



1930

The Optimal Grade Placement of Thirty-Two New Testament Stories

Mary Agnes Garvey
Loyola University Chicago

Follow this and additional works at: https://ecommons.luc.edu/luc_theses



Part of the [Education Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Garvey, Mary Agnes, "The Optimal Grade Placement of Thirty-Two New Testament Stories" (1930).
Master's Theses. 3460.

https://ecommons.luc.edu/luc_theses/3460

This Thesis is brought to you for free and open access by the Theses and Dissertations at Loyola eCommons. It has been accepted for inclusion in Master's Theses by an authorized administrator of Loyola eCommons. For more information, please contact ecommons@luc.edu.



This work is licensed under a [Creative Commons Attribution-Noncommercial-No Derivative Works 3.0 License](#).
Copyright © 1930 Mary Agnes Garvey



3 1831 14390769

THE OPTIMAL GRADE PLACEMENT OF THIRTY-TWO NEW TESTAMENT STORIES

MOTHER MARY AGNES GARVEY

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
MASTER OF ARTS IN
LOYOLA UNIVERSITY

1930



TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER I Comprehension in General.

1. Difficulties of Comprehensions.
2. Causes of Comprehension Difficulties.
3. Method of Adapting Material to Suit Child's Capacity.
4. The General Nature of Comprehension Difficulties.
5. Specific Factors Relating to Comprehension.
6. Suggestions Relating to Improvement in Comprehension.

CHAPTER II Children's Reading Interests.

1. Qualities Which Make A Selection Interesting.
2. Data on the Voluntary Reading of Children.
3. Children's Choice of Poems.
4. Advantages of Interest.
5. Influence of Sex on Choice of Reading Material.

CHAPTER III The Place of Reading in the Curriculum.

1. Relation of Reading to Study.
2. Situations Involving Comprehension of Reading Material.
3. Various Purposes and Uses of Reading.
4. Importance of Skill in Reading Silently.

CHAPTER IV Grade Placement.

1. Comparison of Twelve Graded Book Lists.
2. Wide Range of Difference in Grade Placement of Books and Poems.

CHAPTER V Comprehension of Biblical Stories.

1. Psychological Development of the Child's Mind.
2. Religious Development of the Child.
3. Studies Previously Reported.
4. Various Methods Employed in the Teaching of Religion.

CHAPTER VI Object of the Present Study.

- 1. Description of the Tests.**
- 2. Administration of the Tests.**
- 3. Results of the Tests.**
- 4. Conclusions.**

CHAPTER VII Optimal Placement of Stories.

CHAPTER VIII Graphic Representation of Results.

CHAPTER IX Bibliography.

Introduction

The problem which the author set herself in the present study was to determine the optimal grade placement of the New Testament stories commonly used in parochial schools. The technique used in this experimental study will be found described in Chapter VI. Before proceeding to a description of the experimental work, it has been deemed advisable to survey the general literature bearing upon reading, children's comprehension difficulties, and children's reading interests. This is done in Chapters 2 - 5.

CHAPTER I:COMPREHENSION IN GENERAL.

1. Difficulties of Comprehension.

By comprehension is generally understood the ability to grasp the thought from the printed page. The importance of training children in this thought-getting process can hardly be overestimated, for on their ability to comprehend what they read depends to a large extent their success in other studies. In view of this fact many investigations have been made to discover better and more effective methods of developing skill in the correct interpretation of reading material.

It is a common belief among teachers and educators that failures in High Schools and Colleges are often due to false and inaccurate interpretation of the printed page. Hence the subject of reading becomes a target for general complaint. That we are in need at present of more effective methods of teaching reading is undoubtedly true; for though much has been done in this field, there is a vast amount of untilled soil to be cultivated before we reap the harvest we all so much desire. Apropos of this subject, Horace Mann in his second Annual Report as Secretary of Massachusetts Board of Education, in 1858 wrote as follows:

"I have devoted especial pains to learn with some degree of numerical accuracy, how far the reading in our schools is an exercise of the mind in thinking and feeling, and how far

it is a barren action of the organs of speech upon the atmosphere. My information is derived principally, from the written statements of the school committees of the respective townsgentlemen who are certainly exempt from all temptation to disparage the schools they superintend. The result is, that more than eleven-twelfths of all the children in reading classes in our schools, do not understand the meaning of the words they read; that they do not master the sense of the reading lessons, and that the ideas and feelings intended by the author to be conveyed to, and excited in the reader's mind, still rest in the author's intention, never having yet reached the place of their destination. And by this it is not meant that the scholars do not obtain such a full comprehension of the reading lessons in its various relations and bearings, as a scientific or erudite reader would do, but that they do not acquire a reasonable and practicable understanding of them. It would hardly seem that the combined efforts of all persons engaged could have accomplished more in defeating the true objects of reading" (43;46).

While it is true we have made considerable progress since Horace Mann's day, still we have not yet reached that stage of efficiency that the conditions of the present day demand.

In early colonial days when religion dominated the home and school, the only book they had was the Bible, and the early textbooks used in the schools were primers which contained

numerous selections from the Bible. A few lines from the New England Primer will serve for illustration:

- E Except a man be born again he cannot see the Kingdom of God..
- F Foolishness is bound up in the heart of a child but the rod of correction shall drive it far from him.
- G Grieve not the Holy Spirit.
- H Holiness becomes God's house forever.
- K Keep thy heart with all diligence for out of it are the issues of life.

During the Revolutionary Period the emphasis in reading material shifted from religious to patriotic selections, and the new textbooks contained patriotic selections, and the new textbooks contained patriotic poems and declamations. Now, however, the amount of reading material at hand is tremendous, and the pupil of the present day is required to acquire skill in various reading abilities which a few centuries ago were practically unknown.

It is now commonly believed that there is no general reading ability; rather there are as many reading abilities as there are types of material and kinds of reading attitudes. It has often been found that pupils who rank among the best when reading narrative, are often among the poorest when the subject-matter is science or mathematics. Hence training them to read one type of material well does not insure their reading

all types well, for each type calls for its own particular method of attack. Concerning reading attitudes Parker says:

"Contrast the attitude in reading poetry and in rapidly scanning a newspaper column. In the poetry reading your attitude is likely to include enjoying the lilt and swing of the rhythm, and your reading, consequently, will include careful rhythmic phrasing. In the newspaper scanning your attitude is one of selecting much of the material and actively 'grabbing off' a few ideas or statements. Another example of contrasting attitudes in reading is found in reading the 'funnies' in the newspaper and reading Lincoln's Gettysburg Address. The emotional 'set' of our mind in the case of reading the 'funnies' is such that it shocks us to think of approaching Lincoln's Address with the same attitude" (89).

The fact that pupils are able to read narrative prose and poetry so much better than highly factual material such as is found in textbooks is probably due to the fact that specific training and instruction in reading is usually confined to the reading period, and that narrative prose and poetry are the materials generally read and discussed. Probably too, they read narrative and poetry with the 'mental set' of enjoyment which does not always accompany the reading of other types of material.

As a mental process, reading involves association, judgment, reasoning and retention of ideas; and the degree to which an

individual can reproduce ideas, carry out directions, or utilize the thought of the material in other ways determines his success in other subjects.

2. Causes of Comprehension Difficulties.

Since 1910 a great deal of investigation has been made in the field of reading, and tests and experiments have been devised to discover just what and how much children at different age and grade levels comprehend. That difficulties in comprehension exist is beyond doubt, and these not only in the schools but in the professional world as well. Robert P. Carroll (23) of Teachers College Columbia, in 1926 reported an experimental study of comprehension in reading and he believes that all difficulties in interpreting reading material are traceable to these five factors:

1. Sentences involving slight arithmetical calculations.
2. Prepotent factors in the questions or reading material.
3. Sentences containing conditional clauses,
4. Sentences that are too compact or too involved.

As a result of his findings he concluded that, while ability in reading directions could be improved by specific drill, it had no transfer effect on material of a dissimilar type.

A study by Tauton and Horning (105) in 1928 gives some shocking revelations regarding the comprehension achievements of college students. The Reading-Comprehension Section of the Thorndike Intelligence Examination for High School Graduates was given to 738 college entrants. Out of forty-five thousand

correct answers possible, 20,003 incorrect answers were given and 7256 answers were omitted. After a careful study of their data the authors found that the cause of all these errors could be reduced to the following heads:

1. Inability to grasp the full meaning of the question as stated.
2. Inability to select the best one from among several possible answers.
3. Inability to follow a line of thought through a maze of detail.
4. Failure to grasp from given explanations the significance of concepts essential to the understanding of the concept presented later.
5. Careless answers possibly due to peculiar individual experiences.
6. Irrational answers possibly due to peculiar individual experiences.
7. Impossible answers possibly due to peculiar individual experiences.

Ayer (4) in order to find out the cause of comprehension difficulties made a careful study of twenty-three history textbooks used in the fifth grade. He found the following causes of difficulty:

1. Literary embellishments.
2. Abstract words.
3. Abstract thoughts.

4. Technical language.

5. Long involved sentence structure.

Irion (70) in his study of the comprehension difficulties of ninth-grade pupils found that the important-items affecting comprehension were word knowledge and information relating to the material studied.

In a study reported by McKee (84) the author used the factual versus the story form and found that the fact form of presenting information produced a higher rate of comprehension than did the story form. But Garnett (38) who presented geographical information in both forms to pupils of grades three to six, found that both forms were equally comprehended by the pupils. This apparent inconsistency might possibly be due to:

- (a) Difference of age.
- (b) The specific material used.
- (c) The conditions under which the reading was done.

In this connection mention should be made of an investigation reported by Matthews (83) in 1938. He tested 4,231 children from grades 4 to 12 inclusive to find out what kind of material was best comprehended. He used for his selections, episodes, descriptions, expositions, newspaper articles and various kinds of graphs and charts. His results showed that the episodes were better comprehended than any other type of material.

3. Method of Adapting Material to Suit Child's Capacity.

In February, 1928, George C. Zyte (75) of the University of Michigan reported a series of investigations and experiments which he had undertaken for the purpose of providing reading materials which children of the fourth-grade could understand and enjoy. A book, he decided, that would satisfactorily meet the educational needs of a fourth-grade child should have the following characteristics:

- (a) The content of reading material must consist largely of the suitable and essential subject-matter to be presented in the designated grade.
- (b) The reading difficulty of the material must be in keeping with the level of the reading achievement reached by children in that grade.
- (c) The interest appeal of the material must be developed in a manner that will attract and hold the attention of the children in that grade.

In order to determine what should be the subject-matter of a suitable textbook for California fourth-grade children, Zyte made three investigations. First he consulted the courses of study in sixteen cities and fifty-three counties in California and tabulated their requirements. Then he made a detailed study of seven elementary geographies dealing with California, twelve elementary California histories and historical readers, six books of science and five elementary textbooks on California

agriculture, and tabulated their contents. Lastly he tabulated the material he found in forty-six books on California. The data he obtained from these studies he then summarized.

To find out the interest appeals of children he used two methods. He made selections from geographies to discover children's interests in, and aversions to, social study material. He took paragraphs of varying length, mimeographed them and gave them in pairs to 200 fifth-grade children. One group of children read story X first, then story Y; the other group read story Y first, followed by story X. A sheet of paper was attached to each selection, on which the children were asked to write their reactions to the story. On assembling his data Mr. Kyte found that:

1. Pupils preferred accounts that were developed in detail.
2. They were attracted by presentations in which careful attention was given to the explanations included.
3. Their interests vary vastly from those which adults have guessed them to be.

The author's next step was to provide reading material which would be on a level with the reading ability of fourth-grade children. To secure this, he made selections from a number of geographies and administered them in the form of a reading test to 400 children. When he examined the selections tested he discovered that four of the selections were read and

and understood by seventy-five per cent of the fourth-grade children. All other specimens were either too easy or too difficult. He tabulated the words in the four selections and checked them against the Thorndike list and then used them as a guide in preparing the material for Cubby Bears in California. He then presented the manuscript in mimeographed form to the children and asked them to underscore any word they could not read or understand. These words he replaced by others wherever possible, and he gave explanations for the difficult words he could not eliminate. If all textbook writers followed Kyte's technique in adapting their material to the ability of their pupils, doubtless we should have at every age and grade level a higher degree of comprehension.

As has been stated elsewhere, reading ability varies according to the types of material used. In order to test the validity of this statement a number of Cincinnati teachers (43:190) conducted a series of tests in arithmetic, grammar, civics, geography, narration and poetry. They chose selections which offered no vocabulary difficulties and since they wished to measure comprehension only, they gave no time limit and simply asked questions which would reveal their ability to comprehend the different kinds of subject-matter. Some answers merely required a selection of facts; others called for judgment. When the tests were scored the results showed that the reading of arithmetic was uniformly poor, while the informational

and narrative material was better. The scores in grammar and arithmetic showed the greatest range of ability. From this it seems obvious that differences in comprehension are due to the nature of the material read. Yoakam (125) says that what is sometimes easily comprehended by one pupil may often be found difficult for another. Reading ability, he says, depends upon the reader's experience with the ideas presented and upon the structure of the material which is being read, as well as upon the vocabulary in which it is written. He likewise holds that narrative material is generally easy to comprehend, while factual material is more difficult. This may be due, he says, to lack of practice in reading. Pupils usually score higher on tests like those of Curtis which involve reading of easy narrative or prose material than on those of Monroe which involve reading of a mixed character. Pupils as a general rule find it easier to understand narrative than to interpret a theorem in geometry or solve a problem in arithmetic or merely to follow directions.

It is not an unusual thing to find that many pupils who can give a coherent reproduction of the situations recounted and described in several pages of narrative material are often unable to state the conditions set forth in the three or four lines of an arithmetic problem. Many teachers believe that inability to solve a problem in arithmetic is often due to the fact that the pupil does not understand what he reads - in other words, he does not get the 'story' of the problem.

Within recent years energetic teachers have tried various methods of problem-reading work and the results have been gratifying.

But these methods have not yet been carried on extensively enough to warrant their findings as conclusive.

