability (Strang, 1968, Chapter I).

A third group of children includes those with a mild disability in learning to read. They lack certain skills or the understanding on which these skills are based. Consequently, they need help in correcting their misunderstandings and in learning to use the skills effectively. Teachers find that approximately 40 to 60 per cent of children occasionally need some
help, due to minor misunderstandings or interferences. Such help can be given in the classroom as part of regular reading instruction. The classroom teacher, particularly if expert help, guidance, and materials are made available to him, is able to carry out successful corrective reading activities.

![Table: Extent of Reading Disability](image)

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With limited time and training to devote to corrective reading activities, the classroom teacher, upon discovering a child who does not respond to his assistance, should refer him to a specialist whose work centers primarily on reading skills. Often this referral will take place through the school principal or the guidance counselor, and thus officials and parents are acquainted with any special treatment offered to a student.

The staff needed for a good remedial reading program varies according to the size of the school, the kind of school population, and the excellence of the developmental reading program itself.
The three key staff members needed to provide a good reading program are a reading consultant, remedial reading teacher, and classroom teacher trained to teach reading. The term reading specialist can be used to refer to the consultant and the remedial reading teacher.

The reading consultant could have any one of many titles. In some school systems, there is a reading supervisor or reading coordinator who performs the overall supervision of the total reading program. In other school systems, it could be an assistant superintendent or a curriculum director. Although the responsibilities of the reading staff are discussed later, suffice it to say at this time that some one person must have the final responsibility for the reading program, and he must have the time and ability to carry out that responsibility. The reading consultant, or whatever title may be accorded him, works directly with remedial and classroom reading teachers.

The remedial reading teacher works, first of all, with the children whose reading problems are serious enough to warrant attention beyond that given in the classroom. The remedial teacher must be able to diagnose reading problems, then prescribe and carry out corrective programs for specific disabilities. In addition, the remedial teacher must fully understand the developmental program and be able to suggest improvement in order to prevent recurrence of problems similar to those he is currently attempting to remedy. It is also important for the remedial teacher to work with the classroom teacher to insure that there is reinforcement of skills and attitudes learned in the remedial program when the child returns to the developmental program in the classroom.

That the classroom teacher should have the knowledge and ability to teach reading is a foregone conclusion, yet the fact exists that most elementary school teachers and almost all secondary school teachers have had little or no formal course work in the teaching of reading. The undergraduate in schools of education receives far more specialized courses in the fields of art, music, and physical education than in reading instruction (Austin, 1961, p. 23). Curiously enough, those fields in which the classroom teacher has received extra instruction are the very ones taught in most school systems by itinerant teachers and supervisors. The assumption that all elementary school teachers know how to teach reading is false, and it is also false to assume that specialized help is made available in most schools for the classroom teacher of reading.

There will be further discussion concerning on-the-job training for school systems attempting to achieve an adequate reading staff.

Ideally, all remedial reading programs would be self-liquidating by becoming preventive programs as soon as possible. However, the immediate goal is to remedy the reading deficiencies of children who have thus far failed to learn to read by the developmental reading program.

The next goal is to isolate those factors contributing to the children's inability to read and to adjust the teaching of reading by dealing with those
factors before they create further problems. This goal requires continuing research, evaluation, and close cooperation with the classroom teacher.

Thus, the result of a good remedial reading program would be its eventual diminution and the creation of an effective preventive program that would obviate the necessity of remedial work outside the classroom.

If the average class has from 10 to 20 per cent of its population in need of such assistance, then a class of 30 has three to six students who need help with reading problems beyond the classroom. And, in a school housing 600 children, there will be from 60 to 120 needing the help of a special reading teacher or a reading specialist. In view of the statistics presented by Strang (1968), many schools would profit by having a full-time remedial reading teacher.

The text to follow is devoted to describing programs and techniques helpful for a remedial reading teacher, a reading consultant, or a reading supervisor whose responsibilities cover the operation of a remedial program within a school.
The diagnosis of reading difficulties is a complicated process, and its degree of thoroughness often determines the effectiveness of the remediation. Diagnosis goes beyond the simple identification of the reading level of a student. It involves 1) measuring the difference between a student’s level of performance and his potential ability, 2) separating and measuring the various processes that make up his reading behavior, and 3) determining causes for his reading disability, insofar as they are relevant. The process involves understanding the student in his own terms so that the prescription leading out of diagnosis can build on his strengths to overcome his weaknesses.

Further, diagnosis of the student’s reading disability is not a one-time process but must be a continuing process interwoven with treatment.

Diagnosis, of course, should not be reserved only for the student who already has reading difficulty, but should also be used as a preventive weapon. Early assessment, before reading instruction even begins, can help to determine how the child is oriented. Thus the correct developmental reading program can build on his strengths, whether they be visual, auditory, or a combination. Such an approach to diagnosis leads to diagnostic teaching which, in turn, leads as far as is possible to individualized instruction within the classroom.

The rule for diagnosis is “the earlier, the better.” A four-year survey of some 10,000 children revealed that those whose reading problems were identified by the second grade had ten times greater chance for successful remediation than those whose difficulties were not identified until the ninth grade.

Every research study on the disabled reader points out that multiple causation is the rule rather than the exception (Strang, 1968, Chapter II). It is rare to find a child with one specific cause and one discrete reading difficulty. However, the more effectively the causes and problems can be
Levels of Diagnosis

16

pinpointed, the better the chances for overcoming the difficulties. In remedial programs, reteaching the child something he has already mastered should be avoided. It is far better to concentrate only on those steps in the reading process which he cannot handle.

The depth and complexity of diagnosis will be determined both by the difficulty of the problems presented by the students and by the knowledge and skill of those performing the diagnosis. There are various levels of diagnosis used within the school setting.

Figure 3

LEVELS OF DIAGNOSIS OF READING DISABILITY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Diagnosis</th>
<th>Look For</th>
<th>By</th>
<th>How</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I: Description of performance</td>
<td>Skill strengths and weaknesses</td>
<td>Classroom teacher</td>
<td>Observation Teacher tests Standardized group tests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II: Behavior affecting reading performance</td>
<td>Attitudes toward reading</td>
<td>Classroom teacher</td>
<td>Observation Attitude and personality tests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III: Specific analysis of reading process</td>
<td>Strengths and weaknesses in specific skills, perception, etc.</td>
<td>Remedial reading teacher</td>
<td>Standardized tests of specific skills Informal testing and observation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV: Determination of mental ability</td>
<td>Intelligence, memory, association, reasoning</td>
<td>Clinician</td>
<td>Standardized tests of intelligence</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first level is an effort to describe reading performance on an observable response plane—strengths and weaknesses in vocabulary, word recognition skills, sentence and paragraph comprehension—through 1) classroom observation, 2) teacher tests, and 3) formal group standardized tests. For most children, this level of immediate diagnosis permits quick adaptation of teaching methods so as to build on strengths and overcome weaknesses. The experience and skill of the classroom teacher are prime success factors at this level of diagnosis.

On the second level, the classroom teacher also plays a key role, looking for behavior that may be affecting the student's reading. For example, if the child is passive, he may not be putting forth the effort that reading demands. An extremely limited speaking vocabulary, poor articulation, and other speaking clues will indicate that the child may not understand the words even if, somehow, he can learn to pronounce them. Clues are also supplied by attitudes, such as a tendency to give up quickly if work becomes difficult.
Attitude and personality tests can supplement observation and lead to motivational prescriptions to overcome poor work habits or attitudes. On the third diagnostic level, a remedial reading teacher (a reading specialist) looks for a more specific analysis. The process of reading can be broken down and measured in terms of 1) accurate reception of external stimulus, 2) perception, 3) association, 4) assimilation, 5) analysis, and 6) evaluation—all leading to motor, visual, or vocal output. Here a higher order of knowledge, skill, and experience is needed to detect the strengths and deficiencies and to formulate specific treatments to overcome the weaknesses.

A fourth diagnostic level involves the basic mental equipment of the child—his general intelligence, memory, association, and reasoning. Most remedial reading teachers do not test in these areas, since such testing and diagnosis require special training and clinical experience. The Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children is one of several tests valuable in measuring these underlying abilities. There is no question that intelligence plays a large role in the ability to learn to read. In fact, many think it may be the greatest single factor. However, supposed lack of intelligence is sometimes used as a convenient explanation of inability to read. Many standard intelligence tests depend largely on language; obviously, pupils without language background or ability will score low on such tests. Furthermore, the tests can be easily skewed by a few right or wrong guesses. It is also clear, from national surveys of reading ability, that a large proportion—perhaps as many as two thirds—of those with reading difficulties have normal or superior intelligence. These facts should be kept in mind by remedial teachers looking for explanations of reading difficulties and in...
setting up cut-off intelligence points at which to accept or reject poor readers for special classes.

There are other levels of diagnosis, but they are, for the most part, beyond the scope of the classroom or remedial teacher. The more complex levels are concerned with children who may have brain damage, serious emotional problems, perceptual and motor disturbances, or other difficulties that can be diagnosed and treated to better advantage in a clinical setting. (See Book Two in this series concerning clinical treatment.)

The reading specialist can be of great help in determining which tests to use, either in identifying children who need remedial help outside the classroom or in gearing the classroom developmental program to the needs of individual children. Most classroom teachers have little formal knowledge of tests or how to evaluate their results. In many school systems, the reading specialist conducts in-service programs for classroom teachers in the area of testing.

It is especially valuable for the reading specialist to instruct himself and the classroom teachers in the construction of and the use of informal tests. Familiarity with informal testing procedures will often enable a teacher to find a specific problem much more quickly and accurately than will a total reliance on standardized published tests.

Informal tests can be defined as any locally constructed instrument or technique designed to measure a specific reading skill or behavior. These tests may be devised by teachers themselves or may be adapted from materials in a teacher magazine or a commercially published test. Locally developed tests often are more adapted to the problems of a specific population. For example, some inner-city children may not have adequate vocabulary to handle items appearing in the nationally normed tests presented by major publishers.

One concept used in informal testing often is known as informal reading inventory, which involves a series of graded paragraphs followed by comprehension questions. The purpose is to discover how well a child performs in selections similar to those in the classroom text. Thus, paragraphs taken from readers at grades two, three, four, five, and six may provide a teacher with an appropriate range to test the performance of third- and fourth-grade students who are not too severely retarded. The child is asked to read aloud paragraphs at different levels or to read the paragraphs silently. In some instances, the teacher may read paragraphs to the child and have him respond to comprehension questions. After each paragraph, the child answers questions which indicate his ability to recall specific details and to give generalizations and main ideas. By careful observation, the examiner can note the child’s pronunciation problems, his fluency, and the extent of his comprehension under various conditions. The teacher can also determine the level at which a child seems to be able to
Formal Tests

read without help, the level at which he needs considerable help (which would be the instructional level), and the level at which he simply cannot perform. These levels can be contrasted with his ability to listen and his comprehension. The listening level represents roughly his capacity for handling written material once the visual or symbolic problems are overcome.

A standardized test score from a nationally normed test may indicate that a child can read at a 4.2 level, but it is often difficult to determine exactly what that level means. Most reading authorities use the standardized test score as a frustration-level score, since the child is operating at a high-energy, high-concentration level when taking a standardized test. Therefore, the 4.2 level score does not mean that the child’s instructional level is 4.2. It may, in fact, be considerably lower. The instructional conclusion is obvious: there is no point in trying to teach a child at his frustration level. It will simply add to his present feeling of defeat. The International Reading Association publishes a reading aid booklet on the use of informal inventories in diagnosing reading performance (Johnson and Kress, 1965).

Formal standardized tests are, of course, necessary tools in mass testing. For obtaining class and school averages, for establishing needs and trends, and for use as a rough screening device, these formal tests will automatically be used. Schools must guard against the use of standardized tests for diagnostic purposes when the test is not intended as such. Most standardized reading achievement tests have vocabulary and paragraph comprehension components. Scores obtained on these are not meant to give precise diagnostic information, but are merely indications that a child or a class fits into a certain percentile or grade norm on the range of scores achieved by the norming population. School systems should determine the norming population of a standardized test. Most good test manuals will describe the population in which the test norms were developed. It may be that the school system does not fit into the profile described in the test manual. If that is true, then the test norms are not adequate for that school population, and more appropriate local norms should be developed.

Another consideration in the use of group standardized tests, and their value in diagnosis or screening, is the kind of reading behavior they test. It is taken for granted that the examiner, in using a test as a measure of reading achievement, feels that the exercises do indeed represent the kind of reading behavior he expects of the child. It is clear, then, that a test using paragraph comprehension as the main exercise for determining a score, in effect, defines reading comprehension as the ability to answer factual, detailed questions on a short reading activity. If the school system feels that other kinds of reading behavior are as important or more important, then a different kind of test should be used to determine the achievement of the children and a different one to diagnose problems. Blind faith in standardized test scores leads to neglect of the individual
Individualized Tests

Environmental Factors

child's specific problems, and it is clearly invalid to base a school's corrective and remedial reading program on the scores from group standardized tests alone.

The remedial reading teacher should have the competency and the time to administer individualized reading tests when necessary. He should be adept at using informal reading inventories and formal standardized tests, such as the Durrell Analysis of Reading Difficulties, the Spache Diagnostic Reading Scales, and the Gray Oral Reading Test—all of which serve the diagnostic purpose of discovering performance level and specific disabilities.

Other tests, for critical listening, general visual perception, and auditory discrimination, involve more than simply discovering a child's inability to hear or see well. When such disabilities are noted, appropriate corrective treatment should be prescribed, and instruction should be adjusted to compensate for the apparent weaknesses. Books published by Oscar Buros contain listings of tests related to reading abilities and their evaluations. They are handy references for those needing tests for specific disabilities at specific levels.

