On October 11, 1958, The "Committee for a College Reading Association" held a college reading conference at LaSalle College and took the first formal steps to organize a "College Reading Association". This association consists primarily of those professionally interested in a forum for college reading programs in the northeast and middle Atlantic areas. This document is the first volume in the "Proceedings" of this new association and covers the papers presented at its Second Annual Meeting (1959) and its Third Annual Meeting (1960). Articles and their authors from those two conferences consist of: (1) "A Meeting on Reading in College (Bruce W. Brigham); (2) "Developmental Reading: The Challenge of an Unexplored Frontier" (Paul D. Leedy); (3) "Has the Reading Manual a Place in a College Reading Course?" (Herbert E. Ketcham); (4) "A Skills Approach" (Thomson L. Leiper); (5) "The Place of Teacher-Prepared Materials in the College Reading Program" (Eleanor Logan); (6) "A Self Motivating Approach to Developmental Reading with College Students" (Paul D. Leedy); (7) "Informal Measures in Reading Diagnosis" (Albert J. Mazurkiewicz); (8) "What Is Being Done in College Programs?" (Charles Colvin); (9) "Reading and Mass Media" (M. Jerry Weiss); (10) "Goals and Skills in Developmental Instruction" (Albert J. Mazurkiewicz); and (11) "A College Developmental Reading Course in Action" (Paul Drumm). An appendix includes the addresses for the active membership of the College Reading Association in 1961. (MS)
A MEETING ON READING IN COLLEGE

Bruce W. Brigham
Temple University

On Saturday afternoon, October 11, 1958, The Committee for a College Reading Association held a college reading conference at LaSalle College. The Committee is composed of college and university reading specialists from the Delaware Valley area. On the basis of personal contacts and an informal survey, the committee members believed that there was a need for a forum for those professionally interested in college reading programs in the northeast and middle Atlantic areas. The conference was held to explore this possibility further.

The professional part of the program dealt with the theme, "What Is College Reading?" from various points of view presented by members of a symposium. These included:

"The Individual Approach" - Dr. Helen Hall of Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pa.

"The Corrective Group Approach" - Dr. Gertrude Williams of the District of Columbia Teachers College, Washington, D.C.

"The Guidance Approach" - Dr. Paul Centi, Senior Guidance Officer, Psychological Services, Fordham University, New York City

"The Developing Concepts in the College Classroom and With College Text Materials" - Dr. Norman Richardson, Professor and Chairman of the Department of Philosophy, Chairman of the General Studies in Contemporary Civilization Program at Gettysburg College, Gettysburg, Pa.
The four participants, despite their widely different approaches, agreed on the importance of a number of basic concepts in regard to reading at the college level. They agreed that effective improvement in college reading was most often obtained when reading is considered along with listening, speaking and writing; and that these are based on organized thinking skills. Agreement on a major goal of "versatility" was stated; that is, a truly effective reader is one who varies his methods and rates of reading as the purpose, the familiarity, and complexity of the material varies. All the speakers noted the importance of the relationships between emotional stability and intellectual efficiency in learning and communication.

It was suggested that improved cooperation between instructional staffs and reading specialists could have worthwhile effects on the quality of education at the college level. The speakers felt that the vast majority of entering college freshmen are frustrated at least partially in their studying because class organization and the complexity of the text and reference materials are markedly different from these factors in high school. Dr. Richardson noted that current concepts in reading have contributed considerably to improved organization in the revision of the Contemporary Civilizations texts of which he is senior editor.

Group discussions by the delegates resulted in noting the following topics for later consideration:

1. What should be the standards for college reading personnel?
2. What are uses and misuses of current tests and diagnostic instruments?
3. What should be expected of the college instructor?
4. What is "developmental" college reading?
5. How can college reading programs be evaluated?
The business meeting, at which Dr. Albert Mazurkiewicz presided, resulted in the group requesting that the original committee draw plans for a more formally organized College Reading Association for the north eastern and middle-Atlantic states, as well as plan a spring meeting.

In addition to the 8 institutions represented by the Committee and the 4 institutions represented by the symposium speakers, participants from 17 other college-level schools and one college preparatory school attended. Nearly fifty registrants came from thirty large and small public and private schools located in metropolitan and rural areas in four states and the District of Columbia.

It seems reasonable to conclude that the interest and enthusiasm of those attending this meeting indicate a need on the part of college reading personnel for a meeting-ground for an exchange of ideas on professional problems.
SECOND ANNUAL MEETING
Lehigh University
April 19, 1959

DEVELOPMENTAL READING:
THE CHALLENGE OF AN UNEXPLORED FRONTIER

Paul D. Leedy, Ph.D.
New York University

Developmental reading is a largely unexplored land, even by those of us who are engaged in the problems associated with reading improvement at the college level. Yet developmental reading in college is one of the challenging educational frontiers of the future. It will necessarily assume more importance than it now commends when the impending deluge of students break the educational dykes and flood into the American colleges and universities in the coming decade. Perhaps like the reconnoiters of Caanan we might spend the next few minutes going down into this land together: to spy it out -- the length of it and the breadth of it and to see what manner of things be there.

Developmental Reading Is Different

Unlike purely remedial reading, whose services are reserved for those students manifesting moderate retardation, and the clinical approach which is interested in reading disability primarily from a psychological viewpoint, the developmental approach regards every student as one whose skills with the printed page are capable of continuous further development and whose proficiency with the printed word can be progressively heightened and increased. This means that no matter how good the good reader is, he can become better. Developmental reading takes the same
attitude that the developmental approach to any other skill takes. The master violinist can become a virtuoso by the development of his techniques; the virtuoso can become the dean of musicians. So it is with reading. None reads so well as he can; the best do not read so well as they might. The sky is the limit.

And we must see this concept of progressive development in reading as a whole if we are to advance very far beyond the mere remedial approach in our thinking and in our teaching. If we are to do more than merely hold the line, then we must have a vision, as a professional group, that transcends thinking in terms of simply plugging the dykes of educational deficiency. And we must make this thinking articulate in educational circles generally.

The developmental problem is essentially relatively simple. On one hand is the student; on the other hand is the book. Surrounding both is a college milieu with certain expectancies of verbal proficiency. Lying beyond both the student and the college walls is the great world of everyday affairs which will expect of the college graduate certain proficiencies in the first of the three R's and which will judge him, among other things, on his ability to read. The fundamental questions which business, industry, and the professions ask the graduate ultimately are: Can you read? Can you write? Can you calculate? "Readin', Ritin' and Rithmetic" never depart from us very far during the whole of our lifetime. Many times the question is not so squarely put nor is it asked in such simple terms. But while the form of the interrogation may differ, being expressed in more or less sophisticated form, the facts remain brutally the same. "How well do you read?" is an ever present question that faces every man and woman in the modern world, and success in life depends largely upon a satisfactory answer in terms of actual performance. Failure to perform successfully incurs an onus on the entire educational system and makes circumspect the products of higher education.

I raise the curtain on this greater scene of life activity to emphasize the importance of our task and
undertaking. Reading improvement in college is more than a stop gap procedure. For any college to turn out graduates who are proficient with the printed word is for that college to contribute to contemporary civilization men and women who will be an everlasting credit to their alma mater.

The basic problem, then, of developmental reading is to teach the student the skills and abilities of reading so that he may satisfy not only the demands of undergraduate academic work but, beyond that, the more exhausting reading demands of a business, industrial, and professional community. The very fact that adult reading improvement programs are necessary is an indication of the failure of education to provide the individual with the basic tools necessary for adequately meeting the demands of a literate society. Somewhere along the educational line the businessman, the engineer, the professional man, and all college graduates who need such help in adult reading improvement have failed to learn those fundamentals which should have had a priority in their education before anything else. Reading in the elementary school, in the secondary school, and in college is of first importance, and proficiency in it ought to be unequivocally required. You can not develop such efficiency in reading with merely plugging the dyke or attempting to understand why the wheels of the literate mechanism are not functioning. Reading in college must be more than remedial and we must see the problem on a wider horizon than that of merely clinical diagnosis. Any viewpoint or program which has an aim less farsighted than making the student adequate to the demands of the total domain of print does not meet the need of our own expanding universe of higher education or fit its graduates for their future roles in an increasingly literate society.

The day is far advanced when we should clearly see that reading, like mathematics, has its various levels and limits. We all acknowledge this fact with regard to reading, of course, at the elementary and secondary levels. I am not so sure that we
admit of it in college. One of the first facts which we should see clearly is that reading should be taught in college, but that college is not the place to be expected to teach elementary or secondary level reading skills to college men and women. I am sure that with the latter part of this proposition most college administrators and faculty members will heartily agree. I am not sure about the universal acceptance of the idea that reading should be taught in college. This is because many engaged in higher education do not think of reading as a developmental progress. When a lad comes to college he should have learned to read, they say. Reading they consider is a matter of the perfect tense; it would be unthinkable to put it in the present progressive!

Many educators look askance at teaching reading in college, not because they undervalue the importance of reading as an academic accomplishment or an intellectual skill, but because they fail to recognize that there is anything more to reading than the elementary or the secondary school could have taught. In fact, only recently have we come to realize that reading should receive some attention at the secondary school level. Those who see reading as integral in the educational disciplines of the college and university are largely lonely voices crying in an inhospitable educational wilderness.

In justice to the situation, however, we must realize that developmental reading in the college and university is distinctly a Johnny-come-lately in American higher education. And perhaps we as reading specialists have not done enough in acquainting our academic colleagues with the fact that all reading is not the same reading. There are skills which are distinctly those of the elementary and secondary level; and there are those which are native to higher education. The term "developmental reading," is generally not understood by many in education. Most of them hear only the second half of the term and go their way, mumbling something about "remedial work," "remedial reading," "speed reading," and the like -- all of which are misnomers. Such comments are prima facie evidence of having missed the
point entirely).

So much for the background. What, now, is our relationship to this whole problem?

First, those whom a dream hath possessed must make it known. It is from those of us who are wrestling with the problem of reading in college that a clear, decisive word must come. We are frequently considered in the academic family as educational nursemaids for the poorly prepared student. And it may be that the nursemaid function will never entirely pass from among the assignment of our duties, as the English department may never quite be free from teaching spelling and punctuation and sentence structure.

We Must Have a Program.

What I see as the greatest deterrent to our rising above our present status as educational nursemaids is our lack of a dynamic, vital, imaginative program and any future plans for entering a land beyond that which we currently inhabit. The current professional literature dealing with reading at the college level is, for example almost uniformly insipid and unimaginative. Study follows study as duck follows duck—all pretty much the same and nearly as reduplicative. When one sees what gigantic strides are being made by the men of science and technology, our own narrow horizons and lack of a solidly progressive program in one of the basic disciplines of all education seems all the more pathetic. We seem content to rest upon the plains of mediocrity rather than do imaginative climbing into the heights.

