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Administrative Services for the Improvement of Reading in a Diocesan School System with Special Reference to the Retarded Reader

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ADMINISTRATIVE SERVICES FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF READING
IN A DIOCESAN SCHOOL SYSTEM WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE
TO THE RETARDED READER

by

Richard John Kleiber

A Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School
of Loyola University in Partial Fulfillment of
the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Education

February
1952
LIFE

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION:

DEFINITION OF TERMS AND PURPOSE

Several centuries ago the universe was conceived of as a relatively simple thing. The earth was the center of it, and the sun, moon, planets, stars, and constellations revolved around it. Since then it was discovered that the earth rather than the sun did the spinning, and even more recent theories would have the entire solar system as only an infinitesimal part of a much vaster system of whirling bodies of gaseous matter.

The complexity discovered in the science of astronomy is evident, also, in many other fields of human endeavor including education. Just decades not centuries ago, the instruction of children in the basic skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic was done by persons who themselves had been taught little beyond these fundamental skills. The educative process was thought of in the simplest terms. Whereas reading, writing, and arithmetic were once considered separate and distinct subjects, the modern educator conceives of them as parts of an integrated curriculum. Whereas it was, at one time, thought that the problem child could have his problem "solved" by a good whipping, the modern educator recognizes anti-social behavior as a symptom of some deeper emotional disturbance which has its roots in any or several of a great number of possible causes. Whereas reading was once nothing more than the identification of a particular printed symbol with a particular
sound, the modern educator speaks of reading in the following words:

Properly cultivated, it is essentially a thoughtful process. However, to say that reading is a "thought-getting" process is to give it too restricted a description. It should be developed as a complex organization of patterns of higher mental processes. It can and should embrace all types of thinking, evaluating, judging, imagining, reasoning, and problem solving. Indeed, it is believed that reading is one of the best media for cultivating many techniques of thinking and imagining.¹

Young men and women who are preparing for the teaching profession today are expected to grasp a great variety of principles, facts, theories, methods and techniques. Education during the past half-century has indeed become very complex.

The phenomenal growth of the science of education during the past fifty years is not unlike that of a garden in the Spring. Weeds and flowers spring up side by side, and the gardener must be careful to uproot only the weeds. The growth of education has been, if anything, even less regular, for in a garden the flowers have been planted in rows. Truth does not always appear in such convenient patterns. Philosophies have been proposed and rejected. Psychologies have arisen and faded into oblivion. Theories have been forwarded and been proven inadequate. Methods and techniques have been advocated, then abandoned. And with all the turmoil that has surrounded the growth of education, certitude has been most evasive.

Because reading is so indispensable to further growth in education, it has received more than its share of attention in educational endeavor. This thesis represents an effort to examine one aspect of the total reading problem. It is limited to Catholic school administration and will seek to determine what services for the improvement of reading a Diocesan Department of Education can render to the schools under its jurisdiction; special attention will be given to the problem of the retarded reader.

From the review of the literature pertinent to the problem and by examination of current practice in the administration of reading, it is hoped that certain recommendations can be made for the improvement of reading in diocesan school systems. These recommendations will be made for one particular system with the hope that what seems practical in that situation may also be applicable to other systems.

This chapter is intended to clarify the purpose of the thesis and certain concepts fundamental to it. These are four and they are discussed in the following order: 1) diocesan school system; 2) administrative services; 3) retarded readers; 4) improvement of reading. At the end of the chapter a brief outline of the project will be presented.

**Diocesan School System**

The first key phrase to be discussed is "diocesan school system". When a country has a sufficient number of Catholics in it so that it is no longer considered a mission territory, it is divided into dioceses, and each diocese is put under the jurisdiction of a bishop. The size of dioceses varies both in territorial extent and in the number of Catholics in it. Thus
in the United States some dioceses have many more Catholics than other dioceses which embrace a much vaster territory. New York, Chicago, and Philadelphia, for example, are dioceses that are much smaller territorially than the dioceses of Reno and Sante Fe; yet their Catholic populations are many times larger. A bishop is the head of a diocese, and he has ecclesiastical jurisdiction over all Catholics living in that territory.

Dioceses are further subdivided into parishes which are in the charge of priests. The priest in whose care a parish is placed is called the pastor, and if the parish is large enough to demand the services of more than one priest the others are called assistant pastors or curates. Baptized Catholics constitute the membership of the Church.

The Catholic Church has always been conscious of its role as teacher, and for that reason has sponsored many schools through the centuries. In the United States that zeal for educating was evidenced by the missionaries who established schools immediately after the church was built, and after the Third Council of Baltimore in 1884 the slogan, "Every Catholic child in a Catholic school," was adopted. Although this ideal has never been fully realized, tremendous expenditures of money, time and personnel have been dedicated to the cause of the Catholic schools.

Almost all of the schools at the elementary level are established along parish lines, i.e., the school building is erected by parish funds on parish property, administered by the pastor of the parish, and attended by the children of parishioners. Most of the teachers in the Catholic elementary schools are members of religious communities of women.
The nature of a diocesan school system is essentially different from a public school system in that a diocesan system has a relatively loose organization, and each parochial school, therefore, has greater autonomy. This is due, in part, to the fact that the parish schools were in existence a fairly long time before they were united into a diocesan system, and this came about only when the various bishops appointed superintendents of education. The superintendents created the uniformity that exists through such action as the adoption of certain text-books for the schools of the diocese, the use of uniform cumulative record cards, and diocesan-wide courses of study. Although all of these functions are also proper to the central office of a public school system, the more highly centralized nature of the public school system is evident in its control of such things as building construction and maintenance, teacher appointments, and financing. The listing of both similarities and differences could be extended but is hardly necessary to understand that there is a basic difference in the meaning of "system" when referring to a parochial school and to a public school.

There are three types of administrators, other than the principal, who function in any parochial school. They are the pastor of the parish, the diocesan superintendent of schools, and the superior of the religious community that teaches in the school. The amount of influence that each brings to bear varies from parish to parish and diocese to diocese. There are no hard and fast regulations that determine the function of each of the parties involved. However, there are certain functions which are ordinarily
performed by the respective administrators.

The pastor is responsible for the building and maintenance of the school, and it is his financial responsibility. The extent to which he enters other administrative aspects of the school depends entirely on the person involved. In many cases the pastor gives the principal complete freedom in running the school. In other situations the pastor enters into such problems as determining the school calendar, solving discipline problems, and promoting good home and school relationships.

The superiors of religious communities are responsible for the appointment of both principal and teachers to a school. Although the pastor may request that a certain teacher or a certain principal be assigned or removed, it is only to this extent that pastors enter into the appointment of teachers. Only in the most exceptional case would the superintendent be involved in the appointment or removal of a teacher in the system. One might add in passing that there are certain educational traditions carried on by some of the different orders, i.e., one order might be known for the fine art work done in its schools and another for its emphasis on reading, science, or arithmetic. This probably stems from the fact that each community conducts its own teacher training schools and the traditions would be carried on through them.

Without making a formal study of it, it is impossible to say what the typical functions of a diocesan department of education are. However, some things that are done by the central office of education in a diocese can be listed, if one remembers that there is a great variation
from one diocese to the next. Some of the functions of a diocesan department of education are as follows: the administration of a testing program; the selection of text books; the use of uniform report cards and grading system; participation in the training of teachers; the establishment of a course of study; uniform cumulative records; the tabulation of enrollment statistics; efforts to improve instruction through supervisors, consultants, and bulletins.

Any efforts to realize more fully the goals of Catholic education suppose the active cooperation of all the people involved in the problem. If the effort is concerned with the improvement of reading, as is the case with this project, the leadership must come from the diocesan office; but for the success of the program, there must be full cooperation from everyone, pastor, principal, teacher, and parent.

Administrative Services

The second phrase to be discussed is "administrative services". Moehlman says that "administration is essentially a service activity, a tool or agency through which the fundamental objectives of the educational process may be more fully and efficiently realized". To paraphrase Moehlman's definition it might be said that a diocesan department of education should be thought of in this report as an administrative agency which exists for the purpose of providing services to its schools so that they may realize the goals of Catholic education more fully and efficiently.

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2 Arthur B. Moehlman, School Administration, Boston, 1940, v.
It is the purpose of this report to make suggestions as to how a diocesan department of education, thus conceived, can carry out its mission of service in regard to one educational objective, the improvement of reading ability in the parochial schools. Briefly stated "administrative services" include all of the services which a diocesan department of education can render to the schools in its system for the improvement of reading.

Retarded Reader

The third phrase of the title that must be defined more clearly is "retarded reader". As used in this paper, a retarded reader refers to a child who is not reading up to the level of his capacity. Although this definition is correct, the danger of over-simplification must be pointed out. The discrepancy between achievement and capacity is not easily determined. Mental capacity, for example, is generally determined by an intelligence test. Several of the difficulties met with can be mentioned. If a child is a poor reader, it is almost impossible to get an accurate index of his intelligence through a group intelligence test, for the group intelligence test presumes average reading ability. Also, intelligence tests based on the theory of primary mental abilities have shown that identical intelligence quotients might hide intellectual patterns that are very different from one another. One student, for example, might be very gifted in verbal ability and weak in number ability. Another student might have just the opposite intellectual profile. The child who has the high verbal ability would have a marked advantage over the other child in learning to read, but this condition would not be revealed by a single quotient. Nor is mental capacity
the only factor that determines the capacity a child has for reading achievement. Family background, emotional stability, experience, and educational opportunity are some of the other influential factors that will determine what a child is capable of doing.

Lazar points out three of the possible meanings of the phrase, "the retarded reader". They are as follows:

1. The retarded reader may be a child who is retarded in reading according to his age and grade level but who is working up to his mental age.

2. The retarded reader is the child who is retarded according to his mental level.

3. The retarded reader is the child who is working up to age and grade levels but not up to his own mental level.

A few hypothetical cases bring out the concept of the retarded reader as a child who is not reading up to the level of his capacity. If a ten year old child in the fifth grade who has normal intelligence is reading at a third grade level, it is obvious that he is retarded in reading ability. If a ten year old child in fifth grade who has the intelligence of a twelve year old is reading at a fifth grade level, he, too, is a retarded reader, because he is not reading to the level of his mental capacity. The term, "concealed failure" describes this type child very well. Such a child should be a seventh grade reader, or more accurately, he should be approaching that status. Let us suppose another case. A ten year old child in the fifth

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grade has the mental capacity of an eight year old. If he reads at a third
grade level he is not considered to be retarded, for even though his reading
level is two grades below his actual grade placement, he is reading up to
the level of his mental capacity.

If this concept of retardation is accepted, it is clear that reading
goals must be individualized. Using the grade level as the norm of achieve-
ment for all children in a room is as impractical as it is impossible, for,
although the framework remains, the graded system has been virtually abandoned.
Chronological promotion has largely replaced promotion on the basis of achieve-
ment. That is the practical fact, and it is not the purpose of this paper
to discuss the merits or demerits of this newer promotional practice. It
must be accepted as one of the primary reasons for the great range in achieve-
ment that is found in any typical classroom today. Since chronological age,
then, is about the only homogeneous characteristic of a grade today, great
divergence can be found in other factors such as mental age and achievement
level. The slow learning children in a grade will never achieve up to their
grade level. The bright children should achieve well above it. Achievement
goals, within limits, therefore, must be set close to the level of the
individual's capacity, and retardation must be conceived of in relation to
actual capacity. Capacity, it must be reiterated, is determined by many
factors which can extend or limit one's mental endowment.

The Improvement of Reading

The final part of the title that must be defined is "the improve-
ment of reading". The idea of improvement of reading in itself seems so
obvious that there is hardly any need for developing it further. However, there are corollaries of this idea that warrant development. Probably the improvement of reading will always be a goal of elementary education, for it is unlikely that perfection in this, or any other educational venture, will ever be reached. Any efforts that are made toward the attainment of greater mastery of reading will always be worthwhile, whether those efforts are made in a tiny rural school or in a large metropolitan system.

There is a real overlap between a program for the retarded reader and a general reading program. Both emphasize the need for individualization. There is a need for individualizing goals as well as instruction. The keystone of any program for the retarded reader is the individualized approach just as it is the keystone of any good general reading program.

The overlap is also evident in the prevention of reading disability. Any program intended for the retarded reader must consider the problem of prevention of reading difficulties, and there is no sounder method of preventing reading difficulties than through a good general reading program. In fact, a good general reading program is the only way that reading difficulties can be kept to a minimum, and if a program for the retarded reader does not result in an improved general reading program, the battle for better reading is being lost.

The most recent thought in the field of reading is to broaden the concept of the general reading program so that a place is made in it for the retarded reader. This has come about in an effort to keep the emphasis positive and to avoid the negative attitude that is frequently attached to
the phrase "remedial reading." Up to this point the phrase "remedial reading" has been studiously avoided, and emphasis has been placed on a positive reading program and the place the retarded reader has in such a program. Too frequently remedial reading connotes patch-work, the filling of gaps that developed along the way because of faulty basic reading. All too often the basic program suffers when remedial reading programs are established. The danger of that happening is not lessened, of course, by using different words, i.e., by speaking of a program for the retarded reader instead of a remedial reading program. Not even the placing of emphasis on the basic reading program removes this danger entirely, but it will at least tend to keep a remedial program subordinate to, but integrated with, the basic program. By establishing a basic reading program which recognizes and cares for individual differences, the retarded reader's problems will be wholly or partially met in the regular classroom. If that is not enough to meet his particular needs, other means can be used to help him.

Outline of the Thesis

In spite of the fact that the distinctions between general reading programs and programs for the retarded reader are less clearly drawn today, the review of the literature has been divided into two chapters, one on reading programs in general and the other on remedial reading.

Chapter II lists and enlarges upon the characteristics of a good reading program. The chapter is built around the eight characteristics
listed by Whipple in the 48th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, *Reading In the Elementary School*. Whipple is an author who is generally considered to be competent in the field of reading programs. The other authors quoted to develop each of the points are persons who are either accepted authors in the field of reading or, if they are less well known, they have had their works appear in authoritative publications. No attempt was made to present an exhaustive review of the literature on reading programs.

Chapter III reviews the literature on remedial reading. The phrase is used in spite of the caution already expressed about its use, because the great bulk of the literature on the retarded reader appeared under that title until a few years ago. The principles enunciated then are worthy of incorporation in a work on the retarded reader today even though they are generally applied in a somewhat different way. The chapter is primarily concerned with the administrative aspects of the problem. Programs designed for the retarded reader are given the greatest emphasis.

Chapter IV presents the results of a survey of reading programs in the Catholic elementary school systems in the United States. Data on this were secured from the responses to a questionnaire sent to every diocesan superintendent of schools in the United States. Because the information that

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can be acquired in this manner is very limited, the chapter describes only
the broad aspects of the national picture of reading in Catholic elementary
education.

A detailed account of the reading program in a single diocese is
given in Chapter V. The situation described is that of the Diocese of
Green Bay. The chapter describes the basic reading program of that diocesan
school system and the facilities available for caring for the retarded
reader.

Suggestions for supplementing the existing reading program in the
Diocese of Green Bay are made in Chapter VI. These suggestions relate to
what the Diocesan Department of Education can do to improve the reading
situation in the schools under its supervision.

The first chapter establishes a point of view, explains the title
and thereby determines the purpose and scope of the project, and finally
describes briefly the content of the chapters of the report.
CHAPTER II
A SOUND READING PROGRAM

Reading today means the guidance of a student in any aspect of the curriculum which involves interpretation of the written symbol. Reading must be considered a process rather than a subject, so that reading skills, abilities, attitudes, and information are developed in a "reading-to-learn" situation rather than in a "learning-to-read" situation. With this change of emphasis there follows another important notion of reading, namely that it is a potential aid to child development. A reading program should contribute significantly to the lives of the children, and it is on the basis of this belief that there have arisen during the past number of years a group of educators who have built programs of character education on reading programs. Since there is a process of identification going on in reading, in which the reader becomes a part of the situation he is reading about, it is clear that reading in school should be more than the mere translation of written symbols.

Ellsworth expresses it nicely when she says, "One

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1 Emmett Albert Betts, Foundations of Reading Instruction, New York, 1946, 11.


3 Ruth Ellsworth, "Coordinating Basic Instruction and Guidance in Reading in the Content Fields in the Primary Grades," Basic Instruction in Reading in Elementary and High Schools, William S. Gray, ed., Supplementary Educational Monographs, University of Chicago, X, 65, October, 1948, 201
does not read 'reading'. He reads literature, science, mathematics, social studies, thought content from the major fields of human interest. One seeks to perfect the reading process not as an end in itself but to gain information and ideas."

If reading, then, must be as extensive as the whole curriculum, how can one speak of a reading program? The evolution of the reading program to its present state can be traced through three monumental Yearbooks of the National Society for the Study of Education, the Twenty-fourth, the Thirty-sixth, and the Forty-eighth. Each of these books is a milestone in its own right, and they can be viewed today, not as contradictions one to another, but as stages of development, each work building upon what preceded it.

Among the numerous publications on reading that have appeared in recent years, the Forty-eighth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education is considered to be one of the most outstanding. The importance of this work can be judged on the basis of the number of references made to it in the recent literature. It is in this book that Whipple's excellent article on the eight characteristics of a sound reading program appears, a program broad enough to include the extended purposes of a modern reading program, yet not so broad that reading includes the entire curriculum of the elementary school.