Some diagnostic information can be gleaned through knowledge of the home situation. Children from homes where language and conversation are significant phases of family life usually will have a much easier time learning to read than those whose home background gives little experience with elaborated language patterns.

What are the home factors most often related to reading problems? A low socioeconomic level is one, although parental attitudes and behavior may be more significant than the parents' education, income, or race. The size of the family, the child's position in it, and the opportunity the home presents for learning experiences relevant to school are also important. The underprivileged home is often represented as a large, impoverished family, usually mother-dominated, living in a noisy, overcrowded atmosphere permeated with an underlying panic. The basic necessities are uncertain, adults unpredictable, and the world suspect and threatening. Communication is often through gesture and other nonverbal means, while the language used is terse, ungrammatical, and limited in form. The home has few books, few toys, and little self-instructional material. The children rarely venture beyond their own neighborhood or even their own block. They are seldom read to, and there is little contact between parent and child. Rewards and punishment (often physical) are immediate. Learning to postpone gratification is as irrelevant to their way of thinking as learning for learning's sake.

In such a noisy and chaotic environment, children learn to adapt as best they can. They may learn, for instance, to screen out sounds, sometimes only too well. Their listening habits and speech patterns may prove inappropriate to the traditional learning situation in school. In addition, they
may be undernourished or lacking in sleep and become inattentive, disturbingly aggressive, or ominously withdrawn. Their absentee rate is probably high.

This generalization, however, suffers the drawback of all generalizations: it is just that and nothing more. It points with accuracy to no individual case. Some children of poverty have learned to read easily despite economic deprivation; some economically middle-class homes are as barren of cultural advantages as the poorest. Middle-class parents, whose anxiety about their child's progress in school takes the form of reproach rather than encouragement, may contribute as much to their child's reading problems as lower-class parents who were dropouts and whose hostility or unsympathetic attitude toward school is reflected by their child.

Data about the home and neighborhood environment, then, can offer significant insights into learning—study habits and motivational drives—important factors in the treatment of any reading problem.

The diagnoses suggested so far are based on the assumption that the child has some personal disability. It is entirely possible, of course, that the disability lies with the teacher. Sometimes personality traits of a teacher impede a child's learning. There is no question that teacher competence or incompetence in reading is a major factor contributing to children's inability to read. The school reading specialist should be aware that a teacher's intelligence, emotional stability, teaching competence, knowledge of reading, and other factors affect a child in his learning to read. It may help for teachers to observe master teachers as they conduct reading lessons, and undoubtedly a continuing in-service program can remedy certain professional inadequacies and inform teachers of new developments.

Diagnosis within a school involves the use of formal tests, observations, and trial and error methods.

Several research studies suggest that daily observation by trained teachers who can respond immediately and directly to children's strengths and disabilities in reading are as effective and much more practical than elaborate test batteries (Farr and Roelke, 1969). This is not grounds for throwing out all diagnostic tests, but it does indicate the vital need for further training in observation, both for the classroom and the remedial teacher.

No test, of course, has any worth if the results are not properly evaluated and then put to use. In far too many schools, however, the practice is to "test, score, and file."

Problems can result if the test is given at the wrong time of the year. For children tested in late spring, there is no possibility of reforming teaching or using the results to apply remediation for that school year.

Some teachers do not believe in tests. They administer them because they are told to but do not rely on the results. Sometimes there is no one who knows how to interpret the results. Without a skilled reading specialist, and without time set aside for interpretation, tests become meaningless
and useless. When the proper tests are given and interpreted by competent specialists, the results can be utilized in many ways by both the classroom and the remedial reading teacher. They can be used to:

- diagnose individual and class weaknesses and strengths
- revise the developmental program to overcome weaknesses
- guide in the selection of supplemental materials
- arrange grouping for reading, both in the classroom and in the remedial program
- evaluate the teaching performance
- screen candidates for remedial and for gifted classes
- set up specific skill goals for the child to achieve

There is a tendency for administrators to compare the test results of their schools with "the national norm." This may be an unfair comparison, because the norming population may not resemble that of the local school. Such a comparison or report might be of advantage to a school administrator seeking funds for reading materials, remediation, and in-service training for his reading instructors if it revealed that the children were encountering difficulty in reading up to their potential.
Establishing the Need

There has been more research on the diagnosis of reading disability than on its treatment. Most of the information available on treatment was gathered from case histories in the field. Even now, far too few controlled research experiments in remedial reading are being conducted. To offset this gap in knowledge, valuable information is beginning to emerge from experiential activities in school systems as workable methods are discovered.

A certain amount of treatment of reading disability can be accomplished in the classroom (techniques for such activity are described in another book of this series directed to the classroom teacher). In general, classroom correction is directed toward the disabilities revealed by the first level of diagnosis, that is, weaknesses in vocabulary, word recognition skills, and sentence and paragraph comprehension. Through a combination of observation and tests, and with the help and guidance of a reading consultant, the classroom teacher discovers the specific skill disabilities of a child and takes immediate steps to help overcome them. This may be attempted through introduction of new materials, emphasis on self-pacing, or repetition of activity already given to the child.

For more complex diagnosis and treatment, it is usually better to remove the child from the classroom for a certain period each day to receive specific instruction from a remedial teacher. His disability will determine the nature of the remedial effort. Hence, it is important that the disability be diagnosed accurately.

The need for a remedial reading program for a school is not always easy to establish. For one thing, the school administrator may be reluctant to suggest the possibility because of a lack of funds. For another, the classroom teacher may feel that the necessity for remedial instruction is a reflection on her abilities and, therefore, does not bring reading disabilities to the attention of the administrator. A third roadblock toward admitting the need is the shortage of trained personnel to initiate a remedial program.
The most widely accepted method of determining the need for remedial reading programs is through a survey of the reading abilities of the children. This survey can be made through group testing, using such instruments as the Stanford Achievement Tests or the California Reading Tests, and can be carried out in the classroom under the direction of the classroom teacher. The reading survey will not be a diagnostic study, but it can identify those children who, due to some difficulty, show discrepancies between their reading achievement and their capacity. Results can be used by a reading specialist to recommend specific children for further diagnosis and to point out the need for a remedial program in the school.

It is important for the classroom teacher to be fully informed of the results of the reading survey so that he may cooperate with the reading specialist in proposing a remedial program based on the survey results and on his observations.

The informal reading survey is only the first step. It identifies by a gross measure students who appear to be reading below their grade level.

The next step is to test capacity or mental ability. Scores from group intelligence tests are only approximations of the child's true ability but serve as another index to indicate any need for remedial help.

On the basis of the reading and mental ability tests, the reading specialist can indicate those who seem to need or would profit by remedial help and the priority for such help. Bond and Tinker, in Reading Difficulties: Their Diagnosis and Correction (1967, p. 93), outline a formula for finding reading expectancy levels using I.Q. scores and school grades. The specialist can use this formula, then compare it with a reading level as reported by the reading test, thus getting a basis to help determine priority ranks for those children who need reading help. The system of giving a "1" priority to those who seem to need most help, "2" for those next in order, and "3" for the least disabled will enable the school to have some measure of the number of
The Remedial Classes

children who might benefit from a remedial program. Space, fund, and
time limitations probably will prohibit offering help to all who need it.
Therefore, the priority listing becomes important. The reading specialist
can work with the classroom teacher in devising methods and locating
materials for use with children in the lower priorities.

Using the initial diagnosis as a basis, the remedial teacher should deter-
mine the grouping of the children and the frequency and length of meetings.

Since the children are unlikely to be homogeneous as far as reading
abilities are concerned, the smaller the group, the better. Ideally, each
child should receive individual instruction, but the realities of time and
personnel are such that this is rarely possible. Most authorities recom-
mand groups of two to six, with ten as the usual maximum (Harris, 1961).
Working with a small group, the remedial reading instructor can give in-
dividual attention to all the pupils. It is generally agreed that the remedial
reading instructor should have a maximum case load of 50 children. A
larger number restricts time for proper maintenance of records or for com-
unication with the classroom teacher who must later face the task of
reinforcing in the classroom the skills learned in the remedial class.

Figure 6
TYPES OF READING TESTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Standard Group Tests</th>
<th>Informal Inventory</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average of Groups</td>
<td>Comprehension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rough Screening Device</td>
<td>Details</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual Rank</td>
<td>Main Ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary (meaning)</td>
<td>Generalizations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehension (short paragraph)</td>
<td>Listening Level (comprehension)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Oral Reading</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fluency</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comprehension</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Independent</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frustration</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Instructional</td>
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<tr>
<td>Individual Tests</td>
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<tr>
<td>Standardized Diagnostic for</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Strength and Weaknesses</td>
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<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
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<tr>
<td>Comprehension</td>
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<td>Details</td>
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<tr>
<td>Main Ideas</td>
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<tr>
<td>Generalizations</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reading Analysis</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Phonics</td>
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<tr>
<td>Structural</td>
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Opinions differ concerning the frequency of remedial class meetings. Some insist that half-hour classes once a day are better than hour-long classes every other day. Others believe that little can be accomplished in a half hour. The nature of the disabilities and the teaching style of the remedial instructor will influence the decision.

There is also difference of opinion on the matter of grouping children, whether by sex or by age. In most cases, the number of boys in need of remedial help far exceeds the number of girls. The method followed, i.e., grouping the girls at a certain reading level, keeping the other classes exclusively male, or mixing the classes, is a matter of preference.

Psychological factors may influence the method, making it advisable to group according to age, although reading level must be considered. For instance, if an older boy who reads at the pre-primer level is put with a class of first graders, he may become so depressed about his ability that it will be impossible for him to be helped.

Some remedial teachers prefer to mix abilities. For example, in a remedial class of children who are reading comfortably at a certain level, it may be helpful to have one or two below and one or two above that level. The majority then has leaders who can set goals, and the slower students can learn from those above them in ability. Again, the research is not definitive in this area, and the pragmatic approach of doing what seems to work is the usual one.

Space for the program is a consideration in most schools. Remedial reading classes have been known to meet in hallways or boiler rooms. Obviously, the discomfort, lack of good lighting, and unattractiveness of such
Even a dingy school basement can be turned into an attractive reading center with the use of paint, lighting equipment, and floor carpeting. This room was at one time a storage room in a Kansas City, Missouri, school.

Learning conditions will handicap a program. Many new programs are conducted in trailers in the school yard. Some are held in assembly rooms partitioned off to create small classrooms. In general, it is good to have as few visual and auditory distractions as possible. For this reason, some remedial teachers prefer rooms without windows and with carpeting. A small room or trailer, with sufficient space for the pupils' chairs and a few pieces of equipment, can be made cheerful and intimate. An environment to stimulate learning is important, and this will differ according to the ages of the pupils, their disabilities, the nature of the teacher, and the equipment and materials to be used.

The remedial program should result not only in the improvement of skills, but also in a better attitude toward reading and toward oneself. If attitudes change, then progress is more likely to continue long after the special instruction has stopped. Many children who cannot read are convinced that they cannot learn. Their first need is success in reading. This can be accomplished if the skilled specialist selects materials and uses techniques which enable the child to have immediate success. He then begins to think of himself as a reader, and this modified attitude will carry him through more difficult steps.

Reading specialists generally approach the tasks of diagnosis and treatment by concentrating on narrow groups of skills, such as the identification of short vowel sounds and their letter symbols. This approach enables the reading teacher to establish clear performance goals and to look for very particular techniques and materials to accomplish these goals. As part of the research on overcoming specific reading handicaps, a representative group of techniques and materials was collected and classified. Samples...
A reading teacher in Oakland, California, helps the students learn with the aid of a recorded lesson. The children are wearing earphones connected to a "listening post."

Special Equipment and Materials

of these items are given in the Appendix, and remedial reading and classroom teachers may find in these samples some guidance in treating skill deficiencies. Reading skills are classified as follows:

Perceptual Skills
- auditory skills
- visual skills
- motor skills

Word Identification Skills
- sight vocabulary
- phonics skills
- structural analysis skills
- context skills
- syllabication skills

Comprehension Skills
- words
- sentences
- main ideas
- generalizations

Rate of Reading

Oral Reading Skills

Also in the Appendix are suggestions for individualizing instruction. Although most remedial reading teachers meet with relatively small groups, they need continuing encouragement and guidance in individualizing within the small group. Otherwise, children seated with several others may receive only whole-group instruction. Checklists, record-keeping forms, and small-group management techniques are included in this section of the Appendix.

Selection of equipment and materials prescribed for any child should naturally be based on the diagnosis of his reading disability. For example, diagnosis may indicate that the child learns best from auditory stimuli. It is obviously a waste of time and effort to present him with materials that are primarily visual, at least until he can develop some visual skills. Now on the market are materials geared to the learning styles of various children: kinesthetic materials such as letters made of sandpaper which the children can trace with their fingers; word, letter, and phonics charts that make use of color for the visually oriented; tapes that train for auditory discrimination; tachistoscopes that retrain eye muscles and movement; and a variety of games designed to increase a child's ability to coordinate eye and hand movements or his sense of spacial relationships.

It is generally agreed that the materials used in a remedial program should be different from those in the classroom with which the child has
already failed. Therefore, the remedial class might use a basal reading series, but it should be different from that used in the child's regular class.

Reading materials in the remedial class should have great variety, permitting the child to find something that reaches his skills and interests. Furthermore, reading texts, trade, or library books that have high interest but require low reading skills can supplement or replace basal readers.