4. The General Nature of Comprehension Difficulties.

The comprehension difficulties mentioned most frequently by investigators have been summarized by G. A. Yoakam (125:445) as follows:

<u>Nature of Difficulty</u>	<u>Investigator Mentioning</u>				
	Gray	Zirbes	Anderson	Uhl	Gates
1. Too great care in reading	X				X
2. Carrying over directions from one exercise to another					X
3. Reading by words instead of by thought groups			X		
4. Inability to get main thought		X			
5. Inability to get particular details		X			
6. Lack of vocabulary of meanings	X		X		
7. Omission of part of ideas	X		X		

Nature of DifficultyInvestigator Mentioning

	Gray	Zirbes	Anderson and Merton	Uhl	Gates
8. Failure to verify meanings	X				
9. Substitute pupil's thought for author's	X		X		
10. Inability to think logically	X		X		
11. Inability to reproduce			X		
12. Inability to find answer			X		
13. Inadequate attention to content	X				
14. Lack of experience	X				
15. Poor Instruction	X				

Summary

1. Comprehension means the ability to get the thought from the printed page.

2. Some educators believe that careful training in accurate interpretation of reading material will greatly lessen the number of failures in high schools and colleges.

3. The factors which generally make the interpretation of reading material difficult are:

- (a) Sentences involving slight mathematical calculations.

- (b) Prepotent factors in the questions or reading material.
- (c) Sentences containing conditional clauses.
- (d) Sentences that are too compact or too involved.
- (e) Material containing ideas that are not clearly stated but implied.

4. Causes of error in reading are sometimes due to literary embellishments, abstract words, abstract thoughts, technical language, long involved sentence structure, lack of word knowledge, lack of information relating to the material studied.

5. Reading material should consist of selections that are within the comprehension of the children for whom they are intended.

6. Children's reading ability varies with the type of material used.

7. Reading ability depends upon the reader's experience with the ideas presented.

5. Specific Factors Relating to Comprehension.

In recent surveys it has been found that there are wide differences in comprehension among the various schools. This it is believed, may be due to one or several of the following causes:

1. Difference of emphasis in teaching. William S. Gray in his survey of the St. Louis Schools says:

"In connection with the Cleveland Survey it was shown that

the formal aspects of reading were given great emphasis while the thought side received relatively less emphasis. It will be shown in the further discussion of the St. Louis results that St. Louis not only emphasizes the formal aspects of reading but in addition devotes a relatively large amount of attention to the thoughtful mastery of the printed page" (57:100).

2. The Amount Read. In a study made by Hunt (68) it was found that the extensive readers scored higher not only in rate but also in comprehension on the Monroe Silent Reading Test. In another study including three seventh-grade classes, Hunt used both the Otis Group Intelligence Test and the Monroe Silent Reading Test. Here again the scores in comprehension for the extensive readers were relatively higher than the scores for the non-readers. In view of the results of these two tests the amount of reading done apparently affected the achievement of the pupils in comprehension.

3. Nationality. In a survey made in Newark, N. J. (58:102) in which the Monroe Silent Reading Test was used, it was found that American children ranked highest, Hebrew children second, and Italian children lowest. Again in the St. Louis survey (57) foreign-speaking children were found to score lower than English-speaking children.

4. Sex. The results of the various studies made in general, seem to indicate that boys score higher in comprehension than girls (58).

5. Race. In the survey of the Memphis School System (58:101) it was found that on the Monroe Silent Reading Tests the white children scored higher than the colored children in every grade except the third and fifth.

In the Virginia State Survey (58) the white children were found to be a year and a half beyond the colored children in achievement.

In a Chicago school (58) where three types of children are represented, namely, white children who had been reared in Chicago, colored children who had been reared in Chicago and colored children reared in the South - a study of comprehension scores was made. The results showed very little difference in achievement in comprehension between the white and colored groups reared in Chicago, which fact seems to indicate that comparisons between races are complicated by factors other than race differences.

In a survey of the literature concerning silent reading Hilliard (66) discovered twelve possible factors affecting comprehension:

1. Low general intelligence.
2. Insufficient vocabulary.
3. Faulty rate of reading.
4. Inability to reproduce material read.
5. Lip-movements and articulation.

6. Lack of organization ability.
7. Poor environment.
8. Too little reading practice.
9. Poor school attendance.
10. Small recognition span.
11. Lack of motivation.
12. Inability to reason.

In a study of the first six factors it was found that there was positive correlation between comprehension and each of the factors.

Every phase of the study of reading seems to indicate that intelligence and an adequate vocabulary are important factors in comprehension.

Gates (39) made a study of the correlation between achievement on two vocabulary tests and achievement on five comprehension tests. The correlation ranged from .32 to .65 except in the case of the Brown reading test, which has been criticized as a valid measure of achievement in comprehension. Although Gates' groups were small, a fact which renders his correlations less reliable, his results clearly support the general conclusions of Hilliard (66) concerning the positive relation between comprehension and vocabulary.

Obviously the general intelligence of pupils and their mastery of a meaning vocabulary are closely related to progress in comprehension. Specific drilling on the following factors has been found effective in improving comprehension:

1. Daily reading for accurate reproduction.
2. Increasing the amount read.
3. Training in increasing the meaning vocabulary.
4. Selecting central thoughts in paragraphs and organizing them in logical sequence.
5. Training in retaining and reproducing important points read.

Summary

In general we may say that differences in comprehension among schools may be due to one or more of the following causes: Difference of emphasis, difference in the amount of reading done, nationality, sex, race. Factors that affect comprehension are: low intelligence, poor vocabulary, faulty rate of reading, inability to reproduce material read, lip-movements and articulation, lack of organization ability, poor environment, too little reading practice, small recognition span, lack of motivation and inability to reason. There is evidence of positive correlation between these factors and comprehension. Specific drill improves comprehension.

6. Suggestions Relating to Improvement in Comprehension.

In the Eighteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, we find the following valuable suggestions for improving comprehension (38:41):

"Knowledge, while reading, that material is to be reproduced improves the quality of the reading. Peterson found that the attitude which accompanied the reading had a direct effect

on both immediate and delayed reproductions of a list of words. In one section immediate reproduction with determination was 14.8 per cent better than without determination and delayed reproduction with determination was 48.4 per cent better than without determination. In a second section the results were still more favorable to the plan of determination. Peterson (35:41) attributes the superiority of the active attitude with determination to better association as well as to more effort.

Ability to reason and to make judgments concerning what is read are essential in effective silent reading. Thorndike (103) reaches the following conclusions after a careful analytical study of the errors which pupils make in answering questions about what they have read: 'In school practice it appears likely that exercises in silent reading to find the answers to given questions or to give a summary of the matter read, or to list the questions which it answers should in large measure replace oral reading. The vice of the poor reader is to say the words to himself without actively making judgments concerning what they reveal.'

Emphasis of the elements on which meaning depends improves comprehension. Gray (49) conducted a training experiment with two subjects--one a fourth-grade boy and the other a sixth-grade boy. Both subjects had shown in the oral and silent reading tests that they were not efficient in comprehension. 'The training here consisted in reading selections carefully with a

view to emphasizing those elements on which the meaning depended. Such matters were discussed as topic sentences, relational words, effect of different types of modifying phrases etc.' On the basis of the records made by the subjects before and after training, Gray concluded: 'Training in comprehension increases the rate of reading. A gain in comprehension is made in two tests by one subject and in all tests by No. 27.' The negative results in the latter are attributed by Gray to the adverse attitude of the subject.

Judd (72) reports improvement as a result of training by the following method and devices. 'For special training paragraphs or selections dealing with topics of particular interest to the pupil were used. The selections used at first were those predominantly narrative in character, later the informational type was used extensively. Interest in the story strongly motivated the reading. Silent reading was followed by oral or written reproduction. When the oral reproductions were inadequate, questions were asked and the pupil if unable to answer, re-read the paragraph. After a chapter had been studied in this way, a résumé was made of the main points.

Rapid readers usually read more effectively than slow readers. Quantz (35:43) found that the rapid readers were on the average about thirty-seven per cent superior to the slow readers in the quality of their work. 'The superiority of the

rapid reader is also shown by the fact that his memory of the substance of his reading is more exact than that of the slow reader. He introduces only two thirds as many thoughts not found in the original selection.' Waldo (35:43) after plotting the correlation between speed and comprehension for several grades remarks: 'No definite results can be stated, though it would seem that the rapid readers are usually strong in comprehension although there are many exceptions.'

Hendricks (60) shows distinct positive correlation between speed and the quality of silent reading. 'In the percentage of thought reproduced the rapid readers excel, giving 91 per cent of the thought as compared with 76 per cent reproduced by the slow readers.'

For a given pupil the comprehension of what is read decreases as the rate of reading increases above his normal rate. Whipple, Curtis and Peters (35:43) concluded from data which they secured that quality of reading is frequently sacrificed if a given subject increases his rate too much above his normal rate of reading. The natural conclusion from these facts is that comprehension should always be emphasized in exercises which are designed to increase the rate of reading. Pupils should not be urged to read more rapidly than they can read effectively. It is appropriate on the other hand, to urge pupils to read at their maximal effective rate."

As a rule it is generally found that ability to interpret

simple passages accurately increases rapidly in the lower grades and may reach a very high level by the end of the third grade. In fact, it is believed by some educators that it is possible for every pupil practically, to secure a comprehension index of approximately 100 by the end of the third grade. In any event, it seems advisable to train pupils from the very beginning to associate meaning to the passages which they read, otherwise they develop habits of thoughtless reading which are hard to uproot once they have become permanently established.

Economy in education demands therefore, that effective habits of silent reading be acquired as early as possible in the school life of the child.

Summary.

1. The quality of reading is influenced by the reader's attitude.
2. Reading with a view to emphasizing those elements on which the meaning depends improves comprehension.
3. Rapid readers usually make higher scores in comprehension than slow readers.
4. Comprehension may be improved by specific drill.
5. Effective habits of silent reading should be acquired as early as possible in the school life of a child.

CHAPTER II.

CHILDREN'S READING INTERESTS.

1. Qualities Which Make A Selection Interesting to Children.

While the present problem is not directly concerned with the subject of 'interest' as such, yet because children usually read books of a difficulty near their own reading level, it may be of advantage to give it some consideration here.

Willis L. Uhl (107:121) says: "The practical value of discovering children's interests in reading selections lies chiefly in the application of a knowledge of those interests to the choice and organization of subject-matter." He also believes that economical teaching always takes account of the inclinations of the learner and that in reading and literature the inclinations of the learner can be utilized to great advantage.

An interesting investigation of children's interests in reading was reported by Miss F. W. Dunn in 1921 (33). She conducted this experiment in the belief that "it is essential that education be so organized as to utilize existing interests and develop those that are potential. "For this purpose she made a careful analysis of primary reading material and chose thirty-one representative selections from primary readers. These selections she classified according to the following elemental qualities: child characters, adult characters, boy the central figure, girl the central figure, realistic, historical,

geographical, fairy story, myth, folk story, fables and fanciful.

She then arranged the samples in pairs in such a way that qualities of likeness and difference existed between them and presented them to the children of the first, second and third grades. When the thirty-one selections had been read and voted on by the children, Miss Dunn assembled her data and found that the elements of surprise and plot aroused the greatest interest in both boys and girls. Animal life was the element that ranked next in interest for boys, while child life and familiar experience ranked next for girls. They also showed considerable interest in repetition and conversation.

Uhl (107) gives the following list of terms used by teachers to designate the qualities which make a selection interesting to children:

Group I

Qualities Which Make a Selection Intrinsically Interesting.

Interesting Action	Heroism
Interesting Characters	Romance
Interesting Problems	Knighthood
Interesting Information	Kindness
Interesting Repetition	Nature
Humor	Dramatization
Home Life	Personification
Child Life	About Animals or Animal Play
Character Study	Fairy Element or Supernatural
Dramatic Action (exciting)	Festival Element

Group II

Qualities Commonly Mentioned in Connection With Desirable

Results of Teaching

Morality	Stimulation of Thought
Patriotism	Cultivation of Expression
Cultivation of Imagination	Enlargement of Vocabulary

Group III

Qualities Which Are Dependent Upon Literary Style.

Well Told	Diction Easy
Rhyme	Content Easy
Rhythm	Variety

Familiar Subject-Matter

Generally we find that in the early grades stories of animals are favorites and that dramatization has an important place throughout the grades. Interest in fairy tales evidently does not end with the intermediate grades, since a high percentage of pupils in the grammar grades show interest in such stories as Aladdin And His Wonderful Lamp.

2. Data on the Voluntary Reading of Children.

A recent investigation of children's interests was reported in March, 1928 by Thomas J. Lancaster (77) of the Illinois State Normal University. He wanted to find out what kind of books children read of their own free choice, why they read these particular books and where they got them. He obtained responses from 1323 children and from the data thus obtained drew the following conclusions:

- "1. Ninety-eight per cent of the books read voluntarily by children in grades four to eight are prose. Girls read more poetry than boys.
- "2. Girls in these grades do a larger amount of reading (voluntary) than do boys.
- "3. The books read are usually general fiction. These are supplanted by a small number of books of animal fiction, fairy tales and fables and occasionally poetry or short stories.
- "4. Children's tastes in Literature may be satisfied by reputable books by reputable authors.
- "5. Any given book is likely to be popular in a certain school grade. While books may be graded objectively with a high degree of accuracy, they should be made available to children above and below the grade in which they are placed if they are to have the greatest possible value.
- "6. About five per cent of the voluntary reading material of children is borrowed from some source other than a library. Such book as Tom Swift and Huth Fielding Series are numerous in this five per cent. The literary merit of such books is open to serious question. School and Library should co-operate to discover which children borrow such books and having identified them make every effort to substitute reading material of unquestioned merit.
- "7. The appearance of such titles as Don Sturdy on the Desert of Mystery in the list of books presented as gifts to

children, indicates the need of acquainting adults with ~~the~~ excellent graded book lists now available. This might well be done through parent-teacher organizations and through the distribution of printed and mimeographed material calling parents' attention to such lists and offering them for use in selecting gift books.