5 Whipple, ibid., 34-38.
The eight points listed by Whipple can serve as the framework for this chapter. The validity of each of the criteria will be established by selected references to the writings of persons prominent in the field of reading. In this way this chapter is intended to present a picture of the total reading program in the light of which the needs of the retarded reader can be seen. The following chapter takes up in detail the problem of retarded reading.

Goals of Reading Program

The first criterion of a good reading program, according to Whipple,\(^6\) is that it "is consciously directed toward specific, valid ends which have been agreed upon by the entire school staff." Some of the ends which she considers to be widely accepted are: rich and varied experiences through reading; broadening interests and improved tastes in reading; enjoyment through reading; growth in the fundamental reading abilities as word recognition, comprehension and interpretation; organizing materials.

Durrell\(^7\) points out the specific objectives a teacher must have to achieve the basic reading skills and then goes on to show that the ultimate objective of reading is much broader than the attainment of these skills. Durrell says that our ultimate objective in reading instruction is the intelligent use of reading. It is possible for a student to have a good command of the fundamental reading skills and still be incompetent to

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\(^6\) Whipple, ibid., 34.

\(^7\) Donald Durrell, Improvement of Basic Reading Abilities, Yonkers-on-Hudson, 1940, 10.
use reading to good advantage. This may be due to an overconcern by the teacher with the literary objectives of reading, for just as there are only a limited number of people who can appreciate certain types of more artistic music, so there are only a limited number of people who will appreciate the great literature. However, there are applications of the reading skills which every pupil must make. He will have to read to achieve in the other school fields as science, history, and geography, and reading will be helpful in his present and future activities as a consumer, whether he is buying a pair of roller skates today or a television set a few years from now. Reading will enrich his recreation, be it athletics or travel. An ultimate objective in reading is to provide a student with the ability to cope with such situations. The purposes of reading instruction that Durrell would propose, then, are the attainment of reading skills and the ability to use those skills.

Cole explains the changes in reading objectives as being the result of an altered environment, so that today there is an ever-increasing necessity for every person to be able to read rapidly, accurately, and frequently. Our culture has changed from the rural to the urban; libraries have mushroomed throughout the country; magazines and newspapers have multiplied. The result of all this is that a person must read if he is going to live fully and richly in today's world.

8 Luella Cole, The Improvement of Reading with Special Reference to Remedial Instruction, New York, 1938, 15.
Bond and Wagner discuss reading objectives in terms of the kind of reader we wish to develop. A person who would become a good reader must develop basic reading skills and techniques, group words into thought units, have study skills at his command, have vivid and varied backgrounds of understanding, develop a wide repertoire of comprehension abilities; he must be a purposeful reader. The good reader builds an attitude of demanding an understanding of what he reads, and he perceives relationships between what is read and the problem he faces. He reads critically, develops varied interests, and can read for enjoyment. If a reading program helps a child to become a reader capable of attaining these objectives, it is obvious that such a program is broadly conceived and energetically carried out. It is clear, too, that such a program can be developed only by a day to day accomplishment of long-range objectives that are consistent from grade to grade; a hit-or-miss approach to reading could never accomplish these goals.

Bond and Handlan state certain aims which can be sought within the broad framework of general goals. They would include the following:

1. The basic skills of reading.
2. A background of word meanings.
3. The ability to adjust methods of reading to a particular purpose.
4. A variety of reading interests.
5. The habit of using good taste in choosing books and short selections for reading.
6. The habit of interpreting, evaluating and reflecting upon what is read.


10 Guy L. Bond and Bertha Handlan, Adapting Instruction in Reading, Univ. of Minnesota Series on Individualization of Instruction, 5, Minn., '48, 3-4.
7. The habit of demanding an understanding of what is read.
8. Independence in the application of reading to the meeting of goals.

Russell is in complete agreement with the acceptance of broad aims for a reading program. Reading skills are important, but if they are learned as isolated skills they will be acquired with much less efficiency than if they are learned in a reading program based upon reading purposes and needs. He goes on to say that if reading skills are developed in this broader-type program they may contribute to some of the more subtle aspects of personality development in a way they never would if the program emphasized only the mechanics of reading.

The Reading Program and Child Development

The second criterion of a good reading program is that it "coordinates reading activities with other aids to child development". In her development of this criterion Whipple shows that a teacher should know the home and community background of the child so that the reading program can be coordinated with them. When the experiential background is deficient it should be developed either through first hand experiences or with vicarious experience procured through audio-visual aids. Class activities can be based upon ideas gotten from reading and from the activities of


12 Whipple, ibid., 34.
Perhaps another way of stating Whipple's second criterion of a good reading program would be to say that the program should be vital to the pupil, for that is what happens if a reading program is integrated closely to the other aids to child development. A program will be vital and have meaning if it is highly motivated and centered around pupil interest. It might be said that this is the principal thesis expounded in the writings of Paul Witty. Witty\textsuperscript{13} contends that "effective programs in reading are based upon children's needs as shown by a study of their physical and social maturation, previous experience, purposes, interests, and attitudes". The interest factor in reading is of great significance both as a starting point for reading instruction as well as for the development of new and more mature interests.

Witty makes an interesting clarification of the concept of developmental reading. When reading is taught in the traditional manner in a graded situation, the child is made to conform to the reading; that is, a fourth grade child must read a fourth grade reader without consideration for his reading level, maturation level, mental level, and experiential background. When emphasis is placed on developmental reading, there is a danger that just the opposite will take place, that the reading conforms entirely to the child. This would be a happier situation than the first,

\textsuperscript{13} Paul Witty, \textit{Reading in Modern Education}, Boston, 1949, 49.
of course, but it still would not accomplish what developmental reading should. In either case one would be the master, the other the slave. When reading is integrated with child development, there should be an interaction between child and reading, that is, reading should not merely serve the status quo of the child, but it should be a real aid to the improvement and development of the child.

Smith\textsuperscript{14} sees five essential elements that are involved in organizing a program in reading which will care for the personal and social needs of the individual. 1) A clear definition of the needs. 2) The selection and training of teachers and librarians so that they will have a wide knowledge of books and understand their relation to the social and personal growth of young people. 3) Provision of a great variety of reading materials. 4) An emphasis in instruction which will promote the attainment of the established goals. 5) Adequate provision for guiding, evaluating, and recording individual reading in all subjects of study so that the desired development will take place.

Betts\textsuperscript{15} points out the value a rich background of experience has for the reader.

\textsuperscript{14} Dora V. Smith, "Nature of the Reading Program to Meet Personal and Social Needs," Promoting Personal and Social Development Through Reading, William S. Gray, ed., Supplementary Educational Monographs, University of Chicago, IX, 64, October, 1947, 11-16.

\textsuperscript{15} Betts, Foundations of Reading Instruction, 303.
Reading comprehension depends upon understanding of the things referred to. Anticipation of meaning— a significant factor in rhythmical and efficient reading— becomes possible to the extent that there is a clear grasp of the basic concepts. The use of context clues for word recognition is dependent upon reader familiarity with the facts behind the words.

Betts approached this statement with a many paged attack on the lock-step procedure used in schools to teach reading, a procedure that groups everyone together without regard for the great differences in development that exist in every classroom.

As was pointed out previously this problem is closely connected to that of motivation and interest. Gates\textsuperscript{16} feels that motivation is a factor of very great importance in causing and correcting difficulties in reading. Other factors that Gates considers important for reading and are concerned with the problem of development are physiological and psychological development, and educational immaturity.

The Reading Program and the Language Arts

The third criterion of a good reading program which Whipple\textsuperscript{17} lists is that it "recognizes the child's development in reading is closely associated with his development in other language arts". A good teacher is concerned not only with a child's ability in reading but also in the other methods of communication such as speaking, listening, writing and spelling.


\textsuperscript{17} Whipple, \textit{ibid.}, 35.
and these elements of English should be integrated in the classroom schedule.

Betts\(^{18}\) identifies six stages in the sequence of language development. He lists them in the following order: 1) Experience. 2) Hearing comprehension. 3) Speech production. 4) Reading. 5) Writing. 6) Refinement of language control. It is obvious that each of these stages is not a self-contained unit that must be developed to perfection before the next can develop. "Instead, control over spoken and written language is achieved through maturation and experience. Language growth during one stage contributes to readiness for the next stage and is promoted as control is extended over successive facets of language."\(^{19}\) Betts considers speech, reading, and writing as facets of a large area of learning called language. Language is symbolic of meaning, so that language is a representation of fact or experience, and for that reason experience is the real foundation of language. Several educational implications follow from the sequential development of language. First, it is undesirable to attempt to teach speech, reading, and writing as separate subjects. Second, the instructional materials to be used for students who qualify for systematic instruction in reading should be evaluated in terms of the student's experiential background. Third, the importance of the experience-language relationship brings out the value of guiding children's speech, reading, and writing through experience.

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19 Ibid., 9.
Diederich\textsuperscript{20} also discusses the inter-relationship of language, experience, and reading. One of the basic problems that educators must face is that of keeping reading in touch with experience, and the problem has several parts. First, there must be a background of experience and knowledge which is necessary to understand books. Second, experience must be enhanced, clarified, and extended through reading. The verbal skills which mediate between reading and experience must be developed.

Bond and Wagner\textsuperscript{21} state that effective reading instruction should use methods and develop other educational outcomes in addition to reading ability whenever possible. "The method of instruction should employ linguistic, artistic, dramatic, and constructive activities." This principle is illustrated by a teacher who has children write stories of their own, for children who have written stories enjoy reading them aloud. In such a situation the experiences of reading and writing are well integrated.

Hildreth\textsuperscript{22} shows that when reading is integrated with the other language arts it is easier to teach reading as a functional skill rather than as a formal school exercise. To integrate reading with the other language arts and other aspects of child development insures that reading will

\begin{flushleft}
\textsuperscript{20} Paul B. Diederich, "Relationships Among Experience, Language, and Reading," Reading in Relation to Experience and Language, William S. Gray, ed., Supplementary Educational Monographs, University of Chicago, VI, 58, December, 1944, 12-15.

\textsuperscript{21} Bond and Wagner, Teaching the Child to Read, 77.

\textsuperscript{22} Gertrude Hildreth, Learning the Three R's, Minneapolis, 1936, 110-111.
\end{flushleft}
be functional and that the content and ideas conveyed will be within the range of the pupil's interests and understanding.

Strickland\(^{23}\) says that reading is an integral part of the language arts and cannot be developed in isolation. Reading is a dual process whereby the reader gets meaning from the printed page but also has to bring meaning to the printed page. "Reading is mental and emotional reactions stimulated by symbol patterns on a page--patterns to which the individual can respond because he recognizes them and attaches meaning to them."

The Reading Program Extends Through The Entire School

The fourth criterion of a good reading program is that "at any given level, it is part of a well-worked-out larger reading program extending through all the elementary-and secondary-school grades."\(^{24}\) There should be guidance of reading pervading the whole structure of the school program at each level. In the light of the fifth and sixth criteria which follow, this point does not need a great deal of elaboration. However, there are schools which seem to believe that after the basic skills have been taught in the primary grades, no further formal instruction or guidance in reading is necessary. This is quite obviously false if we expect to have well-developed readers who are proficient in reading skills more extensive than mere

\(^{23}\) Ruth G. Strickland, "How Reading Activities Can Be Guided to Insure Desirable Personal and Social Effects," *Keeping Reading Programs Abreast of the Times*, William S. Gray, ed., Supplementary Educational Monographs, University of Chicago, XII, 72, October, 1950, 179.

\(^{24}\) Whipple, *ibid.*, 36.
word-calling. If our reading objectives are broader than that, the school must provide desirable materials, facilities, and resources for the pupils in all the grades. The school and the teacher will be able to provide these materials more effectively if cumulative reading records are kept and handed from teacher to teacher as the child passes through the school.

If this fourth criterion has any validity, it is clear that the objectives of the reading program, established in the first criterion, must be clear, well-drafted, and specific for the various levels of development, for the program is the means by which the goals are attained.

Another problem should be mentioned in reference to the school-wide reading program. The books used in the content fields should not show a greater degree of difficulty than those used in the basic reading program. Often a child who is competent with arithmetic facts fails miserably in the problem solving part of arithmetic merely because he cannot read the problem. In recent years this situation has improved because the text-book publishers have been made conscious of the stages of child development, varying achievement levels, and varying interests.

Leary\textsuperscript{25} makes reference to the specific problem of reading mathematics. Not only must the child read words but also numbers, alphabetical symbols, formulae, equations, and graphs.

\textsuperscript{25} Bernice Leary, "The Role of Reading in the Content Fields," Improving Reading in the Content Fields, William S. Gray, ed., Supplementary Educational Monographs, University of Chicago, VIII, 62, January, 1947, 11.
Little hope can be offered that children will "grow into" an understanding of mathematics. They must be helped to understand mathematical language and then trained to read mathematical problems slowly and intensively; to weigh the meaning of each word, phrase, and symbol; to refer back to previous learnings; and to see the relationships of all the elements of the problem.

The false assumption, that one text-book can be used for an entire grade, is not unlike the claim that certain teachers are experts at a given grade. Bond and Wagner say that "there is not and never has been a teacher of any specific level of reading...She teaches each child at the point in the continuum where he is and develops him from that point on in accordance with his needs and capabilities."

The Reading Program and Individual Differences

The fifth criterion which Whipple lists is probably the keystone of the modern approach to reading. A good reading program "provides varied instruction and flexible requirements as a means of making adequate adjustments to the widely different reading needs of the pupils." In other words, the reading program should make provision for individual differences. Whipple suggests two administrative provisions that will help attain this desirable goal. The first suggests that sufficient time be allowed in the program for the study of pupil needs and for the guidance of pupils in the light of his needs. Secondly, teachers should be given wide latitude in interpreting bulletins and courses of study so that the program may be

26 Bond and Wagner, Teaching the Child to Read, 64.

27 Whipple, ibid., 36.
adapted to the interests, aptitudes and abilities of the pupils. She further suggests that the grouping of the pupils be flexible and that the reading opportunities provided in the classroom be designed to meet specific needs. To accomplish this the reading materials should be sufficient in quantity, in variety of types, and in range of reading difficulty so that the teacher can make adequate adjustments.

The problem of meeting individual differences is so vital to the modern reading program that every author on the subject discusses it. Cole, after discussing techniques for teaching reading, warns that the teacher cannot select one or two favorite techniques and apply them to the entire class. "She must expect to study each child, to adapt her methods to his needs and to treat him always as an independent unit."

It is generally recognized that remedial instruction is characterized by individual work, but Gates points out that the difference between regular developmental classroom teaching is not different in kind from remedial instruction but only in degree.

Every specialist in reading, however, advocates the greatest possible adjustment of instruction to individual needs of all children. Teachers are accustomed to using a variety of devices for gaining insight into the abilities and difficulties of individual children and of organizing ordinary classroom activities to permit guidance in accordance with individual needs.

28 Cole, The Improvement of Reading, 22.

29 Gates, The Improvement of Reading, 121.
Durrell recognizes the problem of individual differences as the crux of reading instruction. He gives a good statement of the problem, a discussion of the way in which pupils differ and some of the solutions that have been suggested to meet the problem. The range of achievement in a typical fourth grade is about equal to that found in a one room rural school. Nevertheless, classroom teachers persist in teaching a grade as if all of the pupils were equal in every way. One basal reader is used; one geography is used; one history book must suit all of the students; it is assumed that all of the children can work at the same level of arithmetic. Adaptation of instruction to the variations in pupils is still widely ignored.

Durrell devotes an entire chapter of his excellent book to individual differences and their bearing upon instruction. He points out that the differences which he shows to exist can be found by any teacher if she will examine the results of a good standardized test. It might be well to list the ways in which Durrell finds pupils to differ. They are as follows: range of reading ability; differences in reading capacity and reading achievement; differences in word recognition; differences in interest; differences in oral-reading ability; specific difficulties and faulty habits; differences in silent-reading rate and habits; differences in oral and written recall; differences in habits allied to reading; differences in word abilities in silent reading; differences in word abilities

30 Durrell, Improvement of Basic Reading Abilities, 3.
31 Ibid., 38-64.
in silent reading; differences in word abilities in oral reading; differences in word recognition and word analysis; differences in ability in study skills. It is not necessary for us to report the range of difference that Durrell showed to exist in the various studies made, but the mere listing of the ways in which pupils differ in reading should suffice to impress one with the need for adapting instruction to individual differences. A teacher who would blandly ignore them is acting as unintelligently as would the person who tried to teach calculus to a group of fourth graders.

Durrell discusses classroom provision for these individual differences in chapter four. In general, as possible solutions to the problem of individual differences Durrell lists the following: reading materials suited to individual ability; small group instruction; independent reading; workbooks and job sheets; homogeneous grouping in an entire school. Each of these solutions should be given further development so that their advantages and disadvantages can be understood, but it is quite impossible to do so without becoming too enmeshed in details. The purpose of this chapter is to present the broad aspects of a good reading program.

The approach that Bond and Wagner make to the problem of individual differences is different and good. Since individual differences appear at the very earliest stages of the reading program, the method

32 Ibid., 65-97.
33 Bond and Wagner, Teaching the Child to Read, 60.
of instruction must be one that encourages individual rates of growth. These authors say it is better to speak of an attitude rather than a method that can meet individual differences.

The adjustment of instruction to individual differences is much more than a method. It is an attitude—an attitude in which the teacher assumes that each child has the right to progress as rapidly as he is capable, that each child can expect the school to provide for his rate of learning be it slow or fast, and that each child can expect the school to study him as an individual and to help him when he is in difficulty.