Often, when teachers find that the materials they prefer do not exist, they devise their own. Children, too, can participate in making materials for themselves, such as word boxes in which they keep words they have learned and which they use as the basis for writing stories.

The cost of materials and equipment for remedial reading usually shocks a school administrator who may have been budgeting as little as three dollars per child per year for textbooks. It is possible to spend thousands of dollars on materials and equipment. However, for such expensive equipment as a tachistoscope or a tape recorder, the costs are nonrecurring and relatively small in the long run, considering their use for so many years by thousands of children. The usual remedial reading class probably would cost from $2,000 to $3,000 for initial modest equipment depending, of course, on the numbers treated, the seriousness of the disabilities, the goal of the program, and, to an extent, the preferences of the reading teacher. If a teacher prefers to prepare his own materials or use commercial books and games, it is a waste of money to buy equipment. The choice of equipment and materials should be made by the reading specialists and not by the administrators who ordinarily are not reading experts and who will not be using the equipment to teach.

Some positive influences which make remedial programs effective have been noted by those who visited such programs. These may be helpful to a staff considering establishing remedial instruction.

- First of all, the effective programs have well-defined philosophies, established cooperatively by administrators, supervisors, classroom teachers, remedial instructors, and special personnel.
- The good programs recognize that an adequate diagnostic program, using individual and group testing procedures to evaluate pupil achievements and needs, is essential to a good remedial program.
- The remedial program is effective insofar as it is related to the capacity of the student being helped, to the nature of his difficulties, and to his interests.
- Effective programs involve children in reading activities that stimulate their self-confidence and self-direction, thereby improving their self-image.
- The most effective programs give attention to the students who are not reading up to their potential, even though they may be reading grade levels, as well as to the students reading below grade level.
• Procedures for selection of pupils for special help are carefully outlined and not confined to reading level.
• Qualified reading personnel are available to help students with varying degrees of reading handicaps.
• Classroom teachers are taught to recognize deficiencies in reading and to modify their instruction on the basis of classroom diagnosis.
• A small teacher-pupil ratio, with no more than six to ten pupils in remedial classes is most effective.
• Each remedial instructor has a centrally located room that is comfortable, attractively furnished, and with adequate teaching, work, and storage space.
• A suitable library area, housing books for reference on many individual differences, is readily available.
• Reading teachers have no duties other than those related to their major work. They have daily planning and conference periods, as well as time to serve as resource personnel and to introduce new procedures and materials to colleagues. They have opportunities to examine, evaluate, and recommend materials.
• Parental involvement is encouraged through PTA, neighborhood meetings, and frequent conferences with parents of children in the remedial program.
• Effective appraisal techniques are included from the beginning of the remedial program.
• From a long-range point of view, the prevention of reading problems is more important than their correction. Identification of potential reading failures takes place as early as possible. Provision for special help for children experiencing minor difficulties is undertaken early, before the problems can increase in severity.
• Successful programs are characterized by good communication with school administrators and close working relationships between remedial and classroom reading teachers.
Every school has some method for handling remedial reading. At the least helpful end of the scale is the old-fashioned, ineffective method of keeping the slow learners after school to get "more of the same" from the classroom teacher. Teaching methods and materials which fail to work the first time usually will not work when applied in extra doses, and the child's opinion of himself sinks even lower as he faces what he can regard only as punishment for his stupidity.

The premise of such after-school work may, in all fairness, be a good one—that the child requires individual attention and extra concentration on specific skills. Some schools, recognizing those needs, provide tutors—either paid aides or older students—to give extra attention and help to the nonreaders and slow readers. Tutorial programs, particularly those in which the tutors are informed and guided by reading specialists, can be extremely beneficial.

The most effective programs at the other extreme are those conducted by reading specialists working cooperatively with the administrators and classroom teachers in an informed, structured program that falls within the school day. Usually the children attend the remedial program at times set aside for classroom work in the language arts. The schedule is conscientiously arranged so that the children do not miss classes they enjoy, such as music, art, and physical education, and which, through training in auditory, visual, perceptual, and coordination skills, actually help to correct some of their reading disabilities.

The majority of current school remedial programs falls between these two extremes. For one thing, the acute shortage of reading specialists prevents many schools from hiring directors for their reading programs even though they are willing and have funds to do so. Instead, they rely on teachers who have proved effective as classroom instructors to head the remedial effort.
Many of those teachers, realizing their own lack of information, take courses in reading and, through professional reading and workshops, try to compensate for their own shortcomings. Such teachers, observed in practice, impress everyone with their enthusiasm and their efforts to prepare themselves professionally for the assignments thrust upon them.

Coordination between the remedial teacher and the classroom teacher is acknowledged as the keystone, particularly if the problems are ever to be prevented. Although an acknowledged necessity, this coordination actually is not always present, due to the fact that there was a lack of conscientious preplanning. To achieve complete coordination, both the remedial and the classroom teacher must have free time, a rare commodity in almost every school. Unless such free time is built into the schedule, with replacement teachers or aides hired to serve while the teachers confer, the time vaporizes and the coordination never materializes. Coordination also involves full sharing of knowledge. The remedial teacher should know what is going on in the developmental program in the classroom, and in turn the classroom teacher must know the goals and methods of the remedial program. In-service programs are valuable in bringing about this interchange of knowledge.

Thus it is evident that the reading specialist must work closely with the school principal to effect a good remedial reading program. The principal must arrange channels through which the teacher and the reading specialist can communicate. He must see that the reading specialist has access to records and to class observations. In-service training is also the principal's responsibility, which he must accept or delegate to the reading specialist. There must be clear-cut responsibility and authority if coordination and proper follow-through are to be achieved.

The follow-through is extremely important for an effective program. Too often it happens that children attend the remedial program and make great strides, but then little is done to reinforce their new, good habits or to provide them with additional help as they encounter new problems in regular classes. The remedial reading teacher should provide the classroom teacher with a plan that will carry the student through additional growth activities. In some schools students are requested to return for a progress report after six months. This checkup enables the remedial and the classroom teacher to evaluate the student's course, and it also reminds the classroom teacher of the need to continue corrective activities in the classroom. Part of follow-through might also include a check on the progress of remedial children five or ten years after treatment. School systems often seem to regard such follow-through only as a desirable luxury for which they lack the time, personnel, and money. Ultimately, of course, such evaluation would provide some evidence about the long-term value of remedial procedures.
Despite the shortcomings of current practices, there is no doubt that there is increased activity in remedial reading programs in the schools today. Something, at last, is being done, and in many places, the activity is carefully planned, skillfully executed, and remarkably effective. Furthermore, some of what is happening can be emulated by other schools, even without large expenditures of money.

It is difficult to find patterns in a dynamic field that has no classic models, but patterns are emerging. Ordinarily, schools are involved in more than one activity at a time; so if a certain aspect of a program is pointed out here, it does not necessarily represent the total effort of a school in remedial work.

The reading coordinator functions as a kind of service expert for the classroom teachers in his building. He assists with the diagnosis of difficult reading problems within a classroom and with the grouping of children according to given needs and teaches demonstration lessons to prepare the teacher to cope with similar difficulties in the future. He also does some remedial teaching when certain cases indicate that no learning is going on within the classroom. He tutors, acts as a kind of curriculum adviser and consultant for the principal, tests and places new students who enter the school, and interprets the reading program to the parents and community. In addition, the reading coordinator provides, upon request, supportive help to probationary teachers.

Within the general framework, the reading coordinator may have opportunities for other activities, depending, naturally, on the freedom given him by the principal. Some coordinators have initiated Reading Adventure Rooms, which make paperback books available for children as well as adults. These rooms are open before, during, and after school, and the restrictions on borrowing books are less confining than in most libraries. Since there is no librarian there to catalog or guard the books, the reading coordinator occasionally puts out a plea for the return of books, but there is no other pressure on the sign-out or return procedure within a given period of time.

Detroit's reading coordinator program was initiated by a group of classroom teachers who met together informally to discuss problems and causes of their students' reading difficulties. They convinced their principal to let them try some different ideas. From that small beginning in 1959, the program expanded to include 37 schools, and the original remedial reading teacher has become a reading coordinator.

In-service training for coordinators includes a three-week workshop, a one-week workshop for principals, and a one-day workshop for the entire school staff. The very existence of these elements in the in-service program affirms the importance of involving all these people in the development of good readers.
There are both tangible and intangible benefits from the program. Some principals report reading improvement of all children, with one principal stating that, for the first time in 12 years, the children in his school scored near the national average on standard achievement tests. More difficult to define is a kind of stability that the coordinators have brought to reading instruction within a school. The unanimous enthusiasm of classroom teachers and principals for the program is another evidence of its success.

Tutoring with a difference is achieving dramatic results in forty schools in Indianapolis and in a school in Bloomington, Indiana. Called programed tutoring, the system was developed by Dr. D. G. Elson and two of his associates in the Department of Psychology of Indiana University (Elson, 1967). Through the program, the poorest reader in the class is able to become as proficient as the average student.

Programed tutoring uses relatively untrained people, including housewives and students. The tutors are given completely detailed lesson plans from which to work. They see no more than 15 students a day and give 15 minutes of individual attention to each child. The programed instruction stresses sight reading, comprehension, and a simplified form of phonics. The tutors make no decisions on their own but follow the detailed instructions to the letter. To guard against inflexibility, the programers have made alternate responses available for use according to students' reactions.

Those children in the lowest 25 per cent of their reading classes are enrolled in programed tutoring. They report to their tutors for 15 minutes each day, meeting at tables placed in corners of classrooms or in small rooms available in the school building.

A unique plan for perceptual training is being tried in Niskayuna, New York. It was devised by the physical education coach in an elementary school, working with the school psychologist, the principal, the kindergarten and first-grade teachers, and teachers of speech, music, and art.

The plan is based on the theory of giving the beginning reader some experiences in motor learning, tactile sense, perceptual training, and eye-hand coordination. The teachers feed into the program ideas on the child's needs, such as left-right awareness and concepts of space. The physical education program is formulated for these specific skills. From the child's point of view, he is simply having fun and is unaware that he is being "taught."

According to the physical education teacher, his classes heretofore "have had little thought process. We were used to telling the children what to do without thinking about why. Now we are giving them problem-solving games that have some content."

In many schools, small groups of students are taught by remedial teachers in a small room on a daily basis. Anderson, Indiana, provides a good example of one such program.
Reading specialists often visit classrooms to work with individual students. This remedial reading teacher in Philadelphia helps a student master locational skills while the classroom teacher confers with two other students on a social studies project.

Student Tutors

The Anderson program is administered from a central office by the director of curriculum, but each remedial reading teacher works in only one elementary school and is responsible for treatment of moderately severe reading disability within that school.

The children are selected in an informal manner with the classroom teachers choosing those who are falling too far behind in reading to do adequate work in the classroom. The remedial teacher then tests the children through an informal inventory, giving more formal tests only when they seem necessary.

At the most, eight children come to the remedial teacher for 20 or 30 minutes a day, four or five days a week. (Schools differ on the length of the period and on the frequency of the meetings.) Since the children report on a grade-level basis, some difficulties are encountered due to the wide range of ability represented in the group. This necessitates working individually with each child for part of the period.

In one school, four days are devoted to remedial teaching and the fifth day is used to construct tapes for the children who do not attend the remedial classes but who need some exercises that the classroom teacher does not have time to give.

Much of the success of the Anderson program stems from the personal contact between the remedial reading teacher and the classroom teacher. Working together, they handle the selection, evaluation, and reorientation of the child.

A team of university consultants assisted in designing the program and initiating the first training. School administrators now feel that it might have been wise to have had the consultants devise a more complete evaluation phase. However, a comparison of pre-test and post-test scores shows that there has been sufficient growth on the part of the children in the program to warrant its continuance.

An elementary school in San Bernardino, California, is conducting an experiment with 40 children who are nonreaders. A large room with 15 small tables is used and teams of two children each are seated opposite each other. Each team includes a nonreader and a junior high school student-tutor. A wide variety of techniques is used by the student-tutor, including flash cards, visual-audio-kinesthetic-tactile (VAKT) materials, and kits for teaching children a second language and drilling in specific skills.

Nonreaders may come to the room as often as three times a day. Classes are held continually for five 55-minute periods every day. The classroom teachers or the counselors refer the children who need help to the special classroom. When they arrive, the teacher in charge assures them, whatever their problems, that they "will learn to read."

The student-tutors are selected on the basis of their academic ability, but exceptional "citizenship" records and near-perfect attendance are also required. The enthusiasm and determination of the student-tutors are evident in the seriousness with which they approach their responsibilities.
A special library has been built for the program, making available many books, games, newspapers, magazines, and other materials.

The children, tested four times a year to chart their progress and attitudes, have shown improvement in scores on the Gray Oral Reading Test and on their report cards.

The student-tutors meet each Friday for an in-service session. Their tutoring work is an elective for which they receive credit, and some of them have been hired by parents to do further tutoring in after-school hours. In addition to an intensive pre-training course, the student-tutor works with the teacher in charge before and after school and during lunch periods. The best of the student-tutors, in turn, help train new tutors.

In San Diego, California, a project called "The Reteaching of Reading Program" has been initiated. Its purpose is to offer a varied and flexible approach to reading for pupils of average or above-average ability in the primary grades, with special emphasis on grades two and three. Primarily a remedial program, it also aims to prevent later serious retardation. The high percentage of Mexican children in San Diego schools contributes to the reading problems, since English conversation in the home is the exception.