As college reading specialists we need to align our sights to see clearly what our problems are and what we are attempting to do about them. And we must first be convinced that the teaching of reading in college is something more than the work of an educational charmaid. We must look at what we are doing, and we must appraise this against the aims and purposes of higher education generally. In short, we must analyze the reading program in our own college
situations to determine whether it is realistic and whether it contributes anything toward the basic aims and goals of the higher education of the individual. If it fails to contribute in this, it fails utterly. But, if reading as an educational discipline can provide challenge -- even to the doctoral level -- then it has a rightful place in the total education of the individual.

If this newcomer among the disciplines of higher education is to assume any stature of educational dignity in the American college, it must see beyond its present practices. The Reading Clinic cannot continue to exist as an infirmary for the nursing of weak and below college-level students back to academic health. If reading instruction in higher education can provide no challenge, or program of action even to the doctoral level then it has failed to see its mission in big enough terms, on a broad enough base, and to offer a program which is truly significant in the face of the needs of the twentieth century.

Most of the reading work in college at the present time is stop gap aid. Administratively the teaching of reading in college at the present time is viewed as an unwanted step child who must be tolerated in order to get on with the more important business of the student's higher education. The attitude is largely one of being irked that the college must bother with reading at all. The college in effect says to the student, if you can't read we consider you an academic liability. If you have other redemptive qualities, however, we may consider teaching you the minimal skills necessary for college survival. The result is that the student is ushered into a quickie course, often necessarily low in educationally nutritive content, largely because of its peripheral relationship to the assumed "real" business of educating the student.

Such a procedure is educationally indefensible. If reading is one of the basic foundation stones of human enlightenment then it deserves an equal developmental emphasis in the education of the college student as do the other two R's--writing and arithmetic.
Reading is probably more integral in the individual's education than any other single academic skill. It is, in fact, the common denominator of all education. And, when colleges do accept students whose reading skills are not adequate they expect the reading clinic to effect miraculous cures in record time. When this is not forthcoming, they censure the program, they blame the specialist, and cast the umbra of critical disfavor over the whole attempt. The clinic, on the other hand in order to justify its raison d'être has sometimes to do a superficial job, reporting results in gains of words per minute and percentage improvement, in comprehension on multiple choice questions—both factors which, if carefully and impartially scrutinized, may be extremely flimsy evidence of real education or genuine improvement. Exactly what the relationship is between increased words per minute and college success we may have yet to define. Improvement in academic standing seems in many cases to accompany what we are doing, but to account for this improvement in terms of a cause-effect relationship is still a mystery and an unsolved enigma. That as college reading specialists we have any semblance of standard procedure is a thing as yet devoutly to be wished. For the most part we seem to succeed by every man doing what he feels is best, what pragmatically he has found "works", but in all of our activity we have come to little common agreement or accepted standard procedure.

Medicine could not possibly exist on such a flimsy basis of action. The scientist who followed his whimsy and presented such inconclusive evidence as we deal with would be practicing his science more in the spirit of medieval alchemy than of twentieth century research.

This then is what I mean when I say that we need to have a program— that we need to align our sights to see clearly what our problems are and to try to answer honestly what we are attempting to do about them.

Our first need, therefore, is to see clearly what is the function of the reading program in the contemporary college. In other words, basically what are we trying to do? Despite the fact that among ourselves certain internal differences still exist (and perhaps
these differences are, after all, salutary) yet we need to present the whole matter of reading instruction in college with a clarity of vision that will leave no mistake that we have any doubt as to our objectives and goals.

What should be the function of reading instruction in college? It does not seem that it should be entirely, or for that part, mostly remedial. College students need certain skills, certain adequacies with the realm of print which will give them confidence in undertaking the reading assignments which college places before them. We should make it perfectly clear that we assume that the student already has acquired certain of these adequacies in the secondary school. But we should also emphasize that in college a student needs certain reading skills and reading study skills which are distinctively collegiate in character. In the secondary school he would not be expected to exercise these skills to the same degree that he would be expected to do so in college. For this reason, those skills which are of a distinctly collegiate nature, the college should feel a responsibility for teaching.

Among those skills are those which call for proper techniques for extensive reading, for reading the collateral assignment, for reading in preparation for writing the documented paper. These and other reading skills have a definite relationship to the student's college work.

It also should be made quite clear in the college community that if reading is important then reading is everybody's business. A student does not read well if he is a sociology major but cannot pronounce the terminology of the biology text. There are certain specific reading problems that are inherent in every course which the student takes. Many students cannot read poetry. No wonder! They have never been taught how to read poetry. You must know how to read poetry, how to read mathematics, how to read science, and if the college student is ever to learn, somebody must teach him. And many a college reading program never comes to grips with this problem. If we could teach students to read more adequately, the
college curriculum could consequently be made much more challenging, comprehensive, and meaningful.

We must, of course, remember that reading in college is a relatively recent development in American higher education. Perhaps this is the reason for its amorphous relationship to college students and the whole discipline of higher education. When one recalls that "reading courses" i.e. collateral reading did not come into American higher education much before the beginning of the twentieth century and that general reading of the type that students have to do in such abundance now was regarded during the first two centuries of American higher education as being tantamount to a deterrent to higher learning we can the more fully appreciate just how recent the whole matter of reading in college really is. It is illuminating to hear Professor Thomas R. Lounsbury, writing in the New Englander (October, 1870), say that

...in many of our colleges a man might go through a four years course, and never once hear from the lips of any of his teachers the names of Shakespeare or Milton; and there are very few of our schools in which he would ever be reduced to the necessity of reading a single line of their works.

When we reflect upon the significance of these words we can understand that the acquisition of a higher education by the way of the library is a very recent development in higher education and that it is perfectly understandable why our thinking with relation to it may not be as refined or as fully developed as the next half century may witness.

I am quite sure, however, that developmental reading -- the teaching of the college student an adequacy with the broad domain of the printed word -- must be the answer to many of our present educational bottlenecks. As we shall learn to use television and other assets of modern science, so must we learn to teach the use of the book as the broad highway to enlightenment and higher learning. At present we are fumbling, but we are also within the first half century in which books have been
broadly employed in the acquisition of an education and as tools of scholarship.

In connection with seeing clearly the role of reading in college, we need to see reading instruction realistically. The acid test is this: Is the reading situation which the student meets in the clinic and the reading situation which the student meets in the library, in the classroom, in the study hall, one and the same? What we are suggesting is that to have any relevance, the reading program must meet the student at precisely the point of his reading need. If the reading laboratory has any excuse for being it must find that excuse in its being geared precisely to the reading demands of the college classroom.

To illustrate this point, take for example the generally unrealistic approach of the present day -- "the speed-comprehension" approach. The students reads a selection against the sweep hand of the clock. Most of the material is easy to read and unchallenging mentally to the student. Then he takes a comprehension test. This consists of a series of multiple choice questions on the simple material which he has read. For many students this is little more than a glorified guessing game. Student after student has told me -- as I am sure they must have told many of you -- that such a test is actually no test of comprehension at all. You can fool all of the people some of the time, and some of the people all the but you can't fool students on this kind of deception much of the time! It's as unrealistic as it can be, and they know it!

When a group of college students who have been through a conventional "speed and comprehension course" came to me, unable to read meaningfully Alfred North Whitehead's The Aims of Education, I had a poignant example of the failure of much of our procedure in reading to meet the actual reading demands that originate in the classroom. These students were told to "read and react" to what Whitehead had to say. There was no reacting because there had been no reading! This group of students even more tragically was disillusioned: they thought that they had been reading when they had been selecting one choice out of four to some "comprehension" questions attached to
a tenth grade article from a popular magazine. In Whitehead there were no "comprehension" questions and they were, therefore, lost.

When this sort of discrepancy exists -- and I am sure that what I have recounted here is not an isolated instance -- it points to something very alarming in connection with the totally unrealistic aspects of our reading improvement programs. Actually what was termed "reading improvement" in the case which I have just cited was not very much "reading" and one must wonder seriously about the "improvement" aspect.

There is a desperate need for us to re-evaluate what we are doing and to face seriously the question whether what we are doing is realistic in terms of the students needs and in terms of the classroom demands which are made upon his skills.

We need to redefine our position. We need to throw out some outmoded concepts and to think, for example, more in terms of ideas comprehended per minute than in words per minute. We need to see comprehension more in terms of the ability of the student to provide what the requirements of his college courses demand: to outline, to criticize, to precis, to deal with meanings in clear concise statements framed in sentences of the student's own wording. In terms of reading techniques we need to spell out clearly and unmistakably the way in which a student should read for a test in chemistry or a discussion of King Lear. Too much of our reading instruction at the college level has been in the form of vague adjurations to "read for the meaning," and to "find the main idea." Instead of such nebulous statements we need to present the student with definite procedures and concise formulas for the accomplishing of these ends.

These are the far horizons of what is, as yet, a largely uncharted educational domain. Developmental reading presents the challenge of an unexplored frontier. We have but begun to see the possibilities of tomorrow in the problems of today.
HAS THE READING MANUAL A PLACE IN A COLLEGE READING COURSE?

Mrs. Herbert E. Ketcham
Lafayette College

Over the past five years we have all seen the number of college reading workbooks or manuals on the market increase from perhaps a half dozen in 1953 to fifty or sixty today. And daily you and I receive literature describing new manuals coming on the market. Is this an indication that workbooks are or are becoming a necessary part of the college reading program? And secondly, have these manuals a real function in a college reading course?

Before we can answer these questions we should look into some of the representative manuals to see what they contain. There are many ways in which we might classify them. First, let us consider the kind of material. Some of the manuals use only very easy materials. Another type of manual appears to divide the material into levels of difficulty beginning with the very easy and working to the more difficult. Still another type of manual presents a variety of material to be read for various purposes with no perceptible arrangement according to difficulty. Still another type of manual has a chapter explaining "how-to-read-critically" and then a set of examples to practice on, a chapter on "how-to-build-a-vocabulary" and then exercises and so on. So much for types of material included in these manuals.

Now let us consider the calibre of the material. By and large, with very few exceptions, the material is too easy for college reading courses -- if these courses are truly developmental and are geared to the average college student. Most of the manuals I have seen would fail of their purpose in teaching students to read college level texts. The reaction of my students when I have tried some of these easy manuals has ranged from -- "But my college texts aren't like that," to "This won't help me with Logic or Psychology or History." The reaction to the few manuals which contain real college
level material is just the opposite—"Gee, this is tough, but it helps me with Anthropology or Physics."