We might add that if one did not have this attitude when he taught classroom reading, no method would be successful in meeting individual differences.

As one reads Emmett Albert Betts it seems as if one can detect an evangelistic fervor as he attacks the well entrenched position of the graded system. His plan of attack is that of a realist, however. It is not his intention to merely destroy what might be called the "grade mentality," but he seeks to build up something better than the status quo that he wishes to destroy. His program of reorganization to meet pupil needs is a practical one. The foundation of such a plan is the "reorganization of thinking and beliefs in regard to pupil needs."34 The key person in the plan of reorganization is the school principal, and Betts lists six ways in which he can work to make the reorganization effective in meeting pupil needs.

First, the principal must be aware of the probable existence of

34 Bond and Wagner, Teaching the Child to Read, 60.
individual differences that exist within every classroom in his school.
Second, the principal should avoid thinking in terms of "grades." Third, he should feel that his first responsibility in educating his teachers is to make his teachers conscious of their duty to study their pupils. Fourth, the principal should assist the teachers in securing appropriate materials of instruction. Fifth, he should assist the teachers in the development of classroom procedures based upon the philosophy of individual differences. Sixth, the principal should enlist the cooperation of parents in working out the plan of reorganization.

The Reading Program and Guidance in Other Fields of Instruction

The sixth criterion of a good reading program which Whipple lists is that the reading program "affords, at each level of advancement, adequate guidance of reading in all the various aspects of a broad program of instruction: basic instruction in reading, reading in the content fields, literature, and recreational or free reading."

There have been educators who, in their eagerness to destroy the evils of what Gates calls the "lock-step" procedure, have felt that systematized reading instruction was unnecessary and even harmful. That this view never became universally accepted is shown by the emphasis placed on the importance of the basal reading program in the literature. A broad reading program, therefore, must include in it basal instruction.

35 Whipple, ibid., 37.
The Intermediate Manual\textsuperscript{36} of the Cincinnati Public Schools states that it considers its reading program to have three phases: developmental, recreatory, and work-type. Developmental reading refers to the systematic development of abilities. Recreatory reading is reading for recreation or enjoyment, while work-type reading is reading for the specific purpose of study, to solve individual or classroom problems. It is obvious that these are not distinctions that exclude one phase from the next, for certain materials can contribute to all three types of reading.

Bond and Wagner\textsuperscript{37} point out that in the minds of many, basal reading program and reading program are coextensive terms, for it is in the basal program that a child is taught to read. It "provides the framework through which the reading abilities, skills, and techniques are introduced and around which they are built." Bond and Wagner agree with Whipple in that the basal program of reading should include instruction in such skills as the use of reference books, skimming, reading for details, reading of text-books, and reading to interpret.

This point of view is held so commonly that it should suffice to merely name some of the more important authors who have expressed themselves on it. Among these authors are Witty,\textsuperscript{38} Durrell,\textsuperscript{39} Gates,\textsuperscript{40} Hildreth,\textsuperscript{41}

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textsuperscript{36} The Intermediate Manual, Curriculum Bulletin 125, Revised, Cincinnati Public Schools, 1949, 46.
  \item \textsuperscript{37} Bond and Wagner, Teaching the Child to Read, 17.
  \item \textsuperscript{38} Witty, Reading in Modern Education, 10.
  \item \textsuperscript{39} Durrell, Improvement of Basic Reading Abilities, 19.
  \item \textsuperscript{40} Gates, The Improvement of Reading, 2.
  \item \textsuperscript{41} Hildreth, Learning the Three R's, 11, 106-133.
\end{itemize}
and Betts. 42

Besides providing a program of systematic instruction in the basic reading skills, a good reading program should provide guidance in reading a variety of material. Betts 43 lists three factors that must be considered in discussing reading materials. They are as follows: 1) the difficulty or abstractness of the facts; 2) the language setting or symbolization of the facts; 3) the background of the pupil. These three factors will be operative whether the material being read is periodical, text-book, supplementary book, reference book or a book of the library type. The important fact is that plenty of books of each type be available to the pupil so that he can get into these various types of reading.

Hildreth 44 strikes out against the reading "program" which is limited to the use of one text-book. No one set of books can take care of the reading needs of children even in the primary grades, and as the pupils advance into the higher grades, teachers often forget that children gain reading experience in every reading activity whether it is in arithmetic, in history, or in following cooking instructions. A classroom well-equipped for reading will have a table or shelf containing books of wide variety to suit the level and the interests of all the pupils in the room, the bright as well as the slow.

42 Betts, Foundations of Reading Instruction, 72, 545-546.
43 Betts, ibid.
44 Hildreth, Learning the Three R's, 403-404.
Lindsay says that the use of many materials rather than one book is a useful technique in improving ability to interpret. Children thus learn to read critically, to evaluate an author and what he writes, to question ideas presented, and to compare points of view from several writers. This can be accomplished if a variety of books are available to the children.

Bond and Wagner point out that the use of varied materials in a reading program promotes independence in reading. Instruction of this type extends the growth and refines the reading skills, abilities, and techniques that were introduced in the early elementary school grades. It teaches the child to differentiate his reading abilities, to adjust his reading to the requirements inherent in the materials. Bond and Wagner devote three chapters to the problems involved in bringing the reader to a good variety of materials. The presentation of the chapters is particularly good in that the problems involved in thus extending the reading program are frankly discussed.

Another aspect of the sixth criterion, dealing with the materials required for a broad program, is that of encouraging a great deal of free or recreational reading. Bond and Wagner call this "personal-development" reading. Although reading of this type is guided reading, the child should

45 Margaret Lindsay, "Techniques in Improving Ability to Interpret in the Middle Grades," Classroom Techniques in Improving Reading, William S. Gray, ed., Supplementary Educational Monographs, University of Chicago, XI, 69, October, 1949, 34.

46 Bond and Wagner, Teaching the Child to Read, 277.

have a great deal of freedom in selecting the books that he is going to read. "Since the teacher knows the availability and difficulty of the reading materials, she should make suggestions, based upon the child's interests and reading abilities, about materials he might find interesting."48 Reading of this sort is of great value because it develops reading abilities and skills, extends and increases interests, and does a great deal to convince the child himself of the value reading has for him.

Witty49 devotes a full chapter in one of his most recent books to the subject of children's books. He begins the chapter with a discussion of the factors which attract children to stories and poems and follows immediately with the report of a study made of the books children chose to read. The study shows that the books children chose for their own reading are of the type which experts consider to be worthwhile reading activities for children. Emphasis is placed on the teacher's responsibility for knowing children's books, and he provides various criteria for judging and evaluating children's literature. Other pertinent topics which Witty includes in the chapter concern the problem of making good books available, stimulating interest, the influence of the home on children's attitudes toward reading and books, and the need for cooperation between the teacher, parent and librarian in providing the child with a balanced reading program.

48 Ibid., 21.

49 Witty, Reading in Modern Education, 111-137.
Since almost every author in the field of reading recognizes the problem of free reading, it is not necessary to go into the problem at any greater length.

The Reading Program and the Disabled Reader

The seventh criterion of a good reading program which Whipple lists is that it "makes special provisions for supplying the reading needs of cases of extreme reading disability, in other words, the small proportion of pupils whose needs cannot be satisfied through a strong developmental program." The entire third chapter of this project will be devoted to the development of this criterion, so no effort need be made here to enlarge upon its simple statement.

The Reading Program and Evaluation

The final criterion which Whipple would apply to judge the worthwhileness of a good reading program is that it provides for frequent evaluation of the outcomes of the program and for such revisions as will strengthen the weaknesses discovered.

Witty begins his discussion of evaluation and guidance of growth in reading by showing that the term evaluation is not coextensive with that which is achieved through a standardized test. The distinction must be made

50 Whipple, ibid., 37
51 Ibid.
52 Witty, Reading in Modern Education, 205-224.
because the concept of the reading process is becoming ever more comprehensive and the standardized test can no longer achieve an evaluation of all the desirable aims of reading. Such things as success in reading different kinds of materials, attitude toward reading, and the influence of reading on behavior cannot be measured by a standardized test. Witty includes the following as evaluation procedures: observation by teachers, the interest inventory, standardized tests, check lists, vocabulary studies, interviews, self-appraisal conferences and cumulative records.

Although Witty seems to play down the importance of standardized reading tests, it is only to avoid an evaluation which is too narrow. He recognizes the value of these measures. In fact, four pages of the chapter are devoted to a table that lists over twenty tests showing the grade each is designed for, the publisher, the number of forms, the working time, and the type of test.53 The table would seem to have considerable value for the educator as a screening device for reading tests, for the table contains a good amount of information pertinent in test selection.

Bond and Wagner54 come to the heart of the matter in the introduction to their chapter on appraisal of reading abilities. Their thesis, stated so frequently already in the foregoing pages, is that a reading program must be adjusted to the capabilities and needs of the children. The first logical step, then, if the program is to be adjusted to children's

53 Ibid., 216-219.

54 Bond and Wagner, Teaching the Child to Read, 401-404.
needs and capabilities, is to know what the child's needs and capabilities are. In order to find that out, an appraisal of reading abilities is essential. The range of talent in any given class must be known, and with that knowledge the teacher can plan emphases of instruction. Without it she either works in the dark or ignores individual differences completely.

Herrick\textsuperscript{55} suggests four general criteria on the basis of which teachers on all levels may appraise their instructional procedures in teaching reading. The first is a clear definition of goals. Second, the instructional procedures and materials recognize and utilize the interrelationships which exist between reading and other functions of language and between language and other developmental areas. Third, the instructional materials and procedures contribute to the continuity of the child's present and future reading developmental patterns should constitute a two dimensional basis of evaluation for the adequacy of instructional materials and procedures.

Betts\textsuperscript{56} points to the two fold value of appraisal: it reveals the learner's needs to the teacher and it should help the learner to become aware of his own needs for guidance and instruction. An appraisal of the reading needs of a child should provide information concerning the four levels


\textsuperscript{56}Betts, \textit{Foundations of Reading Instruction}, 438.
of reading: the independent reading level, the instructional level, the level of frustration, and the probable capacity level. Betts discusses each of these levels in detail and shows the significance they have to the teacher of reading.

Kottmeyer\textsuperscript{57} agrees with other authorities on reading that the first step toward improving a reading program is a testing program. He advises administrators to establish confidence in test results, to use tests which give the information needed, to free classroom teachers of the clerical work involved in testing, to test as many pupils as possible, to use other means to find out how good the program is, and present the test results clearly to all teachers. David Russell\textsuperscript{58} has written an authoritative article on evaluation in which he lists the following guides for evaluating pupil growth in reading:

1. Evaluation of reading development operates both continuously and at fixed intervals.
2. Evaluation procedures are related to important objectives of the reading program.
3. Evaluation programs in reading provided for clarification and change in objectives.
4. Evaluation of growth in and through reading emphasizes self-appraisal, both group and individual.
5. The evaluation program is stated in terms of the child's reading and related behaviors.

\textsuperscript{57}William Kottmeyer, "Organizing and Directing Reading Improvement Programs," Keeping Reading Programs Abreast of the Times, William S. Gray, ed., Supplementary Educational Monographs, University of Chicago, XII, 72, October, 1950, 203.

6. Reading tests are considered to be one phase of the evaluation program.
7. Evaluation of growth in reading involves the use of many varied techniques.
8. Evaluation instruments and reading records should always be available to the teacher and others concerned.
9. An evaluation program experiments with the construction and use of new methods of evaluation in reading.
10. Changes in periodic evaluation procedures should be introduced slowly.

The discussion of evaluation as well as the chapter can be concluded by suggesting the use of the eight criteria which were developed in this chapter as evaluative norms. A criterion implies judgment and evaluation. The eight criteria discussed in this chapter aid in an understanding of a modern reading program while providing at the same time sound evaluative norms.
CHAPTER III

SURVEY OF THE LITERATURE ON
ADMINISTRATIVE ASPECTS OF
REMEDIAL READING

The quantity of writing done in the field of reading during the past two decades has been almost overwhelming. Between 1935 and 1940 a great deal of attention was given to the specific problem of remedial reading. However, discussion of this phase of the reading problem has tapered off during the last several years, due, perhaps, to the thorough discussion already given to it as well as to the broadened concept of the reading program which evolved during the past ten years. Fortunately, considerable work has been done in summarizing and reviewing the literature on reading, i.e., Traxler and Townsend,1 Gray,2 Betts and Betts,3 Tinker,4 and


3 Emmett Albert Betts and Thelma Marshall Betts, An Index to Professional Literature on Reading and Related Topics, New York, 1945.

Besides the works which are professedly reviews of the literature on remedial reading or contain sections on it, some of the general books dealing with reading begin with a chapter that reviews the literature in the field. Robinson's treatment is perhaps the best example of how the review of the literature serves as both an introduction to the work and as a foundation to it. Robinson does not attempt to review all of the literature on remedial reading but only that which is pertinent to the subject of her book, *Why Pupils Fail in Reading*.

Witty provides an example of another sort of review of the literature in his book, *Reading in Modern Education*. In this case Witty reviews the literature rather summarily since his purpose was to draw a picture of the broad development of reading whereas Robinson's review of the literature is exhaustive, including over one thousand individual references.

The literature to be reviewed in this chapter has been limited to the administrative aspects of remedial reading on a system-wide level, although some of the problems to be discussed are those proper to the administrator of the individual school. The discussion of administrative problems of remedial reading on a system-wide level was not found to be

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extensive, and an effort was made to include as many articles as possible that seemed to be significant in this area.

This chapter falls into four general parts. The first part reviews several articles which can serve as a transition from the general reading program to the problem of the retarded reader. It is concerned chiefly with types of reading and remedial reading programs. The second part includes literature dealing with the broad principles which characterize remedial reading programs. Toward the end of this section the works reviewed become more specific and lead into the third part which treats specific aspects of the remedial program that are matters of concern to administrators. The chapter ends with reviews of actual programs that have been established for the assistance of retarded readers.

**Types of Remedial Programs**

Whipple\(^8\) has an excellent article that can serve as a transition from our discussion of general reading to remedial reading. The reading program as a whole, she points out, should be developed so that the slow learners as well as the fast learners can learn at their own level or capacity. For the basic program she recommends that the number of pupils assigned to a teacher should be small enough to permit sufficient adaptations to children's reading needs, that greater attention should be paid to the physical condition of children, that reading readiness be part of the regular program, and that there be an abundance of both materials and experiences. Although Whipple's recommendations for the remedial program are

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8 Gertrude Whipple, "Remedial Programs in Relation to Basic Programs of Reading," Elementary School Journal, XLIV, May, 1944, 525-535.
somewhat sketchy, she stresses the important factors of defining a remedial case carefully and the need for a definite program including assigned time and room.

McCullough, Strang, and Traxler\(^9\) also point out the need of viewing remedial reading programs in relation to the basic program. If the whole program is conducted in small classes and with adequate attention to the correction of physical defects and the provision of suitable reading material, and if the reading experiences each student needs are provided at each stage of his development, a minimum amount of special remedial instruction in reading will be needed. In spite of a program like this, the authors point out, there will be some students who will have difficulty with reading, but even these should be cared for in the regular classroom wherever possible.

Dolch,\(^10\) who has written widely in the field of remedial reading says that a remedial reading program indicates a good school system. Even with the best teaching and basic reading program, there will be some retardation in reading because of sickness, children moving into the system, size of classes, bad habits that have escaped detection, and poor home influence. The presence of a remedial program, Dolch says, indicates that the school seeks to give every child the best development of which he is


capable. Although this statement is rather broad, for not every remedial program is good and effective, the claim is probably justified.

Monroe and Backus\(^\text{11}\) justify a remedial reading program on the basis of the large number of pupils needing it and because reading disabilities constitute hindrances to subsequent school progress. A remedial program is also warranted, they hold, because of the relation between reading disabilities and personality and character. Such a program also supplements the regular reading instruction in an essential and helpful way.

What Monroe and Backus said about the importance of reading is unquestionably true, but the advisability of establishing a special remedial reading program to care for the needs of the retarded reader might be questioned today. The thought expressed by McCullough, Strang, and Traxler is more typical of the current view that as many cases of retarded reading as possible should be cared for in the classroom through a broadened reading program.

Harris\(^\text{12}\) published an article in 1945 which contrasted a remedial reading program carried on in a regular classroom situation to a program in which reading was taught by a specialist in a special room. Good arguments which Harris mentions in favor of a remedial program in the classroom are

\(^{11}\) Marion Monroe and Bertie Backus, *Remedial Reading*, New York, 1931, 3-4.

\(^{12}\) Janet D. Harris, "Specialized Remedial Reading Program Versus the Remedial Reading Program in the Classroom," *Elementary School Journal*, XLV, March, 1945, 408-410.
that most reading problems can be solved by the classroom procedures and that more time can be spent on reading. Further, the teacher can put the reading to use by integrating it with the content subjects more easily, and borderline cases who need help can be included. The classroom teacher will know the child and his needs better, and although Harris does not mention this, responsibility for the child is definitely placed on one person. In defense of the specialized approach Harris presents several arguments, the most convincing of which are the special training of the teacher and the opportunity for greater individualized work which are available in the specialized program.

Still bearing in mind the point of view which seeks to keep the basic reading program and a program for the retarded closely related, the three-fold division of reading programs made by Betts13 can be mentioned. He speaks of developmental, corrective and remedial programs. Developmental is that type which we know as the regular reading program, while corrective reading is that type of reading program required for non-readers and retarded readers who do not have associative learning disabilities. The term remedial reading is used to designate the type of program required by retarded readers characterized by associative learning disabilities, i.e., those who have difficulty in the establishment and retention of reading skill, especially when a visual-auditory approach is used.