- "8. Books bought by children themselves or received as Christmas gifts are rated higher by them in their expressions of interest than are books obtained from a library, borrowed or obtained from home.
- "9. Children find it difficult to tell why they choose the books they do. The data indicate that books are most often chosen because the titles appeal to children. Interest in the pictures and in the authors also rank high among the reasons for choice.
- "10. Girls select books on an author basis more frequently than do boys.
- "11. Girls select serious books more frequently than do boys.
- "12. Animal fiction, Indian stories, war stories, and stories of outdoor sports appeal much more strongly to boys than to girls.
- "13. The motion picture show appears to be a minor influence in children's reading.
- "14. The chances are more than nine to one that a book chosen on an author basis will be rated "fine" by the reader; the chance of such rating is about seven to three if the book is sel-

ected on a title basis; about even if the book is chosen because of interest in the pictures. These facts should enable teachers to give effective guidance to children in the selection of satisfactory books.

- "15. Approximately one book in eight begun by children is unfinished; there are probably three primary reasons for this: 1. An undue effort to keep library records straight. 2. Choice of a book too difficult for a child. 3. The child's inability to read fast enough to finish it in a reasonable time.
- "16. Seventh and eighth grade children complete a larger percentage of the books they begin than do children in the lower grades. Girls finish a larger percentage of the books they begin than do boys.
- "17. In only about four cases in one thousand does a child finish a book that he rates "no good." If library rules force a child who has a book he dislikes to keep it for several days, valuable reading time is thus lost. Some device should be set in operation whereby unsatisfactory books may be promptly returned and exchanged for others.
- "18. The most rapid readers and the slowest readers apparently select the same type of books. The same titles frequently appear in the list of books re-read by the two groups. There is practically no repetition of titles in the two lists of unfinished books. Evidently the literary interests of the two groups are identical, but mechanical difficulties

in many of the interesting books are such that the slow reader becomes discouraged and stops, while the more skillful reader finishes. Books that are re-read by slow readers should be identified in larger numbers and suggested to children who leave many of their books unfinished.

*19. The slowest readers in the grade begin as many books as the most rapid readers. However, the slow readers fail to finish books more than twice as often as do the fastest readers and they seldom read a book a second time. These facts take an added significance when it is pointed out that eighty per cent of the children in the lowest rate group are also in the lowest comprehension group. Thus while the slow reader begins as many books as the fast reader, he more often fails to finish; he comprehends less of what he reads, and he seldom reads a book the second time. The slow reader presents a complex problem in his voluntary reading."

" In a book called Children's Reading by Terman and Lima, the authors treat the subject of children's interests in detail, basing their facts on the psychological development of the child's mind and show in chronological order interest that appeal at different age levels.

3. Children' Choice of Poems.

Another valuable and comprehensive investigation of children's interests was reported in 1926 by Miriam Blanton Huber(67).

She confined her study to the realm of poetry and after consulting expert teachers and carefully analyzing 900 courses of study, she endeavored to find out the most suitable poems for children. She collected for this purpose 573 poems which she had printed in booklet form (one hundred poems in each) and presented them to 50,000 children. The children's choices were recorded and the grade in which each poem was best liked was noted. She summarized her data as follows:

"In reading the poems arranged to children's choices in the different grades it seems possible to detect an evolution of taste in theme and there appears to be a certain unity of interest in a grade. Patriotic poems seem to reach their highest interest in grades lower than was expected and to decrease in interest in higher grades. In grade one, the greatest interests appear to be animals and play; in grade two, many lullabies are liked; in grade three many fairy poems are found to be of interest but they do not reach the highest rank; in grade four humor and nonsense make a high appeal; in grade five, many poems of heroes are found; in grade six, interest divides between home and danger and poems of romance receive recognition; in grade seven, humor takes on an edge of satire and there are fewer hero poems but many bloody encounters and more romance; in grade eight, tragedy and retribution hold the stage; in grade nine, the poems chosen are much more retrospective and the readers appear to be seeking the cause of things. Out of 573

poems used in the experiment, 59 or ten and three tenths per cent of the whole list rank among the upper fifty poems of three or more grades. It appears that outside of this limited body of material of universal appeal, children's tastes in the different grades become sharply differentiated and a poem's chance of success is more secure in a certain grade than in any other."

4. Advantages of Interest.

Recognizing the importance of children's interests in education numerous investigations have been made within the last quarter of a century for the purpose of determining the elements, qualities or factors that make reading material interesting to children. Some of these qualities have been tabulated above and show that children's preferences extend over a wide range of interests. These can be utilized to great advantage and should be considered in the selection and placement of reading material.

It has been the experience of most teachers that better results are obtained from interesting material than from subject-matter that is not interesting, because interesting material produces in the pupil a favorable attitude towards what is being read and increases his desire to get the meaning from the printed page. Since there is such a wide range of interests to choose from it appears quite possible to include some of them at least in the selections we place before children.

Miss Dunn (33) who made a special study of the interest factors in primary reading material in speaking of the content of school reading says: It "should from the earliest years be as broad as young life itself. No field to which a dawning interest points should be arbitrarily excluded, but rather the aim should be to afford a range of material inclusive enough for the development of all wholesome interests that already are active and stimulating enough to wake others into flower."

Only thus, it seems shall we be able to produce that type of exercise called pleasurable activity in reading--on which general culture so much depends.

5. Influence of Sex on Choice of Reading Material.

From the scientific studies of children's interests in reading made by Arthur Melville Jordan in 1921 and again in 1926 we gather some valuable data (71). He found that as a rule boys preferred books and magazines dealing with adventure before anything else. In fact, so great is their preference for this type of material that it forms fifty-eight per cent of all their reading, and this at all stages of development. Adventure he found was chosen by boys more than three times as often as fiction. At every age they show a far greater interest in it than do girls. Jordan found among boys an increase of interest in adventure from the years 9-11 to 12-13; after that he noted a gradual decrease up to the years 18-19.

Girls place adventure second and their interest in it

increases up to the years 14-16; then it decreases. They prefer fiction to all other types of reading, while the boys give fiction second place. There is a decided increase of interest in fiction among both boys and girls from the years 9-19. In the case of both boys and girls little interest was shown in history, biography or poetry, and while humor made rather a strong appeal to boys, it had but slight attraction for girls. Comparing the interests of boys with those of girls Jordan says:

"The interests of boys from ten years and six months to thirteen years and six months take three definite paths: 1. war and scouting; 2. school and sports; 3. adventure of a more peaceful sort in the great out-of-doors. In each case there must be actual heroes. A boy prefers living characters. He will leave history, no matter how well written for a story of historical nature.

There are four kinds of fiction which are of special interest to girls of this age: (1) stories of home life; (2) fairy stories; (3) stories of school life; (4) love stories." Our author (71) also found:

"There are a number of changes in the interests of both boys and girls. The interest in fiction increases rapidly in the case of both boys and girls, in both magazines and books from 9-18 years. Books of juvenile fiction rapidly decline in interest for both boys and girls. The remaining most significant changes of interest in books are, in the case of boys, in ad-

venture an increase in the percentages between the years 9-11 and 12-13 followed by a decrease; and finally the rapid and continued rise of interest in current events from 9 to 18 years. Girls, aside from fiction, show some important changes of interest. Some of these are in the case of books, first a substantial increase from 9-11 to 12-13 in the percentages of adventure chosen; and second, a corresponding rise in interest in poetry from 14-16 to 17-18. In the case of magazines girls show first a rapid decrease of interest in pictures from the 9-11 to 12-13 and also from 14-16 to 17-18; second a small decline of interest in women's arts from 9-18; and finally a most rapid increase of interest in current events from the years 14-16 to 17-18."

Jordan believes that children are influenced in their choice of reading material by certain instinctive forces of which they are not yet aware, and that these instincts take certain directions which are determined more or less by training and education. He holds that the strongest drive among boys (age ten to thirteen years) is possibly love of sensory life for its own sake. Hence their stories must be full of action, with sudden changes and sharp contrasts. Their next powerful drive is rivalry; this is satisfied when their hero gains the mastery over an opponent in war or sports. The fighting instinct also plays an important part in the life of boys. This we find by glancing at the titles of the books which hold their interest--Altsheler, Tomlinson, Henty etc. Then comes the gregarious

instinct. The hero must have friends; he must be with his team etc. Our author (71) summarizes the chief satisfiers of boys of this age as follows:

"Physical strength and aptitude; self-control particularly in critical situations; independence based on actuality; making a team at the expense of an unjust rival; saving a person's life; gaining the mastery in physical combat when the opponent is despicable; being loyal; going somewhere; having new experiences of almost any kind; gaining the plaudits of his fellows; being honest; straightforward, open trustworthy; winning admiration even of an enemy in these things."

With girls from ten to thirteen years of age we find the fighting instinct and the maternal instinct as it were, combined. This is manifested by their choice of such books as Little Women, Hans Brinker, The High Valley etc. Instead of sharp contrasts and sudden changes, the girls prefer to have the action rather slow. In Anne of Green Gables the heroine sits down and dreams of cherry and apple blossoms. The "longing for fellowship with others of like nature" is made evident by the choice of such stories as Rebecca of Sunnybrook Farm. Interest in the sort of clothes they wear and the instinct of shyness manifest themselves in many ways with girls of this age., while in their fondness of Rebecca of Sunnybrook Farm and Hans Brinker we trace the instinct of rivalry; in the former for the good opinion of her teacher, in the latter, the desire to win the skating race.

As a general rule the emotions play a much larger part with girls than with boys and the girls express themselves more frequently. According to Jordan the stories which make the greatest appeal to girls of this age are those which portray kindness to others, especially those who are in distress; to wear beautifully-tailored clothes; to hold her position socially as high as any one; in being honorable and possessing a clean mind; in unselfishness; in being useful in the home; in playing pranks at schools; in being honest at school; in being loved and admired for one's self; in protecting those weaker; in having things happen, in being open and not deceitful; in getting a box from home; in having a feast till late hours and in telling stories; in success in dramatics; in going to a city if raised in the country."

Summary.

1. Interest plays an important part in successful reading.
2. Children's interests should be utilized in the selection of reading material.
3. Elemental qualities which render selections interesting to children are: interesting action; interesting characters; interesting problems; interesting information; interesting repetition; humor; heroism; romance; knighthood; kindness; home life; child life; dramatization; about animals or animal play; fairy element; supernatural element; festive element.
4. Children's tastes in reading change from grade to

grade and there appears to be a certain evolution of taste in theme.

5. Children's interest are in important consideration in the selection and placement of reading material.

6. Interesting material brings better results than uninteresting material.

7. Boys' interests differ from those of girls.

CHAPTER IIITHE PLACE OF READING IN THE CURRICULUM.1. The Relation of Reading to Study.

Some writers make a distinction between reading and the mental activity that we call study. Yoakem (125) calls reading the tool and servant of thought and says that reading may or may not constitute the major activity of study. C. T. Gray (125;116) discussing reading and study says:

"Study usually involves several readings and more or less reflection on the part of the pupil. Reading is more superficial and the elements of reflection are not so pronounced. Brown holds that reading and study are synonymous. It seems more consistent to think of reading as fundamental to study, and to think of study as being made up of several readings or of re-reading plus something else."

Wheat argues for a distinction between reading and study. He says: "The distinction between reading and study needs to be kept in mind. Pupils will study--and it is important that they should study--material that is neither easy, rapid, nor immediately interesting. This is in perfect accord with the demands of certain subjects that are to be learned and does not disagree in any way with the requirements for the development of more and more effective habits of concentrated application to the work of the school. But reading is not study. Reading is getting the meaning easily and rapidly from the printed page,

and the content of the material must appeal to immediate interests. Reading is mechanically easy, and both easy and rapid because of the presence in the reading material of interesting and appealing content."

Lyman looks at the relationship in a somewhat different fashion: "Throughout the discussion the activities of reading, of thinking, and of studying are considered as three aspects of the one process by which we learn to use materials which we find in printed form. All are activities of the mind. We read serious books to get ideas; we think about them to see what these ideas mean; we study ideas and their meanings, endeavoring to make them our permanent possessions and to get ready to use them in problems of our own. Of course there are certain kinds of studying not based on reading" (125:117).

That there is however, a close relationship between reading and study seems undeniable, though most writers are of opinion that in study different kinds of reading are involved. These are:

(1) Observational reading, when the student tries to get the author's ideas without entering deeply into the thinking process.

(2) Assimilative reading, when the student tries to understand the author with a view to using his ideas in his own future thinking.

(3) Analytical reading, when the student assumes a

critical attitude and challenges every statement made by the^{40.} author. He weighs the material to see of what value it is, whether or not it is true, and what its purpose is.

(4) Recreatory reading, which can hardly be called study.

2. Situations Involving Comprehension of Reading Material.

Inasmuch as reading is one of the principle activities involved in study, obviously, pupils who are poor readers will also be poor in study, that involves reading. In the so-called analytical and assimilative reading they will be seriously handicapped. Hence for the improvement of study habits and the eradication of study difficulties most authorities in this field suggest training in the development of reading skills. At the present day great emphasis is being placed on the teaching of silent reading, and this because there are so many situations in life which involve comprehension of the material read.

"Yoakam (125) gives us the following list of situations:

- "1. When the ideas of a selection are being examined to determine whether they are of use in solving a problem.
- "2. When words are being studied in order to know what their particular meaning is in a particular setting.
- "3. When phrases and sentences are being examined to see what their relation to the context may be.
- "4. When directions are being followed as in doing an experiment in chemistry, drawing a figure in geometry, or making a model in manual training.

- #5. When an article is being read for the purpose of evaluating it rather than for merely committing the expressed ideas or words to memory.
- #6. When titles, paragraph headings and other divisional headings are being evaluated as to their appropriateness in the light of material presented to support them.
- #7. When the object is to experience an emotional reaction from a poem or prose selection, rather than to memorize its contents.
- #8. When comparisons are being made between the accounts of different writers of the same event or of the same fact.
- #9. When narratives are being read for the purpose of enjoyment. (Comprehension of the essentials of the plot is a necessary condition of the enjoyment.)
- #10. When literature is being read for the purpose of appreciating beauties of diction and the use of figurative forms.
- #11. When mathematical problems are to be solved.
- #12. When outlining, summarizing, or other forms of organization are required.
- #13. When the reader is following the directions on an intelligence test, or preparing to work out stated problems in a textbook or outline.
- #14. Wherever pure memorization is not the object of study.

