FIRST YEAR READING

by .

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C O N T E N T S.

Introduction - The Function of and Factors in Reading.

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I N T R O D U C T I O N.

The importance of reading calls for no defence. In the primitive days of the pictograph it was the privilege of the many. But as civilization grew the number of the symbols grew; they became conventionalized, and the difficulty of mastering them made reading difficult. When, through the gradual modifications of the centuries, the symbols had finally reached the stage where they represented the sounds of the spoken language and were no longer pictures, rebuses, or syllabic signs, the costliness of books was such as to make it still the privilege of the favored few. To him who could read, the collected wisdom of the ages was available. Not until the invention of printing and the manufacture of paper did reading come within the reach of the masses. From that time till the present reading has been recognized as first of all the subjects in importance. The phonetic alphabet made reading an experience that was not impossible for all to acquire; the invention of movable type in printing and the manufacture of paper brought the cost of books within the reach of all the people, and the Reformation gave a motive for acquiring the ability to read.

Probably no other subject in the range of the curriculum has received so much attention from the standpoint of methods, and yet there is no subject in which less definiteness of pro-

cedure has resulted or in which there is more adverse criticism of results obtained in the school. It is not the purpose of this paper to set forth a new method of reading, for the writer believes there has been too much artificial method already; but the purpose is rather to call attention to some of the neglected phases of the subject and to apply the newer point of view to some special cases not yet worked out.

Educational thought of the day views society as making certain demands of efficiency of its members; views the school as society's agent for the realization of some of the most fundamental of these demands; views the individual-to-be-taught as possessing certain instincts, emotions, needs, problems, conscious aims, that must be used to realize the fundamental demands of society; and views subject matter as ways of acting or means of control preserved by society to enable the individual the better to realize his needs, solve his problems and fulfill his interests. In this manner are developed out of the child's conscious aims those which society has for him. Subject matter furnishes the tool, the means for the appreciation and control of values.

It is, then, necessary to determine the function of reading and the conditions under which it normally takes place.

In trying to ascertain the function of reading and the conditions calling out the activity the following cases of reading were observed:

1. My room-mate came in with a letter which he was reading to himself; conversation later revealed that it was from his

home and gave the happenings there.

2. A traveling man in the hotel was reading a magazine, and finding a good joke read it to another traveling man who was sitting near smoking a cigar.

3. A student read me a paragraph from her composition. I had shown an interest in her theme and she wished to show me how she had handled a certain phase of the subject.

4. A friend was going to Kansas City. He read the time table to ascertain the connections and the time of arriving at Kansas City.

5. The minister of the Presbyterian Church, to give the setting in which his text was found, read a chapter from the Bible before preaching his sermon. He wished to put us in possession of the foundation upon which he proposed to add further to our enlightenment.

6. A student in the Library was reading an article in "The Educational Review." He explained that he found there some valuable material for the paper he was writing.

7. Mr. J. read in the 'phone book to get the number of the Laundry 'phone in order to have the wagon call.

8. Two Summer School students were disputing as to what a text on Agronomy said with reference to soils. One then turned to the text and read the passage to the other.

9. On the train I sat beside an acquaintance who was reading a book. He apologized for reading by saying that he wished to find some points which he had once read and which he wished to

use in a discussion at the State Teachers Association to which we were both going.

10. In the court room the attorney for the defendant, in order to show the rights of his client in the case, read certain sections of the statutes of Missouri to the judge and jury.

11. A newspaper carrier brought "The Daily." I picked it up; some articles I read aloud to those in my home; others I read only silently, while still others were passed over after reading only the heading.

The reason for these different ways of acting I found by introspection. The articles on politics and school I felt my listeners did not care for - these I read silently. The war news and some local news I read aloud, because I felt my audience did not know it, and would be interested. Some articles I passed over - they did not appeal to me.

In the above observations, numbers 1, 4, 6, 7 and 9 are cases of silent reading; numbers 2, 3, 5, 8 and 10 are examples of oral reading; number 11 is an instance of both oral and silent reading. An examination of these cases reveals as factors: first, a writer who has had certain things which seemed to him worth while, certain values which he felt and wished to convey to others, or which he desired to record for his own use at a later time; second, a set of symbols which the writer used in expressing the values; third, a reader who appreciated certain values of the writer and was assimilating them by means of training and experience; and fourth, in cases of oral reading, the expression of these values to fifth, an audience who appre-

ciated the values that were being expressed by the reader. The eleventh example indicates that the reader must appreciate the values of the writer, for when they did not appeal to him he passed them by as soon as he learned from the heading the nature of them. We notice, also, that the audience must appreciate these values or the reader does not try to communicate them.

The function of reading then may be stated as getting for self or to communicate to others from the words of a writer, things of value where there is a like appreciation of value but different levels of control.¹

The teacher of reading is therefore concerned with five factors: (1) the values of the writer; (2) the symbols by which the writer communicates his values; (3) the reader who assimilates the values; and (4) expresses them; (5) to an audience.

This thesis will concern itself with first year reading, and it will have the following aims:

1. To examine the subject matter of first year reading in order to see what values the literature presuppose the child capable of controlling and appreciating, to find a criterion for selecting subject matter for first year reading, and to criticise the values found in first year reading in view of the standard set up.
2. To consider the methods of mastering the symbols; to try to find the most natural method of approach and of strongest

1. Charters, "Methods of Teaching," pp. 70-1, Row, Peterson & Co. 1912.

motivation; and to outline the steps by which the symbols may be mastered in their functional connection with the reading experience.

3. To study the nature of the child and how he assimilates the author's experience by means of reconstructing his own; to make a limited survey of recent experiments in the psychology of reading and to note some of its implications as to first year reading.
4. To consider the body and voice as the mechanism for the expression of the values of the writer to others and to indicate how these are trained for effective expression.
5. To consider the part the audience plays in teaching to read and to suggest some plans by which this much neglected element in effective oral reading may be secured.

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CHAPTER I.

THE WRITER'S VALUES

We have seen that when reading takes place one of the factors in the process is the values of a writer. These values the reader is trying to get from the words of the writer or is trying to convey to another or others - an audience - having like appreciation of these values but not control of them.

The writer's values are solutions for problems, ways of reacting toward a situation. They are ways of meeting situations which the writer has found satisfactory or the portrayal of ways of acting which we should avoid. Each age, as it makes new discoveries or finds better means of solving life's problems, records them for the benefit of present and future society to guide it in ways not only of physical action but of intellectual, emotional and aesthetic as well. As the pupil enters school to be prepared for society, it is these fundamental ways of acting that he is to learn, and to do this the reading habit is essential.

We shall consider writers' values from two standpoints. We shall trace historically the values which writers of beginning readers have emphasized and follow this with a study of values found in a large number of present day primers and first readers. A criterion of values and a criticism of material found in beginning readers will be given.

History of Writer's Values.

Religious values dominate. In the treatment of values from the historic standpoint no attempt is made to make it exhaustive. The study has been confined to subject matter most widely used in American schools, but in order to understand better those values which were brought to America by the earliest settlers and the evolution which has taken place, it has been necessary to notice some European conditions and the influence of some European writers whose ideas of child nature greatly changed the subject matter of reading.

For centuries before the Reformation all the primers were books of religious instruction and prescribed as to content by the church. Their values were religious and were presented to the child on the authority of the teacher backed by the church. Even the name "Fiebel" given to the first German primer which appeared, 1419, indicates the nature of the values it contained. It also is a hint that psychology of that day had gotten no farther than the belief that child mind was like adult mind only smaller. To writers of those early primers the child differed from his elders in mind as in body, chiefly in size; he differed in the amount rather than the kind of his powers. So the values set for him to acquire were like in kind but smaller in amount than for adults.

The Reformation, about the time of Luther, advanced some new ideas that were gradually to affect both the extent of the

reading experience and the values to be presented in the subject matter. Some of these ideas were that man is saved by faith, that the Bible is the supreme authority and guide in life, that every man must interpret the Scriptures for himself according to the light he has. These were society's new ways of thinking, its new values which it demanded that all should acquire. The Protestant primers were modeled closely on the Catholic ones but emphasized the new values, and having broken with tradition at one point, gradually found room for other values. Philip Melancthon, Luther, and Schulte each followed closely the older primers, but the former departed from them to include some sayings of the Greek scholars and the latter in making his A B C book, 1532, made one of the earliest attempts to appeal to the child through pictures and rhymes.¹

When the Puritans under the pressure of religious ideals came to America, they brought "The A B C. The Catechism," which name is an index of the value it emphasized. About seventy years later the New England Primer appeared. It reflected the spirit of the age that brought it forth. It was a church book, but contained enough secular matter to make it a cautious step toward secularization. Again we find pictures and rhymes used in teaching the alphabet, but the values of the writer were moral and religious injunctions, prayers, catechisms, etc.

1. Huey, "Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading," p. 243, Macmillan & Co., 1909.

These are addressed to the youth in language and thought that made no attempt to get down to the level of the child. The words for spelling were arranged on the plan of their length. So little is there found in its pages that seems to be adapted to child nature and life that it is hard to see the point of the statement made on the title page: "An Easy and Pleasant Guide to the Art of Reading."¹

Transition The transition from religious to secular values came
to the slowly and met with much criticism. The small lead
secular. taken toward secularization by the New England Primer was more
marked in its successor, the "Webster Speller," 1783. In this
as a beginners' book, the chief value was the mastery of words.
The book contained long lists of words arranged according to
length, a large number of names of things and of persons and
places, illustrated fables for reading lessons, and short sen-
tences for beginners in reading. Supplementary matter such as
numbers, abbreviations, moral instructions, a catechism, etc.,
appeared in various editions.² Fables were introduced for the
purpose of teaching morals, but were considered too worldly and
met with such fierce criticism that in the many editions numerous
changes came about. The method of moral teaching was direct.
The fables were followed by a moral or religious maxim and seem

1. Ford's "The New England Primer," p. 45. (A Reprint, Dodd, Mead & Co., 1899.)

2. Huey, "Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading," p. 248.

to have found a place for this express purpose rather than as an appeal to child nature and interests. People still mistrusted amusing pieces and idle tales. One author pathetically remarks, "Notions of fairies and hobgoblins take time to eradicate and often baffle all the power of philosophy." When moral tales were finally permissible, they usually had good children rewarded with early death, and the bad with punishment.

A. Influence of the National Ideal. "Webster's Reader," which came out a year or two later than his Speller, besides appealing to morals and religious values contained dialogues, narrations, and many selections from American Statesmen and patriots of the Revolutionary times.¹ It also contained biographies and was intended to instruct in geography, history, and politics of the United States.

"Webster's Reader" never became so popular as his Speller. It soon had many rivals to dispute the field. All drew heavily upon patriotic selections from American writers, and each locality was partial to its own particular brand of patriotism and was loyal to "home grown" American genius.

B. Influence of Child Study. Almost two centuries had passed since certain European writers had called attention to the nature of the child and had pointed out the desirability of taking his needs and interests more fully into account in his education.