Several writers dealt with the various kinds of special reading groups and patterns. Strang\textsuperscript{14} says that special reading groups are needed because of the range of ability in any room, because of the variety in their needs for reading, and because some pupils need more individual attention than others. The various kinds of special reading groups that Strang mentioned were subject classes with special attention to the improvement of reading, reading classes for all pupils, reading and homerooms and clubs, and reading groups for selected pupils. Strang’s article exemplified the broad plan of reading, a program that extends into all the subjects of school and makes provision for reading instruction at all levels of achievement.

Russell\textsuperscript{15} approached the problem of types of reading programs by listing three administrative methods of providing remedial instruction at either the elementary or secondary level. The methods Russell listed are:

1) the school employs a full time remedial teacher;
2) one or more teachers are released for part time work;
3) all the teachers in the school are expected to participate in remedial work.

A remedial program in a school with departmental organization was described by Fishback.\textsuperscript{16} A special remedial room was established, and the


remedial program was taken over by an English teacher who prepared herself for the work by intensive reading and university courses. Three periods were devoted to arithmetic each day and three to reading. Another article published in the same year, 1938, by Donnelly recommended a procedure similar to that described by Fishback. Whereas both these writers recommended the isolation of the retarded, the trend since that time has been to take care of as many retarded students as possible in the regular classroom situation.

Dolch, who might be grouped with Donnelly and Fishback, presented three views as to the work of the remedial teacher. The remedial teacher may be in effect the supervisor of reading; she may conduct a reading clinic; she may be the remedial teacher in a classroom of poor readers. The latter, Dolch says, is the poorest use of a remedial teacher.

Principles of Remedial Programs

The first part of this chapter was devoted to the various types of remedial programs, and the second part describes some of the broader principles and characteristics of good remedial programs.

Kottmeyer holds that one of the main causes of reading difficulties has been the failure to adapt instruction when the change from

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17 Helen E. Donnelly, "Remedial Reading Classroom," Education LIX, September, 1938, 31-36.

18 Dolch, Manual for Remedial Reading, 322.

a graded school to chronological promotion took place. The traditional methods of providing quantities of similar reading materials to classrooms are no longer serviceable. In his Handbook for Remedial Reading, written several years later, Kottmeyer developed this same point. In view of the common experience of finding a reading achievement range of at least ten years at the eighth grade level, teachers will do well to abandon traditional notions of what they may expect in achievement from a given group of graded pupils. Activities and materials which can be used by children independently or with other children must be planned.

Cole concurs with Kottmeyer's belief that the basic cause of reading difficulties is the failure of schools to adjust the curriculum to the current promotion policy.

McCullough, Strang, and Traxler provide more complete explanation of the cause for reading failure. Several that they list, which are administrative problems, are the lack of continuity from kindergarten through college, curriculum revision without teacher instruction, misuse of tests, unsound promotional policies, and lack of suitable materials.

William S. Gray, who has exercised effective leadership in the

22 McCullough, Strang, and Traxler, Problems In the Improvement of Reading, New York, 1946.
field of research in reading, reported the trends in remedial reading for
ten years up to 1943. Gray said there was abundant evidence of the multitude
of reading disabilities, and that diagnosis, once limited almost entirely
to the physical, had been very much broadened. Another most important trend
noted then was the acceptance of mental age as the criterion of reading
disability rather than chronological age or grade level. It might be added
that since 1943 even the concept of mental age has been broken down to
various mental factors, upon some of which reading is more dependent than on
others.

At about the same time that Gray wrote the above article, another
writer in the field of reading, Gates,24 stated several principles that he
felt were generally accepted in remediation of reading disabilities. One
of these principles receiving steadily increasing emphasis today is the need
for early diagnosis, because there are certain critical periods in the
development of a child's reading ability, particularly the beginning period
and the transition from primary to intermediate reading. Another important
trend noted by Gates was the decreased attention given to long drills and
machines and the increased attention given to varied and interesting reading
materials.

In 1941 Thompson25 reported agreement on principles for the

24 Arthur I. Gates, "Diagnosis and Remediation in Reading."

25 R. B. Thompson, "Administration of Remedial Programs."
Educational Administration and Supervision, XXII, March, 1941, 226-228.
administration of remedial programs. He reported the need for articulation of remedial programs with other school subjects, the need for teachers to have special training, and the need for individualizing instruction within special groups.

The conclusions Preston\textsuperscript{26} drew from a study of the non-readers in over thirty schools in 1940 also stand as accepted principles in remedial instruction today. Preston stressed the need for special training for teachers of beginning reading so that they may become masters of the art of teaching reading in spite of numerous individual differences. Preston also pointed to the great importance of using any and all of the available methods in the process of remediation.

Thompson and Preston in the articles just referred to treat some of the critical problems of reading: an integrated reading program, teacher training, individualized instruction, and a many-sided attack on retarded reading. It is by bringing these problems to the foreground frequently that the reading situation will eventually be improved.

Cole\textsuperscript{27} included a chapter on the administration of remedial work in her book, The Improvement of Reading. Among her suggestions for the prevention of reading difficulties she recommends the postponement of reading until a pupil is ready to read. Cole also recommends that definite standards

\textsuperscript{26} Mary I. Preston, "The School Looks at the Non-Reader," \textit{Elementary School Journal}, XL, February, 1940, 450-458.

\textsuperscript{27} Luella B. Cole, \textit{The Improvement of Reading}, 309-310.
for entrance to each new level or work be established and that good materials
be provided. She feels that more individual instruction in the regular
classroom would also eliminate the beginnings of reading difficulties.

Recognizing the fact that many average and superior students are
frequently not reading to the full level of their capacity, Strang\(^2\) makes
several worthwhile suggestions for this group. She says that the school
should provide an environment in which reading seems desirable and necessary
to the students as a part of their total program of development. She also
recommends guiding the reading of individuals as well as the study of their
reading processes. Students should be helped to set goals of reading
achievement for themselves.

Although Nutterville and Bloom\(^2\) report on a high school project,
the conclusions they reach are surely applicable to any elementary school
program for the improvement of reading. They recommend the adjustment of the
curriculum to needs and abilities, since part of the motivation for students
comes from their ability to analyze materials they read. All materials in
remedial reading should be transferable to other subjects. They also stress
the need for revision of texts in the content subjects so that vocabulary
and content are graded more accurately.

\(^2\)Ruth Strang, "The Improvement of Reading of the Average and the

\(^2\)C. Nutterville and A. Z. Bloom, "Remedial Reading Program in Butte
High School," \textit{Educational Administration and Supervision}, XXVI, November,
1940, 572-584.
Monroe and Backus\(^30\) discuss the administration of remedial reading and point out that remedial work is most effective when given individually and that it should be given at a favorable time of the day. Remedial reading, they say, requires a supply of interesting and varied reading materials as well as the specific training of teachers for the work.

Witty and Kopel\(^31\) have written several articles pertinent to the subject of remedial programs. With their usual stress on interest and motivation, the authors assert that the person who develops a remedial reading program has two major obligations: 1) to provide an orderly, systematic series of silent and oral reading experiences in accord with the ability of each poor reader; 2) to develop a series of reading and related experiences which will extend and intensify each child's interests.

In another article Witty and Kopel\(^32\) challenged the then current practices in remedial reading, which they felt, were too narrowly conceived. A remedial program should be reoriented in terms of larger considerations and aims, and remedial teachers must look beyond specific habits and skills in which there is obvious deficiency. Teachers must aim to help the child adjust himself better to his school and social environment as a fundamental

\(^{30}\) Monroe and Backus, *Remedial Reading*, 39-42.


step in a remedial program. This view is supported by the fact that reading retardation is but one of many manifestations of poor adjustment to the program of the school and to the demands on the individual outside the school.

Dolch lists characteristics of a good remedial program for both departmental and non-departmental schools. In the non-departmental school, every teacher should give some remedial help, and the slow students should be helped in classes other than reading. Dolch says that slow reading groups are possible in every room in the non-departmental organization and that free reading periods every day are desirable. In the departmental organization Dolch says that a teacher can be freed for part-time remedial work, and that the remedial teacher is not just a departmental teacher. This organization is advantageous in that it permits better use of the library and can cut across grade levels.

Still remaining in the field of broad principles, but of a somewhat more specific nature, is an article by McBroom which lists the five phases of remedial reading as practiced at the University of Iowa Reading Clinic, and although listed for a clinic, they are applicable in general programs as well. McBroom recommends the introduction and maintenance of a controlled vocabulary after the right starting point has been determined. Phonetic analysis of words should be taught and plans should be made as soon as possible for recreational reading and for the child to feel confidence.

33 Dolch, Manual for Remedial Reading, 342-349.
Robinson's article is somewhat similar. She outlined seven principles in the treatment of severely disabled readers. In summarized form these principles are as follows: 1) thorough diagnosis; 2) aim remedial training at the cause; 3) cooperation of the child is essential; 4) psychiatric treatment is sometimes necessary; 5) methods used are those of good first teaching; 6) provide ample materials; 7) final goal is resocialization in the community.

Lazar presents what she considers to be the characteristics of a good reading program in an excellent publication of the New York Public Schools. She says the effective program should recognize the difference in development among children. The language arts should be integrated, and methods should be varied and flexible. Lazar insists that there must be a constructive approach to reading difficulties and an understanding of learning conditions. A constructive relationship between the teacher and supervisor is, she notes, also characteristic of an effective reading program.

The second part of this chapter reviewed articles which treated the problem of remedial reading programs in a rather comprehensive manner. Toward the end of the section it may have been noted that the articles


became rather specific although they still dealt with the broader principles of reading programs.

Problems in the Administration of Remedial Reading

The third part of the chapter, becoming even more specific, departs from the idea of reading programs temporarily and treats problems which are of importance to the administrator of remedial reading. The literature to be reviewed includes discussions of selection of students, the extent of reading disability, teaching aids, teaching procedures, and teacher qualifications and training.

Herrick's article on the criteria for the selection of pupils who are in need of special reading instruction may serve as an introduction to this section. He recommends four procedures: 1) the disparity technique; 2) Monroe's reading index; 3) Olson and Highes' split growth analysis; 4) case-study analysis. The disparity technique determines whether a child reads at a grade level that his mental age indicates would be his capacity. Data for determining this comes from intelligence tests and general reading tests. Monroe's reading index is derived from a comparison of chronological age, mental age, and arithmetic scores to chronological age and reading success.


38 For a fuller explanation of the Monroe Reading Index, cf. Monroe and Backus, Remedial Reading, 37-38.
The split growth concept of Olson and Hughes is based on deviation from organismic age which is the mean value of all separate ages available for a child. The case study method includes all of the above and whatever other information can be gathered concerning a child.

Reports on the extent of reading difficulties have been made by a number of authors. A study by Durrell and Duffy shows that third graders range in reading achievement from first to sixth grade. Cornell found that in a cross section of seven year old school children there was a range in educational grade from first to low sixth, and that ten year olds covered the entire range of elementary and high school years. Alden, Sullivan, and Durrell made an extensive study of elementary school children and found that almost seven per cent of the second graders were retarded an entire year while over eighteen per cent of the fourth graders were retarded to that degree. In the same study it was found that almost five per cent of the fourth graders were retarded two years or more.

Teaching aids for the improvement of reading have received considerable treatment in the literature. Much discussion was centered on


41 Clara B. Alden, Helen B. Sullivan, and Donald Durrell, "The Frequency of Special Reading Disabilities," Education, LXII, Sept., 1941, 32-56.
the subject of mechanical aids. Blair\textsuperscript{42} describes the function of the machines used in reading clinics and shows that they are not indispensable in a remedial reading program. A school with a limited budget would do better, Blair says, to invest in reading materials, for the functions of the machines can be accomplished in a simpler way, and this is particularly true if there are no skilled operators available.

Witty\textsuperscript{43} described the development of reading during the 1930's and also described the value that had been placed on mechanical devices purported to correct eye-movement and speed. Witty stressed the need for seeing the disabled reader in the light of all his living, his interests, and environment. In another article written almost ten years later, Witty\textsuperscript{44} provided what might well have been a sequel to the article just reviewed. In it he says that remedial reading must use material in which the disabled reader is interested. The reader's interests can be discovered through interest inventories, interviews, check lists, anecdotal records and written compositions. Shaffer\textsuperscript{45} provided a valuable aid for finding materials to meet the retarded reader's interests. She published a list of

\textsuperscript{42} G. L. Blair, "Instrumentation and the Remedial Reading Program," \textit{Educational Administration and Supervision}, XXVI, March 1940, 201-208.


\textsuperscript{44} Paul Witty, "Role of Attitudes in Children's Failures and Successes," \textit{ME Journal}, XXXVII, October 1948, 422-423.

140 book-titles for use in remedial work with a notation of vocabulary and interest level for each book. Whipple\textsuperscript{46} published an excellent article that urged the integration of reading with the rest of the curriculum and specifically stressed the need of keeping materials in the social studies at the student's level.

Dearborn\textsuperscript{47} further stressed the need for motivation through the changing of the set of mind or the intention of the learner as a more important factor in remedial reading than the particular methods and materials of instruction. He claims that Fernald and Gates achieved the success they did because of personalities rather than because of their methods. Monroe\textsuperscript{48} says that the greatest motivating factor in remedial reading is the student's own success. Enthusiasm and interest usually follow any sort of success.

Dyer\textsuperscript{49} approached the motivation problem from another aspect. She cited the need for understanding the child as a whole and for enlisting his cooperation by arousing in him an intense desire and a determination to improve his reading efficiency.

\textsuperscript{46} Gertrude Whipple, "Guiding Reading in the Middle Grades," \textit{Social Education}, III, January 1939, 40-46.

\textsuperscript{47} Walter F. Dearborn, "Motivation Versus Control in Remedial Reading," \textit{Education}, LIX, September 1938, 1-6.

\textsuperscript{48} Marion Monroe, \textit{Children Who Cannot Read}, Chicago, 1932, 115.

Recognizing and providing for individual differences is fundamental in every successful program for retarded students. The problem of providing for individualized instruction constitutes one of the most difficult tasks of the administrator. The next group of articles show several approaches to the subject.

Pulliam\textsuperscript{50} suggests two different methods of grouping for a school with departmental organization. The first plan is to group pupils who manifest similar weaknesses, and these groups are met four or five times a week during a special period. This plan provides homogeneity in the grouping. The second plan would place students in regular English classes in which part of the time throughout a semester is devoted to instruction in reading. Hildreth\textsuperscript{51} lists ways in which instruction can be individualized at the various levels in elementary school. For the primary grades Hildreth recommends sub-grouping, individual coaching, differentiated materials, the development of school and classroom libraries, visits from the city librarian and the loan of books, reading club activities, and various games and drills. For the middle and upper grades she suggests excursions, unit projects, activities around which individualized reading is centered.

\textsuperscript{50} R. A. Pulliam, "Group Instruction in Reading: A Suggestive Program," \textit{Elementary English Review}, XXII, May 1945, 186-188.

\textsuperscript{51} Gertrude Hildreth, "Individualized Reading Instruction," \textit{Teachers College Record}, XLII, November 1940, 123-137.
bulletin board, class newspaper, reports, charts of progress made and book reviews.

Betts\textsuperscript{52} classifies teaching procedures as psychological and pedagogical. In the psychological he includes visual (non-oral), visual-auditory (traditional), visual-auditory-kinaesthetic, and visual-oral-kinaesthetic-tactile (Fernald). In the pedagogical approach he includes the basal reader, modified experience, and experience approaches.

This section of the chapter can be concluded with several treatments of such qualifications of the remedial teacher as temperament, training and experience. Dolch\textsuperscript{53} lists the qualifications that he feels a remedial teacher should possess. A remedial teacher should have energy with patience and a real liking for people, especially children. She must have the "service" point of view and enthusiasm for work. She should have been a good classroom teacher and needs a true understanding of the reading program. She must have a sane attitude towards tests.

Font\textsuperscript{54} reports the value of a course for remedial teachers which required an intensive study of an individual case throughout the period of the course. Such a procedure makes the teacher's contacts with clinical

\textsuperscript{52} Emmett A. Betts, "Foundations of the Reading Program," \textit{Education}, LXVII, March 1947, 399-411.

\textsuperscript{53} Dolch, \textit{Manual for Remedial Reading}, 239.

\textsuperscript{54} Marion McKenzie Font, "Orientation in Clinical Approach through Remedial Reading Instruction," \textit{American Journal of Orthopsychiatry}, XII, April 1942, 324-334.
agencies more meaningful and integrates theory and practice in the remedial field. Triggs\(^{55}\) in a further discussion of teacher-training points to the value of the demonstration as an effective technique in training remedial teachers. A course for training remedial teachers might include observation of a trained instructor actually handling a problem situation, responsibility with such situations under the supervision of a specialist, and regular theoretical instruction as is offered in the classroom.

Since many school systems cannot afford a specialist in remedial reading, Dolch\(^{56}\) suggests that it would be good to establish one teacher as something of a specialist in reading. The first step a teacher should take to become adept in remedial instruction, Dolch says, is to acquire a professional library including several of the basic books on reading and several of the leading periodicals in the field. Familiarity with the tests used in the work is important as is an understanding of the reading process and the ways a child can become disabled. If possible the teacher should attend a reading clinic so that she may become familiar with the methods used with actual cases. Finally, the teacher should acquire a battery of methods from many additional sources for application to the retarded children in her school.