While it is well known that there are two main uses of reading in life, namely, for information and pleasure, Yoakam

(125) gives us a composite list of purposes in reading as listed in four studies

3. Various Purposes and Uses of Reading.

Purpose	Gray	Horn- Mo Broom	Uhl	Yoakam
1. To acquire more effective modes of expression.....	x			
2. To reproduce what has been read..	x			
3. To determine the main outline of a story or article.....	x		x	
4. To enlarge one's vocabulary.....	x		x	
5. To determine central ideas or fundamental principles.....	x			
6. To visualize described details...	x		x	x
7. To determine & organize the principle parts and supporting details in topic, article or book.....	x			
8. To extend the range of one's information by quantitative reading:	x	x		
9. To acquire more effective modes of thinking or reasoning.....	x			
10. To master sentence structure, grammatical forms, etc.....	x			
11. To obtain information for the purpose of making reports or asking intelligent questions.....	x	x	x	
12. To analyze the argument of an address or article into essential parts.....	x			x
13. To increase rate.....	x		x	x
14. To find collateral and illustrative material.....	x			
15. To follow directions, experiment, recipe, etc.....	x	x	x	x
16. To determine the relative importance of different facts.....	x		x	
17. To answer problems or questions.	x	x		
18. To draw valid conclusions.....	x			
19. To review material.....	x		x	
20. To appreciate the significance of each word in concisely expressed statements or principles.	x			
21. To gain a clear comprehension of essential conditions of problems.	x			
22. To reproduce in another language.....	x			

Purpose

Gray:Horn-
Mc Broom

Uhl

Yoakam

Purpose	Gray:Horn- Mc Broom	Uhl	Yoakam
23. To discover new problems.....	x	x	x
24. To determine the basis of state- ments.....	x		x
25. To determine the validity of statements.....	x	x	x
26. To discover the significance of fundamental laws or conditions by correctly interpreting de- scriptions of their applications:	x		
27. To master a particular vocabu- lary.....	x		
28. To find one's way about--signs, road guides maps etc.....	x		
29. To find or verify spelling, mean- ings.....	x		
30. To decide how to act in new cir- cumstances.....	x		
31. To verify a fact or opinion.....		x	
32. To be able to act on what one reads.....	x		
33. To form the basis for a judgment:	x		
34. To understand a situation.....	x		
35. To find out whether material bears on a certain subject.....		x	x
36. To evaluate material.....		x	
37. To outline or take notes.....			x
38. To summarize orally.....			x
39. To make a written summary.....			x
40. To produce verbatim.....			x
41. To browse--just look around.....			x
42. To check correctness of copy- proof reading.....			x
43. To correct grammatical errors...			x
44. To judge appropriateness of form :			x
45. To judge appropriateness of title headings.....	x		x
46. To understand assignments and directions in both school and life.....	x		
47. To increase interest in a given field of study.....	x		

A careful study of these various uses of reading outside the school as well as in it, is of vital importance to teachers

and school administrators and should guide them in determining what kind of reading material should be placed in the different grades.

With these forty-seven purposes in view it is evident that as a mental process reading is very complex; it involves association, judgment, reasoning and retention of ideas. In proportion to the ability of a student in reproducing ideas, answering questions, carrying out directions, drawing pictures, or organizing or utilizing the thought of the material will be his success in other work. For, unless he has been taught to interpret and understand properly the printed page, he is not likely to meet with success in other fields.

Looked at from the proper standpoint, reading takes on a large significance as a process which enables one to continue a life-long education by means of books; it opens up to the child an expanding world and promises the adult a continued pleasure and profit.

In a series of investigations which included conferences with more than nine hundred adults, Gray and others (49) found that some of the most frequently mentioned purposes of reading were the following: to keep informed concerning current events; to secure specific information of value in making plans; to learn more about events or problems of special interest; to secure the opinion of others concerning civic, social, industrial or other problems; to keep in touch with business or profession-

al developments; to secure suggestions concerning efficient methods of doing work; to determine the important items in correspondence, messages and instructions to follow directions; to advance in one's field of work; to broaden one's range of information; to keep the mind stimulated with important things to think about; to develop a broad outlook on life; to secure pleasure during leisure hours; to satisfy curiosity.

Judd and others (49) found on investigation that within recent years there has been a rapid increase in the amount of reading done. Parsons (49) studied the facts for Chicago and found that in 1880 the population was 503,298 and the public library circulation 306,751. In 1920 the population was 2,701,705 and the library circulation was 7,651,928. As compared with 1880 the population had increased at least five times and the library circulation more than twentieth-five times. Such facts show that we are becoming a nation of readers hence the responsibility of teaching pupils to read effectively increases each year.

Parsons (49) made a detailed study through personal conference of the reading habits of adults and found that the amount of reading varied widely in different occupational groups. In the table which follows he shows the number of books read in six months and the average amount of time given daily to the reading of books, newspapers, magazines etc. He also furnishes data showing the influence of education on the number of books

read in six months and on the amount of time given daily to the reading of books, newspapers and magazines.

Comparison of Amounts Read by Different Occupational Groups.

Group	Average Number of books read in six months	Average Number of minutes given to reading daily
Professional.....	26.00	171.8
Clerical.....	4.14	90.7
At. Home.....	3.26	69.0
Managerial.....	2.00	89.7
Commercial.....	1.66	76.4
Trades and Labor.....	1.21	69.6
Public and Personal Service...	.77	36.9
Proprietors.....	.65	72.4
Agricultural.....	.23	No Data

Comparison of Amounts read by Groups of Different Educational Advantages.

Amount of Education	Average Number of books read in six months	Average Number of minutes given to reading daily
Graduate Training.....	35.40	190.2
College Graduate.....	20.47	147.7
Some College Training.....	7.68	116.0
High School Graduate.....	6.14	96.2
Some High School Training.....	2.02	62.6

Amount of Education	Average Number of books read in six months	Average Number of minutes given to reading daily
Eighth Grade Graduate.....	.93	55.0
Less than Eighth Grade.....	.87	55.7
Foreign.....	.85	42.4

While the amount of reading that is done is rapidly increasing, it nevertheless varies in different sections and within different groups as may be seen from the above. For this variation Parsons (49) gives the following causal factors; lack of available reading materials; little or no interest in reading; ignorance of sources and value of different types of reading material and poor reading habits.

2. Situations Involving Comprehension of Reading Material.

We get a good idea of the importance of reading ability when we consider reading in relation to other school subjects. Monroe (49:17) with the aid of 317 seventh and eighth-grade teachers found twelve types of learning in textbook study in which reading was the central activity:

- "1. Comprehension of the material read plus memorization so that it can be reproduced.
- "2. With the text at hand preparation of a summary which contains the central ideas of the assignment studied.
- "3. With the text at hand preparation of an outline which gives the principal points and supporting details arranged to show order of relative importance and relation to each other.
- "4. Obtaining information for the purpose of solving problems or answering questions.

- "5. Extension of one's range of general information by reading widely material directly related to a given subject.
- "6. Discovery of collateral or illustrative material for topics or problems under discussion.
- "7. Enlargement of vocabulary.
- "8. Appreciation of the significance of each word used in a concisely expressed statement or principle.
- "9. A clear comprehension of the essential conditions of a problem which is to be solved.
- "10. Discovery of a new supplementary problem related to the topic being studied.
- "11. Drawing valid conclusions from given data or statements.
- "12. Following directions with accuracy and reasonable speed."

From the above it is evident that teachers face the responsibility of teaching pupils to read effectively in a large number of situations and that scholarship depends on the ability to read supplemented by other qualities such as a high level of intelligence.

4. Importance of Skill in Reading Silently.

With regard to silent reading, Gray (49) furnishes us with some interesting facts. In conferences with more than 900 adults he found that practically all their reading was done silently. Less than five per cent reported that they read aloud only on very infrequent occasions.

Parsons (106) consulted two hundred and eleven adults and

found that of this number 137 reported no use of oral reading. Those who read orally answered as follows: 47 very seldom; 19 seldom; 1 very infrequently; 7 frequently.

Gray (106) emphasizes the importance of silent reading when he gives the following purposes for which children and adults read:

1. To cross streets, to take long journeys, to read signs, railroad folders, maps, road guides etc.
2. To understand assignments and directions in both social and life activities.
3. To work out difficult and complicated problems or experiments; reading manuals of various types, materials on radio, aviation, cook-books, problems in arithmetic or other textbooks and science manuals.
4. To find or verify spelling, pronunciation, meaning, use of words, using the dictionary, encyclopedia and other reference books.
5. To gather materials for fuller understanding or for talking or writing on one's hobby, for assigned papers, for experiments, using all the facilities of the reference library, illustrations, charts, and maps.
6. To inform or convince others; reading aloud minutes, notices, instructions, announcements, resolutions, reports.
7. To know what is going on,; reading news items, comments on events, book and drama reviews; looking over publisher's

lists; tracing quotations or allusions, or tracing or verifying statements to keep one up to the times. In school this is represented by many assignments in Civics, American problems, international relations, current history, reading of bulletins etc.

8. To decide how to act in new situations: reading notices, warnings, business offers, advertisements. Pupils realize that they must meet new situations as they grow up.
9. To reach conclusions as to guiding principles, relative values or cause and effect: reading conflicting opinions with regard to school activities, social behavior, politics, business etc.

Typical Situations Which Lead Children and Adults to Reading
of the Recreational Type.

1. To re-live common every-day experiences; enjoying stories of home and school and of one's own village or city, such as Little Women etc.
2. For fun or sheer enjoyment during leisure time: reading jokes, nonsense rhymes, cartoons, familiar essays etc.
3. To enjoy sudden change and sharp contrasts! positive excitement; reading stories of adventure and accounts of travel and peril like Robinson Crusoe, Arabian Knights, Treasure Island etc.
4. To get away from real life: reading romances, pictures of impossible idealism, visiting imaginary scenes.
5. To enjoy ready-made emotional reactions: reading cheap

sentimental verses, lurid and soft romances, etc.

6. To satisfy natural and valuable curiosities about human nature and motives: reading excellent character portrayals in fiction, plays and verse such as Shakespeare's etc.
7. To give pleasure to others: reading aloud as among friends after supper most frequently from materials like those mentioned in 1. 3. and 6.
8. To read aloud parts of plays and dramatic dialogue: for enjoyment in class or as preparation for further dramatization.
9. To satisfy curiosity about animals, strange regions, and times.
10. To enjoy sensory imagery: pictures, odors, feeling sound.

From the above discussions it is evident that reading is intimately related to most school activities and that intelligent reading is indispensable in modern life. In view of these facts, the aims of reading should be broad and should prepare pupils to engage effectively in all school and life activities that involve reading.

Many times, however, when children are tested for their ability to comprehend a certain selection we are at a loss to know whether we should blame them for their low comprehension scores or the author for his poor writing ability. Textbooks are sometimes so abstract and wanting in detail that no child could possibly understand them. While recognizing the teaching value of authentic narrative and incident, one is forced to

admit that some authors use the story as a "mere artificial vehicle for teaching facts." Another common fault is unnecessary elaboration on the part of the author for the purpose of securing style. This always detracts from the comprehension of what is read.

According to Hilliard (66) "the vocabulary of a selection plays a very important part in determining how accurately that selection is comprehended. Only a small proportion of the words in a selection can be unknown without interfering seriously with the comprehension of that selection. By an unknown word is meant not one which the child has not seen in print, but rather one whose meaning he does not know even when the word is spoken to him. When a child comes upon a word he knows when spoken but which he has not seen in print, he will no doubt hesitate; but after the second period of reading instruction he should be able to identify the word from its context and from his ability in phonetic analysis.

Summary.

1. Reading is closely related to study; both are mental activities. There are three different types of reading, namely: observational, assimilative and analytical.

2. There are many situations in life which involve the comprehension of what is read; hence we see the relative importance of reading in the school curriculum. Yoakam (125) gives a composite list of forty-seven purposes for which reading

is used. These forty-seven purpose are listed above.

3. Investigations show that within recent years there has been a rapid increase in the amount of reading done. This varies widely in the different occupational groups. Parsons (49) attributes this variation to three factors: 1. lack of available reading matter; 2. too little interest in reading; 3. ignorance of source and value of different types of reading material and poor reading habits.

4. In conferences with more than nine hundred adults Gray (49) found that fewer than five per cent reported that they read aloud only on very infrequent occasions.

5. Parsons (49) found that 137 out of two hundred and eleven adults reported no use of oral reading.

GRADE PLACEMENT

1. Comparison of Twelve Graded Book Lists.

A few years ago an enlightening study in grade placement was made by Sister Aloysine Raskop, S.Sp.S. and Sister Mary Adelaide Cagnon, S.S.C.M. (2) They took the titles of all the books contained in twelve graded book lists, (2075 books in all,) and merged them alphabetically into a single list. Beside each title they put the grade assigned to the book by each of the different compilers. The lists studied were not all equally comprehensive nor equally extensive as may be seen from the following:

Name of List	Approximate Number of books listed	Grades included in list	Number of pupils tested
Winnetka	700	3-9	36,750
Oak Park	278	easy & 9-2	2000 (H.S.)
Terman & Lima	262	1-8	2000
Illinois	91	9-12	?
Cleveland	473	7-12	none
National Uhl	497	9-12	none
Jordan	158	1-8	25,061
N E A	74	8-11	3,598
Macpherson	106 poems	1-8	?
Huber	57 poems	5	68
Garnett	89 poems	1-8	50,000
	22 prose selections	4	two classes grade 4

From the above we see that the Winnetka list was the most comprehensive, containing seven hundred books, while Miss Garnett's list recorded only twenty-two. In the table which follows, the authors tell us just how these tests were administered and those who co-operated in them. (2)

More Data on Books

Name of List	How Test Was Administered	Co-operation
Winnetka	: 100,000 ballots filled to indicate the degree of like of pupils for any books they had read.	: 800 teachers and 18 expert children librarians, A.L.A. & Muskegan lib.
Oak Park	: Books read and enjoyed by pupils of secondary S'S	: Teachers & Librarians gave opinions.
Terman & Lima	: Children kept records	: Parents, librarians & heads of juvenile departments in bookstores.
Illinois	: Questionnaire sent out to teachers & librarians	: 225 teachers & librarians replied.
Uhl	: Questionnaires sent to teachers who reported on the preferences of 25,061 High School pupils.	: 268 teachers.
Jordan	: Pupils wrote down names of five books & three articles they liked.	: Several libraries.