1. Huey, "Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading," p. 249.

Comenius (1592-1670) had revolted against the idea of imparting ideas to children exclusively through words and advocated the use of objects instead, and, starting with objects most familiar, he went to new language and the more remote world of objects. Rousseau (1712-1778) called attention to the fact that, "Nature wills that children should be children before they are men;" that "--- Childhood has ways of seeing, thinking, feeling, peculiar to itself."¹ He revolted from the over-bookish age in which he lived. He advocated leaving the child free to learn from nature ideas before symbols. The young were not to learn from books or about books - nature alone was to be the teacher. He says in "Emile," "The wisest among us fix upon what it concerns men to know without ever considering what children are capable of learning. They always expect to find the man in the child without thinking of what the child is before it is a man."² Pestalozzi (1746-1827) held that there is a greater difference between the child of eight or nine and the youth of fourteen and fifteen than between the youth and the man of twenty, and that this calls for a difference in their studies. But it was not until after the first quarter of the nineteenth century when Froebel had again called attention to

1. Quoted from Quick's "Educational Reformers," p. 250, Appleton, 1894.

2. Ibid, Appleton, 1894.

the nature of the child that there seems to have been any marked change in the nature of the readers in their attempt to meet the needs of the child's mind.

In the Pestalozzian Primer, 1827, the name, size, parts, shape, color, number, origin, kinds, and use of common articles of the household, the street, and the field were to become the rallying points for pleasing and useful thoughts.¹ Exercising the pupil in handling the objects was recommended whenever practicable. It did not, however, distinguish between^{the} mere handling of objects and the using of them in activity in a purposeful way. It was probably the first Primer published in this country to make use of the child's environment in an educative manner.

The influence of child psychology on the values to be appealed to in first year reading is seen also in the transition from the use of a single book to a series of readers. At first the series was composed of but two or three books, but was soon increased to a reader for each grade; thus recognizing not only that the children differ from adults in appreciation of values, but that they differ from each other as well. Among the early series may be mentioned Putnam's Series, 1828, advocating the word method; Pierpont's Series, choosing its subject matter from American statesmen and authors; and McMurray's "English Reader" with its subject matter chosen from English sources. The avowed purpose of the "English Reader" was "To improve the

1. Keagey's "Pestalozzian Primer," pp. 37-38 (Printed by J. S. Wiestling, Harrisburg, Pa.)

youth in the art of reading, to meliorate their language and sentiments and to inculcate some of the most important principles of piety and virtue."¹ The Cobb Readers, 1831, made an advance toward the child in the use of stories and information about animals.

The climax of the movement toward the secular and toward breadth of interests, many of them mistaken interests of children, came when, in 1850, a very popular series of Readers came out. The McGuffey Reader swept almost the entire field of human interests--morals, economics, politics, literature, history, science and philosophy. The 1849 Primer of this series gives a larger place than formerly to statements about animals, but the lessons are lacking in real child interests and are chosen with the purpose of using short words because they were thought to be easier to master than long ones. The idea that the material should convey any important thought is almost foreign to its makeup. Up to page thirteen no word of more than two letters is used; to page twenty-nine no word of more than three letters; and only a few words of more than four letters are ever used.

C. Influence of the Utilitarian idea. During this same period, in response to the demand for a broader training, subjects which were not able to command a place of their own in the curriculum found a place in supplementary reading books. These supplementary

1. Reeder, "Historical Development of School Reading Books," Educational Review, Vol. XVIII, p. 229 ff.

reading books were made to do service for agriculture as early as 1824, for history in 1827, and in 1860, there appeared a seven book series devoted to science. Thus early do we see a leaning toward practical or utilitarian values in reading. By 1880 many of the subjects had won a place of their own in the curriculum, and literature, in theory at least, came more and more to be considered the proper subject matter for our Readers.

D. Influence
of Methods.

By 1880 the transition from religious to secular had been made. About that time the question of method began to occupy the attention of American writers of beginning readers, and series after series has been and is still being produced until one is bewildered with the number of them.

The influence of methods upon values was not so much marked by the addition of new vital interests, as by the emphasis placed on the mechanics of reading and by the neglect of values of life. Method readers not infrequently selected the material or rather manufactured it to meet the needs of a particular type of method. They were not careful to say anything in a connected way or to consider the worth of the subject matter to the child.

We may summarize here by saying that historically writers of first year readers began by making no distinction in kind between the interests of children and of adults. The earliest values emphasized were the religious and moral values. Under the influence of national ideals, child study, and utilitarian ideas, writers came to include subject matter from almost every

field of interest, selected more and more with the child's needs and powers as a guiding principle. Child study exerted its influence to eliminate some values not felt by children and to add others peculiar to childhood. The over emphasis upon method by some writers laid emphasis upon the mechanics of reading to the neglect of material of vital interest to children.

Writers' Values in Modern Beginners Readers.

We shall next consider writers' values from the standpoint of values revealed by an analysis of present day beginners' books for reading.

The scope and the plan. The following table shows the analysis of about fifty primers and first readers chosen from those in more or less extended use in the schools of this country, and presents in a concise form the interests which the writers of these texts emphasized. It also includes some other data, such as the nature of the pictures, the length of the words and the selections used, the relation of the sentences to each other in the lesson, whether there is any vital meaning connecting them, and whether or not there is any attempt to connect the interest of the different lessons with each other.

The texts were first examined lesson by lesson to find out whether they were based on activity or on still life. They were next submitted to analysis to see how many lessons would classify under each of the following heads: nature (animals,

plants, inanimate), play, industries and occupations of men, letters, children and child activities, adult and adult activities, literature in the form of fable, myth or folk-lore.

It should be said that many lessons could be classified with more than one of these groups as so many things were often dragged into a lesson for the purpose of word repetition or sound repetition. In each case an effort was made to find out what thought was most prominent and to classify it accordingly. Some lessons, although few, could not be classified under any of these headings.

Assuming that the chief function of the illustrations in beginners' books is to aid the child in interpreting the printed page, three primary teachers studied ten consecutive lessons in each text and rated it excellent, good, or fair according to the worth of its illustrations in this respect. The letters E, G, F are used in the table to indicate the result.

The length of the selections and of the words used in them, the closeness of the relation between the sentences of the early lessons and between the successive lessons making up the text were investigated. The words used in these columns in the table are sufficiently explanatory.

Brooks First Reader	A.
New National Rdr.. Bk. I.	A.
Heath First Reader	D.
Wide Awake Primer	Li
Horace Mann Primer.	L.
New Education Rdr..Bk. I.	A.
Beginner's Primer.	H.
Beginner's First Rdr.	H.
Sunshine Primer.	Gi
Jones' First Reader.	Gi
Hawthorne Reader, Bk. I.	Gl
Graded Lit., Bk. I.	Me
Bender Primer.	Me
Arnold Primer.	S.
The Aldine Primer.	Ne
Howe Primer.	Sc
Lippincott Primer.	Li
Howe First Reader.	Sc
Lippincott First Rdr.	Li
Baldwin Reader, Book I.	A.
Harpers First Reader.	A.
Appleton First Reader.	A.
Sunbonnet Babies Primer.	A.
Morse Reader, Book I.	Mc
Stepping Stones, BK. I.	S.

READER OR PRIMER

Holton Primer

Lessons For Little Rdrs.

American School Primer.

American School Rdr.Bk.I.

Playmates Primer.

Graded Classics, Bk. I.

Art Lit. Rdrs. Bk. I.

Eaton First Reader.

Reading-Lit. Primer.

Reading-Lit. First R.

New McGuffey First Rdr.

Baldwin-Bender First Rdr.

Child World Primer.

Riverside Primer.

Riverside First Reader.

Gordon Reader, Book I.

Blodgett Primer.

Blodgett First Reader.

Progressive Course,Bk.I.

Cyr First Reader.

Summer's First Reader.

Summer's Primer.

Lesson

Interests expressed in pe

Criterion for Selecting Values.

Before entering upon a criticism of the results shown by the preceding analysis we may inquire by what standard the material for first year reading should be chosen. There seems to be rather general agreement that two factors enter in: first, there is the child with his inherited and acquired interests; secondly, the subject-matter that the race has found valuable in satisfying its needs and solving its problems--subject-matter the race has worked out and organized to control its values. It is composed of story, myth, folk-lore, games, etc. Every piece of literature preserved by the race and suitable for first year reading is a means of control for some value esteemed by society. From this race subject-matter, fundamentally important material, the intrinsic function of which satisfies the needs and problems of the child, is chosen.

This examination of a large number of Primers and First Readers convinces one that to a great extent the child is lost sight of in an attempt to exemplify some method of teaching reading. Subject-matter, much of it almost worthless, has been manufactured to fit the needs of a method. Huey aptly described these Readers when he said, "No trouble has been taken to write what the child would naturally say about the subject in hand, nor indeed, usually, to say anything connectedly and continuously as even an adult would talk about the subject. The language used often shows a patronizing attempt to get down to the child's level, and results in a mongrel combination of

points of view and of expression that is natural neither to an adult nor to a child. The child avoids adults who try to play with him in this manner, and down in his child heart he scorns such reading-matter, although he will often plod through it with some interest to please a beloved teacher."¹

The mastery of words seems to be the principal value of many of these writers as can be seen from a few of the reading selections:

"See the fan.
Fannie has the fan.
Can Fannie fan Dan?
Fannie can fan Dan."

"Kate ate a date."

"A fat rat ran under the mill."

This shows clearly the effect upon subject-matter of an attempt to master words by means of phonics. The subject-matter in these Readers is wooden and the more mechanical the method, the more wooden the content. Many manuals of reading go so far as to outline by days, weeks, and months what is to be taught. These writers of child literature would fit the child to the Reader and not the Reader to the child.

In the following, reliance is placed upon repetition rather than the vital interest of the child:

"Sing little bird.
Sing to me.
Sing to me, little bird.
Sing little bird, sing.
Sing little bird, sing to me."

1. Huey, "Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading," p. 279.
McMillan Co., 1909.

The word "this" was found repeated fourteen times in the same relative position in fourteen consecutive sentences on a single page. The effect of such repetition for the sake of mastering the words is readily seen in the choppy material that results. Such treatment of the material fails to appeal to the child, loses his interest and attention,—the most important element of both mastery of words and meanings. The attention of the child in the First Grade is of the spontaneous type, and there is nothing in such material to excite it.

Many readers have attempted to appeal to the child's interests. Some Readers have made an attempt to appeal to the spontaneous interest of the child by selecting the material from nature, but have made the values too abstract, too analytic for the child whose interest is personal rather than objective or analytic. Others, while addressing the child's interests and appealing to a wide range of them, are wanting in child language with which to convey their values; a few Readers have emphasized a single interest as that of imagination in myth and fable, but narrowed its scope. The child is imaginative and does enjoy myth and fable, hence, these should be used; but they are not the only outlet for his imagination. The child's imagination works just as freely in stories which embody ideals of courage, generosity, strength, wisdom, and kindness; in stories of industry and invention; in stories of home and social activities when these are within the range of his understanding, as in those of myth and fable. We have also the jingle primer

to meet the interest in rhythm. This, too, may be overdone and is in some books; for in this the sound may yield such rhythm that its pleasure may so satisfy and fill the mind that meanings are lost.