The remedial reading classes are composed of eight to ten primary children with deficiencies in word recognition and comprehension skills. The program offers them added experience in sequential and systematic reading instruction at their individual reading levels. Most of the children have an IQ of at least 80 and are usually one to two years below their grade level in reading. They are selected principally on the recommendation of the classroom teacher.

The remedial classes are conducted in a variety of settings, from an annex across the street from an elementary school to remodeled closets in another school. Little space is needed—room for six or eight small chairs for the pupils, a corner for books and a phonograph, a chalkboard, and a teacher's desk. The desk permits the remedial teacher to use the room as an office for individual conferences with the children and their parents.

One principal made the statement that the program was one that any competent classroom teacher could handle "if she had the time and a little training." Actually, most remedial instructors have had long experience as effective teachers of reading and have taken advanced college work in the area. The three institutions of higher education in San Diego offer a wide array of in-service credit courses, including some in the teaching of reading.

The children attend the remedial classes for 40 minutes each day and usually remain in the program for ten weeks, although it is not unusual for a child to continue in the program for the entire school year. He leaves when both the remedial and the classroom teacher agree that he is now capable of doing the same work as the rest of the children in the classroom.
The program is strongly phonics-oriented, and a special effort is made to encourage children to use language orally. Toward that end, phonograph records provide auditory training, and experience stories make up a good part of the curriculum. A typical exercise is composing sentences from selected word cards. The remedial rooms are equipped with more materials than the usual classroom. Not only are there basal readers (different from those the child uses in his classroom) but also transparencies and high-interest trade books. An excellent teacher’s guide for the remedial instructor, containing theory as well as practical suggestions for teaching specific skills, was prepared by the staff and has proved helpful in the success of the program.

The Los Angeles City Schools have many and varied remedial and preventive programs. For the elementary schools, there are six reading coordinators working directly with 200 reading teachers who, in turn, work with the classroom teachers. Four reading teachers are assigned to a school where, in addition to working with the classroom teachers and informing them of new methods, materials, and techniques, they work with groups of six to eight children with reading disabilities, spending 45 minutes to an hour a day. Children who are not performing well are taken out of the regular classroom during the reading period and assigned to remedial classes. This leaves the classroom teacher with a smaller class of children and a class having about the same level of reading ability.

The reading teachers emphasize self-image, attitude toward reading, and reading skills, especially with the first, second, and third graders.

The classroom teachers make the referrals to the remedial teachers, who give the children a word recognition test and some motor-, audio-, and visual-perception tests, selecting those who they feel will profit most from the special classes.

Each remedial teacher uses the approach he finds most congenial and effective. Usually, there is emphasis on phonics and oral language, with frequent use of experience stories.

In some situations, the entire school population is given an informal reading inventory, and summary sheets on the findings are available to the classroom teacher to help him in capitalizing on the children’s strengths and compensating for their weaknesses. Often the remedial teacher works in the classroom with the teacher, especially one who is new, to demonstrate materials or techniques.

Communication with the classroom teacher and with the parent is stressed. In-service classes and workshops are held, in some cases, as frequently as once a month. Parents are encouraged to come in and discuss their children’s problems. Mexican mothers, in particular, who traditionally do not work outside the home, are often used as volunteer tutors for the children. Parents are taking advantage of the opportunity to get books for themselves or their children from the school.
Scheduling, as in any remedial reading program, presents a problem. Schools trying new enrichment programs have found it wise to schedule children at a time which does not interfere with other activity that might be equally helpful to their development.

In one Mexican neighborhood of Los Angeles, a special program is offered for junior high school students who are reading as poorly as the first-grade-level pupils. Bungalows, resembling quonset huts from the outside and known as Student Achievement Centers, have been carpeted, air conditioned, and generally transformed to provide quiet, attractive, and pleasant surroundings with an atmosphere conducive to learning.

A multimedia approach is used, with emphasis on oral language. Classes are small and last an hour a day, five days a week. Five “graduates” of the class are working as student aides, assisting the teachers and the other students. One is a Mexican boy who worked himself up from first-grade to fourth-grade reading level during one year in the program.

Films, games, tapes, and a wide variety of books, magazines, and teacher-written materials are used. Generally speaking, the teachers find that they cannot rely on commercially prepared materials, since those of high interest are too difficult for the poorest readers. The staff is writing materials that are tested in the bungalows, revised, and then mimeographed or printed for teacher use.

“Every book has one page we can use,” said one of the teachers. Like many of the other teachers, he finds mechanical equipment too fast for many of the students. “They have to learn to walk first,” he said. The children are taught phonics and other word analysis skills through the use of workbooks that give them a great deal of repetition.

The big problem is motivation. Once the children achieve a little success, they tend to move rapidly ahead.

Home contact is considered important in the Los Angeles effort to improve reading. The remedial reading teacher visits the home of every child in his classes. Teas and other social events are planned to bring the parents into the schools. Parental interest was evidenced when one school offered a sixteen-week course for parents called, “Helping Your Child Learn To Read.” Despite the fact that the evening sessions ran as long as two and a half hours, there were few “dropouts.”

The use of mechanical equipment to teach reading is often a matter of teacher preference. If the teacher is set against using it or has had little or no instruction in its use, chances are that any equipment purchased is gathering dust. But as teachers overcome any initial fears they have about machines and as they are taught how to use them, they are discovering their potential for helping children learn to read. As a rule, children love machinery, and the more complicated and louder it is, the better. Those who
In this well-supplied reading class, the children have a wide range of materials with which to work. The girl is typing a language experience story which she will later record on tape so others can listen.

Compensatory Programs

have seen such equipment used knowledgeably and skillfully do not doubt its value—at least its motivational value.

Visitation were made to two California schools where machines are being used to advantage. Remedial classes for one Oakland elementary school are held in a trailer in the schoolyard. The trailer is filled with equipment, including a tachistoscope, a controlled reader, a standard typewriter, tape recorders, a record player, and teaching machines for programmed learning. The child has a fairly free choice of what to use. He might elect to play a record and dance out a story. He might decide to write his story on the typewriter or record the story and listen to the playback. The children come four days a week to work on their reading. In one instance, the reading teacher makes it a point to go to the school for coffee every morning, availing himself of the opportunity to meet with classroom teachers. Despite the freedom given the children in the trailer, the teacher tries to steer them to the equipment or books that will help them most in the skills they lack.

A school in Richmond, California, uses a portable building for its remedial class. Second and third graders are given two diagnostic tests, one to determine their reading levels, the other to locate skill weaknesses. Three teachers work in the portable building, each taking a group of six to eight children at a time. The remedial work is concentrated for these children rather than spread out over the whole school. Particular emphasis is placed on visual and auditory perception training. VAKT techniques are used. The most important piece of equipment is a large console composed of tape recorders and several tape decks. Individual hookups to tapes are available, giving the console its name, listening center. Children sit at the console and the teacher tunes them in to a tape, selected from approximately 250 available tapes, which will help them with their individual skill work. The room has numerous games, charts, overhead projectors, and books. Although there is approximately $10,000 worth of equipment and materials in the classroom, the three teachers have discovered that some of the most useful materials are those they make themselves for specific children with specific needs. “It’s the little things you do that count,” said one. Improvement in the children will range from six months to two years in reading ability. (Suggestions for teacher-made tools can be found in the Appendix.)

San Francisco schools offer a good example of combining remedial reading with compensatory education for disadvantaged children. The children having the most difficulty with reading in the elementary schools are sent to a compensatory teacher for an hour a day. Each compensatory teacher has about five groups a day, teaching about 60 children in all. In general, these teachers follow their own specialties and the interests of the children in establishing the content of the classes. One may concentrate on photography, another on botany, while another may deal with Negro heroes or
Although he has difficulty with classroom reading materials, this boy in a Detroit school is fascinated by a "hot rod" magazine. The reading specialist capitalized on his interest in cars by including many magazine and books on the subject on the remedial room bookshelf.

ancient civilizations as the key to motivate the children. One class has been focusing its attention on a baby chick that has been a member of the class since it was an egg. Field trips to whet appetites for learning and to provide content for stories, plays, and conversations are an essential part of the remedial efforts.

The compensatory teachers are under the direction of a resource teacher who visits the classes and offers on-the-spot help with reading disabilities. In-service training for compensatory teachers is part of the program. If, for example, a compensatory teacher is having trouble with his classes, the resource teacher takes him to observe some excellent compensatory teachers at work, pointing out techniques they may be using to advantage.

In one classroom visited, the concentration was on botany, and each of the children had several plants growing in tin cans. With the teacher, they built a greenhouse. They planted beans in tin cans containing different kinds of soil, attempting to discover which bean thrives with which soil. The growing beans were climbing up yardsticks, and as the children measured (learning math skills on the side), talking about the other plants (and their trips out to the woods to dig up more plants), they put words on the chalkboard, such as "absorb," "moisture," "mineral," "dissolve," and "ingredients." Their interest is keen, and once they have been persuaded to talk about a subject, they write about it, act it out, and record it on the tape recorder.

The patterns for handling remedial reading are infinite, depending primarily on the resources of the school and the ingenuity of the reading
specialists. Some schools try to give a little help to all the children who need it in all the grades. Others concentrate on the first few grades, attempting to correct disabilities before they become serious enough to prevent the children from keeping up with their other work. Still others stress the older grades, trusting the developmental reading program and the classroom teachers to help the younger pupils.

Sometimes the emphasis in a program is on changing and improving attitudes. Such a goal is difficult to build into a program and more difficult to evaluate objectively. An Illinois school district, Deland-Weldom Community Unit Schools, has centered its program around improvement of attitudes as an incentive to reading. Children are referred to one of two reading teachers who interview them informally and allow them to browse through the reading classroom library. They are encouraged to return often to look at and find books they want to read. As the children become used to books, they begin to want to read better and go to the reading teacher for help. Individual programs of instruction are worked out at that time.

Invariably, the children appear to enjoy the special reading classes. In some cases, they enjoy the special attention or the change from the regular classroom. But they also seem to take great pleasure in the learning itself and in finding out that they can, after all, learn to read.
Establishing a Remedial Reading Program

Instituting a coordinated reading program in the schools, including a remedial program, requires change and an increased expenditure of time, money, and effort. Although the pressure for change can and does come from many directions—from teachers, from parents, from administrators, from national concerns—change within any school and any school system finally becomes the responsibility of the school administrator. He can, of course, delegate some of the work and responsibility to the reading specialist.

1. Determine extent of need through
   - survey of children
   - staff discussions
2. Establish objectives through
   - staff recommendation
   - community involvement
3. Find personnel through
   - recruitment
   - in-service training
4. Create facilities through
   - remodeling
   - new construction
5. Purchase materials for
   - specific skill development
   - high-interest reading
   - variety and flexibility
6. Select children through
   - discrepancy criterion
   - teacher recommendation
7. Schedule treatment
   - to child’s best advantage
   - on a frequent basis
Determining Extent of Need

Earlier in this book ways to establish the need for remedial reading were discussed. The need is often brought to the attention of the administrator by parents who realize that their children are not learning to read. Classroom teachers, especially those wise enough to realize that reading difficulties are no reflection on their teaching, often beseech administrators to do something about the children who simply cannot learn to read through the classroom developmental program.

The need is not always evident, however. Unconcerned parents or those unaccustomed to asking help from the schools fail to contact the school about their own children. Classroom teachers on occasion are inclined to feel that there always will be some children who do not catch on but who will learn to read as they progress through the grades, all evidence to the contrary notwithstanding. It is then up to the administrator to assume that there might be reading problems in his school and take steps, such as an all-pupil survey, to find out if such is the case.

Several principals have found that, in addition to a survey of the pupils' reading performances in the school, a meeting of the staff for discussing the reading needs of specific children is useful. Lists of names compiled by teachers in small committee sessions are introduced at these meetings. Teachers who have the same groups of children try to get together in order to discuss specific cases enabling them not only to come up with a list but also to identify certain difficulties of individual children.

Establishing Objectives

Once the extent of the need is known, it is up to the staff and the community to determine specific objectives for a remedial program. Generally speaking, in most school systems the need is greater than the resources. Then it becomes necessary for the staff to determine their goal, i.e., remediation of all pupils with a need or help for a given area of the student body. Perhaps they will decide that they want greater emphasis on a program of prevention. Thus, the early grades will receive most of the attention, with only very troublesome cases from other grades being considered. Many school systems favor emphasis on prevention, feeling that it is better to eliminate problems in the primary grades, when they are minor problems, than to have them develop into major difficulties in the secondary school.

The school staff will want to decide what effort each member of the staff should make in regard to the remedial reading program. The remedial reading teacher is only one element in an effort to overcome reading problems; part of the objective of the program should include in-
Finding Personnel

service training for classroom correction, means for reporting findings about individual children to classroom teachers, administrators, and parents, and clear-cut procedures for referring children to the remedial teacher or the reading specialist for diagnosis and treatment.

Most schools have found it wise to include parents and members of the community in a remedial reading program. Even if the parents are brought in at the planning stage only to inform them that the school is considering a remedial reading program, the benefits can be mutually worthwhile. Once the parents understand the nature of the program and its objectives, they tend to cooperate and spread among themselves the good word about the school's concern for individual children. It is quite possible, too, that parents will volunteer to assist with the establishment of the program and its operation, serving as parent-tutors or parent-secretaries or offering to assist in the school library or other aspects of the program.

Assuming that a school survey reveals the need for remedial help for some pupils, the next step is to formulate the best possible program to meet specific needs of the children. It is usually a mistake for the administrator to formulate the program and then mobilize the staff to carry it out. For one thing, most school administrators possess insufficient competence in reading, knowing little about diagnostic testing, remedial techniques, or developmental programs. Even those administrators who are closely involved with curriculum development admit that they do not have the knowledge or, even more important, the time. Therefore, the administrator must turn to reading specialists.