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\(^{55}\) Frances O. Triggs, "Demonstration Work as a Method of Teaching Teachers of Remedial Reading," *Education*, LXI, March 1941, 423-426.

Programs for the Retarded

The fourth and final part of this chapter is concerned with descriptions of actual programs that are or have been in operation. The works that have been reported thus far have been generalizations and conclusions made by persons from their experience in the field of reading improvement. A few of the reports in this concluding section are of experimental situations, but for the most part they are on programs that were instituted as a part of a broader program for the improvement of reading. The order of this part proceeds from a single room situation, to a school situation, and finally to a systemwide program.

An effort to improve reading in a seventh grade was reported by Burnside. The program centered on vocabulary study, oral reading, purposeful silent reading, and the elimination of undesirable habits. The author felt justified in making these general conclusions: 1) students make definite and rapid progress when given instruction in special reading skills; 2) greater progress is made in small groups where the need for remedial work is general than in groups of mixed ability; 3) student's interest can be built up to the point where there is no need to urge them to read.

McWilliams reported the reestablishment of a formal reading


program and such good results as followed from it. The "incidental" program was replaced by one that included the establishment of what was called an eighteen level program, i.e., these levels were established in the intermediary grades, and the child could pass freely from one group to another. However, some writers feel that this type of program should not be advocated because there is no real placing of responsibility for each child in such a method.

Fox\textsuperscript{59} reported an experiment at the Abilene Christian College that also sprang from a dissatisfaction with the results of an incidental reading program. The primary purpose of the work was to establish means for the bright students to read to the fullness of their capacity, and the variety of techniques used to accomplish this purpose are reported by Fox in the article.

Kyker\textsuperscript{60} reported a remedial reading program in a semi-rural school of eight grades and six rooms. The school employed six full-time teachers and one half-time teacher. Pupils who received remedial instruction were chosen on the basis of standardized tests and teachers' estimates. Twenty-five of those chosen for the program were given further diagnostic testing including vision, hearing, intelligence and reading. Grouping for the

\textsuperscript{59} Maude Greene Fox, "Experiment in Promoting Interest in Reading," \textit{Elementary School Journal}, XLVII, April 1947, 451-460.

\textsuperscript{60} Charles Kyker, "Remedial Reading in a Semi-Rural School," \textit{Elementary School Review}, XX, April 1943, 161-162.
instruction was on the basis of reading difficulties, and Kyker reports that for the twenty-three week period the average improvement was one and one-half grades. All but six of the children reached their normal grade level.

Hamilton61 described the reading improvement program in Point Pleasant where the first step was to hire a reading specialist. As the program developed in grades three to six it was determined to have only one reading level for each grade. This grouping, which was based on achievement level and disregarded grade barriers, was set-up so that a child would not be advanced or retarded beyond one grade level. For example, high third, average fourth and low fifth would constitute one class.

Waite62 reported the follow-up work on the administration of a reading test to all the third graders in the Omaha schools. A full interpretation of the norms was made to each school in terms of its relation to the norms of the city and of the test. The program that resulted from the testing had as its first point the clarification of goals in reading. Conferences were held, discussions were planned, and reading clinics and demonstration centers were set-up. A reading workshop was

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established, and reading consultants were named for helping those schools that wanted help.

Munson63 described the program for caring for individual differences in the Chicago Public Schools. This is done through the Adjustment Service which is characterized by having in each school a full-time adjustment teacher who works under the direction of the school principal and co-ordinates the work of the Service with the total facilities of the school and the staff members of the Bureau of Child Study. The goal of the Adjustment Service, as the name implies, is the adjustment of educational procedures to individual differences. The adjustment teachers are given two weeks of special training plus continued in-service training which includes instruction and experience in administering tests, a study of the cumulative record system and methods of detecting reading disability cases. The training also includes familiarizing the teachers with the Chicago plan for the improvement of reading. This plan, carried on in the classroom by the regular teacher under the leadership of the adjustment teacher, is a truly individualized technique that serves not only the retarded reader but the gifted child as well. According to this plan each child starts at his level of attainable success on an assignment series selected for him from materials that have been expertly graded. His own power and his past accomplishment are the only standards of comparison, and the materials are advanced or lowered

on the judgment of the classroom teacher. The most difficult part of the Chicago plan is the organization of the classroom for the smooth functioning of the program. Pupil officers are essential to it, and each student in the room must know the functions of the officers so that he can call on their services. That this difficulty is not insurmountable is proven by the fact that third graders can operate the program very nicely.

Besides the adjustment teacher in every school and the individualized reading program in many, the Chicago schools also have the services of the Bureau of Child Study which provides the clinical assistance needed for the seriously disabled reader. The Bureau of Child Study has a staff of psychologists who visit the schools regularly and work in close cooperation with principals and teachers.

Yanow64 and Gardner65 each have written an article describing the "Reading Center approach" that is used in Milwaukee to care for the retarded readers. The administrators of Milwaukee's schools feel that, instead of establishing one central reading clinic for the diagnosis and treatment of severe cases of reading disability, the school system should set up a sufficient number of reading centers to take care of children who do not

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64 Melvin M. Yanow, "Reading Center Comes of Age," reprint from Teaching Progress, V, March 1950, a publication of the Milwaukee Public Schools.

65 Dorothy Gardner, "Reading Center Program Expands," reprint from Teaching Progress, VI November 1950, a publication of the Milwaukee Public Schools.
respond adequately to classroom instruction. In March 1950, sixteen such reading centers had been established. The advantages growing from this plan are that remedial instruction is given to boys and girls who are predominantly of the average or better than average intelligence, and that renewed interest and emphasis on reading fundamentals is given by regular teachers. All children who attend a reading center are enrolled in a home-room appropriate for them in the school in which a center is operated, and it is significant that this arrangement places the responsibility for the growth in reading on the homeroom teacher. Those who describe the Milwaukee program lay great stress on the importance of close cooperation between home-room and reading center teachers.

An entire issue of the *St. Louis Public School Journal* was devoted to the reading program in the St. Louis schools. The five parts of the issue are concerned with clinic services, diagnosis, remediation, consultant service and in-service training. Among the reading clinic services are diagnosis of reading disability, remedial teaching for severely retarded pupils, consultant service for classroom teachers and in-service training for classroom teachers. In brief, the clinics are the service-centers for the schools and are the agency through which the reading program is carried forward. The second important service which is rendered to the pupils of the

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66 *Saint Louis Public School Journal, Research and Survey Series No. 6, III, February 1949*. This issue describes the city-wide program for increasing efficiency in reading.
St. Louis schools is that of diagnosis which is described to be a very thorough procedure. The various methods of remediation are described with the results achieved in some cases. The work of the consultants is directed toward the practical aspects of organizing a reading program in which adjustment of materials and instruction is made to individual differences.

The in-service training program for teachers is carried on at the reading clinics where a small full-time staff directs the work of classroom teachers who spend one semester working with reading cases that are brought to the clinic. Teachers are encouraged to visit the clinics, and certain days are set aside for special demonstration work.

Hester67 gave a detailed and interesting account of a country-wide program for the improvement of reading in the intermediate grades. The lower one-third of the students in grades three to six in the schools of Dade County, Florida, were tested to find the most pressing reading problems. The first step after the testing program was to hold a series of faculty meetings to plan a program of action, and it was decided to meet the problem of poor reading through summer reading laboratories. Hester reports that three summer sessions of nine weeks were held, and the University of Miami offered graduate courses that would be coordinated with this program. The outstanding teachers in the system were chosen to teach in the program, and

classes were established on the basis of reading level alone. Gains made by the group ranged up to thirty months with the median gain being seven months. Hester drew the following conclusions for the general reading program of Dade County: a more thorough program of reading readiness was required; experiential backgrounds must be developed; there must be greater individualization; more interesting materials should be provided; children must learn to read but also read to learn; there should be better teacher training in reading; there should be better parent education on the subject.

**Conclusion**

Chapter III contained a review of the literature on remedial reading. The readings were discussed under four headings: types of remedial programs, principles of remedial programs, problems in the administration of remedial reading, and programs for the retarded.
CHAPTER IV

A SURVEY OF DIOCESAN PROGRAMS

FOR READING IMPROVEMENT

In order to determine what can be done by a diocesan department of education to improve reading in its schools, a survey was made of what actually is being done in this regard throughout the United States. The results of the survey are reported in this chapter.

A questionnaire1 was sent to the 121 diocesan superintendents of schools in the United States of whom sixty-eight responded.2 The fifty-six per cent response which represented thirty-seven states would seem to represent an adequate sampling. Five of the respondents indicated inability to respond to the questionnaire because the school system in the dioceses they represent was not organized to the point where much could be done to improve reading on a diocesan level. Although negative responses might be assumed for these five returned but unanswered questionnaires, they have not been included in the tabulation of responses made. Other questionnaires which were answered seemed to indicate similar situations, but the responses from these dioceses were tabulated.

1 Of Appendix.

2 Because the Diocese of Green Bay is discussed in detail in another chapter it is not included here.
Because of the method used to gather the data, the information gathered is of a rather general nature. A questionnaire designed for more detailed information was considered but rejected because it was feared that too great a number would be unanswered, particularly if the questions asked would probably force a negative response. One part of the questionnaire, for example, concerned testing programs sponsored by the dioceses. Everyone knows that the mere sponsoring of a testing program does not insure full results from the tests, but rather than risk the chance of over-burdening the respondents and thereby discouraging their responding, the questions were made general. The large number of negative responses to even the general questions justified this action, for the detailed questions would have been applicable to only a small part of the dioceses.

A comparison on the basis of size of the dioceses which responded to those dioceses which did not respond seems to indicate that the findings of the survey are representative of the national situation. A frequency distribution of the two groups was made and is shown in TABLE 1. It can be seen that there is a great spread in the sizes of the dioceses. The responding dioceses tended to be the larger ones, although the difference is not appreciable. It can be surmised that the superintendents of some of the smaller dioceses did not return their questionnaires because they felt that their negative response was unimportant, while other dioceses, not necessarily the smaller ones, have little organization in their system because the schools are scattered so widely throughout the area. There are also those dioceses of which nothing more can be said than that they did not respond.
TABLE I

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION COMPARING SIZE OF DIOCESAN SYSTEMS
THAT RESPONDED AND DID NOT RESPOND TO QUESTIONNAIRE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Schools in Diocese</th>
<th>Dioceses Responding</th>
<th>Dioceses Not Responding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>More than 130</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>120-129</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>110-119</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100-109</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90-99</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80-89</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70-79</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60-69</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59 (Md.)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5 (Md.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-29</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 20</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=68                          
Md=57                          
N=53                          
Md=43
The questionnaire sought information about certain aspects of reading and administration that would indicate to what extent a diocesan department of education enters into the reading problem of the schools of the diocese. The general aspects on which information was sought were the following: a) testing program; b) supervision; c) teacher training; d) text-book policy; e) clinical services. The final question gave the respondents an opportunity to name what they consider to be the greatest obstacles to the improvement of their reading programs.

**Testing Programs**

The questions concerning testing programs covered achievement tests in reading, intelligence tests, and reading readiness tests. The tabulation of responses to the questions on reading achievement tests is given in TABLE II. Those dioceses which sponsored achievement tests in reading did so for all the divisions, primary, middle, and upper. It was, however, somewhat surprising to find that almost forty per cent of the dioceses responding do not sponsor achievement tests in reading at all. Twenty-five of the sixty-three respondents indicated that there is no achievement testing program on a diocesan level. In regard to the frequency of administration, twenty-one of the thirty-eight dioceses sponsoring achievement testing (fifty-five per cent) administered the tests annually. Six dioceses tested less frequently; eleven tested more frequently. In the primary division twenty-three dioceses tested every year; eight less frequently; seven dioceses more frequently than once a year.
TABLE II

READING ACHIEVEMENT TESTS ADMINISTERED UNDER DIOCESAN SUPERVISION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Division</th>
<th>Every Year</th>
<th>Less Frequently</th>
<th>More Frequently</th>
<th>Not At All</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The literature reviewed in the last two chapters stated repeatedly that a testing program is indispensable in a sound reading program both in the beginning to determine the status of reading as well as along the way to see what progress is being made. The negative reply of forty per cent of the respondents seems to indicate that these dioceses are doing very little in the formulation and direction of a diocesan reading program.

On the other hand the sixty per cent positive response is not in itself sufficient to assure the existence of a sound reading program in those thirty-eight dioceses. The questionnaire did not probe further into the actual use made of the tests, lest the instrument which sought information be totally disregarded by those to whom it was sent. The most optimistic conclusion that could be drawn is that sixty per cent of the responding dioceses use the tools of measurement necessary for a sound reading program, but such a conclusion would be unwarranted because it is based on too many assumptions. Among the assumptions one would have to make are the following:
the use of valid and reliable tests; the proper administration of the tests; the interpretation and follow-up of the tests. Because it would be incorrect to make these assumptions without factual evidence, the only valid conclusion that can be drawn is that sixty per cent of the responding dioceses have a testing program; forty per cent do not.

Achievement tests are of little help in understanding a child unless there is some knowledge of what the child's capacity for achievement is. For that reason intelligence testing is an essential part of a testing program. Intelligence tests also tell us something about the intellectual pattern of the individual child. Where does his strength or weakness lie? In verbal ability, in number ability, in space perception, or in some other mental ability? Certain mental abilities are of more importance to reading than others, so that an intelligence test should provide at least a rough indication of the student's probable success in reading.

Results of the survey indicate that more dioceses sponsor intelligence testing programs than achievement testing programs. Forty-six dioceses (seventy-three per cent) indicated the existence of a program of intelligence testing. Half of these systems administer intelligence tests three times during a student's eight year stay in school. In most cases the testing takes place in the first, fourth, and seventh grades. Only three dioceses administer tests more frequently; thirteen dioceses test twice and seven dioceses test only once during a student's stay in elementary school. Seventeen of the dioceses responding to the questionnaire do not sponsor any program of intelligence testing. These data on intelligence testing are shown in TABLE III.
TABLE III

DIOCESES SPONSORING INTELLIGENCE TESTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency of Administration</th>
<th>Number of Dioceses</th>
<th>Percentage of Responding Dioceses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Once</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twice</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three times</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four times</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data from 63 dioceses that responded to questionnaire.

The final aspect of the testing program about which information was sought in the survey was diocesan sponsorship of reading readiness tests. In response to the statement, "Reading readiness tests are administered under our supervision," twenty-two of the superintendents answered in the affirmative; forty-one answered negatively. Roughly, one-third of the respondents have taken steps to guide pupils and teachers through the critical period of beginning reading. No effort was made to find out why more of them did not do likewise.

**Supervision**

A single question was used to inquire about the supervision of reading programs in Catholic school systems in the United States. The next section of the chapter on teacher-training could be placed under the heading of supervision, too, but that problem seemed important enough to deserve
separate treatment.

The question on supervision was intended to find out how many dioceses had supervisors working directly under the superintendents and in how many dioceses the work of supervision was carried on by community supervisors. This question assumes considerable importance in a discussion of reading programs that receive their impetus and inspiration from a diocesan department of education. If the supervisory personnel are under the direction of the superintendent of schools, one can expect a reading program to be given the fullest cooperation from those persons. If, on the other hand, a supervisor works under the direction of a religious community, there is no assurance that the superintendent's program will be given such cooperation. It might and it might not. If a community disagrees with the superintendent's plan, there is little that can be done about it. The number of diocesan supervisors is shown in TABLE IV.

**TABLE IV**

**DIOCESAN SUPERVISORS WORKING FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF READING***

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Supervisors</th>
<th>None</th>
<th>1-3</th>
<th>4-6</th>
<th>7-9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dioceses</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Data from 63 dioceses that responded to questionnaire.*

Teacher Training

The third approach to determine what is being done on a diocesan
level for the improvement of reading was made through questions regarding
teacher training. This included questions regarding formal teacher training
as well as in-service training programs. The questions, of course, were
concerned with the teaching of reading.

The response to the questionnaire showed weakness in that part
dealing with formal training programs. The first item on the questionnaire
read as follows: "We conduct a formal teacher-training program, i.e.,
teachers in our diocese have the opportunity to gain college credits towards
the Bachelor's degree in an institution under our direction." The question
is too specific, and too many situations exist where the education depart­
ment of a diocese can be very influential without actually directing the
college itself. The question, therefore, eliminated all such situations,
although some noted that such work was done in a college conducted by the
diocese or by a religious community. Eleven superintendents indicated that
formal training programs were conducted under the direction of the diocesan
department of education. Nine of the eleven respondents said that a year­
round program was carried on, while in two dioceses only summer sessions
were conducted.

Two of the items of the questionnaire concerned in-service training
in reading instruction. The first of these was a simple "yes-no" item in
which the superintendents were asked if they sent information to the schools
concerning current materials in reading, thus providing guidance to the
schools in their purchase of reading materials. To this question there were
thirty-four affirmative replies and twenty-seven negative replies.
The second item on in-service training was a brief check-list, the results of which are tabulated in TABLE V.

**TABLE V**

IN-SERVICE TRAINING PROGRAMS FOR IMPROVEMENT OF READING CONDUCTED BY DIOCESAN DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lectures and Demonstrations</th>
<th>Bulletins</th>
<th>Professional Books</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of Dioceses</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Data from 63 dioceses that responded to questionnaire.*

Forty three of the replies indicated that occasional lectures or demonstrations were held as a feature of their in-service training program. Fourteen dioceses sent bulletins on reading problems to the schools, while eleven dioceses provided easy access to professional books on reading.