Let us now consider the manuals from the point of view of exercises provided. Most of the manuals provide simply factual questions on detail. These questions are always either multiple choice or true and false and offer practically no challenge to the student. The questions are aimed toward those very details which in every other course students must learn to subordinate to main points. Thus, teaching a student to read for such detail is completely antagonistic to the aims of liberal education. In all truly "liberal" courses whether in the arts or sciences, the details are always subordinated to principles, to main ideas and trends. To teach a student to read constantly with his mind set to remember details, isolated and for their own sake, utterly defeats the aims of college teaching.

Another type of college manual includes some questions on purpose, implication and criticism of the material read. The manuals of this type vary a great deal. Some have a variety of questions on each selection, but have a stylized pattern of questions for all selections. This is bad, for no two pieces of writing can be made to fit into one mold of analysis. Students should not be led to think that there are certain pat questions that cover every type of writing. Versatility of reading should be our keynote in college reading programs. An occasional compiler takes into consideration a variety of questions on his selections and certainly makes them thought-provoking. Again, however, the fact that he uses multiple choice questions detracts from his manual. Sometimes no one of his choices is good. What then?

By now you must wonder whether I consider any manual worth the space it takes on your bookshelf. My answer to that is this: Yes, there are a few—very few—manuals which I feel are useful and worthwhile for college reading programs. By now you must have suspected that the only part of the manual which I consider useful is the reading selection itself. And the selection is only useful if it is of college level of difficulty and
is challenging to the student. (Not interesting necessarily, just stimulating. I say this because too many students expect to be entertained by their college reading. They will be sadly mistaken, for much of what they must read will be anything but "entertaining." It may stimulate them to think, and thinking is hard work not "fun" in their sense of the word.) As far as I am concerned, the manuals would be far better if the exercises were left out. More work for the teacher, but it means that the course is more valuable for the student.

Let me describe what I consider to be a worthwhile college level class in reading based on a reading manual. At the beginning of class, I announce that we will read a selection beginning on page 40 and ending on page 42. I purposely choose articles without title, subheads, or marginal notes and articles of 5-6 paragraphs on one central idea. After each student has read the selection, he must write a title, a main idea for each paragraph, the method of development for the selection, and the individual method of development of each paragraph. We then have individual students put their statements on the board. We discuss their answers and criticize the ideas, the wording and so on. If there are examples cited in the selection, the student must be able to tell the purpose of citing the example, the reason for the use of an analogy, and the point of the anecdotes. After a lively discussion, we summarize our findings. Then I pick out words from the reading or have the students ask the meaning of words. I usually give the Greek or Latin root if the word is classical and some idea of the connotation of the word. We then use these words in oral sentences to help fix their use in the minds of the students.

When a student has read a number of selections in different fields in this way, he can go to his logic assignment, or his English essay, or anthropology and know how to dig for the information he needs. He knows how to take notes, because he has been doing this when he writes out the main idea of the paragraphs and the title. He grows accustomed to considering vocabulary in context. He knows how to analyze and to criticize what he has read for he has had lots of practice under guidance.
So we might sum up my attitude toward reading manuals as this: they should be limited to a collection of good challenging readings of suitable length for class discussion. One of the few which truly follows this pattern is Dent's *Thought in English Prose*--date 1930. What we need is a 1959 edition of a book like this. We need more variety of material and more recent material than is found in Dent, but his work could serve as a guide and challenge to us. That is the kind of college reading manual which has a real place in a college reading program.

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A SKILLS APPROACH

Thomson L. Leiper
University of Pittsburgh

Too many times it has been said that college reading programs lack practicality, that skills are taught "out of context" with the students' other subjects. A good reading course must teach a student how to develop an adequate general vocabulary and an academic vocabulary; it must help the student understand the proper concept of reading rate; it must lead the student to an understanding of comprehension. The college reading program must be integrated with the student's other college work.

At the beginning of each semester I ask the students to write statements in response to the questions "What do you want to know about developing reading skills--vocabulary, rate of reading, and comprehension? What are you concerned about with reference to your study habits?"

This semester there are 125 students enrolled in the course at the University of Pittsburgh. Ninety eight are upperclassmen who elected the course and the remainder are freshmen required by the deans of their respective schools to register for reading improvement.
Here are some of the statements they wrote about:

1. Vocabulary
   "I want to learn ways of building a vocabulary without tedious exercise."
   "What are some of the tricks in adding to a vocabulary?"
   "How can I learn words fast?"
   "How can I increase my vocabulary without having had a foreign language?"
   "I want to improve my reading compression (sic) through a better vocabulary." (This student needs a spelling course also.)

2. Reading Rate
   "I would like to know anything about attaining greater speed with more comprehension at that speed."
   "How can I read rapidly without sacrificing comprehension?"
   "How can I speed read in my textbooks?"
   "How can I skim and still get all the facts?"

3. Comprehension
   "How can I read with maximum efficiency?"
   "How can I comprehend heavy reading material more easily?"
   "I would like to know exactly what to look for in reading?"
   "Is there help available for knowing how to read in specific textbooks?"
   "Could you please show me how to get what is important out of a reading assignment?"
   "I can't think of anything in particular. all I want to do is improve my reading!"

4. Study Skills
   "When should I study?"
   "Is there a good way to take notes?"
   "How can I learn to concentrate?"
   "What is the best way to take a test?"
   "I keep forgetting. How can I develop my memory?"

The reading course at the University of Pittsburgh is a guidance program. It combines lectures, class discussion, exercise work and individual conferences. The
lectures attempt to give the students answers to their questions about the reading skills. Time does not permit an adequate description of the content of the lectures and class discussion, but here is a brief resume:

1. Vocabulary
   a. The need for an adequate vocabulary, both general and academic.
   b. The need for an organized study program for the development of vocabulary.
   c. How reading contributes to increasing one's vocabulary.

2. Reading Rate
   a. The concept of reading rate as related to purpose; the difficulty of the material being read; the amount of comprehension needed.
   b. How rate may be increased through phrase reading or the Cloze Technique as explained by Spache and Berg in their manual, "The Art of Efficient Reading."
   c. Reasons why it is necessary for an individual to develop more rapid reading rates.

3. Comprehension
   a. A discussion of the formal textbook style of writing.
   b. How the various subject areas require a different reading approach.
   c. The importance of learning the subject matter as a prerequisite to understanding the textbook.
   d. How the student himself is a very important factor in comprehension--his intelligence, his past experiences, his interests, proper study habits, the value of having well defined goals.

Students like to enter into class discussion. They want to talk about the problems confronting them in their course work. The realization that other students are confronted with problems similar to theirs helps them to give their own problems proper perspective.
There have been many periods when I have stood back and listened to an excellent student discussion. These are worthwhile experiences for the students and the values accrued, in many cases are of greater value than the exercise work the student might do during that class period.

Exercise work in vocabulary has varied each semester. The amount of time available for classroom work does not allow for drill in vocabulary. Several years ago when I found four college students who did not know what "un" in "un-American" meant, I started emphasizing a study of combining forms. At the beginning of the semester each student takes a combining forms test. This is a multiple choice test containing 50 forms prefixes and roots. There are four meanings given with each combining form and the student must pick the correct common meaning for each form. I constructed this test a few years ago and have been refining it constantly.

This semester one student knew all but 2 of the forms; another knew only 2. The average number known is 20. Each student develops a vocabulary study using the combining forms he did not know. This project is developed outside of the regular class hour. If the student runs into difficulties with his study he raises questions in class or comes to me for individual assistance. If possible, the study is related to the vocabulary of the courses each student is taking. The young lady who knew all but 2 of the combining forms is a pre-nursing student. She is compiling her own list of prefixes and roots--each one related to medical terminology. Each student must also hand in a vocabulary notebook at the end of the semester. The notebook is checked and returned to the student. The book should contain lists of new words found in textbook and supplementary text reading. It should also contain a general vocabulary. This is the one assignment given at the beginning of the semester that is always met with moans and groans; however, by the end of the term most students acknowledge its value.

In my beginning semesters at the University I attempted to provide lists of words or vocabulary workbooks for the students to work with. These approaches to vocabulary development were a complete failure.
They lacked meaning for the students.

What is done in a course to develop an understanding of the concept of reading rate? The students come to the class knowing that they are slow readers and yet they seek a magic formula that will show them how to read rapidly, whether it be newspapers, magazines, novels, history, chemistry, psychology or philosophy.

Students should learn to read rapidly, but they should also acquire the ability to change their speed of reading as it relates to purpose, difficulty of material, and the amount of comprehension required. This is new for most of these students and very difficult for many of them to understand and apply.

Success in this area depends on the background and experience of each student and because of this it is difficult to find suitable material to use for classroom exercise work. This semester we are using Shirley Wedeen's "College Remedial Reader." Each student works on his own, reading articles he is interested in, articles he has had some experience with, articles that are new to him. As the semester progresses he analyzes the charts he keeps on speed and comprehension. The student must also use these techniques of varying rate of reading in his assignments. When he experiences difficulties he should ask questions in class or seek individual assistance from the instructor.

Exercises in number, word, and phrase recognition are done in class. They are timed exercises and are used to develop speed. The tachistoscope is used but only as a motivating device—the students expect it in a reading program. Every student who comes to the laboratory to inquire about the reading course asks if the machines he read about or heard about are used. The Harvard films are used sparingly and only as a limited example of what it is like to read in phrases.

Students are urged to read easy material to develop speed. Novels, newspapers, and magazines may be brought to class and read during part of the class hour.

Other materials used to develop speed are the Crabbs Standard Test Lessons in Reading and the
Iowa Supplemental Reading Materials. The students keep graphs and charts on all of their progress.

This semester I have been experimenting with phrase reading exercises. The first mimeographed sheet presented to the students is in regular printed form. This gives them a base WPM score. The second article is broken down into phrases, as close to meaningful phrases as possible. In the article there are blank spaces between each phrase. The next article has 5 blank spaces, the next 5 and so on—until the material gets back to regular spacing. Reading manuals usually give short example of what the reader should do when reading phrases. I am curious to see the action of the students when material of this type is presented to them at regular intervals. Will there by any transfer from the phrase reading articles into their regular reading?