An effective remedial reading program in a school system with 10,000 or more children seems to involve the following kinds of personnel: a reading coordinator, who may also be the language arts supervisor; a special reading teacher for each school; and a teacher aide, who could serve as a secretary and sometimes actually assist in contact work with the students in the class.

Finding appropriate personnel to handle a remedial reading program in a school has been a difficult task. Reading specialists are in such great demand that the supply of trained people is quickly exhausted. But the reading coordinator or the school principal should use normal recruitment as a first step in finding personnel in setting up his program. If a trained person is not available, the alternative is to choose a good teacher from the classroom and provide him with in-service and university training, preparing him to become a remedial reading teacher or a reading resource teacher for the school.

Part of the job of finding personnel also involves the identification of the roles that each will play in the school program. Again, cooperation among those directly concerned is essential, and cooperation and communication must also exist among the school administration, the classroom teachers, and others involved with the remedial reading program.
Creating Facilities

Working directly under the guidance of the reading coordinator are the remedial reading teachers and the classroom teachers. Together they learn each other's areas of expertise and devise an overall program for the ultimate goal, which is the prevention of reading disabilities. Inherent in the program must be coordination and shared responsibility. If the program is devised from the top and then imposed on the staff, there is understandable resentment. Furthermore, such a method is self-defeating; it fails to take advantage of the intimate, practical knowledge of the classroom teacher and specialists working directly with the children.

Particularly at the beginning stages of a reading program, sufficient time must be allowed for planning. A classroom reading teacher cannot be assigned the task of devising a remedial effort unless relieved of his classroom responsibilities. The reading coordinator cannot do an effective job if he also has so many other administrative functions that the reading program must be formulated in blocks of time taken from other duties.

In the initial formulation of the reading program, time should be allowed for continuing evaluation. This will, in a way, determine the number of specialists needed. Practically, it is rarely possible for a remedial instructor to be responsible for more than five one-hour classes each day. The rest of the time is needed for adequate record keeping, selection of new materials, and coordination with the classroom teacher.

On an emergency basis, a remedial reading teacher can operate out of a janitor's closet or other makeshift arrangement, but a reading specialist should be given facilities that make the job a pleasurable one and provide an effective place for him to instruct children. If the focus of the remedial program is the training of classroom teachers for corrective work in the classroom by a reading resource teacher, there should be an office and supply room for the resource teacher from which he can conduct interviews with teachers and children and in which he can house appropriate materials for conducting classroom demonstrations.

There are two rather obvious ways to create facilities for a remedial reading program. One is to remodel some existing room in the school, such as a basement room used for storage. Some schools have taken such a room and, with the addition of panelling, carpeting, and effective lighting, have converted it into an attractive place to instruct children. Other schools have taken an unused classroom or a portion of the gymnasium and constructed small work areas within the space making appropriate decorative arrangements to achieve a pleasant place for children and teachers. School systems making an effort to remodel and attractively decorate the remedial reading facilities have found that the students respond enthusiastically to their efforts. Students appreciate bright, carpeted, well-lighted surroundings that may be in contrast to a rather drab classroom.

Another obvious way to arrange for remedial reading instruction is to build a room or bring in some portable facility to serve as a remedial read-
Purchasing Materials

Figure 8
RESOURCE ROOM

This floor plan shows how a school basement in Kansas City was turned into a resource room for a reading teacher. A general work area and a combination reference room and teacher's office were provided.

The equipment and materials for the program should grow out of the needs of the children. Effective diagnosis will determine the kinds of problems and, therefore, the kinds of equipment and materials needed to solve them.

Regardless of the structure of the remedial reading program in the school, a good quantity and a wide variety of materials are necessary. The children must find in the remedial reading area materials that are new and different from those in their classroom. It is an accepted fact that motivation plays a key role in inducing disabled readers to respond to treatment. Materials alone will not motivate children, but they can be used to great advantage, and it is unlikely that children will be motivated if they are faced with the same materials which caused them failure in the classroom. Another aspect of the materials to be considered is their appeal to the senses, since children learn by a variety of sense stimuli. Visual, auditory, and kinesthetic stimuli should be provided within the materials purchased for the program.

It is not easy to locate equipment and materials or to judge their worth. Too many schools rely on equipment and textbook salesmen who, quite naturally, believe their products to be the most effective. Time and money should be allocated for trips by the reading specialist to visit schools using various kinds of equipment and materials and to attend conventions and other meetings where he can discuss with other reading specialists the effectiveness of tools and aids. Further, continuing evaluation of the program should include evaluation of specific pieces of equipment and of games, books, and other materials.

Some schools, discovering that existing materials do not meet the specific needs of their children, have funded the preparation of their own materials, tested them in the program, and then produced them in sufficient quantities for use.

A special consideration in the purchase of materials for remedial reading is emphasis on a large supply of high-interest books. Publishers recently have developed a number of series of such books, especially for boys, containing a vocabulary considerably below the interest level.

Selecting Children

There are two common methods of selecting children for a remedial reading program. The first is recommendation by the teacher who sees the child in action in his classroom and learns quickly to identify those having difficulty with reading. His acquaintance with the child's cumulative
Scheduling Treatment

record should enable him to judge if that difficulty is a reflection of the child's learning capacity or if it stems from some other condition or disturbance. The second method of selecting children for a remedial reading program might be called a discrepancy criterion. Children entering a program often are given reading achievement tests, and the grade level achieved on that test is compared with the capacity or mental age of the child. If the discrepancy, or gap, between the reading achievement and the capacity, or mental age, is significant, then the child is a candidate for the remedial reading program. It is logical to assume that the children with the greatest gap or discrepancy between achievement and capacity should receive first consideration if priorities must be established. The broad ranges of proportion of children likely to need help are obvious.

When children are chosen, it is important that referrals from a classroom teacher include a statement of observations on their specific disabilities, as well as an account of the activities he has used in trying to up-grade each child's reading ability.

Scheduling children into any kind of special program creates problems, especially for the administrator. To make sure that remedial reading treatment occurs under the best conditions, the administrator should keep in mind that the child should not be pulled out of other instructional activities that he especially enjoys. The desirable arrangement, of course, is to assign a child to the remedial reading class for the period during which his classroom reading is taking place.

Frequency of treatment is important. Some research indicates that remedial treatment is most beneficial when administered three or more times a week. It is possible to note progress in children who have treatment only twice a week, but in the more severe cases practitioners feel it is especially important to practice reading several times a week for as long as necessary if a level consistent with regular classroom reading activities is eventually to be achieved.

Evaluating the reading program is a complex process which cannot be presented in a few paragraphs. Some notations might be mentioned that will benefit the reading coordinator in setting up a remedial reading program within a school. One is that at least two kinds of evaluation should take place: 1) evaluation of the child's progress in developing reading skills, and 2) evaluation of the procedures used within the program; that is to say, not only should the children be evaluated, but also the activities and methods used by the teacher.

Results of the remedial program are often exaggerated, to the harm of the children and of the program itself. Misinterpretation of achievement tests, for instance, could place a child in an ability category which he could never maintain once he returns to the classroom. On the other hand, a third-grade child in a remedial class may have advanced from primer to
Close contact and highly personalized instruction are necessary for problem readers. A reading specialist can work with only a few students at a time to bring about improvement.

Reporting Results

second reader, which is a remarkable feat, but his classmates have progressed from the beginning of their third readers to the end. When he returns, he still finds himself the "dumbest one" in the class.

The reading coordinator should have the skills to assist the reading teacher in evaluating test results. Reading tests fall loosely into two categories: the group-survey achievement test, based on standardized norms, and the individual diagnostic test. Survey tests, while they might have diagnostic elements, can be more accurately considered as screening devices to help discover discrepancies between reading capacity and achievement. Scores on such tests are not always true appraisals of reading level but are approximations of individual ability. Individual diagnostic tests, on the other hand, discover specific skill weaknesses and can be used in recommending remedial and corrective treatment. In dealing with either type of test, it should be remembered that reliability and validity of many reading tests is not high. Consequently, care should be taken to avoid placing undue emphasis on any one score. Test interpretation is important enough to be included as a subject for in-service training.

When the child returns to his regular reading class and finds himself still far behind, despite evident progress, two procedures might be followed: 1) a longer period in the remedial class than many schools allow, and 2) full coordination with the classroom teacher to continue reinforcement of the child's skills.

A related matter is the tendency of some classroom teachers to aim their teaching at grades rather than specific needs. The third grader, returning to the classroom after advancing to second-grade reading level, is unable to cope with much of the third-grade material. Such material has to be presented to him in terms he can understand, or he will continue to fall behind. Coordination between the reading specialist and the classroom teacher in finding the effective materials and techniques for that child is a difficult problem. Continuing emphasis by the reading coordinator on the need to know and use appropriate materials will encourage reading teachers to match the child and the materials.

All such matters relate to evaluation because the reading program can be evaluated only in terms of what it sets out to accomplish. It cannot be termed a failure in areas in which it never was intended to function. So the philosophy of the program, the results hoped for in terms of children's abilities, and the limitations of the program must be formulated before the evaluation phase can be worked out. The same evaluation instrument should be employed for all children so that comparative effectiveness studies can be made.

Unless the reading program—its goals, its methods, its techniques, its results—are reported accurately and systematically, its worth may be doubted from the beginning.
First of all, the board of education must understand the needs and be informed on what is necessary to meet those needs or it will not approve additions to the staff or money for equipment and materials. Furthermore, continuance of the board's support will depend upon continuing reports of results.

Secondly, parents, particularly those with children in the remedial program, should be informed about reading and the problems to be solved through remedial efforts. Otherwise, they may attach some stigma to the fact that their children are in the remedial program. Furthermore, the public ultimately pays the bill for the program; hence, the public should have an honest appraisal of the reading program and what is being done to solve reading problems.

Finally, principals should be kept fully informed of the program and fully conversant with the methods and materials being used, as well as with the results.

The responsibility for full reporting to all segments of the school staff and to the public should be part of the role of the reading coordinator. The principal is the one who often actually reports to the parents, but he must depend on the reading specialist for his information.

The following checklist may help in avoiding some of the common pitfalls of school reading programs, in either the planning or operative stage.
Organization
Failure to define responsibility and authority.
In each situation involving a reading specialist, the question “What is his role?” should be answered.

Overcrowding scheduled classes.
Scheduling 15 to 20 students per hour into a remedial class is another common mistake. Most successful programs have no more than six students reporting at any given time to a remedial reading teacher. In some instances, programs put a maximum load of 50 cases per week on the remedial reading teacher.

Personnel
Assuming that a good classroom teacher makes a good reading specialist.
The concerns of a reading specialist usually involve specialized and technical knowledge that can be gained from a combination of university training and experience. Usually the classroom teacher is not so prepared.

Facilities
Failure to provide adequate and attractive space.
A good facility for a remedial reading program usually requires space for a minimum of 100 books, several pieces of equipment, a file cabinet, and miscellaneous supplies. The quarters set aside or provided for the facility should be attractively decorated.

Materials
Failure to allow sufficient funds for materials.
It is estimated that $2,500 to $3,000 is needed to adequately supply one remedial reading teacher. Often little or no money is allotted for the purchase of materials.

Selection
Using only standardized group reading tests.
Individual tests or informal inventories should supplement the standardized group reading tests in making the selection.

Placing on the basis of difference between reading and grade level.
Selection of remedial cases should be concerned with the gap between performance and capacity.

Time
Too few weekly remedial sessions.
Providing once-a-week sessions of 60 minutes or more is not advisable. Successful programs have proved that it is necessary to meet with remedial cases two or more times a week for any noticeable improvement over a semester.

Terminating instruction arbitrarily.
Ending instruction at the end of such arbitrary time periods as, for example, six weeks could be a mistake. Remedial instruction should be carried on until the student’s progress indicates that he can profit from the regular classroom instruction.
Assessment

Determining progress by standardized group scores.

Ordinarily the standardized group test does not measure the skills taught in a remedial reading class.

Although the teaching of reading is centuries old, the approaches needed in today's schools are still in the testing stages. Little formal instruction or practical work is offered for secondary teachers. Schools attempting to find reading coordinators or other reading specialists can testify to the scarcity of such trained persons.

Faced with new approaches and uninformed teachers and administrators, the schools are turning to in-service training for developing needed personnel. The most effective programs allocate time during the school day for such training and do not rely on the good nature of the teacher to attend late-afternoon or evening sessions. This necessitates the hiring of substitute teachers to man the classrooms during the in-service sessions.

The content of an in-service program for remedial reading teachers should include sessions on the diagnostic process and elements to detect in diagnosis, tests available for diagnosis, the establishment of performance objectives for disabled readers, materials and equipment for teaching disabled readers, evaluating a child's progress in specific reading skills, record keeping, and reporting the progress of the disabled reader.

The content and extent of the in-service programs depend on the knowledge of the staff and the type of reading program being formulated. In some cases, developmental reading has to be the starting point, with competent reading teachers demonstrating effective techniques and materials. In most cases, the theories and practicalities of diagnostic testing are a part of in-service courses. All teachers can benefit from studying new equipment and materials and learning their uses in work with different disabilities.

Even some of the fairly effective remedial programs suffer from a lack of in-service education. If such training is left to chance, it is usually omitted, a mistake which undoubtedly reduces the effectiveness of the program.