It would be unfair criticism that did not recognize in these attempts a beginning in child's literature that promises much for the two terminal aspects of the problem - the values of society as preserved in the literature and the needs of the child. It is important that those who mediate between the child's needs and these values should be wise in their choice of material.

The study of the above tables shows that eleven out of forty-seven texts place the values of still life above those of activity, and six others consider these of about equal value. In lessons dealing with nature two authors give more attention to plants than to animals; six others keep these values about evenly balanced; eleven place inanimate nature above plants; one places it above both plants and animals; six keep a balance between inanimate nature and plant life and one a balance with plant life. Fifteen of these writers for children give more attention to their interest in plants than to their interest in play. Five have preserved a balance between these two interests. Four writers based more lessons on adults and adult activities than upon children and their activities. Perhaps the most surprising fact of all is the small reliance most writers place upon the value of myth, fable and folk-lore. Sixteen have made no use of them at all, and only twelve have made any considerable use of this great storehouse of child literature. Most

of the writers made the beginning lessons short and there is often little thought connection between the sentences of a lesson or the successive lessons. Almost half of the primers introduce no long words in the early reading.

What values may
be relied upon?

This topic will be dealt with at length in chapter three in discussing the reader. We may say here, however, that the first year reader has two kinds of experience that may be relied upon by the writers of primers and teachers of first-year reading to call out whole-hearted interest. There is that which the child has gained through his games and play, through his prying and exploring, through his copying the acts of others, through his repetitions and competitive acts and through his pleasure in making things; and there is that other world of experiences gained imaginatively. Upon both of these types of experience the author and the teacher may rely in building lessons so vital in interest as to cause the child to enter joyfully into the activity to be found in them and to create a strong motive for mastering the symbols.

Summary. The lessons for first-year reading must be made up from socially valuable material which also appeals to the activities, powers, needs and interests of children. The study shows much progress in recent primers and readers in meeting these requirements. But the older texts and the group examined as a whole show much worthless material introduced for the sake of method and lacking in child values and child language; too much reliance upon meaningless repetition; too much emphasis upon mechanical word mastery to the neglect of thought and meaning; too little reliance upon the imaginative experiences of children and consequent neglect of story, myth and folk-lore; overemphasis of still life, inanimate nature and plants, and lack of balance in the interests appealed to in the material. Later primers and readers have utilized material more fully in line with the child's experiences and interests. The values that may be relied upon to secure whole-hearted interest in reading and motive for the mastery of symbols are the vital, personal experiences of everyday life represented in his play, inquisitiveness, constructiveness, imitation etc., and in those experiences gained imaginatively.

C H A P T E R II.

THE MASTERY OF THE SYMBOLS IN READING.

Introduction.

Two kinds of symbols. The beginner in reading is confronted with two kinds of symbols that are new to him, both of which must be mastered before he can become an independent reader.

Function of visual word symbols. The first of these are the arbitrary written or printed word symbols whose function is to represent the values of the writer. When the beginner enters school he is equipped with several hundred of these words as auditory symbols of appropriate activities. The problem in reading is to fuse these auditory symbols and their meanings with the visual symbols, or, better perhaps, to associate the new symbol directly with appropriate activities for which the auditory symbols stand. This is accomplished by re-living the experience symbolized by the auditory symbol in connection with the new one. The strength of the association of symbol and meaning will depend upon the worth of the thought to the child. The thought or meaning is the life-giving element in the process of learning to read.

Function of sound symbols. The second kind of symbols are sound symbols and are represented by the letters of the alphabet. Their function is to represent the elementary sounds of the language. The mastery of these symbols gives command of the sounds which

compose a word. It enables the pupil independently to master the name of the word but would not, except in rare cases where the sound is an echo of the sense, give the meaning. Here the problem is to associate the letter symbol with the sound it represents in such a way that each will recall the other.

Relation of symbols to values, meaning, and language. The values we discussed in chapter one are locked up in the written or printed page. The symbol is one side and its meaning is the other side of this visual language. In experience symbols and meaning grow up together, and the essential thing is that the symbols shall have a particular meaning and shall be mastered in this meaningful relation. If they are mastered for their own sakes and not in their relation to the meaning they should convey, they become only echoes of themselves or at best or worst mean only that certain muscular movements of vocal organs are to be made.

The problems considered in the mastery of symbols will be (1) methods, (2) phonics, (3) motive.

1. METHOD.

The methods of mastering symbols in reading are best studied through the methods of teaching primary reading. Two methods of teaching the child to read seem to have contended with each other for supremacy. The one proceeds on the principle that there must be thorough mastery of symbols before the child is permitted to read; the other proceeds upon the principle that the child can most easily master the symbols through reading from the beginning. Between these two contending extremes of method there have been many compromises. In our study let us consider what suggestion of method is offered, first, by the nature of reading itself; second, by the history of methods in reading; third, by nature's method of mastering symbols; fourth, by the ability to create the strongest motive for the mastery of the symbols.

Nature of reading and order of attack. The function of reading as stated in the previous chapter carries its own implication as to the nature of reading and its method. This statement of the function of reading makes it a means rather than an end, - an instrument for obtaining values. Let us see if from our method of gaining control of an instrument we can find any suggestion for the present problem.

If I wish to learn to use a vacuum carpet-sweeper I do not first take it to pieces and study its parts, bellows, dust receiver, gearing, vacuum chamber, etc. Perhaps I am not convinced of the need of such an instrument at all. In this case

the dealer will build up the value in my mind by giving a demonstration of what it can do. He will show me how it removes the dust from the rugs without stirring it up in the room; how much more healthful and clean it keeps the house. I decide to try it. I take it home, and now I must learn to use it. I put it on the rug to be cleaned, and by using it for the purpose for which it was made, I get command of it.

By analogy then, the first step in teaching reading is to create the need for it. We must put the child in a situation where he will see that reading will further some purpose of his, if the novelty of the new experience is not sufficient in itself. In many instances the child has been read to or has observed the use of reading again and again until he is eager for the experience. The child has probably been imitating an older brother in reading the pictures or may even understand that the marks tell the wonderful stories. He has, perhaps, often tried to make them tell a story invented in imitation of his elders. Some children will come from surroundings which have never stirred the need. These will catch a glimpse of the possibility of this tool from the stories read by the teacher or by a pupil of the second grade who has already been initiated into the mysteries of reading. The children play some exciting game. At the close each states what he did; the teacher writes the statement of each child on the board. Then sending for a pupil from another room he is asked to tell each child what he did. This arouses a personal desire on the part of the new pupils for the

power of making their oral language visible, and for the ability to translate visible language into spoken language. The teacher by some such means as this will sharpen the desire for control of the instrument of reading.

But the analogy goes still farther. Just so long as I am able to get the vacuum cleaner to work well I pay no attention to its mechanism of motor, gearing, etc. But when the machine fails to do the work I then begin my study of the mechanism in order again to get it in shape to do its work. In teaching the symbols, then, the procedure is to get the child ^{to} reading, and then to attend to the mechanism of symbols as the need arises. Since the natural unit of language oral or written is the sentence, it would seem that the method of inducting the child into reading is through the sentence and from the sentence as a whole to proceed to parts as the need arises.

The history of method in reading. What hint of the method of teaching the symbols in reading may be found in a study of the history of methods in reading? We may assume that as the method first used in reading proved unsatisfactory, changes would be made. As better approaches have been found the old have been replaced by the newer and better.

History of method will show that there have been three widely used plans for the mastery of symbols and still others with variations and combinations of these.

The A B C method. The A B C method probably originated when the pictorial symbol was found inadequate to the need of the people

and was replaced by the alphabet. The great advantage which the sound symbol had over the pictorial in representing and conveying thought tended to magnify its importance in the process of learning to read. Moreover, it was the logical key to the situation. As soon as the letters were mastered they could be combined into syllables, the syllables into words and the words into sentences. This is a very logical order of attack, but we have been slowly learning that a logical organization of subject-matter may not be the best order of development for the child. Only as reading came more and more to be demanded by society as a value to be secured by its members, only as the difficulties of learning to read became more conscious, was another method sought. Various devices came to be used to get the pupils to learn the alphabet. A wealthy Greek purchased slaves as playmates for his boy, each slave named for a letter of the alphabet. Quintillian advocated giving the children blocks with the letters printed on them and ivory tablets with the letters engraved therein to be traced by the child with a pen.¹ The gingerbread method of Basedow was one of the most ingenious methods of motivating the work. He advocated having a school baker and utilizing the child's desire for the gingerbread letters as an incentive to learn their names. So, too, there came to be devices to aid in grouping into syllables, words, etc. But the A B C method has no strong motivation. It is difficult to make the child feel the need for the alphabet as such. Its relation to the desire to read is not vital. To be compelled to learn the alphabet with no purpose in mind is

1. Payne, "Compayre's History of Pedagogy," p. 49. D. C. Heath & Co., 1885.

as obnoxious to the child as the learning of nonsense syllables is to the adult when he has no end in view for doing so, and the task is imposed simply upon authority. It is strictly a memory task with no interest or meaning to the child other than pleasing the teacher. The letters have no meaningful relation to values felt by the child. They were not taught as sound symbols and their relation to word mastery was lost to the child. There was no opportunity for symbol and meaning to grow together.

The phonic method. Ickelsamer, 1534, offered the phonic method. He

grouped the letters of the alphabet according to the position of the vocal organs in uttering their sounds; he used the method of mnemonic association.¹ By this method the sound of the letter "b" for instance was represented by the bleating of the lamb, that of "r" by the growling dog, etc. Thus, when a word was learned, the child imaged the letters, their sounds, and the animals repeating their cries. The method with some variations was perfected by Miss Pollard at a much later time and was called the Synthetic Method. She made the association of letter-sounds and letter by story, song, picture, personification, and drill. The phonic elements are learned before the word, the word before the idea, the sentence last of all. The plan while having some advantages over the A B C method, placed the emphasis on sound mastery and ability to master words as the end to be desired. But word mastery is not reading; the word has only indefinite meaning except in relation to other words of a sentence. The child has these words already in his spoken vocabulary, and until reading itself has created the need

1. Huey, "Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading," p. 254.

for the mastery of printed symbols the child does not feel any interest in this procedure. Ability to sound out words is not in itself a strong value to the child and when insisted upon leads the child to believe this the important thing in the process of reading. The phonic method, therefore, can not be launched with any strong impelling motive; the symbols are not values in themselves apart from their meaning. However well this method may succeed, it is emphasis in the wrong place, and the method as a beginning method has lost favor.

The word Comenius, about 1567, made the beginning of the word method.

method. This was an attempt to learn words not by a synthesis of letters or sounds, as in the A B C and the phonic methods, but as wholes by associating them with pictures - the picture suggestive of the word. This was an advance in method; Comenius was far beyond his time. It was only in the latter part of the last century that it came to be much used in this country. It admits of stronger motivation than either of the methods so far described, for the picture has interest for the child, and the word would doubtless arouse some images and be imbued with some meaning which would make it easier to master. Wholes, too, are presented before the parts. But when we give all the credit we can, it still falls short and we must say again word getting is not reading nor is ^{it} the principal thing to be aimed at in learning to read. The word does not express definite meaning independently and can not be strongly connected with a felt need of the child.