The Cleveland and National Council Lists were not based on experiments. The NEA, the Macpherson, and the Huber lists were

the result of rather limited experiments on children's tastes for poetry. The Garnett study differed from all the others very materially. Miss Garnett tested two fourth-grade classes on prose selections which were read to them not by them as in all the other classes.

In studying book lists, the authors of this experiment found great variations in the placement of the books. They believe this lack of agreement in grade placement is probably due to one or more of the following causes: 1. The relative stand assumed by each compiler; their subjective or objective attitude; their evident reliance on the view point of children; parents, or teachers--or their disregard of them. 2. Some lists were drawn up for grades 1-12, others for High School, others still for a single grade. 3. Nationality of the testee; locality of the school. 4. Academic standards to which groups of children had been exposed. These things, no doubt, influence children in their choice of books and may in some way account for the deviations in grade placement.

2. Wide Range of Difference in Grade Placement of Books & Poems.

The following table gives us an idea of the lack of agreement among compilers:

Range of Difference in the Placement of Eleven Books. 57.

Name of Books	Lists									Range: Vari- of ation grade of place-place- ment ment	
	Gar.	Win.	O.P.	Term.	Ill.	Clev.	Nat.	Jor.			
Adventure of Nils		6			4			7	10-11	4-11	7
Back of the North Wind		4-6			5				9	4-9	5
Ben Hur		7-9	9-10			10-12	11	9	9-11	7-12	5
Hoosier School Boy		7	9-10			9-12	7			7-12	5
King of Golden River	4	5			5			9		4-9	5
Little Women		7			6	9	7	9	8-11	6-11	5
Prince & Pauper		8	*E		6	9-12	8	9	8	6-12	6
Puck of the Pooks Hill		5	9-10						9-11	5-11	6
Rebecca of Sunnybrook Farm		7				9-12	7	9	8-9	7-12	5
The Spy		7	9-10			10-12		9-10	9-11	7-12	5
Tom Sawyer	4	7	9-10			9-12		9	8-11	4-12	6

* E indicates Easy

The following table shows a much smaller range of difference in the grade placement of poems.

Small Range of Difference in the Grade Placement of Poems.

Name of Poems	Lists			Range of grade placement	Variation of grade placement
	N.E.A.	Macpherson	Huber		
Barbara Frietchie	5	5	4	4-5	1
Boy's Song	3	5		5-5	2
Charge of The Light Brigade	6	5	7	5-7	2
Corn Song	5	5		5-5	0
Flag Goes by:		5	3	3-5	2
Hiawatha's Childhood	2		2	2-2	0
Horatius at The Bridge	6.7		5	5-7	2
Lochinvar		5	6	5-6	1
Lucy Gray	4	5		4-5	1
Owl and Pussy Cat	2		2	2-2	0
Paul Revere's Ride	5	5	5	5-5	0
Table and The Chair		5	4	4-5	1
To a Water-fowl	7		9	7-9	2
Horatius	7		7	7-7	0

In the grade placement of poems as will be seen from the above (2) there is more consistency among compilers than was the case with books.

From the above tables it is obvious that there is sometimes little agreement among educators on the grade placement of children's books. In fact, in the study just referred to there was found an agreement of only two per cent, that is, approximately forty-one books out of the 2075 books listed, were rated alike by the investigators who included them and this per cent becomes less significant when we consider that the agreement occurs almost exclusively for books appearing on two lists only.

In all probability the subjective element which is not easy to eliminate, has some influence in determining the grade placement of children's books.

Summary.

There is a wide range of grade placement in children's books listed by various authors. The reason for this variation may possibly be found among the following: the subjective or objective attitude of the compiler; the relative stand assumed by the compilers, their evident reliance on the view-points of children, parents or teachers or their disregard of them; the nationality of the testee; the locality of the school; the academic standards to which children of various groups have been exposed.

COMPREHENSION OF BIBLICAL STORIES.

1. Psychological Development of the Child's Mind.

While all that we have said hitherto has not had direct bearing on the reading and comprehension of biblical stories, yet in the teaching of religion we find the same psychological development of the child's mind, the same experiences, interests and understanding. Here, perhaps more than in any other field, however, we find a note of general dissatisfaction with present day methods of instruction.

Writing in the Catholic University Bulletin for 1908, Dr. Shields (97) says: "Our schools while contributing their full share to progress in other directions, have made little or no advance in the teaching of the most vital of all subjects. This state of affairs would be deplorable were we to consider both the interests of religion and what its teaching should mean for the moral uplift of our children. But the situation is rendered more grave by the fact that religion, which by its very nature should enter into all the departments of the child's growing mind, is thus, by the archaic methods of teaching employed, needlessly isolated from the other subjects of the curriculum, and by the further fact, that by the methods of teaching employed, Christian Doctrine is rendered distasteful in comparison with the secular subjects. Beautiful illustrations colored pictures, tasteful books, maps, charts, laboratory equipment,--everything, in fact, that appeals to the child's

senses and arouses his native activities--are called into requisition in the teaching of secular subjects, whereas the teaching of religion is still carried on in abstract formulations. In the child's mind, religion in this way comes to be associated with uninteresting memory drills and three-cent catechism."

At different periods of his development the child craves material of various types, and it is important for the teacher to know just at what stage each of these types is most likely to make the strongest appeal. The most sublime truths or the most beautiful stories will not enrich the child's mind if they are presented to him before he is prepared to receive them. To teach the child any lesson, above all a spiritual one, the teacher must establish a point of contact in his own life, and meet him on the plane of his own experiences. The subject-matter should be closely related to the things he knows and is interested in, otherwise he will have no basis on which to comprehend the new matter. Religious truths more than any others will never be comprehended unless they are presented in a psychological way.

In adopting this method we are merely following the example of the Greatest Teacher of all times, Christ, Our Lord. This was His method. To teach the most sublime truths, He used the common things of every day life with which His hearers were familiar and attached to them a spiritual significance that made

a lasting impression. When He wished to appeal to the husbandman, He spoke of the vine and its branches; when He addressed Himself to the fishermen, He spoke of the nets; to the shepherd He spoke of the sheep and the sheepfold; to the lawyer of the law and so forth.

When He wished to instruct His apostles and give them a lesson in humility and simplicity, He called to Himself a little child and stood him in their midst and said: "Amen, I say to you, unless you become converted and become as this little child, you shall not enter into the kingdom of heaven." Instead of giving them a lengthy discourse on the providence of God, He said simply: "Behold the birds of the air, for they neither sow nor do they reap, nor gather into barns and your heavenly Father feedeth them; are not you of much more value than they? Consider the lilies of the field, etc."

From these concrete objects the transition to the abstract truths He was teaching was easily made and each time on subsequent occasions when they beheld these objects the lesson attached to them was quickly recalled. This is but an illustration of that fundamental principle of psychology: "Nihil est in intellectu quod prius non fuerit in sensu."

Recognizing, then, the trend of the child's mind from the psychological view-point, it is well to utilize his interests. As a general rule we find that very young children like their stories peopled with characters from their own little world.

Then follows a period of make-believe, when they look for extraordinary things of a fantastic or supernatural order. After that comes the craving for true stories, and here perhaps more than at any other period of their lives can the Life of Christ in the Gospels be made to influence their hearts and minds. Children love tales of heroes who triumphed over difficulties and performed extraordinary deeds and this desire can be fully satisfied by the story of Christ and His Miracles. The New Testament is full of heroic deeds which need but to be brought to their minds to be fully appreciated. Finally, we notice in the child the desire for high idealism and now the stories of self-control, respect for authority, self-sacrifice and so forth are likely to make their strongest appeal. The Gospel is full of such stories which can be utilized to great advantage at just this particular stage of the child's development.

Reverend J. K. Sharp in his Aims and Methods of Teaching Religion says: "If the teacher is to achieve effectively, she must know somewhat of the child's growth in the acquisition of moral knowledge. She must know too the age levels at which an understanding of the various virtues and vices, prohibitions and precepts manifests itself in children of today." And further on in this same book the author says: "Adaptation of the truth to the child's mind, therefore, and the consequently correct functioning of the child's apperceptive mass is the bridge from the child to God. God adapts Himself to man's limitations by working through secondary causes, using human language, and assuming

human flesh to declare His revelation. Christ in His parables adapts His thought to the mentality of His hearers^{er} and thus preparing their minds goes from the known to the unknown. The Church uses adaptation in the outward sign of the Sacrament's inner grace. The child comes to school with certain mental capacities and attitudes. The truths of religion must be made to fit into this mental setting. To do this the teacher must know and build upon the child's experiences (96)."

Arrangement of subject-matter to suit the needs of the individual is a problem that confronts every curriculum maker for unless there is effective grading time and material are both wasted. There are three important factors to be considered in the making of every curriculum:

- (1) The content of the curriculum.
- (2) The grading of the curriculum.
- (3) The principal characteristics and treatment of child life at those various periods, consideration of which should form the basis of every graded curriculum.

Summary.

1. More effective methods of teaching religion are needed at the present day. In the teaching of religion we find that the child craves material of various types at different periods of his development. The teacher should know just at what period of his development each type makes its strongest appeal.

2. A knowledge of the child's growth in the acquisition of

moral knowledge is necessary for effective teaching in religion. The subject-matter should suit the needs of the individual for without effective grading time and material are wasted.

2. The Religious Development of the Child.

It is a regrettable fact that many of the lessons given in the classroom during the religion period fail to function in the child in after life. This may be due, in part at least, to the fact that the subject-matter of religious instruction has not all been graded to suit the capacity of the child's mind. It is a well-attested fact that the child grows morally very much as he does physically, and the same care that is bestowed on his bodily nourishment should be given to the choice and selection of his mental food. Religious education means training for life and to be effective it should follow the natural development of the child.

To the little child nothing has any meaning unless it touches his own life and so, in our religious instruction if we wish to reach the heart of the child we must bring our subject-matter down to the level of the child's mind. The great St. Paul says, "When I was a child, I spoke as a child, I understood as a child, I thought as a child, but when I became a man, I put away the things of a child."

The world of the child is small. It is made up chiefly of persons and objects that he can see, hear and touch or that have been part of his experiences. Beyond these he has little or no

interest. During the early years of his life he wants only such stories as deal with familiar personages and objects or that reflect an environment with which he is familiar. Psychologists tell us that up to the age of six years we should give the child stories in which the characters are children, animals, parents or personages like those that are part of the child's own life. From six years to nine the child lives in the world of make-believe and then fairy stories and narratives that abound in the supernatural become interesting. It is only during the particular period of development in which the story is appealing that it influences a child to the fullest limit of its possibilities. This is particularly the case in the field of religion.

In the years immediately following the imaginative period, the child becomes a hero-worshiper and true stories and tales of thrilling adventure make a strong appeal. What a store-house of treasures can be found for him at this stage of development in the Life of Christ. Next he begins to idealize and stories of physical bravery give place to stories of spiritual courage. From this time on the child's interests centre round heroic individuals and the story of Saul of Tarsus that fiery zealot in whom the fire of hatred was changed to the fire of charity and such like noble characters are more fascinating than any modern romance.

The religious teacher who recognizes this development of interests in the child and adapts her material to it will find

find her teaching effective. Of Our Lord Himself it was said, "And Jesus advanced in age and wisdom and grace." Into the heart of every child at creation God implants religion and at Baptism germinal virtues are infused into his soul. This is the ready soil that the religious teacher must cultivate and on which or rather in which she must help the child to build up the structure of his religious life. It is because God Himself has planted the seed of religion in the child that we find him manifesting at every age level a love and desire for things spiritual. The story of Our Lord's life and the Lives of the Saints never lose their appeal and the child is never too old or too young to be interested in them.

In the religious nature of every child we recognize three distinct periods: (1) The instinctive or spontaneous period.
(ages 1-4)

(2) The intelligent period. (ages 4-12)

(3) The ethical period (ages 12 to Maturity)

The Instinctive or Spontaneous period. During this period the child's native tendencies and impulses are predominant. He has not yet become self-conscious and intelligence is present only in a very limited sense. At this time he is greatly influenced by his religious surroundings and all efforts at religious training during this period should be through the senses. Christ used this method of sense appeal when He said, "Show Me the coin of the tribute"; "Consider the lilies of the

field" etc. In the parables He appealed to the imagination chiefly, and He likened the kingdom of heaven to all sorts of things with which His hearers were familiar--a banquet--a mustard seed--a householder--a father etc. The Church too uses this method of sense appeal and in her liturgy makes use of light, color, music, song, incense, everything in fact that appeals to the senses. In religious instruction it is well then to use the senses as channels for the communication of religious truths.

The Intelligent Period. It is during this period that the child becomes a self-conscious being. He now remembers experiences of his own. Reason, intelligence and will are dawning factors in the child's life at this time and he begins to manifest crude notions of spiritual things. He is now capable of receiving broad general views of God's presence, the meaning of prayer, worship, service, etc. This is the time in the child's development when the picture and the story exert a strong influence and both can now be utilized to great advantage in the religious programme.

The Ethical Period begins about the age of ten or twelve and during this time we observe in the child radical changes in both body and mind. New devices must be found to train the new activities and powers of the child who is now a fully conscious, reasonable and personally responsible being. He has well-defined notions now of right and wrong and things spiritual become

more appealing. Fully equipped with all the natural capacities that have to do with religious life and character, he becomes personally responsible for his own religious life and character.

Summary

The religious life of a child keeps pace with his general physical and mental growth. Religious instruction to be effective should follow the natural development of the child's mind, in which there is generally recognized a certain psychological development of interests. At first the little child wants tales of familiar personages and objects; then he enters the world of make-believe and delights in stories whose characters are fantastic or in which events occur that are possible only through the work of supernatural forces. Then there comes the craving for true stories, tales of heroes, of youth and manhood on the path of adventure, triumphing through physical bravery. Finally there comes a period in which stories of high idealism are desired; those in which spiritual bravery more than physical power is the moving force, or in which physical prowess is the means to a realization of a high ideal. The stories especially needed now are those which tend to foster respect for established laws and accepted principles; that emphasize self-control and that teach the higher meaning of love and service.