Several lines were left blank after this item for the respondents to add any other techniques of in-service training that they use. The following is a list of the techniques mentioned as they were written on the questionnaire.

"Teachers meetings."

"Teacher conferences and workshops."

"Convents attached to schools have started professional libraries. We keep the schools informed on new books but do not supply them."

"Planned teacher participation meetings held at least four times yearly in four major cities of the Diocese."

"Six sisters are taking 'sight saving' classes at ___ University."
"Workshops for primary teachers August 21-26, 1951, for reading only."

"Courses at ______ College, graduate and undergraduate."

"Classes for in-service teachers at ______ College."

"First Grade Teachers Organization is concerned primarily with the teaching of primary reading."

"Providing pupil materials."

"Individual conferences with each teacher annually."

"We suggest an adjustment program for individuals below grade on achievement tests. We will set-up a program on request."

"Workshop."

"Securing through request all books on reading from ______ University."

"Recommending purchase of certain books for convent libraries."

"Experimental work in selected schools."

"All this (in-service training) is done through committees."

"Year-around program conducted at ______ College for the benefit of teachers, either after school hours or during holiday or vacation hours, at their convenience."

"We have no diocesan in-service program. The communities in the diocese handle the program."

Text-Book Policy

The fourth area probed was that of diocesan policy on reading texts. The use of a good basal reading series is an important part of a sound reading program. Thirty-seven of the superintendents said that a diocesan adopted text was used, and thirteen others said that schools were permitted
to choose among several. Eighty per cent of the responding dioceses, then, keep close vigilance on this part of the reading program.

Clinical Services

Information was next sought on clinical services provided by the respective dioceses. A check-list of four items was given, plus space to add other services they might make available. Twelve of the dioceses have psychologists to help solve the problems of retarded readers, and four dioceses said that tutoring service was provided. Seven said mechanical devices such as the metronoscope and ophthalmograph were available. One-third of the dioceses provide visual and auditory screening. TABLE VI shows this tabulation.

TABLE VI

CLINICAL SERVICES PROVIDED BY DIOCESAN DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service</th>
<th>Number of Dioceses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Psychologist</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tutoring Service</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mechanical Services</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual and Auditory Screening</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is clear that this last question revealed a definite weak spot
in the reading programs of diocesan systems. Only a small percentage of the dioceses provide anything in the way of clinical services; this deficiency, however, is met in some places through the use of public clinics. Thirteen superintendents used the space allotted to clinical services not listed in this item. Given in the sequence in which they were received, the replies were the following.

Reading clinic at a high school.

A school for retarded children which is mainly devoted to reading.

A full time teacher with part-time assistants working in School Office. The children come to the office for examination and remedial work.

... College has a reading clinic and provides a program of remedial reading.

1. Remedial prescriptions for class-room teacher prepared by diocesan supervisors.

2. Reading clinics--six weeks during summer for students selected by our supervisors in conference with principals and teachers.

Completely equipped reading clinic with a specially trained teacher (nun) in charge. All retarded readers with an IQ of 85 or better pass through the clinic after a complete testing program by psychologist and directress.

General health services.

Physical examination in accordance with State law.

A limited clinical service for the University students who follow a course in reading problems.

We have access to all public school facilities.

Clinical services available through courtesy of city.
We have a splendid psychological diagnostic testing clinic.

Localities differ in certain services available through public schools.

Obstacles to Improved Reading

The final item on the questionnaire asked the superintendents to express what they thought were the major obstacles to improved reading. Forty-one of the replies included comment in the space allotted for this. Twenty-two left the space blank. TABLE VII is a list of the obstacles given in the order of frequency of their being mentioned.

TABLE VII

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OBSTACLES TO IMPROVED READING AND THE FREQUENCY OF THEIR MENTION BY SUPERINTENDENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Inadequate teacher training.................16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Crowded conditions..............................11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Personnel shortage..............................8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Financial........................................7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Distance..........................................5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Inadequate supervisory staff...............4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Entrance age.....................................2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Lack of materials..............................2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Crowded curriculum.............................2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The obstacle listed most frequently by the superintendents was inadequate teacher preparation. Sixteen of the superintendents considered this to be a major problem. Crowded school conditions and shortage of
personnel were listed as the second and third most pressing problems, although they are so closely related that they might be considered the same problem. If there were more teachers, the teacher load would be lighter. On the other hand, if there were not so many children, there would be no teacher shortage.

There were several superintendents who enlarged on the problem of teacher training. The inability of teachers to recognize individual differences was scored by a number of the respondents. Others went back a step further and criticized the theorists of reading, and it was interesting to have theories at complete variance with one another (not to mention common practice) expressed with great vehemence. One advocated a phonic program that began with the teaching of the alphabet on a child's first day in school while another objected to the over-emphasis of phonics and advocated the non-oral method of learning to read. Another respondent who was more moderate in his expression thought there was an over-emphasis on the mechanics of reading and not enough stress on the meaning and enrichment. At the same time there is a failure to apply the knowledge of phonics in reading content material.

While teacher-training is the most frequently mentioned obstacle to reading improvement it is clear that there would be quite a divergence of opinion on just what sort of training the teachers should receive.

Another difficulty met with and very likely met more often than it was mentioned was financial. It is one of the problems that will not be solved in the foreseeable future of Catholic education. Working under
financial handicap has been taken for granted.

The distance factor in a diocesan school system was mentioned by five superintendents and probably is another part of the problem that is taken for granted. Nonetheless, it does constitute a serious obstacle to the organization of an educational program on a diocesan level.

Conclusion

The results of the survey are surely not encouraging. One can conclude that at least twenty per cent of the dioceses are doing almost nothing for the system-wide improvement of reading. There were indications that some dioceses felt a program for the improvement of reading was beyond the scope of a diocesan department of education. Some superintendents are burdened with other work and can devote only a portion of their time to educational work. Many others see the need for the work but are beset by almost insurmountable obstacles such as finances, distance, and personnel shortage.

However, the picture is not entirely black. There was definite evidence of excellent work being done in some of the dioceses. High interest in reading, competent supervision, good clinical facilities, and sincere efforts in teacher-training were reported. It is enough to give hope for a brighter future. It should be stated again that actual organization of parochial education into diocesan systems has been fairly recent. As the organizational aspect develops, the services that can be rendered to the schools will grow proportionately.
CHAPTER V

READING IN THE DIOCESE OF GREEN BAY

It is the purpose of this study to show what administrative services can be offered for the improvement of reading in a diocesan school system. Chapter IV presented the findings of a survey of some of the broader aspects of reading programs in Catholic elementary school systems throughout the nation. This chapter will be devoted to the detailed description of the reading program of one particular diocesan school system, that of the Diocese of Green Bay. This particular system is described not because it is superior or inferior to other systems but merely because it is the one most familiar to the writer. A discussion on whether one system is better than another cannot be of much consequence, for the important thing to recognize is that any system, Catholic or public, can be improved, and energy should be directed to that end.

Chapter V is introduced by a brief description of the Diocese of Green Bay and the school system of that diocese. The latter emphasizes those aspects of the system which have a particular bearing on the reading program. Finally, a description of the reading program itself is given, and this centers around the efforts made by the Diocesan Department of Education to improve the reading situation in its schools during the past several years.

The Diocese of Green Bay
The Diocese of Green Bay includes fifteen counties in northeastern Wisconsin. This area can be generally classified as agricultural, although there are several industrial cities within the confines of the Diocese. There are four cities with populations over 20,000 and many smaller communities which can be considered industrial. The principal industrial activity is paper-making although there are a great variety of other enterprises including ship-building, food processing, iron and steel manufacturing, and others.

The farm lands within the Diocese are among the finest in the nation. Most of the agricultural activity is dairy farming with the result that the family-size farm is typical. The farms are prosperous, and the danger of total crop failure is less remote than failure of prices. The family-size farm led to the establishment of many small communities, a condition which is in contrast to other agricultural areas in the country where very large farms have scattered rural communities great distances from one another.

The significance of the above is that the people of the area are characterized by relatively great stability. The industries, being varied and concerned for the most part with the essentials of living, are less affected by economic depression than are other parts of the country. The family-size farm and the prosperity enjoyed by the dairy farmer are conducive to stability of the rural population as well. People of this sort are interested in good schools for their children.

The School System of the Diocese of Green Bay

The total population of the fifteen counties which comprise the
Diocese of Green Bay is over 600,000 of which about one-third is Catholic. There are 173 parishes in the diocese which have resident pastors, and one hundred and eleven of these parishes have schools in connection with them. Several of the northern counties of the diocese have no parish schools.

Since 1928 the schools of the Diocese have enjoyed the leadership of a full-time superintendent of schools. During these years the Department of Education under the superintendent has provided the schools with sound educational counseling and direction. The problems that have to be faced and the progress made in meeting them can be seen in the following pages where one of the most important problems, that of reading, will be discussed.

The great variety of schools that come under the jurisdiction of the Diocesan Department of Education presents a situation which is not found commonly in public school administration. A city school system is concerned almost entirely with large schools, i.e., schools with enrollments of at least several hundred. County school systems, on the other hand, are concerned with small rural schools, unless the country schools include larger suburban areas. The schools in the Diocese of Green Bay range in size from less than fifty pupils to over one thousand. It is obvious that quite different educational situations will be found in these contrasting situations.

Twenty-seven per cent of the one hundred and eleven schools of the Diocese of Green Bay have enrollments of less than two hundred as is shown in TABLE VIII. From another point of view there are thirteen schools with enrollments of more than five hundred which include over one-third of
all the children attending parish schools in the Diocese of Green Bay.

**TABLE VIII**

**Distribution of Schools According to Size**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Enrollment Group</th>
<th>Number of Schools</th>
<th>Percentage of Schools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 100</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>27.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100-199</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>27.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200-299</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300-399</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>400-499</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500-599</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 600</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The distribution of the school population that has been indicated presents a problem of a geographical nature to their central administration, for the thirteen schools which enroll one-third of the students are located in six cities. That means that the other schools are scattered throughout the diocese and that these are the schools with the small number of teachers. Two of the problems that arise from this situation are the difficulty of holding teachers' meetings (because of transportation difficulties) and the lack of communication between the teachers.

Since individualized instruction is indispensable to reading improvement, a notion of the pupil-teacher ratio will be helpful in understanding the problem in the Diocese. The pupil-teacher ratio was determined by the total number of students in a school divided by the number of teachers.
in the school, rather than by calculation of actual classroom enrollments.

A frequency distribution was made of the number of schools that fell in the various "pupil-teacher ratio groups." The grouping was determined on the basis of five students and began with those schools that had fewer than twenty pupils per teacher. The next highest group was for the schools which had one teacher for every twenty to twenty-four pupils. The largest grouping was for those schools which had fifty to fifty-four students for each teacher. On this basis it was found that the median schools fell in the grouping of thirty-five to thirty-nine students per teacher. Twenty-nine or 26.1 per cent of the schools fell in this category. TABLE IX shows the distribution of the schools in the various categories showing the number of pupils per teacher.

**TABLE IX**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PUPIL-TEACHER RATIO IN SCHOOLS OF THE DIOCESE OF GREEN BAY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of Pupils Per Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Median
Another aspect of the problem of the teacher's load can be considered here, namely that of determining whether there is any difference in pupil-teacher ratio between the large schools and the small schools. Since large and small are such relative terms, an arbitrary norm must be established for our purposes. A small school as used here means one that has less than eight teachers in it, while a large school designates one that has more than eight teachers. The purpose of the distinction is to point out further the vast differences in the educational situations that exist in the Diocese of Green Bay.
TABLE X

PUPIL-TEACHER RATIO IN SCHOOLS OF THE DIOCESE OF GREEN BAY ACCORDING TO SIZE OF THE SCHOOLS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Pupils Per Teacher</th>
<th>Number of Small** Schools</th>
<th>Number of Large**** Schools</th>
<th>Pct.</th>
<th>Pct.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 20</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-24</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-29</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-34</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-39</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>27.6*</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>22.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-44</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>48.5*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-49</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-54</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(*) Denotes median.
(**) Small school designates one with less than eight teachers.
(****) Large school designates one with more than eight teachers.

A significant fact to be observed in TABLE X is that the smaller schools not only have lower enrollments but also have smaller classes and fewer children in each room. In spite of the fact that these teachers have more than one grade under their tutelage their pupil-load is nevertheless lighter than that of the teacher in the larger school that has only one grade in a room.

An obstacle to more rapid improvement in reading in the schools of the Diocese is the shortage of personnel on the supervisory staff. During the
most recent school year (1950-1951) there were five supervisors in the employ of the Diocesan Department of Education. Two of these were subject supervisors in music, cutting down instructional supervision even more. The other three were general supervisors. They represented three different religious communities, but their work was not limited to the schools conducted by the Sisters of their respective communities. Three other supervisors, although not under the jurisdiction of the Department of Education, worked in the diocesan schools. Working under the direction of various mother-houses, they are known as community supervisors, whereas those working for the Diocese are known as Diocesan supervisors. Although there is no evidence of conflict between the work of the two groups, it provides a good example of the rather confusing lines of authority extant in Catholic school administration.

Realizing that unwelcome supervision is of little or no value, the supervisors directed their activity for the most part to those schools which asked for assistance, thus utilizing their time for the greatest good. Although this procedure kept them very busy, one can be sure that there must have been many other schools that would have asked for more help, but did not, feeling that to do so would have been an imposition on the supervisors' time. We can surmise that those schools which did not feel the need for supervision were the ones that needed it the most.

One should not conclude from the above that supervision is exercised only in the form thus described or that supervision is grossly neglected in the diocese. There are other forms of supervision that are equally, if
not more, important. The principal of each school must act in a supervisory capacity. Usually the principal is the best trained of the personnel sent to any school as well as one who has had considerable experience as a classroom teacher. Other forms of supervision exercised in the Diocese are bulletins and teachers' meetings, both of which are discussed at greater length. The teacher-training program also comes under the heading of supervision, and this, too, is discussed later.

The library of the Diocesan Department of Education constitutes another part of the picture of Catholic education in the Diocese of Green Bay. Housed in the Diocesan Office Building in Green Bay, the library serves the schools of the entire diocese. It is intended primarily as an educational library, although it contains numerous volumes in other areas as well. Of special interest for this paper is the section containing books on reading. Although not all of the books on reading are listed in the library, (that would be a library in itself), it can be said that most of the important works in this field are available. The same can be said about the periodicals received in the library. Of all the instructional fields the field of reading is covered most adequately. Besides the books and periodicals, the library also contains the leading yearbooks in the field of education. Besides the technical books on reading the library contains many volumes of children's books. These include text-books of many publishers as well as those books that are generally classified as children's literature.

All teachers in the diocese have free access to the library. There is no charge for borrowing books other than the cost of postage involved in
sending the books to the schools, should they be located outside the city of Green Bay. Books may be kept for two week periods and can be renewed by sending a post-card asking for an extension of time.

In 1940 a complete list of the books in the library was sent to the schools, and in 1950 this list plus the names of books acquired since then was sent out. This makes it possible for those teachers who work a considerable distance from Green Bay and would rarely have the chance to visit the library to know what books are available for their use. A full-time librarian is employed by the Department.

Teacher Training

Another consideration of this chapter concerns the teacher training program. Some of the most effective teacher training in the Diocese of Green Bay is done in the Summer Session of St. Norbert College. The Summer Session forms an integral part of the collegiate work of the College and is under the direction of the Diocesan Department of Education. All courses of instruction offered, together with the instructors and the ratings assigned to each course, have the full approval of the administration officers of Saint Norbert College, and no departure is made from the regular standards of the College. The summer session staff is composed partly of the regular staff of the College and partly of instructors selected from other recognized institutions of learning.

The summer session was established in 1934 to provide for fuller integration and coordination of the teacher-training program in the Diocese of Green Bay, and to control undergraduate work in education by one
administration. The program is so arranged that a close relation is
established between the student's academic and cultural background and his
preparation.

Saint Norbert College is a member of the North Central Association of
Colleges and Secondary Schools and is accredited by the University of
Wisconsin and the National Catholic Educational Association.

Two aspects of the Summer Session are important in reference to teacher
training in reading instruction. The first is the work done in the formal
courses, and the other is the training done in the laboratory school.
Courses in the teaching of reading have been offered almost every summer.
The following are some of the course titles offered recently: Adjusting
Reading Programs to Individuals, Reading and Pupil Development, Basic Reading
Instruction in the Elementary Grades, and Children's Literature.

The laboratory school provides both instructors and students an
opportunity to make practical, at the very time of its presentation, the
material offered in the College courses. This is done in an actual elementary
school situation, pupiled with normal boys and girls and taught by expert
critic-supervisors. The aims of the laboratory school are accomplished
through various types of activity: systematic observation, participation in
various phases of school management and classroom teaching, supervised
classroom teaching, general and individual conferences, and individual and
group study leading to professional improvement. Under these conditions
the student teachers have the opportunity to observe excellent teaching,
to teach with the help of expert guidance, and to discuss their teaching
problems with qualified and experienced people.

Since reading holds an important place in the curriculum considerable emphasis is placed on it in the program of the laboratory school. Student teachers, therefore, are given opportunities for improvement in reading instruction on both the theoretical and practical levels.