The sentence method.

The need for some method which would make the burden of the child lighter led to another suggestion which for a long time was not seriously tested because it proposed the seemingly impossible. It was suggested that the sentence be made the unit for the child. The sentence method seems to have been proposed by Comenius¹ and by Olivier.² But it had no ~~any~~ wide use in this country until late in the nineteenth century - less than thirty years ago. This method looks upon the sentence as the true unit in language and reading. The sentence has a distinctive total sound, appearance, and meaning. This is indicated by the way it is spoken when its meaning is felt. When the meaning of the entire sentence is in the consciousness of the reader then only can he read naturally. The sentence lends itself to a strong appeal to the pupil because it furnishes him with meanings, with reward for his effort, in the gratification of his love of story and rhythm, in the extended meaning of the picture he has wondered about. It can make appeals also to the instinctive side of his nature, to his interest in play, construction, etc.

Our examination of primers and first readers in Chapter II, shows that an effort is sometimes made by the publishers to supply books adapted to all methods of teaching reading, but that by far the larger number recommend a combination method beginning with the sentence and introducing word and phonic drills later, but still early in the year.

From the evolution of method in reading what are we to con-

1. Huey, "Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading," p. 272.
2. Briggs and Coffman, "Reading in Public Schools," p. 32.

clude as to the procedure in learning to read? It would seem only logical to conclude that, as a result of the efforts of the years to find the easiest and most natural approach for the beginner in reading, the A B C, the phonic, and the word methods have given way to the sentence, or perhaps more accurately the sentence-word method.

The method of mastering symbols in reading may be inferred also from the method by which symbols are naturally acquired, and the method by which the child masters his ear vocabulary and learns to express his thoughts by the voice. When the child

How ear vocabulary and speaking vocabulary grow. enters school he has a speaking vocabulary estimated at from fifteen hundred to four thousand

¹ words and is able to understand when heard (ear symbols) a much larger number. How did he get these ear symbols? The manner in which these symbols grew has implications that may be helpful in understanding how to master the symbols in primary reading. Symbols grow up in our reaction to situations in our experience. The symbol and meaning grow simultaneously. The natural symbol is the objective aspect of experience in relation to the subjective aspect, but the reaction is an adjustment to the meaning of the symbol. It is the proper reaction that is important and the meaning is the guide. The point is seen if we examine some of the meanings which children attach to symbols. They are shot through and through with activity. An illustration may make it clearer. The mother, when the child has sufficient muscular control, puts the spoon in the

1. Grant, Pedagogical Seminary, Vol. XXII, p. 192.

child's hand, speaks the word "spoon" and guides the child's hand in using it to get its food. The seeing and feeling of the spoon, the name and the appropriate activity all get associated in this experience. Repetitions of it make the association permanent so that either the memory image of the spoon or the sight of it calls up or suggests the spoken word; and the spoken word calls up the appropriate activity, - it has become a symbol, the sign of an idea. The child now defines spoon as something bright to take food with, and in time even the quality is omitted and the spoon becomes something to eat with. In this manner was the entire auditory symbolism built up before he entered school and in this way it will continue to grow. The relation of the symbol is made specific to the activity; it is not independent.

The speaking vocabulary the child possessed on entering school has been acquired through his instinct to imitate, and on entering school he thus knows certain words in two ways. The problem of the teacher is to teach the child to know these words in two other ways in order that he may have another way of getting and another way of expressing thought. The eye is now trained to share with the ear the burden of thought getting, and the hand to share with the mouth the work of expression.

Eye symbols
are similarly
acquired.

The method of mastering word-forms in reading is
the same as that by which the child acquired his

hearing vocabulary. The parent did not begin to teach the child the component parts of his ear words. The teacher will not begin

by teaching the child the component parts of the written or printed words, - the letters; nor by teaching ^{him} /~~the~~ sounds that make the words. Neither letters nor sound components of words are necessary before he begins to read. Words are not independent of their meanings and their meanings are bound up in the totality of sentence meaning; they get their meaning in a relationship to other words, in their service to specific activity for which they stand. The starting point is some familiar thought or idea which the child can express and has expressed in oral language, and we assist him to express it in action and in oral language when the same is expressed in clear script upon the board. Repetition, as in the case of the ear symbol, makes the association of the sight word and its meaning permanent. The written or printed words thus become filled with meaning and are signs of ideas. The child has been initiated in reading, and the method starts with the sentence.

Method follows need felt by child. In learning any item of knowledge there is one condition that always determines the ease and readiness with which it is done; namely, the need felt for or the interest felt in the thing learned. We shall note next the ability of the sentence-word method to meet a felt need of the child.

The answer has already been stated informally in the discussion of the weaknesses and strength of the different methods. It needs only formal restatement. The child can be made to feel the need of reading - getting values - to satisfy his desire

for story, play, rhythm, etc. But his desire is for the meanings, the thought, or the rhythm and not for the symbols. The meanings and the rhythm are found in the sentence. The symbols, therefore, lack in the power to be felt as an urgent need, except as it comes in his inability to get control of the sentence.

2. PHONICS.

Because we begin with the sentence in teaching beginning reading and not with the sounds that make up words, we must not conclude that phonics has no place in teaching reading. There are many inherent difficulties in phonics that make their mastery difficult. Some sounds are represented by more than one symbol; some symbols represent more than one sound; some sounds are represented by a combination of symbols; and some symbols frequently stand for no sound at all, being silent.

If we teach reading incidentally and use the sentence-word method we shall still need phonics in order to make the child able to master words independently of the teacher. This is sufficient reason for giving phonics an important place in the discussion of first year reading. The topics considered are: (1) Function of phonics, (2) When to teach phonics, (3) How words are learned in the first lessons in reading, (4) Motive, (5) Method, (6) Learning the alphabet.

Function. The function of phonics in reading is to enable the child without the aid of the teacher to master those words with which he is familiar as ear words. By the use of

this tool, when the phonograms have become familiar to his ear, he is enabled to find for himself the new words that are already familiar to him as ear words. He has only to make the sounds in order, as found in the word, in quick succession to find that their synthesis is a word familiar to him.

When to teach phonics. No definite time can be set for beginning the work in phonics. Unconsciously from the first some of the sounds will begin to differentiate just as the words do. Many words will have common parts as in "man," "can," "ran," etc. By analogy and contrast the analysis of words begins and certain sounds of letters and phonograms are learned just as the child has learned that red is red and green is green wherever he finds it. It does not seem necessary to hasten unduly the phonic element in the work if good word drill is given to get the new words in a meaningful relation for the child so that context can aid him. Many words, even when phonics are taught early or taught first, have to be made sight-words as they will not submit themselves to phonic analysis, and some groups can be learned more readily by sight than by sound because the group is small or has some inherent difficulty such as silent letters.

The live teacher will detect the first tendency of the child to analyze the words and will foster it by every means at hand. When the need for a means of mastering words independently becomes strong enough to accomplish the work with the minimum of drudgery on the part of the pupil and the teacher, the task will be undertaken in earnest. The desire to get the story

without troubling the teacher to tell the new words becomes strong after the first few weeks.

The work in phonics should ^{at first} ~~be kept~~ separate from the reading lesson ~~XX XXXX~~. It must not intrude itself into the reading lesson to the detriment of getting the thought which is the main purpose. To permit it to do so is to emphasize word getting and to defeat the main purpose of reading.

How words are
learned in the
first lessons
in reading.

If the child is not to be made independent in word mastery by being taught phonics from the very beginning, then he must have some other method of getting these symbols in the early stages of learning to read. When the child is learning the natural symbols and he asks what this thing or that is, we tell him and help him get such experience of it as will be helpful in understanding it. When the arbitrary word symbol appears we can follow the same plan in the beginning and tell the pupil the word. In beginning with the sentence method words will from the beginning differentiate. Some who believe strongly in early phonic drill take this differentiation to mean that the phonic key must be mastered forthwith and proceed to the task with such energy as to make word mastery the main thing. This frequently results in confusing the child and causes his attempts at reading to become little more than a mechanical, monotonous calling of words. His recognition of words at first should come from the differentiation mentioned above, from the words told him by the teacher in response to an interest shown by his asking for them and from the context in which they are found. It is not best nor desir-

able that words should stand out prominently in reading. Experiments have shown that the recognition of the letters is not the means of word perception, but rather the length of the word and its general characteristics.¹ It has also been shown by Professor Cattell that words are as quickly recognized as letters; that "When sentences or phrases were exposed, they were either grasped as wholes or else scarcely any of the words or letters were read."² This would indicate that letters or their sounds are not vital to word recognition in a meaningful context.

Neither is phonics necessary to the meaning of a word in a sentence. The best authorities on meaning or interpretation of what is read agree that a word's particular meaning is felt in a relation to the total meaning in a sentence. James says, "Certain kinds of verbal associate, certain expectations fulfilled, stand for a good part of our impression that a sentence has a meaning. . . . Nonsense in grammatical form sounds half rational; sense with grammatical sequence upset sounds nonsensical. We make flying leaps over portions of the sentences uttered, and give attention only to substantive starting points, turning points, and conclusions here and there."³ From this we are to conclude that context is a powerful factor in deter-

1. Quoted from Huey, "Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading." p. 72.

2. James, "Principles of Psychology." Vol. I, pp. 255-265.

3. Huey, "Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading," p. 73.

mining words and their meanings and should be utilized as such from the very beginning.

How need A difficult task always calls for a strong incen-
for phon- tive to attack it and complete it. Too early phon-
ics arises. ic drills are not entered into with much life because lacking
in meaning and incentive. In the course of a few weeks as read-
ing becomes more and more a pleasure and more and more a neces-
sity in realizing his ideals in play, story, construction,
nature study, and desire to express himself in writing, the
child will come to feel the need of a better means of find-
ing words, one that will enable him to get the story without
bothering others. His increasing responsibility to perform
his part in the new world of the school and yet a larger one in
the old one, the home, will all contribute to his desire for
independence of the teacher's and parent's aid.

Method -

Mnemonic devices The method of teaching phonics is a matter of
are faulty. no small concern. Many special methods have
arisen, most of which seem artificial and unnatural. They are
unnecessary, for a more direct attack would be better. Many
teachers try to sugar-coat the task by teaching phonics in the
play activity. They make phonics an end and play the means of
activity. This is the case with most of the mnemonic systems.
But the theory breaks down in that the child while he growls,
"r-r-r-r" or puffs, "ch-ch-ch" does so for the sake of the ac-
tivity, and while he may learn some of the sounds, the process
is like standing off and scooping corn at a hand sheller; some
of it may strike the opening and be shelled, but the most of
the effort goes wide of the mark. In these methods the symbol

is not learned in its functional relation and has to be learned again. Even granting that the sounds can be learned by such systems, it may be questioned whether the knowledge of the sound as he meets it in his reading with the visual images of the puffing engine and the barking dog automatically associated can be anything but detrimental to the interpretation of meaning. This it seems to me we can say: the sound he has learned did not develop in response to the personal need of the child nor in its functional relation, and at no time is attention centered in any strong way on the symbol and sound it represents. This is quite a different thing from making activity in doing, or play, the end and phonics a means of its realization; the two processes must not be confused.