To give you some idea as to how the students are responding I picked 50 students at random and have been keeping a tabulation of their word per minute scores and their comprehension scores. On March 10, the first reading, the median stood at 320 WPM with 83% comprehension. On March 31, the fourth reading the median stood at 444 WPM with 85% comprehension. These students are also working with the Iowa Supplementary Reading material. Their first reading had a median of 263 WPM with 80% comprehension. The latest tabulated scores show a median at 380 WPM with 81% comprehension. The students state that they like the phrase articles and that they are receiving a good idea of the concept of phrase reading and are attempting to apply it to their general reading. One of the advantages this material has over the Harvard or Iowa films is that the student is in control of his rate and he can hesitate on an unfamiliar word or phrase if he must.

Practice in developing comprehension is rather difficult. These college students are primarily concerned with learning how to comprehend textbooks and supplementary reading assignments. The best we can do is get them to realize what comprehension is and how it comes about. They must learn, as I stated earlier, that comprehension first depends on themselves: their intelligence, their interests, their motivation, their experiences and their study habits.
Special techniques can be taught to the students to help them get more from their textbooks. These techniques are the Intensive Reading Technique of Spache and Berg, the SQ3R Technique of Robinson and Judson and Baldridge's Pre-reading Technique. Students can practice using these techniques in their reading manuals, but they must also learn to use them effectively with assignments in their textbooks. Problems that arise with their textbook assignments are discussed in class.

Each of the above techniques is based on the formal textbook style of writing: an introduction, the body of discussion, the conclusion, and the topic sentence at the beginning of the paragraph.

To give the students further practice in recognizing the topic sentence in a paragraph, the staff of the Reading Laboratory has prepared mimeographed practice material. Since the backgrounds of the students are so varied, other aspects of comprehension can best be lectured upon and discussed:

1. Determining the author's intent
2. Determining the author's tone.
3. Determining the author's point of view
4. Critical evaluation
5. Propaganda techniques.

A college reading course must also teach study skills. College students fall into three classifications with reference to study skills. First, there are those students who have good study skills and use them. Second, there are those who know about study skills but do not use them. Third, there are those who have a very poor knowledge of study skills. Members of the last two groups are generally the ones who enroll in the reading course.

These students must learn how to set up a schedule for studying and they must learn to follow it. A well-planned schedule will save them time. They must learn about setting up proper study conditions, the importance of proper physical environment, good health, how to prepare for and take exams, how to take notes and the value of well defined goals.

Individual conferences are an important part of a skill development program. Students should be encouraged
to make an appointment with the instructor to discuss school and personal problems that might be causing interference with his study time. Many times students have come to me and I have been able to send them to other departments of the University for assistance--the guidance department, psychology, speech, the dean of students or job placement.

Every semester I ask the students to list problems that they felt interfered with study time. This paper is not to be signed. I want them to express themselves as freely as possible. This semester out of 125 students only 2 of them stated they didn't have any problems.

I took a class period and told the students about some of the problems they wrote about and asked them if they wouldn't come up to my office and talk further about the problem. Many did. Others just stopped after class and said, "You know when I heard the other guy's problem, mine doesn't seem so big."

Whether the students' problems are big or small, whether the students need help in vocabulary, developing reading rate, comprehension or improving study skills; whether the student is a freshman or a senior, whatever the case the reading program cannot and must not operate in isolation.

* * * * *

THE PLACE OF TEACHER-PREPARED MATERIALS IN THE COLLEGE READING PROGRAM

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Pennsylvania Military College

The reading program in a college must be diversified because of the varied needs of students from those who have failed to acquire desired skills to those who elect Reading to deepen their perception, enrich their experience and broaden their horizons. Even when a group is small (limited to 10 or 12), the multiplicity of purpose, interest, range in ability, achievement, and correctional needs presents many problems.
By the time our probationary students arrive in our classrooms they have had many false starts. Some have failed from inadequate experience, from failure to synthesize experience, from inability to systematize, from failure to form or manipulate adequate concepts - formal, functional, or affective. Some have been limited by the concept that words are static, with set meanings. They have never really discovered the interdependencies of words, that each is colored by its neighbors, and that writers can make the same words serve many purposes. Some have failed to acquire skill in abstracting. They need guidance and practice in taking only some of the possible meanings for words, in recognizing omissions necessary for meaning in any particular context.

No one textbook, no one manual can adequately provide for these disparate needs. No amount of lecturing or instructing can correct them, even though we all hope we are not in the class of instructor of a little girl who complained to her mother that her teacher talked all day long. Asked what the teacher talked about, the little girl answered, "She didn't say." When we talk we hope we say something. We hope our people listen, but our talking instruction should be at a minimum. The number of different things we are trying to do at once lends itself to the new shift in emphasis seen elsewhere on the college campus. This shift is from teaching to learning. The art of learning lies in practice and correction. No amount of theory ever produced a good reader, but practice based on sound principles has.

From Aristotle, who defined experience in his Analects as "a number of memories", to the latest book on the psychology of reading stress has been placed on the need for breadth and intensity of sensory-motor experience for a rich background upon which the student can conceptualize.

The form of experience we offer our students is the growth of knowledge, idea, and judgment from words in sentences. A reading laboratory should be a place dedicated to reading: to discovering strengths and weaknesses. Self-knowledge is the beginning of self-correction. Each reader should be finding out the
kinds and types of errors in his individual thinking and interpreting, and setting about their correction. Each error should be a point of opportunity for growth in relevant experience.

One answer to the disparate needs in any college reading class is the experience of using supplemental teacher-prepared materials. Specially prepared materials obviously enrich reading programs. They can assist in providing the rich background of experience essential to learning. They can help to provide the purpose, motivation and challenge that create a healthy climate for growth. They relieve the monotony of working each day on the same kinds of materials or materials oriented to one textbook or manual writer's viewpoint. They stimulate interest by presenting fresh approaches in individual problem areas. When exercises with keys are used, they provide both the self-knowledge and self-correction that are a part of the self-discipline required of mature readers. They serve a further purpose of keeping a course a growing, developing, live thing reflecting the teacher's current thought and the immediate needs of each individual in the group.

Perhaps this last point is one of the most important of all. A standard text to be used by all obviously cannot defer to individual differences to the same degree that a teacher can. A college reading teacher alert to the specific problems of his immediate group and of the individuals within the group can utilize the many opportunities afforded by contemporary events and writing as well as the record of the past to stimulate and encourage the reading abilities of each student.

Because of the interrelationships of listening and reading and the paucity of published materials on listening, some supplement to the program might be made in this area. Listening Habits and Attitudes Inventories would belong in this category as would teacher-prepared comprehension checks on any of the short articles or pamphlets on listening which have appeared recently.

In the emphasis upon study reading which rightfully belongs in the college reading program (for this one of the major deficiencies of weak students) a teacher may wish to give a brief summary of salient
points in the technique he recommends. He may also devise some practice materials for note-taking among a variety of manuals or from textbooks used by the students in current classes.

In emphasizing organizational skill a paper on paragraph structure is apropos, and certainly practice paragraphs for analysis of content and organizing would serve a fundamental need. Practice in recognizing the organizational plan of short articles, in recognizing main ideas, in recalling facts will help to develop these skills for use in textbook study. Excerpts from textbooks used by the students with reading deficiencies, most particularly history, philosophy, ethics, logic, economics, or some other reading subject are helpful exercises in relevant experience.

Because as President Goheen of Princeton so aptly put it, "Our future depends on our capacity to make intelligent moral, social and political judgments," a college reading course should place considerable emphasis on the elements of critical reading. Practice in evaluating information, reading between the lines, making inferences, anticipating the author's meaning, forming valid conclusions based on generalization, abstraction, deduction, induction, division, exemplification, assumption, cause and effect, definition—all the forms of systematizing—can very well be provided by the teacher from current materials—newspapers, journals, pamphlets. Evaluating the accuracy of information, weighing evidence, suspending judgment until all the facts are presented also are techniques that can be learned, and in which practice exercises should be devised.

Since in the reading of literature, problems arise that do not appear in factual reading, this is another area where specially prepared papers may be decidedly functional. Special projects in reading and interpreting examples of the basic literary genres—prose fiction, the essay, drama, and poetry—are among the most enlightening guides a teacher can present to many of his students. These can serve not only as a genuine introduction to affective concepts, but as a
spring board for the more adventurous students who, toward the end of the term have decided to really utilize their newly won skills in as many areas as possible. On the other hand, these are, from the beginning of the course, effective means of deepening the skills of those students who have entered primarily to enrich their experience.

Additional fields where teacher-prepared materials are especially helpful are in vocabulary building, specialized glossaries, research procedures, and reading and interpreting graphs, charts, tables, statistical and tabular data.

Students who have newly found the pleasures of reading with meaning often ask for reading lists - general and in their special fields of interest. It's a wise teacher who has some on hand.

Teaching reading is a rather frightening responsibility; for whatever the media we use, we are presuming to bring illumination in all the areas of study from the latest technical advancement to the oldest story that recounts the history of human affairs and human behavior. We are helping students, in the light of this experience, to interpret life. The nature of meaning indicates that in so doing we are shaping men, modifying their purposes, redirecting their behavior, giving them a sense of purpose and leading them toward eventual fulfillment. Let us be humble.

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A SELF MOTIVATING APPROACH TO DEVELOPMENTAL READING WITH COLLEGE STUDENTS

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By "the self-motivating approach" to reading for college students I assume that we mean a discovery of the ways in which we induce students to read because of their own enthusiasm and desire for reading. Stated quite simply the problem is, How do you get students to read by their own initiative?
This is, after all, the principal aim of all reading instruction: to make a reader out of a non-reader. And a student who avoids the library, who does not read his textbook assignments -- or who reads them poorly -- and who by-passes the supplementary reading assignments is, at the college level, as truly a non-reader as the child in the elementary grades who does not know his phonics.

Someone said once, "Water and little boys do not mix," meaning that it's a real problem to get junior to scrub behind the ears. The college reading specialist knows in like manner that books and bigger boys frequently do not "mix" either! The self-motivating approach is the problem of getting the boy and the book to mix: to cause the mind of the student and the thought of the book to fuse!

Self-motivated reading begins with a discovery of the fundamental interests and curiosities of the individual student. You cannot handle auto-motivation on a group basis. It is distinctly an individual matter. Ultimately the reading specialist must discover the interests of each student, and through those interests help the student build his own persona: program of reading beyond the call of duty.

The whole secret lies in the discovery of a student's primary focus of interest. A number of ways suggest means by which this may be done. (1) Use interest and hobby inventories. These "inventories" are merely fairly inclusive lists of suggestions on which the student indicates his first, second and third choices in terms of the intensity of his interest. (2) Employ the completion statement technique. Have the student complete the following statement: If I should list those things about which I often wonder, I should include the following: 

(3) Ask the student to discuss for you his interests and curiosities. This discussion may take the form of a brief theme. Whatever method is employed, the principal object is discovery -- the gathering of clues by which the student may be channeled, through his own preferences toward rewarding reading goals.