3. Studies Previously Reported.

Within recent years scientific work has been done in the field of religious education. Several years ago, Sister Mary

I.H.M. (81) reported an interesting study she had made of the moral development of children, and from her data we gather some valuable information. She devised a scale of moral knowledge by which she endeavored to measure the "keenness of the child's sense of right and wrong." She was particularly interested in youthful delinquency and wanted to find out if this was caused by ignorance, moral defectiveness or pure contempt of law. She found that "children grow morally very much as they do physically and mentally; that the child's growth may be accelerated or retarded depending on his moral diet; that he develops normally an appetite for certain moral concepts at a definite age after which the desire passes away; that this concept of a certain moral idea grows gradually; that once the ability to solve a moral problem is developed, it is a power that may be used at any future time."

In the moral concepts of children Sister Mary recognized three distinct stages of development; first, duty to God; second, duty to self and one's neighbor; third, duty to social groups. She found that as early as the age of six children had well-defined notions of their duty to God. With regard to their duty to self and one's neighbor, she found that "obedience is the first ideal of conduct to fix itself in the mind of the child; truth is an ideal that has marked stages of development. Truth is very apt to be sacrificed by very young children if they are forced to choose between it and another concept, e.g. charity. A regard for the sacredness of private property is

early implanted in the normal child. Generosity, honor, unselfishness, gratitude, courtesy, are traits of which the child is aware in this period, although they do not have apparently, a dominating influence."

In summarizing the third stage of the moral development of children Sister Mary says:

"Altruistic ideals develop early in the average child. Children need concrete instruction on definite social and civic problems, especially those of a type which call forth emotional resonance in the solution." And she concludes this valuable piece of research as follows:

"Moral knowledge is a matter of progressive growth through the years of childhood adolescence to maturity, following the normal learning curve. All do not begin at the same time, develop with the same speed, nor disappear at the same age. Some principles, notably religious duties and obedience begin at the earliest ages and are very pronounced even in the adult period. Others, as duty to school, following one's vocation and personal purity, seem to be short-lived, begin late, reach the maximum within two or three years after their first appearance, and then disappear" (81).

Dr. Shields (97), one of the great pioneers in the field of religious education, holds that to be effective, "Religion must be taught by the same general methods as the other branches of knowledge. There is one brain and one mind in the child and the

laws governing the operations of the mind are fundamentally the same, whatever be the content of the knowledge. If religion is taught by one method and other subjects by another, religion is not apt to influence the thoughts, feelings and actions of the individual; it is out of place, becomes artificial, and produces no lasting beneficial effects. The child's mind is not developed and agile enough to adapt itself to these radical changes of teaching methods. Dr. Shields makes the child the centre of the educator's attention. The teacher must watch the steps in the child's unfolding nature and natural expression and adjust his method to it. He must not be a master, but a servant, patiently ministering to nature in order to make it yield the desired results. He must supply food to the mind in much the same way as he would supply food to the body. The subject-matter and the method of presentation must be planned and adapted to the child's developing mind. The teacher must know how to aid the mind in its growth in knowledge. He must not consider his task as that of imparting knowledge, or "storing the child's mind with knowledge" as if his own mind were a reservoir whence he was drawing knowledge by bits and packing it into the child's mind."

The general complaint of the present day that methods of teaching religion are not as effective as they should be is possibly not without some foundation. Most of us are forced to admit that the religious instruction given in the classroom does not carry over into the child's life at home, in the company of

others, on the play ground, on the street in later life etc.

This is the big problem which is causing serious thought among present-day educators. The successful teaching of any subject depends to a great extent on the fitness of the selections for the grades in which they are placed; might we not then be inclined to think that perhaps due consideration has not been given always to the choice and placement of the subject-matter of our religious instruction? Though this problem is still unsolved, careful students are making investigations and the fact that such books as Aims and Methods in Teaching Religion by J. K. Sharp, Practical Aids for Catholic Teachers by Sr. Kirsch Aurelia, Religion Teaching Plans by the Franciscan Sisters of Christian Charity, Religion Books by P. C. Yorke and Catechetical Methods by Rudolph G. Bandas, have lately made their appearance, shows that splendid work is being done in the field of religious education.

In 1924-1925 Samuel P. Franklin (37) contributed an interesting piece of research. In order to measure the comprehension difficulty of the Parables and Precepts of Our Lord he selected eighteen parables and eight precepts. These he combined in tests and administered them to approximately 800 children from grades four to twelve inclusive, from the public schools of Pennville, Redkey, Farmland and Parker, Indiana. In presenting his data he showed the influence of three factors on the comprehension of pupils: sex, mental age and religious training, and these he reported in interesting tables and graphs.

He then made a second attempt to measure the comprehension difficulty by revising Part V. of his former test which seemed to offer greater difficulty than any of the other parts, and added seven additional precepts to the first test. In the revised test he made four statements instead of three, after each precept and eliminated some of the statements made in the former tests. This final form of the new tests was then administered to 128 public school pupils ranging from grades five to eight. Because he knew of no existing course of religious instruction which graded its material according to comprehension difficulty Franklin hoped his study might stimulate action in this direction. The data he thus obtained led him to draw the following conclusions:

"1. A review of the literature of religious education curriculum reveals that very few attempts have been made to determine the comprehension difficulty of subject-matter from a scientific view-point. Materials have been placed at the various ages in different courses of study for religious education with little or no evidence that the placing has experimental justification.

"2. We have been able to establish the fact that a trustworthy device for the measure of comprehension difficulty can be constructed. With the correlation coefficient between mental age and comprehension standing at about .78 with a probable error of .01 and the correlation between two methods of measure of

comprehension of the same sayings and parables being .61 with a probable error of .08 and with the correlations between the like responses of adjacent ages running at about .8 it is evident that the test here presented is reasonably reliable.

"3. Children between the mental ages 8-16 can respond successfully to triple and quadruple choice methods of testing while multiple-pairing as in Part V is clearly beyond their ability.

"4. In so far as comprehension difficulty alone is a guide to ability, there is a danger in using the sayings and parables at too early an age. There is a low score on comprehension ability during the earliest years through which the test was run. At age eight it is only forty-three per cent but rises rapidly to ninety-four per cent at the age of 16.

"5. Contrary to what might have been expected the precepts prove more difficult of understanding at all mental ages than do the parables.

"6. This study furnishes a basis for arranging the precepts in a religious educational curriculum in the order of comparative ascending difficulty and of placing them at the earliest possible point of fairly high comprehensibility.

"7. Concrete material is understood about two or more years earlier than is that of a more abstract nature. The parable of the Good Samaritan is understood more than ^{n five} years earlier than is the parable of the Sower.

"8. There is little improvement in comprehension between the years 8-11 and between 13 and 16. The period of greatest increase is between the years 11 and 13. This fact furnishes an interesting bit of justification for the six-six arrangement of the curriculum and indicates the mental age at which one can stress a little more the subject-matter involving insight and appreciation.

"9. Comprehension is relatively independent of certain environmental factors that are supposed to be important in religious education. Regularity of attendance at Sunday School and Church of both pupils and parents make no difference on the pupil's score. The strange consistence with which the 11-13 increment in comprehension and other aspects of a growth curve repeat themselves in all the different combinations of cases would seem to indicate that the eccentricities of the curve are a function of internal ripening of native ability.

"10. The girls have a small but consistent advantage over the boys in the comprehension test except for the nine, ten and sixteen years. When the scores for the boys and girls are considered separately on the basis of chronological age as against mental age, the marked increment in development for the girls occurs between eleven and twelve and for the boys between twelve and thirteen. It would thus appear that the difference in comprehension of the preadolescent ages of sexes is only about one year. Recurring to the question of the Junior High

School age increment when the sexes are separately considered, the increase during the single year is about one third of the total increase for all the other years."

In view of what has been said, it is clear that the content of religious instruction should be selected with due regard to the comprehension difficulty of the subject-matter. In teaching any subject there are three possible methods of presentation. First there is the logical ordering of the curriculum which considers the adult mind and ignores the child's. Then there is the chronological order which follows a series of cause and effect but does not function in the child's life until later years. Last and decidedly the best, there is the psychological and pedagogical method which considers the various stages in the development of the child and adapts the material to the child's capacity at each different mental level.

Probably the most recent contribution to the field of religious education was made last year by Miss Ellamay Horan. Assuming that principles influence conduct only so far as they are applied to daily living, Miss Horan assembled curriculum material in the form of virtue applications for the different ideals mentioned in the Gospels. Acts that children of different age groups have opportunities to make were collected from over 40,000 boys and girls in Chicago. While Miss Horan's dissertation presents only the raw material, the following quotation is suggestive of the use of such material:

"Teachers of all school groups may use the applications in their instructional programs. The list of acts presented may serve as a specific background for a character education program. The materials presented offer opportunity for the teacher to understand the child and his needs more intimately. They represent as well, a source to which she may refer in planning an even more detailed analysis of character needs of the elementary or high school pupil."

The book, Practices of Charity for Boys and Girls, uses a small section of this material and builds upon it a systematic program for one phase of character education. The enthusiasm over the introduction of this book in many of the parochial schools of Chicago shows an appreciation of its value.

Summary.

Of late years several scientific studies have been reported in the field of religious education. Wishing to know the cause of youthful delinquency Sister Mary, I.H.M. made a study of the moral development of the child. She endeavored by means of a scale which she devised to measure the keenness of the child's sense of right and wrong. Her data showed that moral knowledge is a matter of progressive growth from childhood to maturity.

S. P. Franklin measured the comprehension difficulty of the Parables and Precepts of Our Lord. He found that at all ages the Precepts were more difficult to understand than the Parables,

and that there was little increase in comprehension between the years eight and eleven and between thirteen and sixteen. The period of greatest increase is between eleven and thirteen.

Miss Ellamay Moran, assuming that principles influence conduct only so far as they are applied to daily life, assembled curriculum material in the form of virtue applications for the different ideals mentioned in the Gospels. These she presented in book form for the use of teachers of religion in the elementary and high schools.

4. Various Methods Employed in the Teaching of Religion.

Among the various methods that have been employed in the teaching of religion we find the following:

The Sulpician Method which was devised by the Fathers of St. Sulpice about 1642 and made famous by the efforts of Bishop Dupanloup, of the diocese of Orleans. The method of St. Sulpice aims not only at instructing the child but at touching his heart and making him love God and hate sin. It combines a few exercises which interest the child and attach him to his religion and lays great stress upon the teacher and her training. Besides a verbatim recitation from the catechism it includes an instruction, a reading from the Gospel and a homily. The process takes about two hours and is better adapted to summer vacation schools and catechism classes than to the ordinary religion periods in a parochial school.

The Psychological or Stieglitz or as it is sometimes called,

the Munich Method originated with a group of experienced Catechists in southern Germany. It is based on psychological principles and recognizes the child's steps in the learning process--apprehension, understanding and application. By this method each catechism lesson revolves round a them or unit with related questions and answers. In treating each unit the Munich Method employs the four steps--presentation--explanation--combination--application. Because of the good results this method has brought about, it has gained numerous followers and many revised textbooks of religion are applying the principles of the Munich Method.

The Sower Scheme which is associated with an educational journal of that name, divides the religion curriculum into three periods each of which is a complete survey of the field and the three periods are therefore, concentric. In the first period (five to eight years) the instructions are given chiefly by means of stories, pictures, dramatizations drawings, conversations etc. Prayers and hymns are learned but no catechism text is used. In the second period, (eight to twelve) a textbook or catechism is used. The answers to the questions are first taken from the child's own words and then put into the words of the catechism, then memorized. Stories from Scripture and Church History, prayers and hymns are also included in this period.

In the third period (twelve years and on) the catechism

is no longer used as a textbook but only for reference. In this stage the whole ground of religious doctrine is again covered and the child is given a more advanced teaching concerning the spiritual life, the Sacraments, frequent Communion etc. Blackboards, maps, pictures, charts and other devices are pressed into service and the child is helped in every way to account for the faith that is in him.

Dr. Shields' Method or Primary Methods is based on the principle of correlation and contains some excellent suggestions for the teaching of religion. He believed that each new idea should be grafted on to the previous content of the child's mind and that there should be a continued correlation of religion with the other subjects of the curriculum. He wanted religion to be the animating principle of every precept which the child was taught to obey. He held that the God-given germ idea was not to be destroyed in a child but was to be put under the control of the reason and the will and made to co-operate in the development of higher faculties.

The Eucharistic Method presented by Dr. Edward Poppe 1890-1924 is based on the principle that the "actual condition in which we must work out our salvation is one of fallen and repaired human nature. Christian training is the gradual restoration in us of the Divine Image defaced by sin." There is really nothing new in this method and it is called Eucharistic because it makes a special effort to emphasize the necessity of

frequent Communion.

The Fulda "Lehrplan" is still another method by which the subject-matter of religious instruction is divided according to the different school grades. Catholic education according to the Lehrplan method should be the harmonious development of the child's natural and supernatural faculties. By this method the children in each grade follow a program which correlates Bible and Church History, Liturgy and Sacred Hymns with the catechism.

While many other methods and teaching devices of religious instruction might be mentioned these are probably among the best-known. Up to date, however, no one single method has been found that is entirely satisfactory. Here there is a large field for the intellectual and creative efforts of interested educators.

Summary.

In the past various methods of teaching religion have been used. Among these we find the following:

- (1) The Sulpician Method.
- (2) The Psychological or Stieglitz Method.
- (3) The Sower Scheme.
- (4) Primary Methods or Dr. Shields' Method.
- (5) The Eucharistic Method.
- (6) The Fulda "Lehrplan" Method.

OBJECT OF THE PRESENT STUDY

The present study was an attempt made by objective methods to determine the optimal placement by grades of thirty-two New Testament stories. By optimal placement is here understood that particular age or grade in which the child has the ability to comprehend the stories and fully grasp the lesson which each story is intended to teach.

The method devised for the study was to present each story in the Scriptural language and request the children to read it through, thoughtfully, and carefully. At the end of each story six statements were made three of which were considered as correct and three as incorrect. The children were asked to mark the three which they considered to be the most correct. In this way the writer thought she might discover the stories which were understood at an early age and those which required greater mental development. With this knowledge it was thought that a better distribution of these stories might be made throughout the grades; thus the child would be given each story just at the particular stage of development when he was best prepared to receive it and had the ability to comprehend it. Many excellent courses of study have been used in which these same stories have appeared, but at times it would seem that the distribution of stories had been made without due regard to the comprehension difficulties of the child in the particular grade

in which the stories were presented. Whereas viewed from the stand-point of the child's comprehension they might have been more wisely distributed.