An important by-product of in-service training in reading is the opportunity it affords for coordination among the various staff members working on the problem. In-service discussions allow the remedial instructors to explain what they are doing and to show how their work can be reinforced by the classroom teacher. By the same token, classroom teachers have an opportunity to discuss the developmental program as it is now operating and the incompatibility of some of its goals with the remedial program. Often, such interaction results in a revamping of both the developmental and remedial programs so that they become a truly coordinated effort.

Only when all those involved in the education of children with reading disabilities are fully aware of the problems and what is being done about them can they assume their proper roles in the ultimate elimination of those problems.
Appendix A

Diagnostic and Correctional Procedures for Specific Reading Skills

Classroom and remedial reading teachers often want to know how to identify a special reading skill and how to correct a weakness in the skill. Sample exercises for specific skills presented here can be used either to assess a child's performance or to give him practice in correcting a diagnosed weakness.

Although not to be considered the only or best answer in correcting a given skill deficiency, these exercises are, however, samples of types that have worked for other teachers. This Appendix may be useful as a quick reference for small-group activity or as a guide to developing corrective exercises for individuals exhibiting specific reading-skill deficiencies.

Sample exercises are given for specific skills under the following headings:

1. Perceptual Skills
   - Auditory
   - Visual
   - Motor

2. Word Identification
   - Sight Word
   - Structural Analysis
   - Context Clues
   - Syllabication

3. Comprehension
   - Words
   - Sentences
   - Main Ideas
   - Generalizations

4. Rate of Reading

5. Oral Reading

Each sample exercise will be coded by one of three terms to indicate its most effective use—worksheet, activity, individual.

Worksheet: designates diagnostic or correctional procedures generally found in worksheets; can be used by a group the size of a normal class.

Activity: involves procedures that generally include discussion or similar activity in a smaller group.

Individual: specializes in diagnostic and corrective procedures designed for an individual.
Taxonomy of Reading Skills

Perceptual Reading Skills

Auditory Skills
1. Matching rhyming words
2. Identifying consonant sounds
   a. initial position
   b. final position
   c. consonant blends
   d. consonant digraphs
3. Identifying vowel sounds
4. Hearing word variants
5. Recognizing syllable length
6. Listening for accent

Visual Skills
1. Noticing likenesses and differences
2. Noticing differences in upper and lower case and between letters
3. Increasing eyespan
4. Developing spatial discrimination
   a. up and down
   b. toward and from
   c. betweenness
   d. nearness
   e. horizontal directionality
   f. on and under
   g. top and bottom

Motor Skills
1. Developing left-right eye movement
2. Developing hand-eye coordination
3. Developing motor awareness and coordination
4. Focusing

Sample Exercises for Perceptual Reading Skills—Auditory

Matching Rhyming Words
1. On the left side of the page, display pictures of objects which exemplify the sound being taught; on the right side, display pictures of rhyming words. The children are to draw a line to the rhyming object.
2. In small groups, one child says a short word, the next child says a rhyming word, and so on until all possibilities seem exhausted.

3. The teacher makes up nonsense couplets. The child should supply the rhyming word in the second line.
   Example: T. He was very fat
   C. Hat

Identifying Consonant Sounds (Initial)
1. On the left side of the page, display pictures of objects which exemplify the initial sounds being studied. On the remainder of the page, the children are to draw objects which begin with the same sound as the key object.

2. On the left side of the page, display pictures of objects which exemplify the initial sound being taught. The children are to look at the object on the left, think of its name, find another object on the the right side that begins with the same sound, and draw a line to it.

3. Each child receives a worksheet depicting a playground scene. Many objects are displayed in the picture, most of which start with initial consonant sounds already studied. With a red pencil, all the objects beginning with —— are marked. With a blue pencil, all the objects beginning with —— are marked. Only two or three sounds should be tested at once; the picture can be used again to test other sounds.

4. The teacher reads sentences with words that begin with the initial sounds being taught. The children raise their hands when they hear the initial sound.

Identifying Consonant Sounds (Final)
1. Pictures of objects on this worksheet are alike initially, but their consonants in the final position are varied. The teacher calls the name of an object and the children mark or circle it.
   Example: coat-comb
   man-mat
   bag-bat

Individual
Worksheet
Worksheet
Worksheet
Activity
Worksheet
Activity
Variation: expand or cut the number of choices according to the needs of the group
Worksheet
Activity
Worksheet
2. From three choices, the child must cross out the picture or word that ends in a different sound than that of the key word. Example:

hat—man—cat—fat

Identifying Consonant Sounds (blends)

1. The children are to arrange the various blends being taught in alphabetical order along the left side of the page. From a mixed list of words starting with these blends, the children are to put the words next to the blends with which they begin.

2. Divide the class into small groups. Each group has chalkboard space and a baseball diamond drawn in that space. The bases are lettered with blends that are being taught. The child who can write a word beginning or ending in the corresponding blend at each base gets a home run.

Identifying Consonant Sounds (digraphs)

1. Divide the class into small groups. Each group has chalkboard space and a baseball diamond drawn in that space. The bases are lettered with digraphs that are being taught. The child who can write a word beginning or ending in the corresponding digraph at each base gets a home run.

2. In this diagnostic test, there are four choices for each exercise; the choices are to be either blends or digraphs. The child is to choose the correct initial sound or digraph represented in the verbal stimulus given by the teacher. Example:

T. Number 1, shoe—shimmer
C. Looks in row 1 and marks the digraph sh

3. To check mastery of one digraph, the child is to circle the pair of words that end in the digraph — or that begin in the digraph —.

Individual

Identifying Vowel Sounds

1. From a list of words the children are to put all the words governed by one rule into the same column or box. Example: short e

long i
r-controlled a

2. The children are to return to their readers to skim for words that fit into the categories given by the teacher. The categories for sorting are determined by the vowel sounds the teacher wants to stress. Example: the long sound of —

the short sound of —

the r-controlled sound of —

3. Lead the children in a discussion about two columns of words. All of the primary vowel sounds in the words of one column are long and are in open syllables. All of the primary vowel sounds in the words of the other column are short and are in closed syllables. Lead them to see the relationship between long-sound open syllables and short-sound closed syllables. Help them determine the cv and cvc patterns.

Hearing Word Variants

1. Show a picture of one object and then one of many identical objects (one object and its plural). The children are to mark whichever picture the teacher calls. Example: T. Boys

C. Mark the group of boys
T. Cat
C. Mark the picture of one cat

Recognizing Syllable Length

1. Give a list of mixed words containing one-, two-, and three-syllable words. The children are to unscramble the words and to put them into three columns according to the number of syllables per word. Then they are to label the columns one-, two-, and three-syllable words.
2. To make the child aware of syllables, have him touch his hand lightly to his jaw and say a two-syllable word slowly. The number of times his jaw must drop to say the word is usually the number of syllables in that word.

Listening for Accent
1. Give a list of two-syllable words; the children are to divide them into syllables. Next, they are to circle the stressed syllables.
2. The children are to use a dictionary to look up a list of words whose meanings change when their accents change. Next they are to correctly use both words in sentences and mark the words with their proper accent for that context.

Sample Exercises for Perceptual Reading Skills—Visual
Noticing Likenesses and Differences
1. The children are to discriminate between sets of objects whose likeness or difference depends on discrimination of number. Example: three large circles containing differing numbers of smaller circles.
2. On a worksheet with pairs of frequently confused words, as the teacher reads sentences the children are to underline the correct word from the pair. Example: quiet—quite, deep—dear, palace—place, throat—throne.
3. The child is to sort according to size, color, shape, and/or type of object. If materials are hard to come by, have him sort his classmates by color of hair, color of shirt or blouse, color of shoes, etc.

Noticing Differences in Upper and Lower Case and in Letters
1. Differences in letters: using upper-case letters, display a letter on the left side of the page and some modifications of it on the right side of the page. The children are to choose the similar form of the letter.
2. Difference in upper and lower case: from a worksheet containing a mixture of upper- and lower-case letters, the teacher names the letter and the children mark or circle the letter named.

Sample Exercises for Perceptual Reading Skills
Individual
Noticing Differences in Upper and Lower Case and in Letters
1. Differences in letters: using upper-case letters, display a letter on the left side of the page and some modifications of it on the right side of the page. The children are to choose the similar form of the letter.
2. Difference in upper and lower case: from a worksheet containing a mixture of upper- and lower-case letters, the teacher names the letter and the children mark or circle the letter named.

Example:
T. Capital A
C. Marks the upper case a
T. Small a
C. Marks the lower case a

Activity
3. The children are to use pipe cleaners for reconstruction of letter forms whether they be in upper or lower case. Beads or buttons may also be used if coordination is developed enough.

Increasing Eyespan
1. Use a single column from a newspaper or magazine. Mark two vertical lines through the column. The student is to practice reading the material up to each vertical line in one fixation.

Developing Spacial Discrimination (up and down)
1. On a worksheet with pairs of objects in up and down positions in each exercise, the teacher asks the children to mark the — that is up, the — that is down.

Example:
Good objects for teaching up and down are pairs of kites, butterflies, jumping boys, hats, birds, kittens, balls, and airplanes.

Activity
2. The children are to bend up and down, climb up and down on small stairs, and reach up and down.
Developing Spacial Discrimination (toward and from)

1. On a worksheet, present three objects, two of which are facing the same direction. The children are to choose the one that is facing away from the other two.

2. On the left side of the page have trees and on the right side of the page have houses. The trees stand for the country and the houses stand for home. Down the middle of the page are pairs of characters, each facing either the trees or the houses. These sets of characters can be cats, dogs, boys, girls, mothers, fathers, etc. The teacher asks the children to mark which man of the two is going home, which dog is going home, which little boy is running away to the country.

Developing Spacial Discrimination (betweeness)

1. The teacher demonstrates betweeness with objects situated in this position: block block, doll; block, doll, block. With colored markers or blocks, the children then practice making situations where there is betweeness.

2. On a worksheet situate drawings or pictures in this fashion: block, block, doll; block, doll, block. The children are to decide and mark which set the doll is between and so on in the worksheet with other objects.

Developing Spacial Discrimination (nearness)

1. From a series of four objects, the middle two being alike, the outer two being different, the children are to decide which objects of the two middle objects is near one of the unlike outside objects.

Example: Show pictures of four objects per frame.
   T. Which girl is near the cat?
   C. Marks the picture of the girl near the cat, not the dog

Developing Spacial Discrimination (horizontal sequence)

1. Display three objects in front of the children and demonstrate the naming of the first, next, and last object. Using any three objects, have them locate the first, next, and last objects from left to right.

2. On a worksheet, have exercises containing pictures of three objects. The teacher designates which object the child is to circle—first, next, or last.

Developing Spacial Discrimination (on and under)

1. Present a worksheet with small objects drawn on or under tables, chairs, dressers, ladders, beds, or stairs. The teacher asks the students to mark the object on the dresser, under the ladder, and so on through the worksheet.

Developing Spacial Discrimination (top and bottom)

1. On a worksheet in vertical columns, have pictures of objects in sets of two. The children are to mark the top or bottom of the set as the teacher calls for it.

Example:
   T. The cat on top
   C. Marks the cat in the top frame

2. With vertical lines as guidelines, the children are to paste paper, beads, or macaroni from the top of the page to the bottom.
Sample Exercises for Perceptual Reading Skills—Motor

Developing Left-Right Eye Movement

1. With a colored margin on the left side of the paper to designate where to start the activity, the children are to draw a circle in a given square or put an 'x' in a given rectangle. Have older children draw a horizontal line through groups of vertical lines, never extending outside these vertical lines.

2. With their heads straight and still, the children should focus on an object at a distance of five feet away. This object should be moved by the teacher from his right to his left or from their left to their right. All board work or any paper activity should be constructed to enhance a left-to-right movement.

Developing Hand-Eye Coordination

1. Everyday activities which increase visual-motor coordination and are easy to incorporate into classroom plans are: buttoning and unbuttoning, lacing and tying, opening and closing snaps, zipping and unzipping, using simple tools, carrying objects, and pouring liquids.

2. Some developmental activities which will enhance visual-motor coordination are the following: cutting, painting, pasting, tracing, finger games, coloring, model-making, bead-stringing, and block-building.

Developing Motor Awareness and Coordination

1. Balancing helps entire body coordination. Have the children stand on tiptoe using both feet for ten seconds, then each foot for ten seconds. Next, while balancing on one foot, they are to swing the other foot; then while standing on one foot they are to make a circle on the floor with the other foot. Last, while on tiptoe they are to lean forward with their heels off the ground. After leaning over as far as possible, they are to return to original position.

2. Games involving the imagination which enhance bodily awareness are cart-pulling, loading, pushing, pushing with back, pulling sideways, lightening a load; pretending to be parts of a storm—high wind, heavy and gentle rain, thunder and lightning; acting like kangaroos, rabbits, elephants, birds, airplanes, and trains.

3. Locomotor activities which help in the development of coordination are skipping, galloping, taking small hops, walking sideways, waddling, and marching.

Focusing

1. The younger students are to identify objects by color, size, shape, and texture. They are to sort according to the above criteria. As skill of sorting increases, so must the degree of detail in focusing.

2. From an assortment of buttons, beads, or similar small objects, the children are to find a square button, etc. This object should not be too different in color or texture, so that they must find it not by touch, but by focusing on shape detail.

3. In small groups, the children are to move their heads from side to side, up and down, and in a rolling motion, while focusing on a stationary object.