But these clues to individual interests, while providing a point of departure, do no more than merely
that. After having discovered them the reading specialist should be prepared to discuss books which the student may enjoy reading. Master lists, a card file of titles catalogued under specific interests, or -- for college students -- the annotated bibliography, Good Reading, issued under the aegis of the National Council of Teachers of English and published by Mentor Books (New American Library) may be helpful.

Enthusiasm begets enthusiasm. Get the student reading a book about which he can be enthusiastic and you will have struck the spark which will keep the motivational cycle alive. Capitalize on this enthusiasm. Nothing can "sell" the reading of a book to other students so much as one student who has already it and thinks it's "the greatest." Part of your budget of time might well be devoted to discussion within the group by enthusiastic students reviewing the books which they have enjoyed. Encourage them to read brief climactic sections to the rest of the group. Be careful to let them tell not too much -- just enough to whet interest and the desire to read the book on the part of the others.

Thus self-motivation may spread to the group. One student enthusiastic over a book might induce a dozen of his colleagues to read and enjoy that same book. When self-motivation does this within a group it is an experience that the specialist will not soon forget. One mind and one book that have really fused will set a chain reaction off within any group -- and when this happens self-motivation becomes group dynamics!

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INFORMAL MEASURES IN READING DIAGNOSIS

Dr. Albert J. Mazurkiewicz
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Informal measures in diagnosis may be thought to include

1. Interviewing
2. Class discussion situations
3. Non-standardized test materials: either
The non-standardized test materials should also include an evaluation using standardized procedure, with acceptable criteria for judging reading performance, but without reference to population norms.

In the interviewing situation, office or classroom, by exploring reading problems through taking case history information, possible developmental data perhaps an adjustment inventory, but also simply questioning a student and listening sympathetically—we can determine possible causative factors of reading problems. We can also find clues which might suggest the types of test materials which could be employed in further analysis.

The classroom situation provides probably one of the best situations for analyzing specific student difficulties in a "real-life" situation provided, of course, that the teacher is wise and is not harassed and distracted by numerous things to be done or accomplished within course-time limitations. If such a teacher makes a point of evaluating abilities and difficulties and keeps some anecdotal records for later reference. such a classroom situation can provide more data of more specific use for correcting student's problems than most standardized test situations. This kind of informal diagnosis is difficult to do in most classroom situations and to do it well is certainly more difficult. A teacher can usually spot w/r, speed vocabulary, and comprehension problems of students in his classroom without recourse to test data. To do this adequately, he needs a broad background of training in w/r and comprehension skills. But assuming teachers have enough training to spot difficulties time is all too short to estimate the needs of all students who exhibit difficulty.

The non-standardized test materials in workbooks, the SRA laboratories, and so forth, give us some aid, but most of these are of the purely factual recall type or are tests of speed of reading.
We need more information if we are to be doing the job Dr. Leedy has outlined for the future of Developmental Reading. The teacher can construct his own test materials and frequently these are the best for diagnostic purposes since they test what the teacher wants to know. He can administer such tests to groups and later analyze the results to diagnose student's errors. But in any group type test situation control of the test situation (wherein the examiner explores difficulties, provides hints for a student to act on, and so on), is lacking to the same degree as with standardized test materials and also, little flexibility is possible in such test situations. We need some other test procedure to permit more adequate diagnosis, to permit exploration of particular problems a student exhibits. In effect we need an individualized testing situation for reading diagnosis to the same extent we need individual I.Q. tests.

In the Lehigh University Clinic, students who inquire about programs or come to us for aid in solving an academic or study problem are given a battery of tests to permit us to diagnose their problems. As a result of analyzing such test data, we are able to conclude a number of things. These include, of course, the superficial skills of rate of reading, gross comprehension skills relating primarily to factual recall, or getting facts, organization skills, comprehension under pressure and in a less pressured situation, study habits, carelessness in test-taking, and grade placement of vocabulary and level of comprehension abilities. All of this data is of a somewhat superficial nature.

When we are confronted in a student's case with grade placement scores of 10.5, tenth grade or less, in comprehension, we have a suggestion that the general developmental reading course is certainly not for him but we have no information from this (or any other standardized reading test in our files) which tells us what are his problems, where we must start working with him to avoid frustration, or what related or basic skills are lacking. Informal procedures at this point are called into play to permit us to identify his particular needs. More exactly, the informal reading inventory is used as a device to more adequately sample
specific comprehension, vocabulary, and other skills. When I speak of the IRI, I'm speaking of a form which has been devised for use in our college but differs in no great respect from those devised at Temple University, Penn State University, Syracuse University, and so forth.

To understand what an IRI is, a description of procedures in constructing one is in order. In general, an IRI contains 11 reader levels beginning with PP, P. 1. and continuing to the 9th reader level. The readability levels agree with the textbooks' publisher's descriptions of books as being at particular levels. Ten selections, either continuous or separate, are identified in these books, as being of such a nature as to permit sufficient questioning and long enough to adequately tap the student's abilities (in general, 45 to 300 words.) One of these selections is used in an oral reading situation; the other is read silently. A statement designed to motivate the student to read is constructed for each selection, and 10 questions are then devised on each selection to sample his comprehension of that selection. These 10 questions include four of the factual type, four of the inferential type, and two of the vocabulary type. After each group of questions for the silent reading selection an oral re-reading question is listed.

Few college students have major difficulty in word recognition and for this reason we tend to skip the word recognition test which normally precedes an inventory. Its purpose is two-fold: to examine a student's sight vocabulary and word analysis abilities and to provide an index of the point at which the inventory should be begun. Since the college student has few, if any, word recognition difficulties, the normal inventory starting point is the sixth reader level. He is asked to read orally and questioned, then asked to read silently and questioned. This continues through the reader levels until he either meets certain criteria or completes all the levels. As a result of this procedure of inventorying a student's skills and abilities, and depending on whether his scores meet certain criteria, we can more appropriately determine the kind of instruction a student
needs, the level at which he should be given instruction, and the kinds of skills this student is lacking.

An inventory, using informal procedures as contrasted with standardized procedure, permits the examiner to control the test situation and determine which skills and abilities will be examined. It permits a sampling of such information as

1. the student's manner of handling materials
2. versatility of rate of reading
3. suit rate to purpose for reading
4. does he read for purposes
5. does he demonstrate difficulty with attention and concentration
6. can he skim adequately
7. can he pick out main ideas
8. can he summarize ideas
9. can he retell a story in sequence
10. does his eye-voice span differ significantly when he reads silently as contrasted with his oral reading
11. what kinds of difficulties does he demonstrate in comprehension?
   a. are his errors primarily of a factual recall nature
   b. can he draw inferences; to what extent does he need help in drawing an inference; what kinds of difficulties does he demonstrate in drawing inferences
   c. what kinds of difficulties in vocabulary questions does he demonstrate: recall, lack of experiences, inability to get meaning of words in context, verbalization.

Since the test is a power test, it does not penalize the student through artificial time limitations and does permit the student to evaluate his own abilities, a notable aid in motivating the student to pursue instruction. As a result of meeting criteria of 99% w/r and 90% comprehension, we are able to place a student in appropriate materials for independent reading and for increasing speed of reading.
As a result of meeting criteria of 95% w/r and 75% comprehension we are able to determine where he needs instruction by directed reading activities administered in a corrective-type situation and so on.

This procedure approximates, in my opinion, the best type of counseling interview situation and more nearly approximates what teachers expect of students as well as what independent study demands of students. No textbook that I know of is so constructed that a student can read it at the conclusion be tested by objective questions. Instead, the student must through some inherent ability be able to summarize ideas, organize items, outlines ideas, see relationships between ideas, draw conclusions, follow a sequence of events, processes or thinking, recall facts and relate these to previous material, and so on. These skills are presently inadequately tested by standardized tests and at best are identified poorly in a few. Abilities related to making judgments, application of facts and principles, propaganda analysis, discriminating fact from opinion and reading critically, are part and parcel of a student work load but cannot be tested except through an informal procedure such as given earlier.

Leedy has indicated that these latter aspects of reading are the elements with which we should be dealing in future work if we are to be doing the job expected of us in developmental reading. Until the millennium arrives and we have published tests to test these skills, teachers are going to continue to be frustrated in determining student needs unless they resort to informal appraisals of these skills but follow a standard procedure. This implication suggests the need for each instructor to be thoroughly acquainted with the procedures involved in administering an IRI.

In addition, clues to disturbed states which may require further testing or referral are to be found in administration of an IRI. A student who has no word recognition difficulties, but whose comprehension scores place him somewhere below ninth reader will frequently demonstrate inattentiveness, nervousness, a lack of concentration, restlessness, and suggest feelings of anxiety. This individual would be a likely candidate
for further testing. Responses of such students will sometimes be bizarre and incoherent, and suggest need for further testing. The interviewing diagnostic techniques of the examiner are brought into play in the TRI situation and permit him to make assessments of this student's ability to function under stress. The IRI procedure suggested by my comments is the starting point for an analysis of a student's reading problem. As used by us it follows the general screening by standardized tests. It is not given to all students since all do not have extensive difficulties but its procedures are used in working with all students.

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WHAT IS BEING DONE IN COLLEGE PROGRAMS?

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The Problem

The study attempted to investigate the nature, extent, and trends in reading programs and services for students in the accredited colleges and universities of the state for the academic year 1957-1958.

Questionnaire - General Information

Of the seventy-five accredited colleges and universities queried through an introductory and explanatory letter of the nature of the study, forty-three, or 57 per cent. indicated willingness to receive the questionnaire and to participate in the study; thirty, or 40 per cent. indicated no such program existed in their schools; and two, or 3 per cent. stated that the program had been discontinued. Thus the entire seventy-five Pennsylvania schools responded to the original inquiry. Forty-two, or 96 per cent, of the schools having programs returned a completed questionnaire.

The six page questionnaire covered the areas of organization and objectives, methods and techniques, materials, mechanical devices, personnel, evaluation, and plans and problems related to the reading program.

Personal visits to the University of Pittsburgh, the Pennsylvania Military College, and Temple University revealed detailed information about the reading programs at these schools. A chapter devoted to these
three programs, and the one conducted by the writer, is included in the completed dissertation. An "ideal" college program is also included.

Results

Trial tables showed that the data contained in the questionnaires were relatively uninfluenced by the size of the school. All kinds of institutions responded to the questionnaire.

The data were analyzed according to the following main areas: (A) Organization, Administration, and Objectives; (B) Tests; (C) Methods and (D) Materials; (E) Mechanical Devices and Aids; (F) Personnel; (G) Evaluation; and (H) Plans and Problems.