Formal drill Neither is it desirable to make the mastery of
is deadening. phonics a formal drill exercise with no incentive for the task. To do so is to work against the grain and to make it drudgery. The period for drill is not before the age of eight, so that in deference to the child, we must not force formal drill work upon him. When the time comes for teaching phonics, be it early in the year or late, it should be taught neither by mnemonic device nor formal memory drill.

The method The method of teaching phonics by the slow pronun-
of slow pro- ciation of words seems to be the best means yet de-
nunciation. vised. Phonics is a means of independent word mastery. By pronouncing the words slowly the sounds are taught in their functional relation to words, and symbol and meaning grow together. The teacher may pronounce words slowly with a percep-

tible pause between sounds. The children try to recognize what is said. As a motive to urge attention to it they may be permitted to do the thing sounded in this way or it may be made to add to the play or other interests. Later by means of the written or printed word the sound is associated with the proper character. Writing the word and sounding it as it is written has been found a very helpful plan, one by which sound and symbol grow up together.

Learning the
alphabet.

The alphabet characters are taught in the phonic work as children require them. And so far as

reading is concerned there will be no need for teaching them in serial order. There will be a need for them in serial order as soon as the dictionary or the card catalog is to be used. Some teachers have pupils keep a dictionary of new words learned. This would furnish the motive for learning them in serial if the words are grouped alphabetically.

3. MOTIVE.

The importance of the topic of motive is readily seen when we come to consider what subject-matter we shall put in the curriculum. At any stage of education, the content should be such that it can be utilized by the child in a present situation of need for a better way of doing things. But motive becomes of increasing importance when we come to consider the correlation of learning with the degree of whole-hearted interest in the activity in which the learning takes place. It is believed

that the amount of learning approaches a direct ratio to the degree of whole-hearted interest.¹ Direct learning best takes place to the extent that there is whole-hearted interest in the activity of subject matter for its intrinsic value. Activity is the basis of all learning and we shall discuss in connection with it, (1) what activity implies, (2) three types of activity, (3) the relation of activity to interest, need, problem, and motivation, (4) state the problem of motivation, (5) discuss the kinds of values used in motivation, (6) give illustrations, and (7) consider what motives to use.

What activity implies. Activity implies that there is an organism (the learner) with needs, predispositions, and capacity for activity; that these are called out by ends, purposes, goals, and values which act as stimuli; that the organism has certain ways of reaching out to control values - certain subsidiary steps in the process of reaching goals; that satisfaction or annoyance accompanies the responses or steps taken in getting control of a value.

Three types of activity. (1) There are three types of activity. In the case of the infant the end is instinctively set up, the movement is instinctively made, and the satisfaction or annoyance is an immediate accompaniment of the activity. If satisfaction accompanies the activity it tends to be repeated and learning results, certain values are controlled. If annoyance accompanies the activity, it is inhibited. A negative sort of learning takes place. In this type of activity the

1. Dewey, "Interest and Effort in Education," pp. 7-15, 41 ff.

means and end are not separated; the activity goes on merely for the pleasure it affords.

(2) A second type of activity is seen in the young child who is conscious of a delayed goal he is trying to reach and subsidiary steps are suggested by the situation and lead on to its accomplishment.

(3) The third type is recognized in older persons who are conscious of the goal and consciously select the subsidiary steps or means of reaching it. Satisfaction or annoyance accompanies the second and third types of activity, but it differs from the first in that disagreeable activity will be persisted in when it is comprehended and becomes a subsidiary part or means in a total desired activity.

Relation of
interest and
activity.

Charters says, "Activity which is the all in all

of the pupil has certain predilections and predis-

positions toward the directions it takes . . . We call the predilections and predispositions interests."¹ Activity is always going out toward some object or end to which we warm up emotionally. These tendencies and predispositions are numerous in children - some inherited, some acquired. The self sees in a situation some stimulus or value in line with a tendency or set of the organism, and, warming up toward it as an end or goal identifies itself with it in activity for the purpose of attaining it. If the activity and end are not separated and

1. Charters, "Methods of Teaching," p. 147. Row, Peterson & Co., 1912.

the activity is for its own sake we call it immediate interest. If the activity is for some conscious end or goal to be reached only by subsidiary steps or means then we call it mediate interest. But it is observed we are saying over again the same thing we said under types of activity only with different words.

Relation of need and activity. Need is felt when activity is blocked by some obstacle which interferes with the realization of our purposes. It is the lack of a value, and the self feels the inability to control it. If the value is strong enough the self persists in activity toward controlling it. The self takes stock of the situation. If the means already being used seem adequate their revaluation renews effort and the person works the harder. If the means seem inadequate, thinking results and there is search for new means to set the activity going toward the goal. Thus new interests are taken in new ways of over-coming obstacles. Mediate interest is taken in objects related as means to end of the activity in which the self is identified. Need is now seen to be but a phase of activity - dynamic in that the obstacle met has caused the person to spur up to overcome it. It is thus a phase of the second and third types of activity. But need may be instinctively felt and unconscious. Activity resulting from such need would correspond to the first type.

The problem and activity. Problems, too, spring out of broken-down control. They are intellectual statements of the way need can be satisfied. If I need to write a letter my problem may be

to get a pen, or paper, or to compose. It is a series of steps to be met in overcoming the breakdown and getting activity going again.

We may summarize by saying that interest, need, and problem are all phases of activity. We call it interest when the self finds in a situation some goal and looks forward and warms up to it and toward subsidiary means of its attainment. We call it need when there is the feeling of lack of a value, when an obstacle is in the way, and self puts forth effort to get control. We call it problem when activity is viewed intellectually and each step is viewed in relation to some larger whole. We call it motivation when we see the self warming up toward a goal and going toward it in activity or when we think of the end or goal as bringing the activity about.

The problem
of motivation.

When immediate interest is felt in subject-matter the teacher has no problem of motivation, for all that is needed is opportunity for activity. The subject-matter is sufficient stimulus in itself.

When subject-matter is not interesting the problem of motivation is to get something going (an activity whole) which includes the subject-matter as an intermediate step or subordinate part. It is to get the self of the student identified in an activity the goal of which requires the use of the subject-matter. The subject-matter thus becomes a means to the realization of the goal.

The use of generic values. One class of values is capable of motivating much subject-matter. We call them generic values. They are of such general application that they motivate a wide range of subject-matter. Rivalry, punishment, constructiveness, love of praise, curiosity, rewards, duty, honor, grades, promotion, etc., belong to this class. They have been much used by the old education. It is easy to appeal to them as ends. The teacher has merely to select one that the child values, cause him to realize that he is not controlling it; then show him that learning the subject-matter is the means of getting control. But the learning that results from this type of motivation is of a low order. It does not take into account the function of subject-matter but rather regards it as means of avoiding punishment, making grades, or securing rewards. The subject-matter is not seen and understood in its life use and is mechanically memorized. Other kinds of learning are taking place; such as aversion to school, teachers, and books. It is seldom whole-hearted activity and effort quickly lags. Since subject-matter is all for the same general purposes there is no weighing of values in what is learned. Subject-matter is not well organized since its relationships are not understood.

The use of specific values. The new education proposes a social functional view of subject-matter and a motivation by means of specific values. The use of specific values requires, first, that we determine the life use of the unit of subject-matter to be taught; secondly, that we get going some activity desired by the child

in which he will need to use the subject-matter for its intrinsic purpose; thirdly, that we guide the child in getting control.

Illustrations
of motivation.

In the illustrations which follow there is no attempt to classify motives. They are intended to be merely suggestive. Illustrations of both specific and generic values are given. Suggestions (1), (4), (6), (11) and (12) are appeals to specific values; (5), (9) and (10) are examples of generic appeals.

- (1) through play, Play is one of the strongest as well as one of the most useful of the instincts of infancy and childhood. It is activity performed for the pleasure accompanying it and has no end in view other than its own realization. Play is the natural teacher to acquaint the child with the words and to bring him into the realization of his powers and capacities. It is one way of trying on the world and experiencing the feeling.

Games can be found that involve delayed ends and use of means and rules, and that adapt themselves to teaching sentences, words, or letters. The following illustrations show how readily games lend themselves to this work:

The children and teacher play "I say stoop." In this game the children stand in the aisles, while the teacher stands in front, facing the class. Whenever the teacher says, "I say stoop!" both she and the children stoop and immediately rise

again. But when she says, "I say stand! " and stoops as before, the children remain standing. Those who make a mistake and stoop when the teacher stoops are out of the game. This game is played and talked about. At the next lesson the teacher says we are going to play the game in a new way. She has written the words "stoop" and "stand" in different places on the black-board and when she points to either of the words the pupils as before perform the act. If any pupil makes a mistake he is out.

.The pupils will again talk about the lesson and the teacher will arrange the sentences so as to make the most interesting account possible of the activity, keeping in as much of the personal element as possible. This is read by some member of the class if possible, but if not by the teacher who points to the symbols as he reads. This is subsequently made a reading lesson. The game may be repeated if need arises. Copies of the lesson may be given the pupil for study or home reading.

The same game may be used to introduce many new words as hop, run, jump, turn, fly, sit, etc., as they are needed. This appeals not only to the instinct of play but also to the expressive tendency of children which in the early years needs only the suggestion of activity to flow over into it.

Having taught a group of action words, the game may be changed to "Ducks Fly." This game will introduce many substantive words: The members of the class stand in open files as for gymnastic work, the teacher or pupil leader facing them.

The leader calls out "Ducks fly," and raises the arms to represent flying. The players imitate her. She continues, naming any animals she chooses instead of ducks. So long as she names animals that can fly, the players continue to imitate her; but, if, for instance, she calls out "Cats fly," the players remain motionless. The pupil failing to remain motionless must go out of the game. This game is changed for the next lesson, and this time the teacher writes the sentences on the blackboard and points to them instead of giving them orally. As she points to the sentences the child imitates the appropriate activity as before, and on making a mistake is out. The following sentences are suggestive:

Birds fly.	Pigs fly.
Dogs fly.	Turkeys fly.
Squirrels fly.	Cows fly.
Hens fly.	Geese fly.

Another game with the same possibilities of play and with the instinct of imitation which is so well developed at this age in the foreground is, "I Saw:" The children stand in the aisles of the school room. The teacher asks the leader of the first file, "What did you see?" The leader makes an answer that includes the mention of some physical action which he and his file can imitate. He says, for instance, "I see a horse trotting;" and then followed by his file, he trots around the room and back to his place. The teacher asks the question of the leaders of the other files in turn and the imitation each time follows. The answers admit of great variety and originality.

The following are suggestive:

"I saw a lame man walking."
"I saw a man beating a drum."
"I saw a hen flopping her wings."
"I saw a boy shooting a duck."
"I saw a girl plucking flowers."

This game is then changed so that the action is performed by the leader of a file as soon as he can read the sentence which the teacher writes on the blackboard. Failing to read it correctly he loses his place as leader, and the leader of the next file reads it and imitates the action.