Taxonomy of Word Identification Skills

Sight Word

Structural Analysis Skills

1. Recognizing affixes
2. Recognizing compound words
3. Recognizing roots
4. Recognizing contractions
Context Clue Skills
1. Using definition clues
2. Using experience clues
3. Using comparison clues
4. Using synonym clues
5. Using familiar-expression clues
6. Using summary clues
7. Using reflection-of-mood clues

Syllabication Skills
1. Using syllabication generalizations

Sample Exercises for Word Identification Skills—Sight Word

Developing Sight Vocabulary
1. Given a worksheet, the children are to underline the words pronounced by the teacher. These words are new words for that grade level but have already been presented in discussion and possibly in a reading selection.

2. This game is played like "Bingo." Words are written in columns and rows. The children cover the words pronounced by the teacher; the first child to completely cover a column or row is the winner.

3. The child is to keep a notebook of some words that represent his errors in word recognition. Each word is recorded in the top left corner of the page. Next some words representing the same phonetic element are written. On the remainder of the page, the original trouble word is written in meaningful sentences.

Sample Exercises for Word Identification Skills—Structural Analysis

Recognizing Affixes
1. After reviewing rules about adding a certain suffix to verbs, list the verbs; the children are to alter the form, depending on what suffix they are studying, then use the altered verb in a sentence.

2. After reviewing rules about adding the comparative and superlative form to adjectives, the children are to use all three forms of designated adjectives in different sentences.

Recognizing Compound Words
1. The children are to make as many sensible compound words as possible, using a given word as the first part of their compound word.

   Example:
   - Given—snow
   - Composed—snowman, snowfall, snowdrift

2. Present the children with a list of hyphenated compound words. They are to use the words in sentences. If they are advanced enough, discuss how the hyphenated words are used (mostly as adjectives). Discuss why they are used (for easier reading and understanding).

3. The child is to divide the compound word into its original words. He is to then tell the meaning of the original words and the meaning of the compound word.

Recognizing Roots
1. Using lists of common prefixes, suffixes, and roots, the children are to use the prefix and root list, or the suffix and root list, to make sensible words. They are to then define the new word by its use in a sentence.

2. Next to a list of given words, the child is to write the root word; from a list of rules, he is to letter the root word according to the rule governing it.

   Example:
   - flying  fly  rule b

Recognizing Contractions
1. Given a group of word pairs, the children are to shorten the two words to make them into a contraction. From a group of sentences containing contractions, the children are to re-create the original words used to form the contractions.
2. This card game is prepared and played like "Old Maid." Shuffle and deal the 3 x 5 cards to each player. The card pairs are mated as to original words and their contractions, but one contraction does not have a mate. As the player draws a card from the person on his left, he tries to match the drawn card with those in his hand. As he finds a pair, he lays it down, and the first one to go out is the winner. As the pairs are laid down, they must be read. The person left holding the unpaired card must first tell what the contraction stands for. He is the dealer for the next game.

Sample Exercises for Word Identification Skills—Context Clues

Using Context Clues

1. The children are to match pictures to sentences that describe the action of the picture or that apply to its meaning.

2. Riddles are good exercises for the development of using context clues, especially definition, comparison, and summary clues.

3. Present a short story of one paragraph with some words left out. The children are to read each sentence and complete it with their own words or those from a given list. Different types of context clues may be exhibited in each sentence.

4. To show how context can be a check against confusing similarly written words, present a worksheet where similar words may be chosen to complete the sentence. Example:
   The.....(metals, medals) are polished to a bright shine.

5. To test a child on his use of context clues, use words to complete a given sentence. These words should begin alike and be of the same part of speech to further enhance his discrimination.

Different sentences can exhibit different kinds of context clues.

Example:
   A strong wind and icy snow make a ________ (blizzard, blanket).

Sample Exercises for Word Identification Skills—Syllabication

Using Syllabication Generalizations

1. In working with each rule, the children are to divide sample words, then discuss why they divided the words as they did. Present the rule in a concise definition and give more words to be divided. At the end of the exercise, have them restate the rule in their own words.

2. After several syllabication generalizations have been studied or reviewed, present a list of words for the child to divide and have him letter the divided word with the correct rule governing its division. Example:
   supply supply rule e

Taxonomy of Comprehension Skills

Comprehension Skills

1. Matching words and pictures
2. Recognizing meaningful phonograms
3. Matching definitions and word symbols
4. Recognizing antonyms, synonyms, and homonyms
5. Seeing literal and interpretive meanings
6. Recognizing meaning in larger units—sentence, passage, chapter
7. Recognizing main idea and supporting detail
8. Recognizing sequence
9. Following directions

Sample Exercises for Comprehension

Matching Words and Pictures

1. The children are to label, with preprinted cards, the various objects in the room. Example:
   Prepare cards for a table, chair, picture, pencil, chalkboard
2. Present a series of pictures and a series of corresponding words on index cards. The children are to match the pictures with the words; after they finish matching their sets of words and pictures, they trade sets with their neighbors.

Recognizing Meaningful Phonograms

1. Present a list of phonograms for each vowel. The children are to see how many sensible words they can make using each phonogram.
   - Example: vowel a
     - all . . . pail
     - ash . . . sash
     - ake . . . cake
     - ank . . . tank
     - ang . . . pang
     - at . . . pat

2. Given two lists of rhyming words, the children are to match the rhyming pairs. Then, in the first list, they are to underline the rhyming phonogram.

3. The teacher reads and presents a copy of a poem to the class. The children are to underline the rhyming words. Then they are to isolate the phonogram that rhymes.

Matching Definitions and Word Symbols

1. Prepare a worksheet where the children must match the word and its definition. The choice of words and choice of definitions depend on the grade level of the group.

2. Prepare two lists of words which the children must match. The matched pair must be related in meaning.
   - Example:
     - shone . . . bright
     - sunny . . . cloudy
     - dollars . . . cents

3. Prepare a worksheet where the child reads an exercise and crosses out the word that does not apply or is not related in meaning to the other words.
   - Example: blizzard snow drifts supper

Recognizing Synonyms, Antonyms, and Homonyms

1. Given two words which are either opposite or similar in meaning, the children are to mark the pair with 'O' or 'S' respectively.
   - Example:
     - ocean S sea
     - sunny O cloudy

2. The children are to skim a previously read story for words given by the teacher. After they read the given word in context, they record it and write a word which means its opposite. Then they write both words in a sentence.

3. The children are to complete sentences with the correct homonyms. Emphasize their reading the entire sentence first to get meaning from context which will aid in the selection of the correct word.
   - Example: A large fish leaped out of the __________. (sea, see).

Seeing Literal and Interpretive Meanings

1. Prepare questions to be presented before the students read. These questions should elicit responses emphasizing literal comprehension.
   - Examples:
     - "Write ____________________________ ."
     - "List the main characters." 
     - "Write a sentence telling ____________________________ ."
     - "Copy the sentence showing ____________________________ ."
     - "Complete the following ____________________________ ."
     - "What four words describe ____________________________ ?"
     - "Categorize the activities of____________________ ."

   Also useful are completion exercises based on specific sentences in the reading.
2. Prepare questions to be presented before the students read. These questions should provoke thought while reading. Some sample questions which enhance interpretation are: "What did he mean by?" "Do you think that this should have happened?" "What makes this a good example of (some literary style)?" "Compare these two characters." "Which character displayed the most courage?"

Recognizing Meaning in Larger Units
1. Using index cards with nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs written on them, demonstrate to the children how to construct a sentence. Start with a noun and a verb and add length to the sentence by using adjectives and adverbs to answer the basic questions of who, what, when, why, where. These questions may be stressed in sentences as well as paragraphs.
2. Present the children with questions that set a purpose for reading. Discussion of these questions should include topics such as colorful words, character differences, and plot sequence. This gives organization and purpose to their reading. Always try to emphasize the technique of survey, question, read, recite, and review in every reading for every subject.

Recognizing Main Idea and Supporting Detail
1. After reading the passage at the top of a worksheet, the children are to underline the key words (subject and verb) of each sentence. Next they are to write a title for the passage. Last they are to skim the passage again for the main ideas and list them at the bottom of the page.
2. After the children have read the story, the teacher writes sentences on the board showing main ideas and detail from the reading. Through discussion the children distinguish which are the main ideas and which are the supporting details. Finally, on a sheet of paper, each child arranges the main ideas into their proper sequence.
3. In a class discussion, the children are to identify the quote by the speaker or situation and are to tell the significance of the quote to the story. The teacher should pick those quotes which are indicative of a main theme or which elicit a discussion of plot or character.

Recognizing Sequence
1. Using a group of sentences describing a task which is sequential, the children are to put the sentences in order by steps.
2. After reading a selection, the children are to rearrange the main ideas into their proper sequence. These main ideas can be discussed and decided upon by the class or be given by the teacher.

Following Directions
1. After the teacher has written daily activities and plans on the board and read them once to the children, the children are now responsible for completing their assignments as requested for their group on their board.
2. The children are to read the directions for every assignment, silently, then aloud. Then they are to discuss what fulfilling this assignment means. They are then responsible for following these written directions.
3. Present a worksheet on which directions vary according to topics that were studied in each subject for the past week. The list of directions is to be completed but done in fun. Some ideas for directions are as follows:
Write the page number that tells where ants get their food (science). Trace a picture of an ant (science). Give an example of a verb used in a sentence (English). From your notebook, copy three new words learned this week in Spanish. Draw a Pilgrim boy or girl (social studies). State three reasons why we still observe Thanksgiving (social studies). Spell correctly three words that you missed on the pretest (spelling).

Taxonomy of Reading Skills

Comprehension Rate
1. Using little or no regression
2. Using little or no vocalizing or subvocalizing
3. Using correct phrasing to read
4. Adjusting rate to purpose

Sample Exercises for Comprehension Rate

Using Little or No Regression
1. Depending on the grade level of the child, take a story from a basal reader and retype it in meaningful phrases per line. The child is to read each line of the retyped version with a timing. Then he is to read the original story with a timing on that reading also. To make him aware of the difference in comprehension rate, compare and discuss his timings on the reading.
2. Using a cover card, the child is to move from left to right across a page such as the following. As he reads, he uses the cover card to block out what has been read. After the reader has become skillful in reading pages such as the following, substitute the letters with single words, then phrases.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>x</th>
<th>c</th>
<th>b</th>
<th>m</th>
<th>y</th>
<th>o</th>
<th>w</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>out</td>
<td>go</td>
<td>come</td>
<td>see</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Using Little or No Vocalizing or Subvocalizing
1. A remedy for vocalizing is to have the child try to chew gum while he reads. The chewing will do two things: make him aware that he is vocalizing while reading and prevent him from vocalizing.
2. A remedy for subvocalizing is to put a pencil between the child's lips. The tongue must not touch the lips as the child reads, so he learns to read without subvocalizing.

Using Correct Phrasing To Read
1. Demonstrate to the children how to be "sentence aware" and how to learn to rapidly recognize prepositional phrases, introductory clauses, and so on. Working with partners, the children are to use teacher-made flashcards with common prepositional phrases, introductory clauses, and frequent phrases.
2. Present a worksheet for practice in rapidly recognizing prepositional phrases. The children read the first line, then swish through alternatives that complete the sentence. One or more possible completions may be used if they make sense. Example: Given—The batter hit the ball ....... Choices—on a branch into left field with a man into the stands up the chimney behind the door between the houses on the sky over the moon

Adjusting to Purpose
1. After silent reading, give the children a list of questions for which the answers are found in their reading. They are to skim to find the answers to the given questions.

Individual

Activity

Worksheet
Questions involving material found in the index, table of contents, and chapter headings make good situations for scanning for answers.

**Taxonomy of Oral Reading Skills**
1. Using sufficient eye-voice span to read
2. Using pleasing pitch and volume
3. Enunciating correctly
4. Pronouncing correctly

**Sample Exercises for Oral Reading Skills**

**Using Sufficient Eye-Voice Phrasing To Read**

1. If the student is reading faster than he is pronouncing words, then he must slow down, learn to read in phrases, and pronounce those phrases before he goes on to read the next phrase. "Reading is like talking" should help him in slowing down to a normal rate.

**Using Pleasing Pitch and Volume**

1. Oral reading preceded by silent reading (always!) allows the child to feel out the passage and decide how to read it with feeling. Emphasizing that "reading is like talking" should also help expressionism. Passages with much dialogue lend practice to a student in varying his pitch and volume.

**Enunciating Correctly**

1. Bring attention to endings like ing, d, and t. Some practice words that could be used for individual help in the form of flashcards or for class help in the form of choral presentation are:

- chattering
- brought
- quiet
- coming
- feed
- slid
- fishing
- dived
- caught
- talking
- crept
- carried
- stirring
- spent
- tonight
- falling
- listened
- right
- blowing
- chattered
- around
- making
- watched
- tugged
- growling
- rattled
- that
- pushing
- waited
- pulled

**Using Punctuation Correctly**

1. Give practice in oral reading where each sentence or each phrase extends only one line. After several practices with this, extend the sentence to the next line but leave many spaces between sentences. Reduce these spaces as the child grows more proficient at using punctuation.

2. Discuss the purpose of punctuation and what the various punctuation marks mean. Lead the child to see that meaning changes as punctuation changes. Give a worksheet where the child must supply the punctuation marks to sentences.

**Example:** Where did you see our cat?
No it can't be.
The boy reads well.
Appendix B

Individualizing Instruction

The need for individualizing instruction in reading grows out of the wide range of abilities and interests of children and of the differences in their instructional needs. Regardless of the organization of the reading program, it remains the responsibility of the teacher to adapt the learning program to each child’s individual needs.