Rather than attempt to give a detailed analysis of the main areas covered in the questionnaire, I have written a composite college reading program based upon the questionnaire analysis. Written especially for this report, the composite program may be of value not only to those persons presently conducting programs, but also to interested parties who are ready to initiate a program. If any of you wish specific data or information about particular manuals, tests, and the like, do not hesitate to forward your request to me.

A "Composite" Or Average College Program

A summary of the data gathered from the answers provided by the 42 schools for the eight sections of the questionnaire suggests a composite* college reading program with services similar to the following. The picture is not an exact one, but it represents the average reading program.

The college, either private or public, enrolls from 500 to 999 full-time students, and has a greater

*"Composite" refers to the practices most frequently found and most representative of the forty-two schools studied without regard to the effectiveness or validity of these practices. "Composite" in this refers to the total picture that the questionnaire analysis presents.
male population than female. The reading program is sponsored by the Education and Guidance Departments and is called Reading Improvement or Developmental Reading. Open to all undergraduates, under certain restrictions of personnel and physical facilities, the course caters principally to freshmen who volunteer for the non-credit program. Occasionally members of the community at large also avail themselves of the service.

Students especially in need of assistance are selected on the basis of standardized reading test scores. Classes meet for one hour weekly, for one semester of about 15 weeks.

The course, which has been in existence for less than five years, costs the student twenty-five dollars. The fifty-one students who receive the training represent less than 20 per cent of the freshman class and the grand total of ninety students includes less than 5 per cent of the total school enrollment.

The main objective of the program is to provide the student with the knowledge and skills needed to read college materials with adequate speed and comprehension at a higher level than when he enters the course. The program is characterized by a skills-drill approach to reading speed, comprehension, vocabulary, and study skills. There is a strong belief that study habits can be improved through instruction and that better grades in the regular subjects will follow.

The program relies heavily upon one or two standardized reading tests for diagnosis and evaluation, but there is a general dissatisfaction with the tests because of their limitations. Intelligence, interest, and personality test results are also used in diagnosing and evaluating each student, but not as frequently as tests of reading.

There is great dependence on teacher-prepared tests and exercises featuring study skills; exercises related to speed of reading and vocabulary; written and oral recall exercises, and critical reading tests. Home-made tests and exercises are developed and used as the need arises.
Instruction is given in groups of about 18 students. Whenever possible, however, individual help is given. The emphasis is on improving comprehension, speed and vocabulary. with the greatest effort directed toward comprehension skills. About 15 per cent of class time is spent on direct instruction in study skills, such as attacking the assignment, summarizing, scheduling one's time, and outlining. The ultimate concern of the course is for greater efficiency in reading study-type material. To that end, the student is asked to practice on his textbooks and to devote extra time in practicing what he has learned in the reading class.

A personal evaluation of reading and study abilities and habits is given to the student at the beginning and at the end of the course. Suggestions for correcting apparent weaknesses are offered during the personal conference.

Two or three commercial reading manuals or workbooks are used for practice on speed and comprehension. Vocabulary often receives extra attention through specially prepared teacher-made exercises. Charts and graphs are maintained by the student to help him visualize his progress. Frequently the student is asked to comment on his progress by filling in a self-evaluation form.

Two machines, the reading accelerator or controller and the tachistoscope, are employed for developmental and motivational purposes. The telebinocular is also used, but it is related to vision. Less than 10 per cent of class time is devoted to machinery, however, and the student is expected to use the machinery on his own time.

Although the director of the reading program also has other duties, his principal efforts are spent on the reading course. He has two part-time assistants as his staff, and they spend about 20 per cent of their teaching time in the reading work. The reading teachers, who are assistant professors and hold the master's degree, have less than five years experience in the field of reading. Their specialized training has been obtained in graduate courses. They belong to one or two professional organizations, usually the International Reading Association or the National Council of
Teachers of English.

Standardized reading tests are used when judging the effectiveness of the reading program. A comparison of scores made on equivalent forms given before and after the course is the method usually followed, although the student is frequently asked for his personal evaluation of his progress. No follow-up is made to determine the permanency of gains, nor is a formal, statistical study made to determine the effectiveness of the course as a whole, although the effect of the course on regular grades is examined from time to time.

The director of the program feels that the course does achieve its objectives and is worthwhile.

The greatest weaknesses of the present program are lack of time, personnel, and the voluntary status of enrollment which fails to reach all needy students. The school would like to expand all phases of its present program, offer more individualized help, and open the course to all students, regardless of need. The greatest strengths of the present program include student satisfaction and motivation, and the giving of individual help when needed.

As noted previously, the foregoing is a hypothetical picture which does not point out the differences in policy and practice which characterize the schools. The present study not only notes similarities but also emphasizes differences which are equally important, but which do not appear in a composite picture of the "average" program of reading.

Recommendations Arising From The Present Study

Certain recommendations for the continued improvement and development of Pennsylvania reading programs seems to be justified by the present study.

1. Means should be sought to make reading and study instruction available to more students, especially the better readers, the upper-classmen, and even the citizens of the community.
2. More evaluative studies should be made to ascertain the effectiveness of reading instruction in general, the permanency of its benefits, and the worth of particular phases of instruction.

3. Course objectives should be restated in greater detail and with specific reference to the activities which constitute the reading program and its relation to other student services, the faculty, and the administration.

4. Frequent assessment should be made of the relative values of methods, materials, mechanical aids, and means of evaluation.

5. A comprehensive study should be conducted of the professional training and qualifications of the college teacher of reading, with special attention directed toward developing standards for future instructors.

6. Means should be devised and implemented to facilitate the sharing of ideas, research, experiments, and materials among interested schools, and professional meetings should be held periodically to discuss the problems of college reading and study.

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READING AND MASS MEDIA

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Much has been written on skill building and clinical activities in the reading field. But little has been recorded in the development of new techniques and approaches to motivate students to "read for life". In fact, the University of Michigan publication, Reading for Life, is a disheartening report of the job teachers and librarians are doing in stimulating students to find reading a meaningful experience throughout their lifetimes. In an attempt to study some ways of using mass media effectively in building enriched reading programs
that will motivate students to read more, we at the Pennsylvania State University hope to offer next year a new course in reading and mass media. (I should add that these are my own ideas expressed here as to how the course might be taught. As other professors offer the course, their techniques and ideas might vary some. However, there is unanimous agreement on the need for such a course).

The course will utilize the following forms of mass media: television (including kinescopes), movies, magazines, newspapers, and paperback books. The course will be offered for one semester and will have a credit assignment of three semester hours.

**Television**

Television is probably the most powerful medium we have today. Its influence as an instructional medium is being recognized as more schools and universities begin to offer coursework by television. This, however, is not the point I want to discuss.

Through such programs as *Play of the Week*, *Hallmark Hall of Fame*, *The Show of the Month*, and *Omnibus*, which is to return next fall, outstanding stars of stage and screen have brought to millions of viewers the best in the world's treasury of great dramatic literature. Works by such playwrights as Shakespeare, Shaw, Wilder, Giraudoux, Lorca, and Pirandello have been performed by such outstanding performers as Sir Laurence Olivier, Mary Martin, Helen Hayes, Judith Anderson, and others. A student can view the production and then, as he reads this author's works, he will have some idea of character interpretation that he may have missed. Many students get bogged down when reading Shakespeare, but when they can see Shakespeare performed by professional actors, they gain a new appreciation for the bard. (Note: next year Judith Anderson and Sir Laurence Olivier will appear in *Macbeth*.) Too, interesting class discussions can take place when students who have studied the play react to the televised presentations, which is often cut and censored.
A program such as Camera Three brings many interesting ideas to mind on stimulating students to read. Camera Three presents excerpts from major authors' and poets' works and often I am stimulated to seek out such writers for further reading. A teacher might develop as projects the dramatic adaptation of a work that he feels can be used to good advantage in getting a student to read such a writer. By following a format similar to that presented on Camera Three, a teacher can find interesting ways of acquainting students with short stories, poems, novels, essays, and plays.

The Twentieth Century series offers wonderful background material for science and social studies classes. There have been programs on sea life, on the space age, on the atomic age, on the jazz age, on Naziism, on various invasions during World War II, and the like. The Prudential Insurance Company, sponsors of this show, will make kinescopes of past shows available to schools at no cost whatsoever. Students could see certain programs and be assigned readings to develop deeper understandings of the events and ideas presented.

For example, after seeing a program on Naziism, many children of our modern times can get far more significance out of such books as The Diary of Anne Frank, Mein Kampf, Rommel, the Desert Fox, and books of that period.

By experiencing through film the effects and dangers of radiation a child can feel the impact of Hiroshima, of Hiroshima Diary or On the Beach.

These are some examples I hope to use from television. I have not taken the time to mention the excellent programs on Hemingway and Twain, or the N.B.C. operas, or Leonard Bernstein's young people's concerts, which I could hope to use effectively. Time does not permit more details.

Movies

We know that publishers have built up promotion campaigns when their books are released as motion pictures. The sale of such a book as Ivanhoe was amazing
when the Robert Taylor-Elizabeth Taylor film played at the local theaters. These tie-ins have proven to be good business for both parties.

But we as teachers can stimulate children to compare the book with the movie version. Teaching Film Custodians in New York City made some interesting cuts from *Something of Value* and *The Doctor's Dilemma*. By discussing these books briefly with a group of thirty students, and then showing them the excerpts I stimulated twenty-two students to read the books and to plan a later discussion period of these works.

Another good idea for stimulating reading was related to me by a teacher who told her class to see *Around the World in 80 Days*. The children raised many questions about music, customs, cultures, costumes of different countries; so the teacher developed a unit on international understanding. Small groups of children chose different countries to study and read books about these countries, and presented a variety of reports and programs based on their readings, new ideas, and understandings. She called the project most exciting and stimulating.

Thus, movies offer us the opportunity to compare media--book version and movie version--or provide an excellent source of background material for building new interests and experiences.

**The Press: Magazines, Newspapers, Paperbacks**

So much can be done in helping students become familiar with propaganda techniques. We can show students the different types of articles and point out for them the method that writers use to reveal their feelings in the "not-so-objective" press.

We can help students become familiar with the many services that a newspaper can offer, such as information on job opportunities, child development hints, fashions, and so forth.

Students should see the wide variety of reading material available on the magazine market. From *Jack 'n Jill* to *Harper's* covers a broad field of reading interests. They ought to know that certain magazines would reveal much for the average student who swears by the *Reader's Digest*. 
The paperback revolution is here with us. The press has brought to education so very much for so very little. Yet, according to a survey by the National Council of Teachers of English, teachers do not use paperbacks in great quantity nor do they have accurate information on what is available.