The children who were used in this experiment were all pupils of St. Ignatius School, at Lakewood and Loyola Avenues, Chicago, Illinois. The fact that all had had the same methods of teaching, and enjoyed practically, the same advantages with regard to environment, atmosphere, etc. afforded the writer an opportunity to trace through the grades the development of their ability to comprehend the stories submitted for their reading. By applying the same tests to five hundred children from grades four to eight inclusive, it was thought possible to discover the particular time and place at which these children developed their concepts of religious truths. Grades one to three were excluded from the tests because in the opinion of the writer the children of these grades were too young to read the stories for themselves as the tests demanded; hence they would not be able to follow the directions given.

1. Description of the Tests.

Since the main purpose in this study was to trace the growth in apprehension of the concepts of religious truths, it was deemed advisable to adhere strictly to the Scriptural language. Accordingly, thirty-two stories were selected from the New Testament, which in the opinion of the writer, obviously revealed particular character traits of Our Lord, for example,

charity, kindness, sympathy, patience etc. Each story was printed on a single sheet and under each story six statements were written and numbered one to six. The pupils were instructed to read each story carefully and then to place a cross before the three statements which they thought were most applicable to the story above. The particular aim of these statements was to find out just what each story conveyed to the reader. The stories were then all printed in a thirty-two page booklet and presented to the pupils in grades four to eight inclusive. (A copy of this booklet may be found in the pocket on the inside back cover.)

It should be carefully noted that the comprehension tested was the ability to sense the lesson of the Gospel story. A score of zero in the test does not indicate zero comprehension. The child who scored zero may have understood what was said and done, but, within the limits of the tests, he failed to see its significance. This and no more was what the tests aimed to disclose.

2. Administration of the Tests.

The period of testing including the time devoted to the distribution and collection of the booklets was left entirely to the discretion of the teacher in each grade in which the test was given. The teacher in each grade conducted her own test. The attitude of the pupils was such that they seemed to require no stimulus, but general precautions were taken against fatigue,

lest a lack of interest through weariness might in some way spoil the results desired. Instructions were given informally. The booklets were distributed and the children were merely asked to read carefully each story and to follow exactly the directions given. They were also urged not to rush, but to take as much time as they needed; and each teacher stopped the test at the first sign of fatigue. It was found that the two upper grades required much less time to complete the tests than did the three lower grades, but no grade was allowed to finish at one sitting. At the end of each test period the booklets were collected, but they were not scored until all the children had read the thirty-two stories. In scoring the number of correct responses given was divided by the number of correct responses for each story in each grade. These results are shown in Table I and a graphic representation of the same is given in Tables II. and III.

A careful study of the data obtained revealed the following facts: Stories 1,3,4,5,6,13, 18, 21, and 23 were obviously the most difficult. Stories 9 and 10 were understood by all the children in all grades tested. Stories 7,11,12,14,16,17,20,22, 24,29,30,31 were somewhat difficult for grades four and five but offered little or no difficulty to the children in grades six, seven and eight. Stories 2,8,9,10,11,25,26,27, and 32 were most easily comprehended by both boys and girls alike. Story 9 scored the highest general average. Stories 21 and 23 receiv-

ed the lowest scores of all and the scores for boys and girls were identical in these two instances. Story 9 received the highest score among the girls. Story 10 received the highest score among the boys.

TABLE I

Percentages of Correct Responses

<u>Grades</u>	<u>Fourth</u>		<u>Fifth</u>		<u>Sixth</u>		<u>Seventh</u>		<u>Eighth</u>	
	<u>Boys</u>	<u>Girls</u>	<u>Boys</u>	<u>Girls</u>	<u>Boys</u>	<u>Girls</u>	<u>Boys</u>	<u>Girls</u>	<u>Boys</u>	<u>Girls</u>
1	64.1	83.8	60.8	61	73.8	76	68.5	64.03	71.6	65.4
2	80.8	95.9	77.5	71	82.8	88	83.3	77	82.5	87.6
3	56.6	84.8	58.3	65	72	61.3	60	63.1	75.8	70.3
4	43.3	59.5	68.3	63	65.7	60	80	76.3	79.5	77.7
5	71.6	54.5	63.3	60	63	66.6	61.1	57.9	66	49.3
6	55.8	59.5	55.5	59	67.5	62.5	56.4	66.6	72.5	72.8
7	58.3	58.5	77.5	56	77.4	84	76	78.9	91.7	85.1
8	70.8	88.8	71.6	69	77.4	90.6	92.6	85.09	95	93.8
9	80	90.9	79.1	83	84.6	81.3	95.4	90.3	98.3	97.5
10	79.1	70.7	79.1	73	87.3	89.3	93.5	90.3	97.5	88.8
11	55.8	63.6	74.1	73	83.7	81.3	87	85.09	92.5	91.3
12	64.1	68.6	69.1	72	64	76	76.8	71.9	81.6	83.8
13	46.6	57.5	64	67.5	67.5	64	68.5	68.5	65.8	75.3
14	59.1	62.6	82.5	66	67.5	66.6	70	75.4	75	77.7
15	70	64.6	70.8	65	70.2	86.6	84.2	78.9	85.8	83.8
16	55.8	58.5	71.6	49	68.4	74.6	70.3	59.6	70.8	74.5
17	66.6	69.6	65.8	72	70.2	74.6	86.1	78.07	85	86.4
18	64.1	62.6	57.5	58	63	57.3	71.3	68.5	80.8	66.6
19	73.3	69.6	71.6	74	73	68	80	79	88.3	86.4
20	44.1	48.4	47.5	73	59.4	69.3	78.7	72.8	81.6	71
21	65	54.5	50	46	65.7	68	76	62.5	64.1	59.2
22	41.6	58.5	60.8	58	67.5	82.6	81.4	71	83.3	90.1
23	70	54.5	49.1	50	56.7	68.6	54.5	59.6	67.5	50.6
24	52.5	60.6	70	70	70	94.6	85.1	70.9	85	87.6
25	76.6	65.5	73.3	73	91	81.3	88.8	84	82.5	90.1
26	66.6	78.7	80.8	76	82.8	77.3	88.8	90.3	90.8	93.8
27	74.1	74.7	81.6	60	83.7	88	81.4	79	86.6	90.1
28	60	69.6	56.6	74	70	76	78.7	76.3	81.6	71
29	61.6	64.6	61.6	43	70.2	60	68.5	78.9	75.8	85.3
30	56.6	68.6	65	74	66.6	78.6	88.8	74.5	79.1	83.8
31	41.6	59.5	54.1	68	73	84	72.2	81	85.8	92.5
32	70	76.7	69.1	70	71.1	90.6	85.1	78.9	80.8	91.3

The above percentages are represented graphically in the two tables that follow. In Table 3 the girls' curve is represented by a red line, the boys' curve by a black line. In Table 4 the correct responses of boys and girls are shown

separately.

The total number of correct responses for each picture for both boys and girls is represented by Table 2. They were as follows:

TABLE II

Story	Percentage of Total Number of Correct Responses <u>Boys</u>	Percentage of Total Number of Correct Responses <u>Girls</u>
1	67.7	70
2	81.3	83.9
3	64.5	68.9
4	67.3	66.7
5	64.8	57.6
6	61.5	64
7	76.1	72.5
8	81.4	85.4
9	37.4	88.6
10	87.3	82.4
11	78.6	78.8
12	71.1	74.4
13	62.4	66.5
14	66.8	69.6
15	76.2	75.7
16	67.3	63.2
17	74.7	76.1
18	66.9	62.6
19	77.2	75.4
20	62.2	66.9
21	64.1	58
22	66.9	72
23	59.7	64.6
24	72.5	76.7
25	82.4	76.7
26	81.9	83.2
27	81.4	78.3
28	69.3	73.3
29	67.5	64.3
30	71.2	75.9
31	65.3	77
32	75.2	81.5

A study of these results shows that there is not a great

deal of difference between the boys' responses and the girls'. In stories 5, 21 and 51 we notice the widest difference in their responses. In story 4 there is a difference of .6, in story 15 a difference of .5 while in story 11 the difference is only .2. The lowest score made by both boys and girls was in story 23. The highest score made by both boys and girls was in stories 9 and 10.

Stories Which Showed The Least Variety in Scores.

<u>Story</u>	<u>Boys</u>	<u>Girls</u>
13	66.4	66.5
29	65.5	64.3
15	76.2	75.2
14	66.8	69.6
11	78.6	78.8
4	83.8	84.1
9	87.4	88.6

Stories Which Varied Most in Scores.

5	82	72
31	65.3	77

With but few exceptions the results of the experiment show that the scores made by the fourth and fifth grades are considerably lower than those of the three upper grades, indicating an increase in comprehension throughout the grades.

Obviously, stories 16, 21, 23, 20, are beyond the comprehension of most of the children tested. Story 22 offered no difficulty in any grade. In some of the stories it was found that a lower grade scored higher than an upper grade. This may be accounted for by the fact that in making out her statements

the writer sometimes gave more than three statements which might easily have been accepted as correct. The older children looking for difficulties because it was a test chose the less obvious lesson while the younger children saw only the obvious one.

Conclusions.

1. The spiritual lesson of these thirty-two bible stories can be comprehended by children of every age and grade level.
2. Children at a very early age (before six) manifest a concept of God and recognize their relations to Him.
3. All moral truths are not equally understood by all children nor are they understood by all children at exactly the same time.
4. Children easily comprehend religious truths if they are presented in familiar language.
5. Children have no difficulty in understanding religious stories like Christ Blessing Children because they are familiar with the ideas of Father and children.
6. Children find it difficult to understand Christ Denouncing Hypocrisy because they do not know what hypocrisy means; it has not come within the range of their knowledge.
7. Children do not usually get the whole lesson that the religious story teaches at the first reading of it.
8. Repeated readings of the same religious story does not seem to rob it of interest; with most children it seems rather

to increase it.

9. Children crave certain types of religious stories at different age levels.
10. The child's natural story interest may be utilized to great advantage in religious instruction.
11. The religious development of children proceeds psychologically.
12. The language of the Scripture sometimes offers comprehension difficulties
13. Children are never too young or too old to be interested in the religious stories.
14. There is a marked development from grade to grade in the comprehension of Bible stories.

CHAPTER VII.Optimal Placement of Stories.

Within recent years scientific studies have shown the importance of the right placement of the reading material given to children in the various grades. In this matter two things should be of consideration. If a selection is placed in too high a grade it loses its appeal because it is too juvenile; if it is placed in too low a grade it is not understood or appreciated because of its overmaturity. In the proper assignment of reading material then, the problem is one of right placement.

In the teaching of religion--the most vital of all subjects--the question of right placement takes on a greater significance. For while the religious story always makes an appeal to the child there are periods in his life when he needs certain types of stories which if not given at those particular times, fail to influence him as they should. To know the particular time at which to stress particular stories is important for every teacher of religion.

In the present study the writer, assuming the results of these tests to be representative of the degree of comprehension manifested by children of various grade levels, used them as the basis for determining the optimal place of the thirty-two stories used in this experiment. The method she adopted was as follows: she took each story separately and traced the percent-

age of correct responses for it through the grades from four to eight, inclusive. She noted the particular grade or grades in which there was a notable increase in comprehension and marked the point of highest comprehension. In some cases the scores did not vary greatly which seemed to indicate that these stories were equally easy or equally difficult in all grades tested. In one instance, in story six, for example, the point of greatest comprehension was limited to one grade. In other instances, in stories 1,2,3,5, and 8 for example, where the increase in comprehension was less marked, the writer assigned a wider range of distribution to the story.

According to the results obtained in this experiment the optimal place for the thirty-two stories herein discussed appears to be as follows:

<u>Number of Story</u>	<u>Title</u>	<u>Optimal Placement</u>
1.	The Multiplication of the Loaves	4-8 (Grades)
2.	The Good Thief	4-8
3.	Zacheus	6-8
4.	Our Lord's Relatives Seek Him	7-8
5.	The Arrest of Jesus	4-8
6.	The Cleansing of the Temple	8
7.	The Miraculous Draught of Fishes	5-8
8.	The Rich Young Man	7-8
9.	The Meal at Bethania	4-8
10.	Mary Magdalen	6-8
11.	Our Savior in the Desert	6-8
12.	The Finding in the Temple	7-8
13.	Our Lord's Dealing with the Apostles	6-8
14.	The Temple Tribute	7-8
15.	Nicodemus	6-8
16.	The Coin of Tribute	7-8

<u>Number of Story</u>	<u>Title</u>	<u>Optimal Placement</u>
17.	The Ten Lepers	7-8
18.	Jesus Before Pilate	7-8
19.	The Widow's Son	7-8
20.	Christ Denounces Hypocrisy	7-8
21.	The Calling of Matthew	6-8
22.	The Marriage at Cana	7-8
23.	Christ Heals the Sick	6-8
24.	The Baptism of Jesus	6-8
25.	The Agony in the Garden	6-8
26.	Christ Blesses Little Children	6-8
27.	The Betrayal of Judas	6-8
28.	The Samaritan Woman	6-8
29.	Christ Feeds the Multitude	7-8
30.	Christ's Discourse to the Disciples	7-8
31.	The Widow's Mite	6-8
32.	The Raising of Lazarus	7-8

Bibliography.

1. Agnes Alma, Sister. "The Assimilation of Catholic Ideals through the Eight Beatitudes." Catholic Educational Review, September 1928-April, 1929.
2. Aloysine, Sister S.Sp.S. "A Comparative Study of Twelve Book Lists for Children." Unpublished Study Loyola University, Chicago, Ill. 1929.
3. Athearn, Walter S. and others. Vol. II Measurements and Standards in Religious Education. George E. Doran, New York.
4. Ayer, Fred C. "Summary of Reading Investigations." Elementary School Journal, March 1928.
5. Ballard, P. B. "Silent Reading." Journal of Experimental Psychology V. March, 1920.
6. Barnes, Clifford. "Status of Moral Training in Public Schools." NEA. July, 1911.
7. Barnes, Clifford W. "Relation of Moral and Religious Training." NEA. July, 1911.
8. Beman, Lamar T. Religious Teaching in the Public Schools. The H. W. Wilson Co., New York, 1927.
9. Beust, Nora. "Children's Recreational Reading." High School Journal April, 1928.
10. Bobbitt, Franklin. How to Make a Curriculum. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1924.
11. Bruehl, C. P. "The Psychological Approach." Catholic School October, 1926.
12. Bruehl, C. P. "Manual Work in Religious Education." Catholic School Journal, December, 1926.
13. Bruehl, C. P. "Self-activity in Religion." Catholic School Journal, November, 1926.
14. Bruehl, C. P. "Christ, The Centre of Religious Teaching." Catholic School Journal. October, 1927.
15. Bruehl, C. P. "Can Religion be Taught?" Catholic School Journal, April, 1926.