Some of the games given for sentence and word drills would answer equally well for ear training drills in phonics. For example, if instead of pronouncing the words in the game, "I saw," the teacher slightly separated the first consonant from the rest of the word as, "I saw a boy r - un" or "I saw a bird h - op," etc., allowing the same activity as before if understood, the child's attention will be focused on the sound of the letter that has been slightly separated from the rest of the word.

The children play at mailing letters. A mail-box is fixed up. The proper word cards are distributed to the children and as each child brings his card he is allowed to mail it if he pronounces it slowly; that is, if he gives the sounds of the word correctly, as m-a-n. Or for drill work on sounds, the children may play at making a train. Blocks with a word printed on each or the phonic cards represent the engine and cars. The teacher presents the blocks or cards with the words; if the pupil

can give the sounds promptly he may have it for his engine, or car. Each child sees how long a train he can make. Either of the last two games would be just as effective as a word drill, but it is insisted at first that the drill on words be kept in sentence relation and that in phonic drills the sounds be kept in their functional word relation.

- (2) desire to imitate, Imitation has played a strong part in the life of the child in building his little world. It has helped him make his language, his habits of morals and manners. His social ideas, his moral and religious notions, he has formed by imitating others.

There are many uses for imitation in teaching reading. The child has seen others read and get good stories, hence the desire for reading springs up to furnish motive for the task of learning to read. It functions in play and imitative games, as we have already noted, and furnishes motive for symbol mastery. In obtaining expression, we shall find it our greatest reliance, perhaps, outside of being sure that the meaning is understood by the child, since the teacher's knowledge of the vocal organs and their function in speech is too inadequate to enable him to prescribe in definite terms the directions needed. And even in leading the child to get meanings, imitation is a useful ally. For example, if the child has read with the wrong meaning or no meaning and the teacher has tried other means to secure correct meaning, she may read, "Here is a letter from Mother" in strong contrast to his "here-is-a-letter- from-

Uncle- John?" Catching the meaning, he at once repeats it with similar inflection, "Here is a letter from Uncle John." Again, repeated efforts of imitation may be made, if the child is unable to utter certain sounds or combinations, or to accent some word correctly.

Imitation has application in the mastery of words. Let us suppose the child is learning to write as well as to read. He desires to write in imitation of the teacher. Some short sentence has first been functioned in the experience of the children. While this thought is at white heat, let the teacher write the sentence on the board, reading it as he writes and perhaps again after writing, this time pointing to it word by word. Let the teacher then erase the sentence, turn to some pupil and ask him to make the chalk say it. The desire to imitate the teacher in the act will hold the attention on symbol and meaning, thus aiding in a helpful way in making the associations.

But imitation is useful in reading not only as a means of adaptation but as a function in dramatic interpretation. With all children there is a desire to try on all sorts of actions to get the feel of them. The dramatic imitation becomes a means of picturing scenes and conditions essential to clear understanding. But children love to dramatize just as they love to play, - it seems akin to play on the one hand and to imitation on the other. Their first school dramatizations are of stories told them by the teacher. But the skillful teacher will turn this love of dramatization in the direction of motivation for reading.

If the children read for the purpose of dramatization they must so fill themselves with the story that they can take any part that may be assigned. They must find the persons, the parts to be performed by each, and the things needed to represent the story. It insures attentive effort to mastering the thought because it identifies the labor of mastering the words with the instinctive desire for dramatic imitation.

Dramatic imitation is of value in getting expression; for when a child loses himself and becomes another, he reads with proper expression and appreciation. In early reading, it will serve to focus the attention on the word and meaning belonging to it if simple situations are used and the children are permitted to act them as soon as they can discover their parts which the teacher has written on the blackboard; or if the teacher asks them to find in the story what the different characters said or did.

- (3) love of rhythm. Whether we regard rhythm as instinctive or organic, as some choose to do, it is a marked feature of child life. It is shown in the impulse to produce rhythmic movements and sounds and to respond in a characteristic way when such rhythms are produced by others. The child readily and eagerly learns "Little Boy Blue," or "Mother Hubbard." Many children know these rhymes when they come to school. Now suppose the teacher writes the rhyme on the blackboard and calls the words as he does so; suppose he now reads the poem as he again points to the words; suppose the pupil then repeats the

poem and points to the words. This is the method, or part of it, of a large number of readers. We may ask, "What has been accomplished?" Advocates of the theory claim that sentences and words have been differentiated in their meaningful relation to other words, and in a use and relation which the child understands. He associates the written symbols in the rhythm with the sound symbols and their meaning which has grown up with it in spoken language. When some vocabulary has been gained, the pupil may attack new rhymes that have not been memorized and read them because of the stimulus of his desire for rhythm. This seems to be its most legitimate use. It is also claimed for this method that it leads to independence. If the child has thoroughly memorized a rhyme and can point out the words when he finds a word subsequently in his reading lesson and can not recall it, he will remember the form and the rhyme in which it occurred and can go back and find it, thereby gaining a measure of independence.

There are some objections to these claims. It may be questioned whether the oral word arouses sufficiently the appropriate activities to make association with the written word, as it is pointed to, certain and economical. If the thought stirred by the written word is not sufficiently intense the association is therefore weak. It would have a tendency also to cause the sound of the word to come up and be repeated in silent reading. It would cause a lip and ear interpretation which would slow down the process of getting meaning from the

page. The circuit from symbol to meaning is in this case through other symbolism instead of through direct association with the activity and hence longer.

(4) the social instinct - tendency to form groups. There is a tendency in children to form into small groups at the age of first year reading.

This should be utilized with another social tendency, the altruistic, shown in the disposition to act for the good of the group. While neither of these tendencies is strong at this age, yet they should receive recognition. Reading may be made to contribute to their growth. Silent reading may be in the interest of obtaining a story to be told by the reader to his classmates or be made a servant to secure the values which he needs as a member of the group, and of the language interest which is always seeking something to tell; periods for free discussion of things read should be established. Oral reading can be made to furnish gratification to the social group by having one individual or division of a class read to the others, and by letting the best readers help the poorest.

(5) the desire for personal approval. A much stronger and effective social tendency than that last discussed is the desire for personal approval. The instinct shows itself first in the desire for parental approval, later for that of the teacher and companions. Praise for an act well done furnishes pleasure enough to encourage new efforts, and blame, displeasure enough to inhibit the undesirable act. The skillful teacher of reading will find praise worthily bestowed for the passage well read, or

for the good attempt at slow pronunciation in the struggle with sound symbols, a means of increasing the skill and effort of the pupil. It is impossible to estimate how much drudgery the pupil will endure for the word of approval of the teacher whom he loves. Teachers, however, should not make their power in this respect an excuse for not seeking to find other motives more in harmony with the nature of the task in hand. It is proper to use it so long as it works to secure fresh effort, but must be guarded carefully lest children come to depend upon it and lest egotism shall check the growing tendency to act for the good of the group.

- (6) the use of the audience, The use of the audience to make the need for reading and, through reading, the need for the symbols felt is important enough to deserve separate treatment. For a consideration of this topic see Chapter V, p. 103.

- (7) curiosity, Plato said of "curiosity" that it is the mother of all knowledge. The child is into everything, prying, poking, gazing at this, listening to that, - always exploring, always testing with activity. He tastes everything, pushes, pulls, pounds, and slams until he finds nothing new to be experienced. Curiosity takes a new form when the child finds that he can use persons in his quest of the world; he becomes a living question mark, directed at whoever has the patience to listen. The facts that he has pried and pounded out of the world must have a deeper meaning, the story must be longer than he has been able to read into things. This feeling may be ever

so dim with him, yet it is a beginning of intellectual curiosity, It is the beginning of problems made by the accumulated ideas of things with which he has come into contact. It is in this undefined, half-social, half-intellectual stage of curiosity that we take the child into the school and ask how we can convert some of this questioning activity into the task of mastering the reading experience.

The skillful teacher will not try to create curiosity with its attending and interest features. She will try rather to keep it alive and healthy. She must not unduly excite it thus surfeiting the activity, nor render it wooden by routine work, nor give it a permanent set by dogmatic teaching, nor permit it to become dissipated upon unworthy ends by lack of proper direction. The school too often ignores this good servant of reading by substituting the questions of the teacher for those of the pupil. The child's curiosity dies of starvation because the answers he gives must seek satisfaction in the teacher's approval rather than in his own desire for knowledge.

The teacher who makes reading a formal study disregards the child's curiosity or gives it only random exercises. Reading should be his servant to enlarge and give natural exercise to curiosity, but instead, the school makes it an end; artificial means are used to keep up the energy which should be abundant from the pupil's natural supply of curiosity about the big world and all that dwell therein. The artificial means of learning to read and of learning phonics is accomplished by undue excitement

thus surfeiting the activity. The curiosity of the child is many sided, but to conform to a fixed curriculum, the school by too early narrowing its range gives it set. The child asks for bread and we give it a stone.

Two ways of giving curiosity exercise are apparent. We may give new experiences by showing or describing something never seen before; and by causing the child to attend to unobserved qualities or relations in familiar objects. Reading is unfortunately more often made an appeal to the former than to the latter mode of satisfying curiosity. This has led to making the lesson a means of amusing the child. The juice is extracted before the fruit is eaten. The reading lesson on nature study subjects, for instance, is given before any observation has been made. It is not an attempt to find explanation for qualities and relations not understood, but is given with the purpose of getting the new thing itself by the short-cut route of reading. It is always the new and the marvelous, leaving only the pulp and this in the end makes the pampered weakling instead of the sturdy thinker. The real test for curiosity is not the amount of pleasure derived but the amount of effort put forth to satisfy the thirst for knowledge.

That teacher will make the strongest appeal to curiosity as an effort producer, who makes the lesson in reading minister to the child's further understanding of his familiar and vital experiences and who makes the relation of the lesson taught to the child's experiences of life or his previous knowledge the

goal of reading. One way of doing this would be for the teacher to state the relation of the new to the old in the form of a question or problem, the answer to which is the subject-matter of the lesson. But, perhaps the lesson may have a relation to more than a single experience or to more than a single problem. It would be wise, therefore, for the teacher to permit the pupils to state these relations for themselves, making the questions such as would require the reading of the entire lesson to get the answer. Another requirement made of the teacher who would make curiosity a motor force requires that the subject-matter of the lesson must be suited to the stage of the child's development. The solution of this condition is found in child-study. Child-study must say when and how subject-matter shall be given in order that we may avail ourselves of the curiosity characteristic of that age.

- (8) interest in pictures. Interest in pictures is largely a matter of curiosity and may be used to motivate reading. In point of origin, picture writing and reading came before the use of an alphabet language for the purpose of conveying ideas. So, too, the child reads the pictures of a book and they are of interest to him long before the printed words which tell the story more completely. Indeed, it is sometimes necessary to undeceive the child who thinks that the adult finds the wonderful stories in the pictures rather than in the unattractive black marks. But when the child has been undeceived and learns that the black marks add to the enjoyment of the picture by extending its meaning, he will want to learn how to use them. The picture should be studied before the lesson is read. There

will doubtless be different opinions as to the who, the where, and the what. This raises a problem to be solved by the reading lesson to see who is right in his conjecture.