Through publications such as Paperback Review, which begins operation next October, and through Paperbound Books in Print, students and teachers can what is currently available.

I would like teachers to develop units of materials around central themes and be able to work in appropriate movies and TV shows and prepare annotated bibliographies of articles and books that students could read to develop an understanding of these themes.


From a combined planning of programs, I would hope to come up with a good unit, with fresh materials and ideas, that would be of value to students and would give them sound content material on different ability levels, according to the different interests and needs represented in the class.

Other units could be on science--such as on conservation, the space age and so forth.

In social studies--we could study America and war, or social problems of our time--such as integration, delinquency and the like.

Teachers of all content areas would be welcome to take the course and to discuss with us the main problems of finding suitable films, TV shows and reading materials for the different groups we teach.

The integration of these media and a demonstration of their effectiveness and value could give the curriculum the "shot-in-the-arm" that will make students turn to reading more readily and with greater depth of understanding than we have done previously with our basic texts and required book reports.
GOALS AND SKILLS IN DEVELOPMENTAL INSTRUCTION

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A. Development of the ability to read material not for answering true-false or multiple choice questions, but to be able to summarize material of chapter length, to organize information received into coherent units so as to express the author's thoughts succinctly and to outline this material in such a fashion that it can be remembered most easily for functional use.

B. Development of the ability to read critically, not merely to draw, identify, or support inferences, but also to react in an intelligent fashion to the author's ideas using skills identified below (E)

C. Skills to be considered and developed should include those related to the summarization, organization or outlining of chapter and book length materials and must naturally emphasize greater efficient use of skimming, rapid and study-type rate of reading according to the purposes for reading. Some greater efficiency in the assimilative reading skills (factual details, main ideas) might need to be developed with some students; however, the emphasis here is not on remedial aspects of reading programs but on the development of the higher level thinking skills.

D. The ability to apply the SQRRR method to printed materials is reflected in the work noted in A and C and one assumes a sensitivity to its use has been or must be developed.

E. The greatest amount of time, however, should be spent on a consideration of the following principles (related to B):
   1. The need of definition
   2. Kinds of definition
   3. Distinguishing names from objects
   4. Denotation and connotation
   5. Diction
6. Tone
7. The analysis of form
8. Emotional coloration
9. Fallacies as related to construction of a proposition
10. Either-or fallacy
11. Some-to-all fallacy
12. Irrelevancy
13. Recognizing assumptions
14. Logical validity and truth
15. Identification of hypothesis
16. Identifying standards of value

(The listing does not necessarily reflect labels or organized units from the books listed below although some similarity exists. The items, to a limited extent, are identified in the supplemental materials.)

F. Recommended materials for use in such a course include:

4. Anyone of the many manuals on "comprehension" but best for use in developing the ability to abstract and classify, main ideas, details, organization and outlining is Rachel Salisburys's Better Work Habits. This manual I believe is out of print; however, copies may be found for our reference use to stimulate ideas on approaches.

G. Grades can be assigned for such a course. In fact there is too much content to deal effectively with in one course. Tests, obviously, follow from the concepts being developed.

H. Not all college students are read, for such a course. Some need a skills course to develop reading and study skills to permit them to take a course similar to the above.

Additional Bibliography on College Reading
The following are some of the principles of critical reading (and, it must be admitted, thinking) which might be taught in a college Developmental Reading course. These do not exhaust the list for there are other principles which can be taught related to the subject fields. Others listed in (E) can be found in Altick's book.

Following each principle is an example, and explanatory comment illustrates the point involved.

1. **The need for definition**

   A definition of a term is needed to clarify a discussion when there is lack of agreement on how the term is to be used.

   **Example:** A insists, "Of course people in the U.S. are free. We're free to go to school, take a job, vote, read what we want, and do many other enjoyable and interesting things."

   B replies, "But we're not really free. We can't keep all we earn, start any business we want to, or even drive the way we might like to. Some government agency is generally busy making rules..."
prohibiting all sorts of actions."
A definition of the term "free" is needed in order to clarify the discussion between A and B.

2. **Kinds of definition**
The kind of definition appropriate for a term differs according to the expected uses of the definition. An operational definition is appropriate when one wishes to move from an abstract level to the level of observation; hence, scientists often resort to this form of definition in experimental work. An operational definition is a description stating a performable set of actions.

Example: Length is laying a measuring stick along an object and determining the number of measuring stick units from one end of the object to the other.

A real definition is used in dealing with a logical system of classes and sub-classes as in the case of such sciences as mathematics and the classifying science of biology. A real definition is a description of an object giving (1) the general class to which the object belongs, and (2) the special traits which distinguish the object from other items in that class.

Example: A triangle is a polygon which has three straight sides.

3. **Distinguishing names from objects**
The name of an object is distinct from the object or thing named. It is a convenient and accepted expression for referring to the object.

Example: A state legislator introduced a bill to change the term "unemployment compensation" to "dole." He reasoned that this would save money for the state, since most people are too proud to accept a dole.

The object, the payment in this case is not changed by changing its name.

4. **Fallacy of affirming the consequent**
Example: If the garden soil is well fertilized, then the plants will grow larger than usual. (If-then statement)
The plants in this garden have grown larger than usual. ("then" part or consequent)

This garden must have been well fertilized. ("If" part or antecedent as the conclusion)

The "then" part or consequent (the larger growth of plants) could have occurred for other reasons: rainfall, selected seed, etc.

5. **Fallacy of denying the antecedent**

When reaching a conclusion from an "if then" statement, it is a fallacy to reject the "then" part or consequent of the statement as a conclusion on the ground that the "if" part or antecedent is not true.

Example: If farm prices go down, then we will have a depression. (If-then statement)

Farm prices are not going down. (Denial of "if" part or antecedent)

(Invalid) Therefore we will not have a depression. (Denial of "then" part or consequent as conclusion)

The occurrence of the "then" part or antecedent, the depression, could take place for other reasons.

6. **Fallacy of circularity**

A conclusion is invalid if the conclusion is the same as the reason offered in its support.

Example: To get a car that runs economically, buy an American-made car because only American-made cars are reasonable to operate.

The statement that American-made cars run economically is supported by the same idea expressed in different words, namely, "reasonable to operate."

7. **Either-or Fallacy**

When drawing a conclusion from an either-or statement, it is a fallacy to conclude that one of the alternatives is true on the grounds that the other is not true, unless the either-or statement includes all possible alternatives and unless the alternatives are mutually exclusive.
Example: Either that bulb is burned out, or the current is off in the house. (Either-or statement)
That bulb is not burned out. (Denial of one alternative)
(Invalid) The current must be off in the house. (Second alternative accepted)
The two parts of the either-or statement do not exhaust the possibilities and are not mutually exclusive. The lighting failure could be the result of some unmentioned possibility.

8. Some-to-all fallacy
There are two types of some-to-all fallacy: the fallacy of inadequate sampling and the fallacy of composition.

A. Fallacy of inadequate sampling: It is a fallacy to reach a conclusion about a class of items on the ground of a truth about a biased selection of items with that class.
Example: The students I've known who came from that school can't read well. Apparently all the students from that school are poor readers.
Personal acquaintance does not provide an unbiased selection of all students.

B. Fallacy of composition: It is a fallacy to reach a conclusion about a whole on the ground of a truth about one part of the whole.
Example: This car's brakes are good, therefore this is a good car.
It is not true that the whole car is good because one part of the car is good.

9. Irrelevancy
A statement in an argument is irrelevant to a conclusion if it is neither a reason nor an assumption.
Example: It is known that if the fluorine content of a fossil is relatively low, then the age of a fossil is not very great. The English anthropological find call the Piltdown jaw was supposed to be part of an early variety of man. However, the age of
the jaw has recently been reinvestigated, and the fluorine content of the jaw is low. Anthropologists have therefore concluded that the Piltdown jaw is comparatively recent. Interestingly enough, there is evidence that fossil finds from other areas are of different ages than previously suspected.

The last sentence of the paragraph is neither a reason nor an assumption in the argument about the age of the Piltdown jaw.

10. Recognizing assumptions

An assumption is a reason, usually unexpressed, which is necessary to the validity of a conclusion.

Example: A storm must be coming (conclusion) because the barometer is dropping rapidly (reason).

The complete chain of reasoning would go as follows:

(Assumption) If the barometer drops rapidly, a storm is coming.

(Reason) The barometer is dropping rapidly.

(Conclusion) A storm is coming.

11. Logical validity and truth

Logical validity is a relation between reasons and conclusions such that the conclusions follow inescapably from the reasons. Truth is a relationship between a statement and reality.

A. A conclusion can be valid and not true.

Example: All Americans are patriots, and all patriots favor a larger army. Hence all Americans favor a larger army.

The conclusion follows necessarily from the premises and hence is valid, but it is not factually true that all Americans favor a larger army.

B. A conclusion can be true and not valid.

Example: Carbon monoxide is a compound of
carbon and oxygen. Some compounds of car-
on and oxygen are poisonous. Therefore car-
bon monoxide is poisonous.

The conclusion is factually true, but not logi-
cally valid from these premises. The premise
"Some compounds of carbon and oxygen are poison-
ous" mentions only one part of the group of
compounds as poisonous. The premises do not
state whether carbon monoxide falls in this
part of the group or not.

12. **Identification of hypothesis**

The hypothesis in an experiment is the statement
which tentatively explains given data, and which
is to be tested further.

Example: The Italian scientist Spallazini (1729-
99) designed an experiment to test
whether living organisms can develop
without the presence of parent organ-
isms. In five series of flasks he
placed samples of organic materials.
One series was left open to the air.
The others were sealed and boiled for
1/2 minute, 1 minute, 1 1/2 minutes,
and 2 minutes respectively. After two
days the flask contents were examined
microscopically. Next a series of
organic materials were boiled for 1/2
to 3/4 of an hour in sealed flasks,
and their condition examined after a
period. No organisms appeared in the
longer boiled series as long as the
flasks were sealed.

In this experiment the hypothesis is that no organ-
isms will develop in organic materials when all
other organisms are destroyed.

13. **Judging experimental design**

An experiment is examined for adequate design by
ascertaining (1) that a plan has been made to test
the hypothesis, (2) that in the plan uncontrolled
variables are reduced to a minimum, and (3) that
assumptions of the plan have been examined and accepted as sound.