16. Bruehl, C. P. "Motivation in Religion." Catholic School Journal, February, 1926.
17. Bruehl, C. P. "The Imagination in Teaching Religion." Catholic School Journal, September, 1926.
18. Burgess, May Ayres. "Controlling Factors in the Measurement of Silent Reading." Report of the Society's Committee on Silent Reading. Twentieth Yearbook. Bloomington, Illinois, Public School Publishing Co., 1921.
19. Cabell, Elvira D. "An Experiment in Silent Reading." Chicago School Journal, V. June, 1923.
20. Carr, John W. "Moral Education Through the Agency of the Public Schools." The National Education Association, July, 1911.
21. Carmichael, Albert Maxwell. Moral Situations of Six-Year Old Children as a Basis for Curriculum Construction. U. of Iowa, 1927.
22. Carr, John W. "Means of Moral Training Afforded by the Public Schools." The National Education Association, July, 1911.
23. Carroll, Robert P. "An Experimental Study of Comprehension in Reading," Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1926.
24. Chambers, Will Grant. "How Words Get Meaning." Pedagogical Seminary, XI. March, 1904.
25. Champlin, Carroll D. "A Philosophy of Moral Education for Students, Teachers and Parents." Education 43, March, 1923.
26. Chave, E. J. The Junior; Life Situations of Children Nine to Eleven Years of Age. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1925.
27. Coe, George A. "Virtue and Virtues." A Study of Method in the Teaching of Morals. The National Education Association, July, 1911.
28. Colburn, Evangeline. "Guidance in Voluntary Reading." Elementary School Journal. May, 1928.
29. Cooper, John M. "Recent Developments in Catholic Education."

Religious Education. February, 1926.

30. Cooper, John M. "Pupils Religious Experience." Religious Education, April, 1925.
31. Corcoran, Timothy, S.J. "Function of Religious Knowledge in Catholic Education." Thought. Sept. 1928.
32. Dougherty, Rev. D.M. "Is God Coming Back to the School?" The Catholic Educational Review. Vol. XXVI. May, 1928.
33. Dunn, F. W. "Interest Factors in Primary Reading Material." Columbia University, 1921.
34. Eckert, Mollie Horton. "Children's Choices of Poems." Elementary English Review. June, 1928.
35. Eighteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education Part II. Public School Publishing Co. Bloomington, Illinois.
36. Gale, Major R.J. "A Schoolmaster Thinks about God." Education, Vol. XLIV. January 1929.
37. Franklin, Samuel P. Measurement of the Comprehension Difficulty of the Precepts and Parables of Jesus. Edw. D. Starbuck, Editor. Institution of Character Research, University of Iowa. 1925.
38. Garnett, Wilma, Leslie. "A Study of Children's Choices in Prose." Elementary English Review I. June, 1924
39. Gates, Arthur I. "An. Experimental and Statistical Study of Reading and Reading Tests." Journal of Educational Psychology, XII Sept. Oct., Nov., 1921.
40. Gates, Arthur I. "The Construction of a Reading Vocabulary for the Primary Grades." Teachers College Record. March, 1926.
41. Gates, Arthur I. "Study of the Depth and Rate of Comprehension in Reading by Means of a Practice Experiment." Journal of Educational Research VII January, 1923.
42. Geisert, Henry A. "Religion in Education." Education 43. November, 1922.

43. Charles E. and Germane, Edith Gayton. Silent Reading. Chicago, Row, Peterson and Company, 1922.
44. Gilliland, A. R. "The Effect of Rate of Silent Reading on Ability to Recall." Journal of Educational Psychology XI. November, 1920.
45. Gilliland, A.R. "The Effect on Reading of Change in the Size of Type." Elementary School Journal XXIV. October, 1923.
46. Gist, Arthur S. "Silent Reading." Elementary School Journal XVIII. September, 1917.
47. Gladden, Washington. "Religion and the Schools." Atlantic Monthly 115. January, 1915.
48. Grant, E.B. and White, M. L. "A Study of Children's Choices of Reading Materials." Teachers College Record. April, 1925.
49. Gray, William S. Summary of Investigations Relating to Reading. Department of Education, University of Chicago, Illinois, 1925.
50. Gray, William S. "Reading" School Survey; Grand Rapids, Michigan. Ch. iv. Grand Rapids, Michigan Board of Education. 1916.
51. Gray, William S. "A Study of the Emphasis on Various Phases of Reading Instruction in Two Cities." Elementary School Journal. Nov., 1916.
52. Gray, William S. "A Co-operative Study of Reading in Eleven Cities of Northern Illinois." Elementary School Journal XVII. November, 1916.
53. Gray, William S. "Case Studies of Reading Deficiencies in Junior High Schools." Journal of Educational Research September, 1924.
54. Gray, William S. "The Use of Tests in Improving Instruction." Elementary School Journal XIX Oct., 1928.
55. Gray, William S. "The Relation between Study and Reading." Addresses and Proceedings of the National Education Association, LVII, 1919.

56. Gray, William S. "The Diagnostic Study of an Individual Case in Reading." Elementary School Journal, XII April, 1921.
57. Gray, William S. "The Importance of Intelligent Silent Reading." Elementary School Journal, XXIV
58. Gray, William S. "Case Studies of Reading Deficiencies in Junior High Schools." Journal of Educational Research, I September, 1924.
59. Gregory, C. A. "The Reading Vocabularies of Third-Grade Children." Journal of Educational Research, VII February, 1923.
60. Haggerty, M.E. "Scales for Reading Vocabulary of Primary Children." Elementary School Journal, XVII. October, 1916.
61. Haggerty, M.E. and Thomas J.M. "Preliminary Study of the Reading Attainments of College Freshmen." School and Society, VI August, 1917.
62. Hamilton, Francis. The Perceptual Factors in Reading. Columbia University Contributions to Philosophy, Psychology and Education, Vol. XVII No. 1. New York: Science Press, 1907.
63. Harrelson, Pantha Vashti. "The Effect of Knowledge of results upon Oral and Silent Reading." Peabody Journal of Education, I September, 1923.
64. Hawley, William E. "The Effect of Clear Objectives on the Teaching of Reading." Journal of Educational Research III April, 1921.
65. Hendricks, Eldo L. A Study in Reading. Newark, N.J. Silver Burdett and Company 1911.
66. Hilliard, George Horatio. "Probable Types of Difficulty Underlying Low Scores in Comprehension Tests." University of Iowa Studies in Education Vol. I No. 6. Iowa City, Iowa 1924.
67. Huber, Miriam Blanton. "Children's Interests in Poetry." Teachers College Record, October, 1926.
68. Hunt, C.W. "Extensive Reading--A Factor in Developing Reading Ability." School and Society. II February, 1920/

69. Hughes, C. W. "A Survey of the Reading Interests of the Pupils of Madison, Wisconsin, High School." Education, March, 1924.
70. Irion, T.W.H. "Comprehension Difficulties of Ninth Grade Students in the Study of Literature." Teachers College Record, 1925.
71. Jordan, Arthur M. Children's Interests in Reading. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 107. New York: Teachers, College, Columbia University, 1921.
72. Judd, Charles H. "Reading: Its Nature and Development." Supplementary Educational Monograph Vol. II No. 4.
73. Keator, A. D. "Which States Read the Most?" School and Society XVIII October, 1923.
74. Keener, E. E. "Silent Reading Ability in 4A Grade." Chicago Schools Journal, October, 1923.
75. Kyte, George C. "Calibrating Reading Materials." Elementary School Journal Vol. XXV. Mar. 1925.
76. Lamb, Hugh. "Vitalizing Religious Teaching." Proceedings, National Educational Association, 1926.
77. Lancaster, Thomas J. "A Study of the Voluntary Reading of Pupils." Elementary School Journal, March, 1928.
78. Lehman, Harvey and Wilby, Paul A. "Sex Differences in Reading Books Just for Fun." Education, June, 1928.
79. Lowry, R. J. "What One Child Read and Why." Peabody Journal of Education, January, 1928.
80. Mary, Sister I.H.M. "Formation of Ideals." Catholic School Journal, December, 1925.
81. Mary, Sister I.H.M. "Research Findings in the Moral Development of Children." Educational Research Bulletin. Educational Press, Washington, D.C. 1926.
82. Mary, Sister I.H.M. "Sources of Moral Knowledge in the Child." Catholic Educational Review. October, 1928.

83. Matthews, C.O. The Grade Placement of Curriculum Material in the Social Studies. Contributions to Education, 1926. Teachers College, Columbia University
84. McKee, Jane W. "The Psychology and Methodology of Primary Reading." Unpublished Master's Thesis, School of Education, University of Southern California, 1924.
85. McKee, Paul "Report of Reading Investigation." An Unpublished Report filed with William S. Gray, University of Chicago, 1924.
86. Michael, Virgil. "Are We Educating Moral Parasites?" Catholic Educational Review, March, 1927.
87. Notre Dame, University of. Religious Survey. Series XVIII No. 4, July, 1923.
88. Pace, Edward A. "How Christ Taught Religion." Catholic Educational Review. October, 1926.
89. Parker, Samuel Chester. "How To Teach Beginning Reading." Elementary School Journal, Vol. 22. Oct. 1921.
90. Parsons, Rhey Boyd. Referred to in Summary of Investigations Relating to Reading, by William S. Gray, Department of Education, University of Chicago, Illinois, 1925.
91. Pluss, Evelyn. "The Kindergarten as an Ethical Laboratory." National Educational Association, July 1911.
92. Reeve, Margaret Willis. "Parents Responsibility for Moral Education." School and Society Vol. 24. August 7, 1926.
93. Rich, Stephen G. "What Portions of Scripture Shall We Use in Schools?" Educational Review 43. Oct. 1923.
94. Ritter, B.T. and Lofland, W.T. "The Relation between Reading Ability as Measured by Certain Standard Tests and the Ability Required in the Interpretation of Printed Matter Involving Reason." Elementary School Journal, XXIV March, 1924.
95. Rogers, Don S. "The Effect of Experience and Training on

Improvement in Silent Reading Comprehension.
Chicago School Journal VI May, 1924.

96. Sharp, Rev. John K. Aims and Methods in Teaching Religion. New York, Cincinnati, Chicago. Benziger Brothers, 1929.
97. Shields, Thomas Edward. Philosophy of Education. Catholic Education Press, Washington, D.C. 1921.
98. Strong, Frank. "Religious Education in the Universities." The National Educational Association, 1914.
99. Starbuck, Edwin D. and Shuttleworth Frank K. A Guide to Literature for Character Training Vol. I Fairy Tale, Myth and Legend, New York, The Macmillan Co. 1928.
100. Thorndike, Edward L. "The Measurement of Ability in Reading." Teachers College Record, XV. Sept. 1914.
101. Thorndike, Edward L. "The Measurement of Achievement in Reading Word Knowledge." Teachers College Record, XVII, November, 1916.
102. Thorndike, Edward L. "The Psychology of Thinking in the Case of Reading" Psychological Review, XXIV May, 1917.
103. Thorndike, Edward L. "The Understanding of Sentences." A Study of Errors in Reading. Journal of Educational Psychology, VIII June, 1917.
104. Thorndike, Edward L. "Word Knowledge in the Elementary School." Teachers College Record XXII. September, 1921.
105. Touton and Horning. "Summary of Reading Investigations." Elementary School Journal, March, 1928.
106. Twenty-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education Part I. "Reading Activities in School and Social Life." Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1924.
107. Uhl, Willis L. Scientific Determination of the Content of the Elementary School Course in Reading. University of Wisconsin Studies in Social Sciences and History. No. 4. Madison, Wisconsin. University of Wisconsin, 1921.

108. Uhl, Willis L. "The Derivation of Standards for Judging Reading Material." Educational Review, LXVI October, 1923.
109. Uhl, Willis L. The Materials of Reading. Silver Burdett and Company, New York, Chicago, 1924.
110. Uhl, Willis L. "The Use of Results of Reading Tests for Planning Remedial Work." Elementary School Journal XVII December, 1916.
111. Valentine, C.W. "Experiments on the Methods of Teaching Reading." Journal of Experimental Pedagogy, II. June, 1913.
112. Valentine, C.W. "Some Experiments on the Speed of Reading." Forum of Education, I. November, 1923.
113. Van Alstyne, Dorothy. "A Study of Ten Gifted Children Whose School Progress Was Unsatisfactory." Journal of Educational Research, VIII. September, 1923.
114. Vostrovsky, Clara. "A Study of Children's Reading Tastes." Pedagogical Seminary, VI. December, 1899.
115. Waldman, Bessie. "Definite Improvement of Reading Ability in a Fourth-Grade Class." Elementary School Journal, December, 1920.
116. Waldo, Karl Douglas. "Tests in Reading in Sycamore Schools." Elementary School Journal, January 1915.
117. Washburne, C. "A Grade Placement Curriculum Investigation" Journal of Educational Research, April, 1926
118. Washburne, C. and Vogel, M. "What Books Fit What Children" School and Society, January, 1925.
119. Webb, L. W. "Ability in Mental Tests in Relation to Reading Ability." School and Society, XI May, 1920.
120. Werner, Emily J. "Religious Education in New York." Educational Review 72: December, 1926.
121. Wightmann, H. J. "A Study of Reading Appreciation." American School Board Journal, June, 1915.

122. Wilms, W.S.J. Handbook of the Christian Religion. New York. Benziger, 1921.
123. Wissler, C. "The Interests of Children in the Reading Work of the Elementary Schools." Pedagogical Seminary, April, 1898.
124. Wright, Hubert Arthur. "Religion in the Schools." Educational Review, 72: June, 1926.
125. Yoakam, Gerald Alan. Reading and Study. The Macmillan Company, Chicago, Illinois, 1929.