During the past several years the Summer Session served another function toward the improvement of reading in the Diocese of Green Bay. A workshop for principals of the diocese was conducted during three succeeding summers, and each of the principals was expected to attend one of these three sessions. The groups were divided into various sections for discussion of the curriculum, the establishing of goals, and for determining means of achieving these established goals. The group working in reading was given ample opportunity to become more familiar with the reading materials adopted for use in the Diocese. At the beginning of the following school year a bulletin containing the results of the workshop was sent to each school.

Another form of teacher training carried on in the Diocese is that done through bulletins from the office of the Superintendent. An examination of the bulletins sent to the schools during the past ten years reveals that a number dealt with the improvement of reading.

Each year the results of the achievement testing program were sent to the schools. This bulletin showed the medians of the Diocese for each grade, and the norm established by the test was also shown. This made it possible for the schools to compare their own results with both Diocesan and national norms. The bulletin on the achievement test results also
contained suggestions for overcoming prominent weaknesses that showed up in the test results. Each year, too, bulletins were sent out to the schools, urging the observance of Catholic Book Week. Suggestions for the conduct of this annual event in the schools were given.

A great number of other bulletins on reading were also distributed to the schools during this ten year period. Some of these were of a general nature, such as a statement of goals and objectives, while others were very specific such as the ones giving page references to the teacher's manual for the improvement of particular reading skills that appeared to be weak in the schools of the Diocese. Included, either implicitly or explicitly, in all bulletins was the offer of help to any particular school that would ask for it. Teachers and principals were urged to call upon the Department for any services that could be made available to the schools for the improvement of reading in their situation.

A final part of the teacher training program in the Diocese of Green Bay that should be mentioned is the teacher's meeting. Because of the wide-spread distribution of the schools, teachers' meetings must be conducted on a regional basis. Each time the Superintendent contemplates holding a teachers' meeting, therefore, he must think of not one meeting but five or more meetings. In spite of this difficulty there has been a teachers' meeting on the subject of reading almost every year. Specialists and consultants have frequently been brought into the Diocese for these meetings, and on the whole this method has proven to be very successful in bringing about improvement of the reading program in the schools of the Diocese.
Specific Aspects of the Diocesan Reading Program

It might be well to describe in greater detail what the Superintendent's Office has done to improve reading in the schools of the Diocese. The eight characteristics of a sound reading program described in Chapter II can serve as a guide to this discussion. It should be stated at the outset that these are the recommendations of the diocesan office and that no claim is being made that all the recommendations have actually been adopted in the schools. It will be noted, however, that the goals have always been kept high, and assistance has been given to achieve these goals. The recommendations have been made in various ways—through bulletins, teachers' meetings, summer schools, personal conferences, and personal correspondence. The source of the recommendations is almost as varied. The Superintendent, Supervisors, and committees on reading have cooperated. Encouragement to use the manual of the basic readers has been given frequently.

The result of this activity has been a reading program that approximates the established criteria discussed in Chapter II. The following paragraphs describe the recommendations and concrete actions that emanated from the Diocesan Department of Education for the establishment of a sound reading program.

1. The goals of reading have been established. They include, first of all, the goals of Catholic education. The Catholic school should help the American Catholic child to be spiritually vigorous as well as courteous towards God, others, and himself. The Catholic school should help its pupils to be patriotic, intelligent, cultured, and healthy.
The specific reading goals are growth in the fundamental skills and abilities of word perception, retention, and oral reading. It is thus the objective of the diocesan reading program to promote growth in the ability to make an intelligent reaction to the printed page.

2. The reading program of the diocese seeks to coordinate reading activities with other aids to child development. Closer relationships between home and school have been encouraged and established through parent-teacher meetings and conferences. These opportunities are used for visiting the school, suggestions for book purchases, and for the very important job of gaining a better understanding of the child.

Children are given experience backgrounds before reading, and audio-visual aids are used to stimulate interest and to explain word meanings.

3. The diocesan reading program recognizes the child's development in reading is closely associated with his development in the other language arts. The interrelationship of the language arts is seen in such recommended activities as the dramatization of stories and poems, the telling of experiences read about, the reproducing of stories read to children, the reporting of news read, the use of new words met in reading and talking, and the reporting on books read. Reading is taught so as to help shape the child's thinking, speaking, and listening. Written activities are based on reading activities in order to encourage growth in variety and the quality of ideas. The oral reading of one's own compositions is practiced.

4. The diocesan reading program extends through all the grades. The first step toward achieving that end was taken by adopting a basal
reading series. Other materials and resources are provided at each level through school and diocesan libraries, and in most places through close cooperation with public libraries. Cumulative reading records are made and passed on to succeeding teachers as the child ascends the educational ladder. This has been well developed at the primary level.

5. Since the reading needs of pupils vary so widely, the diocesan reading program provides varied instruction and flexible requirements. Throughout the child's stay in school his reading progress is observed closely so that demands made on him conform to past growth. Classroom grouping is flexible in accordance with the changing needs of the individual.

6. The diocesan reading program provides guidance of reading in all aspects of a broad program of instruction. This includes guidance in the basic reading program, in the content fields, in literature, and in recreational or free reading. Special effort is made to acquaint the children with the rich heritage of Catholic literature.

7. The weakest point of the diocesan reading program is in providing (or not providing) for the reading needs of the cases of extreme reading disability. However, the program is strong in the measures taken to prevent such reading disability, which, after all, is a greater service than trying to repair unnecessary damage. The program of prevention includes extensive work in identifying those children who are slipping behind in their work. By removing the causes of retardation as soon as they appear, a great deal of the need for remedial reading has been removed. However, it is in the case of those children who become retarded in spite of the
preventive program that the diocesan program is weakest.

8. The diocesan program provides for evaluation of the outcome of the reading program. Almost since the Diocesan Department of Education was organized some type of standardized testing program was carried on. During some of these years the tests were those prepared by the Catholic University of America, but more recently the tests used were those listed in TABLE XI showing the reading results between the years 1946 and 1950. There were also several years in which examinations made in the Diocese were used, and although they were not standardized tests, they were nevertheless system-wide and provided a norm of comparison for the schools.

It can be noted in TABLE XI that in only two places did the diocesan median fall below the grade placement norm of the test. These were the seventh and eighth grades in the October 1946 testing. The fifth grade in December 1947 testing rose one year and six months above the grade placement norm of that test.

It need hardly be said that superiority to the established norm of a standardized test does not indicate total victory in the battle for better reading. Norms should not be confused with standards, and the continuing efforts of the Diocesan Department of Education to improve the reading in its schools indicates that this fact is clearly understood. Further, a median merely indicates the school above which and below which an equal number fall. Therefore, there are a considerable number of schools below the norms of the test. This is stated with the realization that certain schools doing a near perfect job cannot possibly approach the norm. In this
situation, too, the norm cannot be considered the standard.

The following pages will be devoted to a description of the primary testing program that was administered by the Diocesan Department of Education during the school year of 1960-61. No standardized tests were administered in grades one through three except the reading tests published to accompany the basal reader series which is used in the schools of the diocese.1

The reading skills which are tested at the various levels of the three year primary program are the following:

Reading Readiness

1. Understanding sentences.
3. Auditory perception of rhyme.
4. Interpreting feelings.
5. Recalling details.
6. Noting similarity in forms.
7. Recognizing word meanings.

Pre-primers

1. Understanding sentences.
3. Auditory perception of rhyme.
4. Comprehending though units.
5. Auditory perception of initial consonants.
6. Recognizing word forms.
7. Making judgments.

1 The tests used are the Basic Reading Tests published by Scott-Foreman Company to accompany the primary books of their basal reading series.
### TABLE XI

Results of Reading Achievement Testing Program in Diocese of Green Bay, 1946-1950

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>III</th>
<th>IV</th>
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<th>VII</th>
<th>VIII</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Norms and Medians*</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>A</td>
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<td>3.2 3.7</td>
<td>3.9 4.3</td>
<td>4.4 4.8</td>
<td>4.9 5.5</td>
<td>4.9 5.7</td>
<td>4.5 5.5</td>
<td>4.2 4.8</td>
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<td>4.2 4.6</td>
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<td></td>
<td>5.2 5.3</td>
<td>5.9 6.9</td>
<td>5.4 6.0</td>
<td>6.4 6.7</td>
<td>4.9 5.7</td>
<td>6.4 6.5</td>
<td>5.7 6.2</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.2 6.3</td>
<td>6.9 7.7</td>
<td>6.4 6.7</td>
<td>7.4 8.0</td>
<td>4.9 5.7</td>
<td>6.5 7.2</td>
<td>6.2 6.5</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7.2 7.1</td>
<td>7.9 8.7</td>
<td>7.4 8.0</td>
<td>8.4 8.9</td>
<td>7.9 8.3</td>
<td>7.5 8.0</td>
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<td>8.2 7.5</td>
<td>8.9 9.7</td>
<td>8.0 8.9</td>
<td>8.9 10.1</td>
<td>8.9 9.0</td>
<td>8.5 8.9</td>
<td>8.2 8.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Grades and Norms*—Column A denotes the grade norm of the test when given. Column B denotes the median grade placement achieved in the Diocese.
Primer

1. Understanding sentences.
3. Auditory perception of rhyme.
4. Reading for detail.
6. Recognizing word forms.
7. Making judgments.

Book One

1. Understanding sentences.
4. Recognizing sequence.
5. Applying word-attack skills.
6. Recognizing word forms.
7. Making judgments.

Grade Two -- Book One

1. Understanding sentences.
2. Recognizing cause-effect relationships.
3. Using phonetic analysis.
4. Understanding implied meanings.
5. Applying word-attack skills.
6. Applying structural analysis.
7. Identifying similar meanings.

Grade Two -- Book Two

1. Understanding sentences.
2. Comprehending though units.
3. Identifying vowel sounds.
4. Locating information.
5. Applying phonetic analysis.
6. Applying structural analysis.
7. Classifying and generalizing means.
Grade Three--Book One

1. Understanding sentences.
2. Visualizing from descriptive details.
3. Auditory perception.
4. Attacking and blending syllabic units.
5. Recognizing sequences.
6. Applying word analysis.
7. Identifying word meanings.

Grade Three--Book Two

1. Making inferences.
2. Using context to check appropriateness of defined meanings.
3. Combined structural and phonetic analysis.
5. Recognising cause-effect relationships.
7. Combining word analysis with context clues.

All of the tests are ordered through the Diocesan Department of Education. This, as well as some of the other functions that will be described shortly, was done to guide and control the proper administration of the testing program so that maximum educational benefits may be derived from what constitutes a considerable financial expenditure. In such a program, as in any other program involving the administration of tests, it is essential that the teacher be given a thorough grasp of at least the essentials of testing, since without it, practical success in the conduct of the program can scarcely be anticipated.

When the first group of tests have been sent to a school upon the request of the teacher, a sheet is enclosed listing all of the pages in the teacher's manual that pertain to the skills being tested. The pages of the work-book that accompanies the texts and pertain to the skills are also
listed. For example, the sheet sent with the tests for the Pre-primer lists nineteen references to the teacher's manual which show how a teacher can develop the first skill tested, that is, understanding sentences. The same skill has twenty-two references to the work-book.

After the test has been administered in the school, a class summary sheet for the basic reading test is made out in duplicate, one of which is retained in the school and the other is returned to the Department. This summary sheet provides the following information: grade, school, city, date of test, teacher, and the name of the intelligence test used for the class. Then follows the name of each student, his age in years and months, his intelligence quotient, and the score he made on each of the seven parts of the test. The part scores are then totaled, and this in turn is converted into the proper rating as indicated by the scale established by the authors in their standardization of the test. These ratings are as follows: very low, low, average, high, and very high.

It is obvious that these summary sheets as they are returned to the Department by the schools would be too bulky and cumbersome to be of much value. A further summarisation and analysis of the test results, therefore, is made. This analysis points out the weaknesses that exist on a system-wide level as well as the deficiencies in the primary reading program manifested by the particular school. The analysis sheet is made in duplicate, one retained in the Department, the other sent to the schools. A characteristic of this analysis is the use of a critical score for each part of the test. It is assumed that if a student fails to surpass the
critical score in any part of the test, he is not adequately prepared to
advance to the next level. This does not mean that the student must repeat
the book on which he was tested, for that would be generally useless.
Rather, it calls the attention of the teacher to the particular student's
deficiency, so that it may be corrected either on the next level, in
individual help, or in directed supplementary reading. This procedure is
followed so that the greatest possible diagnostic value may be derived from
the tests, for it is easy to see how a total rating of average or high
might fail to reveal a very low score in a particular part of the test.

The data included on the analysis sheet are the following: total
number of pupils enrolled in grade, the number of students tested in this
set of tests, the total number of students in the grade who still have not
been given this test. Other data include the median for the test as
published for the test (the standard), median of this group, and median for
all the students in the grade tested to this point. The analysis sheet
also has space to record distribution of total scores of tests according to
the ratings, (very low, low, etc.), as well as the number of students who
fell below the critical score in each of the seven parts of the test.

The description of the primary reading testing program is
closed with mention of the individual progress study of the Basic Reading
Tests. This is a cumulative record of the student's results on all of the
reading tests taken. This record has space for the student's name, his
intelligence quotient, his school, and the results of each of the tests,
including part scores, total scores, and ratings. The value of this record
is the detailed information which succeeding teachers can get on a student's reading development. If a student, for example, has shown previous weakness in a particular skill such as thought comprehension, a new teacher can begin immediately to correct that weakness without having to go through the slow steps of re-diagnosis.

Conclusion

This chapter described the educational situation of the elementary school of the Diocese of Green Bay. Included in the discussion were the following topics: sociological background of the diocesan school system, the nature of the schools, enrollment statistics, teachers' pupil load, supervision in the system, library facilities, the teacher training program, and some specific aspects of the reading program. The final part was devoted to a report of the specific efforts of the Diocesan Department of Education to improve reading in its schools in terms of established criteria of sound reading programs.
Chapter V described the reading program of the school system in the Diocese of Green Bay. This chapter will include proposals for the further development of that program. The suggestions that will be made fall into two groups: those that are meant to supplement the regular reading program and those that would be part of an intense one year program for the improvement of reading. Since reading is such an important subject in the elementary school, it can never have anything less than a prominent place in the curriculum. On the other hand, it is good administrative practice to concentrate on only one subject a year for special improvement. Therefore, the regular reading program must be kept at as high a level as possible while the special emphasis some years will have to go to other subjects.

The first essential of an intensified program for the improvement of reading is teacher-training. Four ways in which an intensified program for the improvement of reading can be developed through teacher training are college courses, a series of bulletins, teacher meetings, and library services. There are other proposals that can be introduced at any time and need not be delayed until the opportunity for an intensified program arises.

During the summer preceding the school year set for the
intensified program of reading improvement, special courses can be offered at the Saint Norbert College Summer Session. One of the courses could be on developmental reading, the other on the retarded reader. It would be advisable to offer the courses at different hours so that students could take both courses. The courses would have greater practical value if real situations were provided to accompany them. This could be done in the Laboratory school for the developmental reading course as well as for the retarded reading course. Observing the individualized techniques of an expert working with severely retarded readers should be a part of the experiences of the teachers in the retarded reading course, and they should also have the opportunity to do actual tutorial work with the severely retarded.

The second part of the intensified program can be a series of bulletins on reading. Allowing for vacations and for completion of the series several weeks before the end of the school year, one could plan on approximately fifteen such bulletins. The following is a tentative list of titles:

1. Recent trends in reading instruction.
2. Adjustment of the reading program to individual differences.
3. Meeting the needs of the disabled reader: A narrowly conceived program versus a broadly conceived program.
4. Nature of the reading process.
5. Factors in reading readiness.
7. Techniques of studying reading difficulties.
8. Guideposts in planning a program for retarded readers.
10. Teaching approaches with the extremely retarded reader.
11. Fostering growth of a meaningful vocabulary.
12. Increasing efficiency in independent word attack.
13. Improving depth, breadth and accuracy of comprehension.
14. Developing reading skills necessary for effective study.
15. Appraisal of reading growth.

The bulletins would not be lengthy, perhaps only two or three pages. Their purpose would be to stimulate an interest in the topics and to form proper attitudes toward them rather than to provide a great deal of information on any of the subjects. Another feature of these bulletins might be the inclusion of an item of local interest, a report from some school in the diocese. These could be observations of supervisors made while visiting the schools or reports from the teachers themselves. These items would, of course, be positive so that the school, grade, and teacher could be named.

The third part of the program centers in the library of the Department of Education. The library bulletins during this year might well be devoted entirely to reading, and the number of issues increased during the year. The first issue could list all of the technical books on reading available in the library, and successive issues could be devoted to particular books, showing the content of the book, something about the
author, and reasons why the particular book should be added to the faculty library or borrowed from the diocesan library. Familiarity with the leading books in the field is an indispensable part of any professional person's equipment, although this too frequently is not the case in the teaching profession. In fact, one must suspect himself of being too idealistic when he recommends that every teacher in the system read at least one major work on reading during the year of the intensified reading program.

The library bulletin might well include notes on the periodical literature as well. This could be done by choosing several of the leading periodicals and listing the articles pertinent to reading published during the past few years. The bulletin could go beyond this and show why it would be good for the schools to subscribe to certain periodicals. It can guide the schools in their purchases by describing the nature of the various magazines.

The fourth part of the program is a series of teachers' meetings. Here, too, the number of meetings could be increased during the year. It is not unreasonable to suggest that the teachers be called together every two months. While those accustomed to large urban systems might consider this to be infrequent, the distances separating the schools in the Diocese of Green Bay make even sectional teachers' meetings difficult to conduct. There are severe transportational difficulties that are aggravated by the fact that the teachers are religious. It is asking more than has been asked of them before, but means could probably be found during a one year program.