Inasmuch as publishers are interested first of all in the sale of their books, the point of attractiveness of the pictures has often been permitted to outweigh the aptness of them to the reading matter, and so it happens that many pictures found in our readers lend little help in motivation. Often the story has been patched up to fit the picture rather than to appeal to the responsive attitude of the child. All pictures found in our readers should be an aid to the pupil in the formation of imagery and should appeal to his imagination. They should be suitable to the child's understanding and lend themselves to the interpretation of the story. (See the tabulation at the close of Chapter 1, pp. 18, 19, for an estimate of the pictures found in these readers.)

Too many pictures may rob the child of needed exercise in creating his own situations and images. This no doubt accounts for some of the lifeless reading of the third and fourth grades. Those reading books omit pictures for the most part and pupils have become too dependent upon them in the lower grades.

(9) collecting The collecting instinct of the six-year-old may
instinct, be called into expression in phases of the read-
ing work. Sentences or short stories may be printed on cards
and the children may consider them as letters. The letters may

become part of their collection if they can read to the other children the letter they get from the postmaster (the teacher or child chosen for this purpose).

Again, a supply of words may be furnished each child and each child's collection will consist of the words he can weave into his story which he makes from the words and reads to the class. Or, a supply of words for phonic drills may be prepared. And each child may have for his collection such ones as he can pronounce so as to show the sound.

(10) competition, The competitive instinct is a strong means in the hands of the skillful teacher for getting effective effort. But its close relation to the fighting instinct makes it a doubtful quantity from the point of its application to school work. The competitive tendency must not be permitted to injure the disposition of the child; and its use must not create rejoicing at the failure of a competitor.

In reading, the competitive instinct may frequently be used in conjunction with other instincts as play, collection, imitation, etc., described above. Group competition in connection with the amount of supplementary reading done, individual competition with the child's former records in word mastery and sound grouping are legitimate uses of this instinct. The efforts of one pupil against another will often bring out the best efforts of each without in any way injuring the respect of one pupil for the other.

(11) love of activity, Many children remember best the things they do.

Whether the response comes from the desire to aid the teacher and the pupils with whom he is associated, or whether it is in response to the inborn need for physical exercise there is always a strong tendency for every suggestion of activity to go over into realization. This tendency has been seized upon by some teachers and been made a very effective aid in teaching primary reading.

To illustrate: The teacher writes on the board the sentence, "Run." The child performs the action as soon as he can read the direction. Or, in planning for a game of ball, the ball, bat, etc., are labeled with their names. The teacher says, "John may bring the ---," and stepping to the board writes "bat." This John does if he can read his word which was placed in a sentence relation. "Mary may get the ---," and the teacher writes "ball." Mary does this if she can read her word. The eagerness of the child for this activity is utilized to get the effort needed for mastering the symbol.

(12) desire to construct, The constructive activities can be made of great aid to the teacher.

Free-hand cutting, pasting, weaving, drawing, may each find a field for their gratification in reading. What child will not put forth great effort if her desire to make Hiawatha's bow and arrow, his wigwam, his canoe is made to depend upon ability to read? In too many cases the teacher makes the construction of these things an after thought for busy work or amusement instead of making them a potent factor for effort in reading.

(13) necessity, Necessity is said to be the mother of invention.

So the skillful teacher of first year reading will take advantage of the child's necessities by turning them to her purpose. In calling the class, or dismissing the room at intermission, or giving directions in calisthenics, many words can be taught such as rise, turn, pass, hands on shoulders, raise, front, rear, etc.

(14) appeal The first year reading child is imbued with a
to imagination. strong power of imagination and certain acquired

likings for nature, animals, etc. Here, as elsewhere, the problem of the teacher is that of providing literature which makes the special appeal. It is because of the strong imagination and love of story that myth, fable, and folk-lore have come to have such an increasingly prominent place in all the better readers.

Which motives
should be used?

Which motives should be used? No specific

answer is possible. If we return to our statement of the three types of activity there would be general agreement that the child of beginning reading age is characterized by much activity of the first type, a large amount of the second type, some, but a comparatively small amount, of the third type. In the second and third types of activity the conscious ends are not remote, the satisfaction and realization must follow hard on the heels of his purpose. All motivation must take into account the types of activity displayed in the

learner. They will vary even in children of the same age. The teacher must acquaint herself with each child sufficiently to recognize those of each type. His instinctive activity must be enlarged to activity for social ends somewhat delayed. His activity for conscious ends must find its goals farther removed and enlarged to include more of activity and learning in their realization. His means of realizing ends must become consciously selected to cause more of thinking. Any motivation which does this for the child keeps him developing and growing.

Three errors in motivation are common. First, there is too much dressing up of subject-matter to make it of immediate interest. Activity of this type ends in itself and does not lead on to growth. Exciting and indulging an interest is not the same as realizing it through direction. Second, there is too great emphasis of generic values as ends. Subject-matter so motivated lacks connection with situations of usefulness in life. Third, there is some insistence upon sheer effort of will as a motive force. The only effort that is valuable is found in overcoming obstacles in activity for ends and is not opposed to mediate interest.

Reading should be motivated by appeal to specific values of subject-matter whenever these are strong enough to get the work done. But until the child is better understood and the curriculum better selected we shall find it necessary when

specific need fails to fall back on generic values. When these are used, care should be taken in selecting for appeal the highest and most permanent ones that will economically accomplish the task.

Summary. Two kinds of symbols, word and sound, are to be mastered in learning to read. Three large interrelated problems confront the teacher, namely, the method to use, the mastery of phonics, and the securing of interest in the work. The nature of reading, its function as a tool for getting meaning, the history of the changes in method of teaching it, the way symbols naturally get meaning, the order of attack which provides strongest motivation, all point to a thought method rather than a mechanical method of teaching to read. A combination of sentence, word and phonic methods is thought to give best results but with meaning always in the foreground. Thought and meaning are the life giving elements in the process of learning to read. Mastery of phonics is necessary to independence of the reader but should not be forced upon the child. Sounds are taught when the child's growing desire for more independence in getting stories causes him to feel the need of a better means of getting words than that by asking others. The method of teaching them proceeds by easy steps: training the ear to hear sounds composing words; training the voice to make them; training the eye to recognize the symbols that stand for them. The alphabet should be taught incidentally and mastered by the end of the year. There is a close correlation between learning and the degree of whole-hearted interest. Activity is the basis of all learning. There is instinctive activity in which the means and end are not separated; and activity in which there is consciousness of delayed ends and goals, to realize which subsidiary steps are necessary. Motivation may take the form of interest, need, or problem and these are but phases of activity. When activity is for its own sake, there is no problem of motivation; when subject-matter is not interesting, the problem of motivation is to get some activity going which as a whole includes the use of the subject-matter as a means to its end. Two kinds of values--specific and generic--serve as ends to activity. Specific intrinsic values should be used whenever these are strong enough to accomplish the purpose, but generic values will be resorted to when some work must be done and immediate interest and specific need fail.

C H A P T E R I I I.

T H E R E A D E R

The elements of the educative process are (1) the child or learner, and (2) the things he should learn to do. We may regard the learner as the sum total of his experiences, biases, sets and ways of doing things; and the things he should learn are better experiences, biases, sets and ways of doing things. The teacher's work is to assist the child in getting control of the better ways of doing things. This view point of teaching makes a knowledge of the child's experiences fundamental since experience is assimilated. It is the purpose of this chapter⁽¹⁾ to see what some of the most important biases, tendencies, powers, and experiences of the beginning reader are, (2) to summarize the psychology of reading, and (3) to discuss some implications for rendering assistance to the reader.

1. The Beginning Reader.

We need not expect to find entire unity of opinion as to the order and amount of development in children. There has not been unity of method in the study of the child nor unity of viewpoint from which to proceed. Some students of mental growth have laid emphasis upon inner growth and have minimized

outside influences.

Froebel says, "This necessity implies that the young human being - as it were, still in the process of creation - would seek, although still unconsciously, as a product of nature, yet decidedly and surely, that which is in itself best; and, moreover, in a form wholly adapted to his condition, as well as to his disposition, his powers, and means."¹ Others reverse the emphasis and look upon the environment, a big part of which is the teacher, as the chief factor in mental development. They have a different sort of child. "It has originally neither ideas, nor feelings, nor desires; it knows nothing of itself and nothing of other things; further within it lie no forms of intuition and thought, no laws of willing and acting; nor any sort of predisposition, however remote, to all these."² It would be hard to find two more diametrically opposed ideas of children than those of Froebel and Herbart. But recent writers are more nearly in agreement and we shall let some of them speak for us.

The recapitulation theory.

Of recent years a number of writers on education have been influenced in their thinking by the theory that the race has developed from lower forms and that the human species from conception to birth recapitulates in his physical growth the successive stages which correspond in

1. Froebel, "The Education of Man," p. 9.

2. Adams, "Herbartian Psychology," p. 47.

many respects to the adult forms of different groups of animals. They believe that in like manner the mind repeats the mental condition of the animal kingdom in the order of evolution. In like manner these writers continue this theory of mind development to include the progress of the human race through successive stages of root and grub, hunting, pastoral, agricultural, and commercial existence. Thus each individual passes through the entire evolution of life from lower to higher development and in corresponding stages, but each stage of much shorter duration. Some idea of the extent to which its advocates push the theory may best be gained from their own statements:

"The course of mental development is exactly determined through the relation of ontogenesis (individual development) to phylogenesis (the development of the race). The development of the higher (purposive and rational) activities, is regulated in every respect in accord with the previously acquired instincts, and is primarily conditioned by them. No influence that works in opposition to this development and to the law of inheritance of racial traits in order can ever reach a suitable adaptation, but only disturbs the natural course of development, and creates abnormal misdirected endeavor."

"As in the physical world, so in the psychical there is a natural order of growth. Since it is the order of nature that the new organism should pass through certain developmental stages, it behooves us to study nature's plan and seek rather to aid than to thwart it. For nature must be right; there is no higher criterion. There is, therefore, no study of more vital importance to the educationist than this of the natural development of organisms. The parallelism of phylogeny and ontogeny enforces the argument in favor of natural development and the doctrine of katharsis or psychical vaccination as applied to the moral growth of the child. It furnishes a double

1. G. H. Schneider, "Der Menschliche Wille," p. 489.

support to the view that education should be a process of orderly and gradual unfolding, without precocity and without interference, from lower to ever higher stages; that forcing is unnatural and that the mental pabulum should be suited to the stage of development reached. So long as we keep the end in view and do not cause the child to linger in any of the stages we need not fear the discipline that each stage is calculated to give as a preparation for the next. For what Von Baer long ago said of animals is true also of the child: 'The type of each animal appears to fix itself at the very beginning in the embryo and to dominate the whole development.'