Example: In the experiment under Item 12 above variations due to organic material are controlled by selection of samples of different kinds of organic materials. Variations in the samples of presence of organisms are controlled by differences in boiling time and by sealing flasks from the air. One assumption is the longer the boiling, the greater the destruction of living organisms.

14 Fair sample
A fair sample of a group or population is a sample in which every item of the group has an equal chance of being chosen, or when each sub-group of the total has the chance of being chosen in the sample in the same proportion as the sub-group is of the total.

Example: For an unbiased sampling of student body opinion on the need for a recreation center it is preferable to procure a random sample by selecting names from a box containing names of all members of the student body rather than to take the sample from the twelfth grade. The twelfth grade presumably has been reduced by dropouts and other members perhaps plan to leave the community for college.

15. Reliability of sources
Sources of information are judged for reliability in terms of competence, impartiality, and primacy.

Example: To obtain information on the level of prices the Bureau of Labor Statistics index is preferable to information from retail trade associations.

16. Distinguishing evaluation from description
A discourse is a description if it is composed of statements of facts ascertainable by accepted
methods for determining truth. A discourse is an opinion if it is composed of statements showing the way an object is judged by an observer.

Example: Description: Located on the big bend of the Arrawon River at an altitude of 500 feet, the town has a population of 15,000. It has one high school, eight churches, one daily newspaper, and three processing plants.

Opinion: It is properly zoned for residence and trade. It has an attractive appearance and pleasant climate. and all together it looks like a desirable place to live.

17. Appraising a justification

Justification of a course of action or a point of view is appraised by recognizing the criteria or standards of value by which the choice of the action or viewpoint is made, and examining these criteria in light of some set of basic rules.

Example: A speaker recently asserted, "It is a wise and beneficial policy to keep taxes at a minimum. High taxes are harmful to community welfare and community progress for they deter the building of new plants and frighten prospective investors. The policy of low taxes is justified by the criteria of community welfare and community progress. These criteria may be examined in light of such rules as (1) welfare is judged by the condition of the greatest number of persons in the community, (2) progress is judged by increase in health and educational facilities, decline in crime and sickness rate, and increase in housing and recreational facilities, and the like.

18. Identifying standards of value

Standards of value are identified by noting the use of value terms such as good, bad, beautiful, ugly, beneficial, wise, harmful, etc. and
inquiring as to the meaning of these terms in the context.

Example: In the passage under 17 above terms like wise, beneficial, and harmful are value terms. Clues to the meaning given them by the speaker are in his last sentence. That is, harmful and wise mean what deters the building of new plants and frightens prospective investors.

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A COLLEGE DEVELOPMENTAL READING COURSE IN ACTION

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Just as it is impossible to read without content, it is inconceivable that ability to read accurately and penetratingly can be developed apart from intellectually maturing experiences. Our credit course in reading improvement, therefore, should be thought of as a course in reading to learn rather than one in learning to read. Instruction emphasizes reading critically for information and ideas as an attempt to get back to the real world of things and people. The goal is not merely to develop certain reading skills, but also to stimulate concern and arouse ambitions which pave the way for using reading to create a personal outlook which includes sensitivity to human problems, interest in significant issues, a desire to contribute and the determination to preserve one's autonomy as an individual.

Unless our students differ markedly from the samples of populations studied by Gray and Rogers, at least two things must be assumed: The students who will use reading most effectively now and throughout their lives (not necessarily those who will read the most "stuff") are the ones who can interpret what they
read with accuracy and penetration. Secondly, each student's reading behavior is a unique composite of attitudes, interests, and skills. The first assumption suggests the prime importance of critical thinking abilities which make the reader versatile in dealing with various styles and forms of expression, quick in distinguishing the theme and points which develop it and keen in discerning the false from the true, the trivial from the valuable and the fraudulent from the sincere. The second assumption implies that we must consider the student's personal level of achievement.

Before describing how the course operates, its quantitative aspects should be explained. During the current semester slightly less than 200 students were enrolled. Circumstances forced us to limit the number of sections to six ranging in size from twenty-nine to thirty-nine students. Prospects for the immediate future include a slightly larger total enrollment but a class size of twenty-five students. Classes meet twice weekly for two hours of credit. And grading is based on the same A to F scale as in other courses.

At the present time our procedure for differentiating instruction consists of identifying the least able readers and referring them for additional concentrated work. Future plans, however, call for identifying incoming freshmen who seem to have language difficulties and providing a special form of the developmental reading course involving about twice the amount of work for the same credit. In this form of the course emphasis on basic vocabulary and comprehension skills as indicated by student need will precede the normal content.

Perhaps a simultaneous explanation of content and activities is the best way to tell you what we try to teach and how we try to teach it.

As intimated earlier, the first task is to identify students who need to improve basic reading skills. Therefore, the Diagnostic Reading Test, Survey Section is administered in the first class only for the purpose of screening. No test is given to compare pre-instruction scores with post-instruction scores partly
because the one we have is not designed to measure the abilities we attempt to develop. Also, to give a battery of tests which might be used more or less satisfactorily to compare pre and post achievement seems prohibitively expensive and time-consuming for the present time. Additional thoughts on this problem could be mentioned, but to do so would take us too far from our main objective.

Before plunging the students into reading activities it is most helpful to prepare them to receive the concepts and tasks which lie ahead. The idea that man is not made to be pushed about, however kindly and beneficently, applies with special significance to college students assigned to developmental reading courses. Initially, therefore, classes are confronted with such questions as "Why are you here? What is education? How do you know when you are becoming educated? What "facts" have you been taught that are no longer true? What do textbooks actually contain? Why do history books give different accounts of the same incidents?" and so on. After discussion, usually lively, establishes the need for such things as the persistent lifelong pursuit of facts and ideas, the rigorous evaluation of information and its interpretation, and the development of the individual's power to use all forms of written and spoken expression advantageously to grow in knowledge and wisdom concerning human affairs, the students are motivated to accept instruction in reading.

Books in general and textbooks in particular are recognized aids to learning in college. The student's immediate need, no matter what his ultimate purpose, is to grasp the author's information and ideas. For this reason, using the textbook for our course, Richard Altick's Preface to Critical Reading, students learn first how to get the most from textbooks. Students follow a structured plan which forces them to pre-read the book and explain what the author wants to accomplish, how he will do it, and why he feels it is necessary. From this information, purposes for reading the entire book are established. Following this introduction, the Survey
The OR Technique is presented and students are guided in its application to the first chapter in the book and to each successive chapter in its turn. The Survey OR Technique is a procedure for mastering the topics in a textbook to the point at which students have sufficient familiarity with the content to be articulate about it. Finally, to help students gather ideas and details efficiently from discursive reading matter several class sessions and assignments are devoted to learning how information is organized, how to locate and discriminate between main ideas and details, and how to outline and summarize. Much more time could be devoted to this type of reading, but there are other important goals to be achieved.

Early in the course the need for vocabulary building becomes apparent through questioning students about the meanings of certain words from the materials they are using. Instruction concentrates on skills the reader can use to assimilate words into his vocabulary. Students are given exercises in using etymological clues and context clues to derive word meanings. A low level of awareness about the information to be gained from the dictionary suggested a need for assignments designed to clarify such things as abbreviations, labels, preferred pronunciation and spelling, cross references, and run on entries; therefore some time is devoted to studying the uses of the dictionary. Experience has shown that it is preferable to distribute vocabulary instruction over the entire course rather than devote a unit to it.

Critical reading is the central feature of the course. Because our students live in an age when the great ideas of Western man are trivialized by using them to sell tin cans, when minds are incessantly bombarded by economic and political propaganda, when popular sources of information present mostly ready-made opinion disguised as news, when man does not seem sure of what he is and where he is going, we seem to be in desperate need of readers who can not only dig beneath the surface of language to check for a basis in fact but also grasp the fundamental insights of writers,
who through astute observation and clear thought, have something to tell us about human values. Instruction in critical reading is an attempt to develop attitudes and skills which apply to both kinds of reading.

Students begin by studying the nature of connotative language in order to learn how to determine what is subtly suggested by the use of a word, because this is often more important than the literal meaning. Selections from current magazines are read and discussed in class to demonstrate the effects of connotative language in causing readers to associate favorable or unfavorable images with the particular topic or person. Literary selections whose meanings depend upon the images the words are able to arouse in the reader's mind are also read and discussed.

Diction clues to the attitude of the author toward his topic and the reader are studied in much the same manner as connotation. One objective is to make students sensitive to situations in which the author makes his point by the way he says something rather than by relying upon the literal meaning of the words. Another objective is to show how an author's diction often reveals the absence of fact and thought.

The processes of inductive and deductive reasoning are examined to determine what makes conclusions sound or unsound. Students also learn about some common fallacies in reasoning. Reading activities provide experience in recognizing propaganda devices as well as in identifying and testing both stated and implied conclusions in their contextual settings.

Finally, students learn to identify and interpret elements and devices, in addition to connotation and diction, which set the tone of a selection, and therefore, determine the author's attitude toward his topic and his readers. Among these elements are metaphors, irony, symbols, and allusions. Tone is an intrinsic part of reading and literature of imagination. The literature of imagination is not fantasy, as at least one student
thought, but the artful expression of profound ideas in such a way that only the reader who is stimulated by the words to construct and associate rich, abundant mental images in quick succession can understand what the author is saying. To develop this skill is one of the purposes for studying tone. Another purpose is to alert the reader to the use of these devices, by persuaders, to stop thought and arouse a purely emotional attitude toward some controversial topic. Selections from current publications and literature are used to practice these skills.

For the purpose of assigning grades, instructors evaluate student achievement in various ways. A seating chart with each space large enough to record significant observations on the student's class work helps us not only to associate names and personalities more quickly, but also provides helpful information for marking. Another device used to judge the quality of the students' work is the informal quiz. Four to six short tests, are given unannounced to check the literate grasp of skills to be learned as well as the ability to apply them in reading. Grades given on a number of written assignments also become part of each students' record. Finally there is an instructor-prepared final objective examination hopefully designed to check the student's grasp of important concepts in the course and his ability to apply them to short selections.

In summary, the ultimate goal of this college developmental reading course is to make students more mature intellectually. It represents an attempt to challenge them to seek and examine ideas and values through selecting, digesting, and articulating content of genuine merit. It is also an attempt to raise techniques of perceiving, analyzing, and evaluating information and ideas, expressed in enormously different ways, to a serviceable level for the individual, so that he has the means to rise to this level of reading behavior. Students learn about these skills and practice their use. Their efforts and achievements are evaluated informally and to a great extent, subjectively. Perhaps no one is more keenly aware of certain desirable improvements than the instructors. but they
feel that student response thus far encourages continued faith in the basic aims and content of the course.

Bibliography


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