The meetings would be of two kinds. The first type would be held
perhaps twice during the year and would be conducted by consultants and experts who would be brought into the Diocese. Since the specialists cannot be kept for very great lengths of time, these series of meetings would have to be concluded in a week or less. The sectional idea would have to be used, and the meetings would be conducted in four or five centers in the Diocese.

The other teachers' meetings would utilize the personnel within the system, and the regions would be considerably smaller than those used for the first type meeting. If eight cities were named as regional centers and diocesan personnel conducted the meetings the same group of speakers could conduct the same meeting in a different place each week. The smaller meetings would be more informal and proceed with a discussion rather than lecture technique. It would be good to hold these meetings on Saturday morning, but if this proved to be impossible, Friday afternoon would be satisfactory. The content of the meetings could follow the outline suggested for the reading bulletins, the discussion centering on one or more of the topics already treated in the reading bulletins.

A third type of teacher-meeting that might be attempted would be a two day institute preceding the opening of school. One or more reading experts could give the principle talks during these days, book displays could be set-up by various publishers, and an intensive two-day schedule could introduce the teachers to the year's program.

Thus far in this chapter an intensive one year program for improving reading has been discussed. One must also consider a sustained program that could be carried on before, during and after that year.
One such function which the Department of Education could advocate is the introduction of the individualized reading program in the schools. The nature of the individualized program was described in Chapter III as the program is carried on in the Chicago Public Schools. One of the orders teaching in the Diocese has already done this in some of its schools, so the recommendation of this to other schools would not come as an innovation.

It is a program that must be introduced slowly, since the imposition of it on schools would most likely be unsuccessful. By seeing the program in operation and the results that can be achieved through it, other schools will be convinced of its value for them. The supervisory staff can recommend it in their visits to the schools, and they can help the schools set-up the organization of it in the classrooms. Not every teacher will find the method to her liking, and when this happens she should be free to use it or not to use it. However, it is probable that she will like it since it is a method that makes individualized instruction under crowded conditions possible.

Recommendations for expansion of school libraries should be made frequently. Studies reported in Chapters II and III show the vital part that adequate materials play in a good reading program. If the pupils are to read at their own level of ability, a school needs a wide assortment of books differing in interest and difficulty. The Department can render specific service by recommending books suitable for school libraries.

Another aspect of individualizing instruction is the necessity of having the school own the text-books used in the school. The range of
readers in each classroom should be as extensive as the range of reading ability in the room. In previous chapters it was shown that ability grouping is one of the most successful methods of individualizing reading instruction, even in the upper grades. This can hardly be done if all the children in a grade own the same level reader, a procedure followed too frequently in schools which do not own the texts. For students to buy text-books as they need them involves difficulties of administration such as book bills during the entire year, frequency of ordering, and shipping delays. When a text-book is revised, the old editions keep on appearing in the classroom for years after the revision was effected, thus complicating the teacher's job even more. This, too, happens in schools which do not own texts.

Every school should be urged to own one or two sets of supplementary readers. This provides graded material for children who have failed to make normal progress and would otherwise be forced to repeat the book in which they have already failed. Although publishers are now offering supplementary books for their own series, the desirability of having other texts is not lessened.

A program of individualized instruction makes it necessary to adapt a rather flexible daily schedule in the classroom. An orderly and well-planned day is still indispensable for efficient school work, but the exigencies of individualized instruction necessitate a program established by the classroom teacher. This does not mean that such a program should not be supervised by the principal. The implied principle is that a program
of greater individualization of instruction for children based on the recognition of their differences has as a corollary the recognition of the individuality of the teacher. This suggestion might have the appearance of a laissez-faire type of administration, and undoubtedly it could develop into that if proper precautions were not taken. A happy balance between this type of administration and the rigorous autocratic type would probably prove to be most successful.

The Department of Education might well sponsor a program of improved home-school relations in the interest of better reading. Intelligence tests, aptitude tests, reading tests, individualized instruction, abandonment of grade teaching in reading are all factors that need interpretation to parents. Conferences between parents and teachers should be encouraged, and very often the cooperation of the two is absolutely indispensable for helping a retarded reader. This practice, as well as others previously spoken of, have been recommended by the Department many times, but they are mentioned in this place to show their place in the total reading program.

Another practice important in a reading program is strict adherence to the age of school entrance. Many troubles can be avoided in a child's school career if he is mature enough when brought to the reading situation. Recognition of the importance of maturation is part of a good reading readiness program. This, too, has been stressed frequently by the Department and is reiterated for the sake of completion.

A valuable asset to the reading program in the diocese would be
the establishment of demonstration centers. One such center has already been established, but more should be established throughout the Diocese. Through careful selection of the teaching staff and with special help from the supervisory staff these schools can serve as models for the others. They should be open to visits by teachers from other schools so that methods and techniques that teachers heard or read about can be seen in actual practice. The chief value of such a center is its reality, i.e., any suspicion that a recommended practice is "fine in theory, but..." is shown to be groundless. If it can work in one school, it might work in another.

These demonstration schools can be set-up along the lines of the communities working in the diocese, each of the communities conducting one such demonstration center. Such schools would have their main value as demonstration schools, since they would have a superior staff and could probably handle the experimental situation best. If it is found that this plan is not workable, at least certain rooms in a school could be considered as demonstration rooms because of the excellence of the work done in it and the willingness of the teacher to bear the inconvenience of frequent interruption.

Teachers should be urged to visit other schools, the demonstration schools in particular, whenever the opportunity arises. It is probable that not many such situations arise during the year, but there are usually one or two times each year that a school is not in session when the neighboring schools are. The difficulties of finding substitute teachers in Catholic schools are great, but if it is at all possible to do so, it would be good
for a teacher to get away from her class for a day or two each year so that she could visit other classrooms.

One of the most pressing needs of the diocesan school system in reference to the improvement of its reading program is the provision of clinical services. This is a service that must obviously be provided by the diocese for no parish could attempt to shoulder the burden, nor would any parish have need for one solely for its own use. The introduction of clinical services would have to proceed slowly and develop as means permit.

The first important step would be to employ a psychologist, and it is probably this step that has retarded this aspect of the reading program in the diocesan school system. The only plan that would seem feasible at the present would be to train a member of one of the religious communities teaching in the diocese. This sister, chosen by her superior in cooperation with the Department of Education, would work for a degree in clinical psychology. The Diocese could help pay for the education of the Sister and the community would have to promise to keep her in the Diocese as long as her services are desired. Even this much of a plan for clinical services would have certain obstacles to it. It would, first of all, have to have the approval of the administrators of the diocese; it would demand a willingness on the part of a religious community to provide a sister for training and working in the Diocese of Green Bay.

Supposing that it were possible to have the services of a trained psychologist, other problems would still remain. One psychologist could not care for the needs of the entire diocese and it would have to be decided
whether to have her work with the schools taught by members of her community or whether she would concentrate her efforts to a given area, disregarding communities lines. The latter would seem to be more desirable as it would eliminate one of the very present difficulties of nuns, that of transportation. If a psychologist worked in the Green Bay area and developed her work in all of the schools, it would be considerably easier for her. If successful, similar services could eventually be provided in other cities in the diocese.

Although the clinical aspects of reading were not included to any great extent in Chapters II and III, there were nonetheless indications that the mechanical aspects of the clinic have been exaggerated. It is possible to establish a good serviceable clinic without great expenditures for telebinoculars, ophthalmographs, audiometers, and other machines. Just as good teaching depends primarily on a good teacher rather than the quantity of audio-visual aids, air conditioned rooms, and glass brick fenestration, so, too, a good clinic depends most of all on a good psychologist. There will have to be some equipment, of course, but the cost of it should be within the means of the diocese to provide.

Except for the third chapter which reviewed the literature on the subject, very little has been said up to this point about the retarded reader. Perhaps the reason for this is already understood, namely, that if a reading program is broadly conceived there is little need for expansion on the particular problem of the retarded reader. First of all, a broad reading program includes an intense program of reading readiness, a part of the program intended to be a preventive measure. If formal reading is not begun
too early, and if, when it is begun, it proceeds cautiously in harmony with
the pupil's rate of development in other aspects, then a large number of
reading difficulties will be avoided. Secondly, a broad reading program
recognizes individual differences and adapts instruction to these differences.
When this is done another large group of students who would have once been
considered retarded readers no longer are thus classified. The common opinion
today is that a student should not be considered retarded unless he is
achieving at a level at least a full year behind his grade expectation, a
norm determined by his mental capacity and other factors. Thus a child with
a grade placement of sixth grade and a mental capacity of fourth grade who
actually reaches a reading level of fourth grade is working to the full
limits of his capacity. He is not considered a retarded reader.

In spite of reducing the number of pupils classified as retarded
readers, there still remain some boys and girls who for any number of reasons
are actually retarded at least a year. Recommendations for handling them
were made in the course of this study. The individualized reading program
was recommended as a good method of handling these pupils in a group
procedure. The bulletins and teachers meetings that were recommended include
discussion of the problem. The acquisition of a psychologist on the staff
of the Department of Education is intended primarily for work with the
retarded reader.

The suggestions made were all within the realm of possibility for
the school system of the diocese. There are many other effective means of
caring for the needs of the retarded reader, but many of them would not be
practicable under present circumstances. To mention only one, the availability of tutorial service would be of great value to retarded readers, but such a proposal would have only the slightest possibility of becoming a reality at present.

This thought brings us to the concluding part of the study, the problems that are faced in the construction of a sound reading program.

Problems

The first problem is that of the crowded classroom. A reading program directed to meeting individual needs requires more individualized instruction. This does not imply that every pupil in the room must be taught singly, but it does mean that more than one reading group is absolutely essential, and that the smaller the group is the more individualized will be the instruction. With the wide range of reading ability that is found in the typical classroom, three or four groups will have to be formed.

Recommendations more specific than that cannot be given a priori. Much will depend on the particular classroom group. In Chapter IV the pupil-teacher ratio in the median school was 35-39 students for each teacher. In the larger schools this ratio is even higher. Smaller classroom enrollments would surely be more conducive to greater individualized instruction.

The second problem that must be faced is the teacher shortage. This does not presage a solution in the near future of the crowded classroom problem. Catholic education has expanded tremendously during the past several decades, so fast, in fact, that the teacher supply has not kept pace with the increases in enrollment. The result is that each teacher must carry a
heavier load. The expansion of Catholic education has come about through both the natural increase in the Catholic population in places where schools are already erected as well as through the establishment of new schools where none had previously existed. Both the established schools and the new schools are pleading with the motherhouses for teachers.

A solution of this problem can come about in one or both of two ways. The first solution would be an increase in the number of girls who enter religious orders during the next few years. The other is that the Catholic schools hire lay teachers.

The third obstacle retarding the adoption of a full program for the improvement of reading is a financial one. Every Catholic school is individually financed by the parish to which it is attached. A school will be well equipped or poorly equipped according to the financial status of that parish. No tuition charges are made to students in the Diocese since the schools are operated on the principle that the school is the responsibility of the entire parish, not merely of the parents who have children in the school. Although this policy is an excellent one, the money available for the school will depend entirely upon the pastor in charge of the parish.

Whether the parish is large or small, the cost of supporting a school is great. Construction of the building, heating and lighting it, maintaining it, and paying teachers' salaries are all items that impose a heavy financial burden on parishioners who are already taxed to support the public schools. If the sisters in school demanded salaries comparable to teachers in public education, Catholic education would have to collapse. It
is only through the endowment of their labor that the Catholic schools can operate. The point has been reached today where there are not enough sisters, and the only alternative is the hiring of lay teachers. If the continued expansion of Catholic education depends on this method of supplying teachers the expansion will soon have to cease.

Another aspect of the financial problem in reference to the improvement of reading in the diocese springs from the fact that the schools are individually supported. No school tax is imposed for the administration of the schools on a diocesan level. The resources available to the Diocesan Department of Education for the improvement of reading and other educational problems are limited. Means will have to be found for increasing the supervisory staff, for paying the salary of psychologists, for the purchase of clinical equipment, for the expense involved in getting reading experts to the diocese for teacher-training, and for supplying the schools with materials necessary for reading improvement. Failure to solve the financial problem might well mean that many of the desired means for improving reading in the diocese will be unobtainable.

The fourth problem that must be faced is that of teacher-training. The problem has been mentioned several times already, and suggestions have been made for meeting the problem. The problem, however, is of such magnitude that the means proposed are inadequate to solve it. While the proposals are worthwhile as part of an in-service training program, they do not meet the fundamental problem of the teacher's basic education. Diocesan administrators of education are powerless to do little more about this problem
than is already being done in the Diocese of Green Bay.

The unpleasant fact is that sisters are leaving the motherhouses with an education inadequate to meet the problems they must face in the classroom. Their professional education is neglected. Many sisters receive their degree only after a long series of summer schools, some after they have actually taught for as many as twenty years. There are several factors responsible for the development of this situation. First, with the rapid expansion of Catholic education, tremendous pressures were brought to bear on religious superiors to supply teachers. Bishops, superintendents, and pastors clamored, and still clamor for teachers and as a result young teachers were sent out often against the superior's better judgment.

Another factor in the teacher-training problem is that it is only in recent years that educational standards for teachers were raised. In some areas the requirements for teachers are still amazingly low. The result was that teachers with as little as one year of training could qualify for teaching certificates and were therefore sent out to fill vacancies.

The rapid raising of standards also caught the training programs in the various communities unprepared. The community college was frequently poorly staffed, and there was a considerable gap in the training program while a competent staff of religious was being developed. There is still room for improvement.

More and more communities are showing awareness of the problem and are taking definite steps to meet it. Several of them have established a policy of taking on no new commitments for several years, and during this
time they are giving their young sisters complete college training. This policy has developed better teachers and better religious, an important help to the recruiting of more vocations to the sisterhoods. The two requirements for this program on the part of the motherhouses have been the provision of a good faculty for their college and a firm determination to refuse sending out sisters until they are adequately prepared for the work.

The final obstacle that must be mentioned is one mentioned frequently in the earlier pages of this study, that of crossing lines of Catholic school administration. The problems bears repetition. Three distinct administrators are directing the work of the Catholic school principal. They are the superintendent of schools who speaks from the viewpoint of a diocesan system. There is a superior of the motherhouse who is responsible for the members of her community. Finally, there is the pastor of the parish of which the school is a part. Each of them has real authority, but clarification of the lines of authority in the over-lapping areas have never been made. The only saving feature of the situation is that all three administrators are interested in a common cause, and through the use of common sense and a generous amount of Christian charity, Catholic education has developed to the point it has today.

In spite of obstacles and problems besetting Catholic education, we can be sure that the cause will be advanced. The Divine Teacher promised to remain all days, even to the end of the world. With this assurance there is every reason to be hopeful.
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APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR DIOCESAN SUPERINTENDENTS

CONCERNING DEVELOPMENTAL READING PROGRAMS

In answering questions 1, 2, and 3, use the following list as your guide. Place the appropriate letter on each blank.

(a) every year
(b) less frequently than every year
(c) more frequently than once a year
(d) not at all

1. Reading achievement tests are administered under our supervision in the primary grades . . .

2. Reading achievement tests are administered under our supervision in the middle grades . . .

3. Reading achievement tests are administered under our supervision in the upper grades . . .

In answering the following questions please check the response which best completes the statement or answers the question:

4. During the eight years of a pupil's stay in our schools, intelligence tests are administered under our supervision . . .

(a) once
(b) twice
(c) three times
(d) four times
(e) not at all

5. Reading readiness tests are administered under our supervision . . .

(a) Yes
(b) No

6. Not including community supervisors, the number of supervisors working for the improvement of reading in the diocese is . . .

(a) none
(b) 1-3
7. Information is sent to the schools concerning current materials in reading, thus providing guidance to the schools in their purchase of reading materials ... 

(a) Yes
(b) No

8. Our in-service training program for the improvement of reading includes the following:

(a) Occasional lectures of demonstrations by specialists
(b) Bulletin on reading problems
(c) Providing professional books on reading for easy access by teachers
(d) Others .................................................................

......

9. We conduct a formal teacher-training program, i.e., teachers in our diocese have the opportunity to gain college credits toward the Bachelor's degree in an institution under our direction ... 

(a) Yes
(b) No

(If item nine was answered negatively, you may skip items ten and eleven.)

10. The formal teacher-training program we conduct is carried on ... 

(a) only in summer school
(b) in a year-around program

11. If a formal training program is carried on, how many courses dealt directly with problems of reading during the last three years?

(a) none
(b) 1-3
(c) 4-6
(d) 7-9
(e) 10 or more
12. In the matter of reading texts ...

(a) use a diocesan adopted text
(b) permit school to choose between several
(c) permit free choice of texts

13. Our system provides the following clinical services:

(a) Psychologist(s)
(b) Tutoring service
(c) Retinoscope, ophthalmograph, or other mechanical services
(d) Visual and auditory screening
(e) Others ________________________________

18. I would name the following as the greatest obstacles to the improvement of our diocesan reading program:

Diocese ____________________________
Number of Elementary Schools in Diocese ____________________________
Number of Pupils in Elementary Schools in Diocese ____________________________
The dissertation submitted by Richard John Kleiber has been read and approved by five members of the Department of Education.

The final copies have been examined by the director of the dissertation and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated, and that the dissertation is now given final approval with reference to content, form, and mechanical accuracy.

The dissertation is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Education.

January 28, 1952
Signature of Adviser