The chief objective of individualized learning is to release the potential of the individual learners. For the teacher to engage successfully in releasing the potential of these individuals in reading, he must have an awareness of the reading levels, interests, and personal adjustments of the children in his classroom.

Determining Reading Level

The first step in individualizing reading instruction is to determine children’s levels of reading ability and to discover their interests. Informal reading inventories and standardized survey and diagnostic tests are commonly used methods for determining reading levels. Interests can be discovered by observing children during class activities, by interviewing them, and by asking them to complete interest inventories.

After the levels and interests of the children in the classroom have been determined, they should be allowed to seek what is of interest to them and select what will satisfy them. For that reason, it is essential that a large supply of reading material over varied areas of interest be provided. Three books of different titles per child is a minimum requirement. Having at least 100 books within the classroom at all times is also necessary, with many of these titles circulating. Primary teachers will need titles for abilities ranging from picture books of the earliest pre-reading levels to books on at least the fourth-grade level. As the age increases, the difficulty levels of materials should be increased to meet the needs of the youngsters.

Planning Organization of Daily Program

After the teacher has decided who will participate in this program and when, it will be necessary for him to set up the organizational structure of the daily program. This process, of course, depends upon individual classroom situations and time allotments available for reading. The scheduling hints suggested here might be helpful to the novice teacher.

1. Include a planning period with the children each day. This serves a dual purpose: motivating the children by enticing them to the activities which lie ahead and informing the class as a whole of the activities for which to prepare. Included in this planning period should be:
   a. discussion of selection of new materials, by whom and when. During this time the teacher can show new materials, activities, books, magazines, etc., and sell some of his additional “wares.”
b. discussion of room arrangement and supplies—who will be working alone and with others. Plan independent reading activities.
c. discussion and solving (if possible) of any pertinent problems concerning routine, such as traffic around bookshelves, etc.
d. arranging for conferences, consultations, and individual assignments. Following this planning, each child should know exactly what he is to do during the reading period. Activities can be listed on a chart for easy review.

2. A sharing period must be allowed for, and some suggest that it best follows the planning period, since the teacher and class are together as a group at this time. Others suggest that the sharing period come at the very end of the reading time to culminate the reading activities for the day and bring the class together for the next school period. This may also be scheduled once per week.

3. A large block of time must be allotted for the self-selection reading period and independent activity period. This is the main period in which students work independently while the teacher holds conferences with individuals or conducts small-group skill-development instruction. A finish-up bell should ring ten minutes prior to the end of this time block so that children can complete what they are doing and clean up.

4. An evaluation period or summary period at the end of the reading time allotment should be provided for the children to record their progress on their individual files, identify future needs and plans, and informally appraise the reading activities of the day with the class. Some group skill-development instruction in areas where the class as a whole is weak can be incorporated during this period as well.

5. Special periods from time to time might be arranged for free-choice activities and individual responsibilities. The teacher could use this time to catch up on records, meet with individuals, or enjoy the activity of the classroom.

Planning for and during all these periods is essential to alleviate many behavioral problems that could arise. The exact character and nature of the teaching schedule, however, will depend entirely upon the needs of the children and the purposes of instruction.

Conferences

The individual conferences with each youngster are high points in individualizing the reading program. A one-to-one relationship is the best way to meet the individual differences within the classroom.

Conferences can be initiated in the first-grade year, using an individualized language experience story approach for a beginning. As the children begin to read books, conferences can be arranged to check a representative sample of their reading. This sampling is selected by the child and
should check only the best reading of which that child is capable. This session is to be utilized also for individual instruction. Ways of organizing these sessions are numerous, yet certain general principles and procedures make for more effectiveness, such as:

1. Establishing a time limit—not necessarily for rigid enforcement, but to set a goal for the teacher. Lengthy comprehensive conferences might be necessary at first to initiate the program. An often-suggested time limit is from three to ten minutes, averaging five minutes per child. This is only a general figure, since some cases will demand more time.

2. Approximately a quarter to a third of the class might be seen each day, but specific figures are strictly dependent upon the needs of the youngsters. Some youngsters may need to confer with the teacher daily, while others may require no more than four or five conferences per month.

3. The conferences can be set up
   a. on a voluntary basis with the youngsters signing up on the chalkboard, a calendar, or a sign-up schedule for their time, or by verbal request, which is the most desirable.
   b. by teacher invitation, using the seating arrangement, alphabetical order, or some such scheme to arrive at an established cycle of conferences which rotates.
   c. on a ratio system, with some children seen once and others twice in a specific cycle.

Teachers and children can schedule their conferences during the planning period or, if a sign-up sheet is provided, at anytime during the day.

If the volunteer system is used and the child does not respond, the teacher might question him, explaining that he cannot be taught to read better unless he comes to the teacher for help or sharing.

The conference with individual children should be relaxed, yet purposeful. It is the time to gain information, share, engage in personalized teaching, evaluate, and plan for the next step in reading. It can be a warm, personal relationship for both teacher and child.

During the conference the teacher should:

1. Discuss with the child the choice of book being read.
2. Discover the child's feelings toward the book.
3. Hear the child read orally.
4. Evaluate and work on deriving word meanings.
5. Evaluate word attack skills and work on those needing improvement.
6. Work on development of specific skills.
7. Check on the child's understanding of specific passages or sections of the book.
8. Make assignments or plans to develop a specific skill.
9. Make assignments or plans to reinforce a specific skill.
The individual conference should leave the child eager and ready for the next conference. Praise or some positive comment on his progress should be included, especially at the end of the conference.

Occasionally, it might be convenient or appropriate to group from two to five children together for a conference, particularly if a few students are reading the same book at the same time. Ideas and interpretations could be shared in a group conference arrangement. Some experts suggest a small-group conference plan for primary children, with five to eight children gathering around the teacher, each reading his own self-selected book at his own rate. The teacher devotes a few minutes of the time to each child in the group for individual reading guidance. Then each child becomes a member of the group again as the teacher shifts her attention to another member. This continues until everyone in the group has conferred with the teacher or the reading period is over. The group may start as an entity or the children may voluntarily come and go.

Record Keeping
Record keeping is an important part of any instructional program. In a classroom correction program, with many activities at one time, it becomes especially important if the program is to run smoothly and children's needs are to be served. Record keeping can involve both teacher and children, with the teacher concentrating on evaluation of progress and needs and the children on recording tasks completed.

The teacher should keep detailed records which will give him a general picture of the child's interests, abilities, and attitudes, as well as results of mental tests, reading tests of achievement and capacity, and of oral reading tests. The physical and mental traits of a child should be noted, as well as cumulative record information concerning his interests, strengths, and limitations. In this more specific record, it is wise to note whatever effective approaches and techniques were discovered in working with the youngster, as well as specific needs and types of help given.

Less formal records might include check sheets of dates of individual conferences, summaries of individual needs as revealed through conferences or observation during class activities, and notations of general class needs. A checklist might contain names of children in the class and notations of dates on which conferences are held.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conference Schedule</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Name</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Aaron, John</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Harris, June</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Smith, Regina</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A glance at such a record will help the teacher plan individual conferences and give him an idea of the amount of time needed for conferences in a given day or week.

The teacher can and should take careful notes during an individual conference. The record-keeping system used should be simple, yet functional, recording the overall skills, attitudes, and understandings of the child. Record cards, checklists, or a looseleaf notebook can be used effectively. Notes recorded are valuable in planning for the next conference and for group work. A form similar to the one presented here is helpful in noting progress and further need.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Book Title</td>
<td>Grade Level</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reviewing notes after a conference and summarizing the needs revealed is advisable. This summary could be recorded on a form such as the one suggested here.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conferences with:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group work with:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Initial consonants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Individual work:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. J. Jones—reading for details</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Regardless of the particular forms used in record keeping, it is advisable to keep procedures as simple as possible. Incorporating a code or a personal shorthand also simplifies recording during the conference. Conference records should note not only reading skills or needs, but also areas such as spelling or science.

The records kept by each child enable him to follow his own reading progress. Youngsters readily respond to such responsibility, and their records prove to be a valuable aid during individual conferences, providing the teacher with insight into each child's reading pattern.

Although record keeping should not be overemphasized, the children should record every book they read in their own personal files. Simplicity is the key for children's records. They should not be so demanding as to discourage a child to read, yet should allow for personal reactions. Primarily the records should show how many and what books were read and the specific skill tasks completed. Some authorities suggest that the forms of children's records be changed frequently.

Suggestions for recording methods for children's reading are:
1. scrapbooks of illustrations and summaries of stories.
2. charts displaying various types of material read.
3. a "collection box" of "souvenirs" from good stories—as new words learned, funny incidents, etc.
4. charts which would evaluate the stories read according to criteria set by the class.
5. a weekly reading survey at the beginning of a program, in which the child accounts for the number of pages read each day, the approximate amount of time spent browsing, reading books, newspapers, etc. This encourages the "time wasters" to get into the reading habit.
6. dividers in a file box with each child's name. Cards are available with categories of books listed (fiction, history, science, biography, humor, animal stories, poetry, newspaper, magazine, etc.). As the child completes a book, he fills out the card with the name of book, author, date finished, identification of important characters, a sentence or two about the plot, and new words and meanings. The card is filed behind his divider.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Fiction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Title:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Author:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main characters:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New words:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If preferred, summaries of this type could be done on record sheets for inclusion in a looseleaf folder.
Skill Development

If a youngster is to learn to read successfully, he must first learn the essential reading skills. The teaching of skills in the primary grades is not the final goal; rather its purpose is to help the child read better and enjoy reading. The extent to which youngsters read on their own, independently, indicates the success of instruction.

Acquisition of skill is an internal, active, and individual process. The procedure involves meeting the skill, learning what it is and does, practicing by performing it, succeeding, or further correcting the skill until success is evidenced.

The teaching of skills should not be isolated from the reading act itself. Therefore, skill instruction in individualized reading is handled in conferences with the child when he shows a need for it. A check through various basal textbook manuals will reveal that reading specialists differ in their opinions of the proper sequence of skill development. However, the teacher might keep at least one basal textbook manual on hand as a guide in developing skills.

The individualized reading program allows for flexibility in the pace in which these skills are taught, yet the sequential development does much in building an effective framework for reading. Walter Barbe (1961) has formed lists of skills to be developed at the various grade levels of instruction. He suggests that the child's skill instruction be geared to his grade level. After these skills have been acquired, the youngster should review and practice them rather than proceed to skills at a higher level. This does not suggest that the child read material only on his grade level, but rather that his skill instruction be geared only to his grade level.

It is advisable to keep a checklist in the records of each child so that as a skill is mastered, the teacher can check it off and proceed to others.

Skill Evaluation

In evaluating the progress of a child and determining what skills have been acquired, it is necessary to gain as much information as possible prior to making any judgment. Such information may be gained formally or often quite informally.

The methods by which children are evaluated can be similar to others used in reading programs. They include analysis of:

1. informal and standardized test results
2. checklist of skills
3. inventories of the child's needs
4. child's oral reading
5. teacher observations of child's attitudes, interests, and purposes for reading and how much he reads
6. teacher-pupil conference records
7. child's self-evaluation
8. child's independent reading record
9. tape recordings of the child’s reading early in the year as compared to subsequent tapes noting progress

10. parents’ appraisals of the child’s reading

Word Attack Skills Checklist

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Skill</th>
<th>Mastery</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Recognition of basic sight vocabulary
2. Ability to sound out new words
   a. recognition of consonant sounds
   b. recognition of vowel sounds
   c. knowledge of syllabication
3. Ability to analyze word structure
   a. understanding of syllabication
   b. understanding of root words
   c. understanding of prefixes
   d. understanding of suffixes
4. Ability to use context clues
5. Ability to supply synonyms and antonyms
6. Ability to use a dictionary
## Comprehension Skills Checklist

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Mastery</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skill</th>
<th>Poor</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Good</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Ability to understand meaning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. word</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. sentence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. paragraph</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Ability to recall main idea</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Ability to give supporting ideas</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Ability to retell a story in sequence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Ability to draw conclusions from given facts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Ability to evaluate material read</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Ability to relate reading to experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Ability to use sources of information</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. table of contents</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. dictionary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. maps</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. index</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Ability to make comparisons between two or more versions of a story</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Oral Reading Checklist

Name .................................................. Grade .................. Age .............. Date ..................

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skill</th>
<th>Mastery</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Good reading posture</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Ability to utilize word attack skills</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. sounding out new words</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. pronouncing words correctly</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. using structural parts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. using combined methods of word attack</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Ability to phrase meaningfully</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Ability to recognize and use punctuation symbols</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Ability to identify main ideas</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Ability to read fluently and enunciate clearly</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Ability to convey meaning and feeling to listeners</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conclusion

Individualized reading is a way of thinking about reading; it is an attitude, and it is flexible by nature. There is no step-by-step program to incorporate into the school day. Each child is an individual and each teaching situation requires an individualized method of instruction. Variety in both methods and materials is inherent in this personalized plan. The number of different ideas presented in this Appendix serve to supplement those of individual teachers utilizing this plan. They are as flexible as the plan itself and can be adapted to any type of reading situation. It is hoped they will stimulate investigation of further ways to reach the goal, which is to help all children learn to read and to enjoy their reading experience.
Appendix C

School Systems Featured in This Book

Correspondence to any of these school systems should be addressed as follows:

Reading Coordinator
(c/o name of school system)
(city, state, zip code)

Los Angeles, California
Oakland, California
Richmond, California
San Bernardino, California
San Diego, California
San Francisco, California
Anderson, Indiana
Bloomington, Indiana
Indianapolis, Indiana
Detroit, Michigan
Niskayuna, New York
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