"The period of animal recapitulation is short. In this work the attempt has not been made to deal with the recapitulation of human stages of development, but reasoning from the fact that the length of time taken to recapitulate a period does not depend upon the duration of that period phylogenically, but upon its recency, we may conclude that the recapitulation of human stages of development is much longer than that of the longest animal stage, viz., the ape stage."¹

Guillet in this same article finds in the child tendencies to self-defense, play, curiosity, imitation, communication, suggestibility and rhythm. On the emotional side he finds developing early affection, sympathy, and love of the beautiful. He suggests for the curriculum myth, story, proverb, free play, marching, dancing, singing, drawing, manual training, three R's and nature study.

Criticism. We may say in connection with the recapitulation

theory that little is known of the mental lives of lower animals and of primitive and prehistoric man by which to be guided in education. The mental processes in both individual and race are too little known. Some stages seem wanting in

1. Guillet, "Recapitulation and Education," Ped. Sem., Vol. VII, pp. 427, 428.

some children and in some children they seem to appear in a different order. The theory seems to fail when an attempt is made to find the stages in a group of children of various ages, or even of the same age, and to classify them accordingly. How much of mental development this theory accounts for, at what age it ceases to work, or to what extent the individual repeats the mental conditions of its various and remote ancestors are points which have never been definitely worked out. At present, at least, it can be helpful only in a very general way.

Child study. Another and perhaps a more satisfactory way to know the child is to study the child rather than his remote ancestors. Much work has been done already with which every teacher should be familiar. Not enough has been done to enable the teacher to mark out a definite program of tendencies and powers for any particular age or stage, but a knowledge of what has been done will be helpful in understanding particular children and it will be of value in indicating that certain knowledge or certain ignorance, certain interests and certain desires are to be expected in certain classes. No abstract statement about children in general can ever take the place of an understanding at first hand of the particular child which the teacher instructs.

The periods of development. The following tables of periods will show a rather general agreement as to the stages of development:

Thorndike:¹

1. Infancy, birth to $1 \pm \frac{1}{4}$	4. Transition, 12 ± 1 to 14 ± 1
2. Babyhood, $1 \pm \frac{1}{4}$ to 5 ± 1	5. Early adolescence, 14 ± 1 to $18 \pm ?$
3. Childhood, 5 ± 1 to 12 ± 1	6. Late adolescence, $18 \pm ?$ to $25 \pm ?$

Kirkpatrick:²

1. Presocial to 1 year of age.
2. Imitative and socializing stage, 1 to 3.
3. Individualizing stage, culminating at 6.
4. Competitive socializing stage, ending at 12.
5. Early adolescence, ending at 18.
6. Late adolescence, ending at 24.

Tanner:³

1. Babyhood up to the acquisition of speech, $1\frac{1}{2}$ years.
2. Early childhood, to second dentition.
3. Later childhood, to advent of puberty.
4. Adolescence, to the completion of bodily growth.

The child at the age of first year reading would correspond in the main to Thorndike's third period, Kirkpatrick's third and early part of fourth, and to Tanner's second. The teacher

1. Thorndike, "Notes on Child Study," p. 13.
2. Kirkpatrick, "The Individual in the Making," pp. 59, 60.
3. Tanner, "The Child," p. 234.

not only is concerned with what the child is and has become but should know the succeeding periods as well so that she may know in what direction his development is moving.

Tanner's Tanner in summing up the interests of early childhood idea.
says:

"In the little child, then, up to the age of second dentition, the interests are to a large extent confined to his delight in the feeling of his own activities and of his increasing control of them. On the physical side this appears in his enjoyment of plays that exercise his senses, in his practice of all the movements that are a little difficult for him, and in his use of rhythm and of nonsense rhymes. On the mental side, it appears in his love of imagining and inventing, in his counting and measuring, and in his ceaseless questioning. The union of the two and also the growth of his social interests is marked above all by his love of imitation, the most characteristic interest of this period.

"In the early years the interests are immediate ones. The child enjoys action for its own sake without reference to any end . . . The movement or activity is what he enjoys. He does not care for making some thing so much as he does for going through the movements of making."¹

Kirkpatrick's A somewhat different idea of the child at this statement.
age is presented by Kirkpatrick in his discussion of the child at the period of competitive socialization, six to twelve years.

"The plays of the child undergo considerable modification. Free play gives place to a greater or less extent to the partially directed activity of games and sports and the child's activities have much more of the characteristic of work, in that they are directed toward definite ends, instead of being carried on for mere pleasure of the activity itself. In general there is an increasing tendency to differentiate work from play and it is well at this time to encourage this growing tendency without trying to hasten it too much.

1. Tanner, "The Child," p. 237.

"In this period, fourth period of development, the child is usually more in contact with children of his own age in school and on the street. He imitates them to a greater or less degree, but his personality is in continual competition with those who are at approximately the same stage of development . . . He finds his place in social activities, learning how his activities affect others and theirs affect him . . .

"During no period before this are there so few changes in the instinctive tendencies of the child, hence the tendencies already present may be directed in any line desired and to almost any extent . . .

"Competition becomes the dominant element in the child's play in all his activities . . . Competition early in this period is often for social ends, each child trying to secure notice and favors from parents, teachers and playmates . . . Imitation and rivalry are what make plays, games, and work interesting and in fact increase every instinctive tendency to such an extent that where children are in groups, any type of activity that is started is likely to arouse the impulse to imitate and compete to such an extent that individual interests, unless those of the leader, have little influence in determining what shall be done . . .

"In the perceptions of words and letters, the child at first perceives them as wholes or notes some one striking characteristic. This is shown by the fact that children readily note the similarity between script and print and easily change from reading one to the other . . .

"Abstract thinking has little place in their consciousness, especially during the first part" of this stage.

"With many children the power to learn and to recall at will remains very limited during this period. In many children in the first half of this period as well as in the preceding, the effort to learn anything seems to interfere with, rather than to help, the learning process and the individual learns better incidentally than voluntarily."¹

As Dewey Perhaps the best statement of the capacities and pre-sees him.

dispositions of children at the age of first year reading has been given by Dewey. In "The School and Society,"²

1. Kirkpatrick, "The Individual in the Making, " pp. 166-204.

2. Dewey, "The School and Society," pp. 59-60.

he makes interest in conversation or communication, in inquiry or finding out things, in making things or construction, and in artistic expression basic for the elementary schools.

Speaking of the child of six Dewey says:

"Little children have their observations and thoughts mainly directed towards people: what they do, how they behave, what they are occupied with, and what comes of it. Their interest is of a personal rather than of an objective or intellectual sort. Its intellectual counterpart is the story form, not the task, consciously defined end, or problem . . . Their minds seek wholes, varied through episode, enlivened with action and defined in salient features - there must be go, movement, the sense of use and operation . . . Analysis of isolated detail of form and structure neither appeals nor satisfies."¹

Of the child of 7½ to 8 years he says:

"The child is taken up with direct and outgoing activity, on the basis of images and emotions that possess his mind. There is always physical, motor activity; and there is always a story, drama, image - a mental whole. But the two are not separate from each other. Acts are not (to the child consciousness, I mean) means for realizing ideas; they are just their spontaneous overflow and exhibition. The child's thoughts are not something to be realized; they are not projected in the future as ends; they are the living meaning and value that saturates whatever he does. Hence, this is called the play period; the whole bent is toward acting out images, thus giving them vividness and a place in life . . .

"But, of course, it is not supposed that conscious relating of means and ends is wholly absent in this period, or that there is no need of anticipating the later development. On the contrary even with six-year-old children consciousness dawns, of a certain sort, of ends somewhat remote, and consequently the child is interested in regulating his acts so as to reach the end."²

From these statements it seems clear that the child ready

1. Dewey, "The School and the Child," p. 63.

2. Ibid, pp. 74, 75.

to begin first year reading has developed practically all the instincts so useful to education, namely: play, imitation, curiosity, constructiveness, language and even some forms of the social instinct. He can think in simple terms and work for ends if these arise within his own experience and are present to him as desirable purposes or problems. His experiences in the home and environment have given from one thousand five hundred to four thousand words which he is able to use and many others that he understands in ^a more or less hazy way when heard. He has not only wide instinctive tendencies and powers but a large number of acquired ones.

2. The Psychology of Reading.

Experimental Study. In recent years the reader has been studied experimentally in relation to the work of reading. Some results of the studies are directly important to the teacher of primary reading; some have only indirect significance. We attempt to summarize some of ^{the} most important conclusions of the studies:-

On the Work of the Eye. The eye follows a line by a succession of quick, short jerks or movements from near its beginning to near its end and returns in one quick, usually unbroken, sweep to the beginning of the following line.¹ Difficulty is

1. Huey, "Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading," p. 27.

experienced in finding and focusing the new line if the lines are long. From four to eight pauses are made by the eye in each line. These occur with somewhat regular periodicity in the lines. It is at these pauses that seeing takes place and the amount visualized varies from ^{one to five} ~~1 to 5~~ words at each fixation. The movements consume a relatively small part of the time used in reading a line and the rate is fairly uniform whether in slow or rapid reading. The pauses consume about 92 or 96 per cent of the time of reading a line and the seeing takes place in them.¹ The length of the pause and the number made are variable but length is more variable than number.

Percep- How do we perceive what is read and what are the means
tion.

used? It was commonly supposed that words were perceived through recognition of letters one after another. Experiments in this field do not seem to be in entire agreement but the evidence is strong that we perceive as word wholes, phrase wholes, and sentence wholes.

The perception takes place by various cues that may act successively or simultaneously during the reading pause. The important cues seem to be ²: (1) the total outline or form of the word, phrase, or sentence; (2) sequence, association, meaning, and context; (3) letters, letter groups, and parts of words; (4) sounds of letters and letter groups.

Total form of Experimentation reveals the fact that, when familiar,
word, phrase,
and sentence. meaningful material is exposed momentarily, as

many as twenty to thirty letters made up the material grasped;³

1. Dearborn, "The Psychology of Reading," Columbia Univ. Contribs. to Philosophy and Psychology, Vol. XIV, No. 1, p. 42 ff.
2. Huey, "The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading," Chapt. IV, V, VII.
3. Ibid, p. 71.

but, when the letters and words are taken out of connection, only three or four letters and two words are grasped at a fixation period.¹ The conclusion is that recognition takes place in large units; that it is possible for the total form of a word, phrase or sentence to touch off perception in reading. The evidence of this is:² (1) single words are recognized as quickly as single letters; (2) the time for naming a word is less than the time for naming a letter; (3) words are recognized at a distance from the point of fixation so great as not to permit of letters being perceived as component parts of them; (4) a word is perceivable and is made out when composed of such small letters that they can not be made out; (5) the more characteristic the form of words the more readily they are perceived; (6) words can be perceived at greater distances than single letters; (7) the outline form of words or objects are often sufficient to bring recognition. The relation of total form, as a clue to perception, to rapid reading is evident, but not all perception is brought about in this way and other clues are closely connected with this one.

Sequence, association; meaning, and context.	We do not analyze the whole into its parts and recognize each part singly. The total form is the main thing. When letters form a word, the word can be named in less time than a letter. When words are in sentences they are recognized much more rapidly than when isolated.
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The grammatical and the logical sequence of the language aid³

1. Cattell, Brain, Vol. VIII, p. 304 ff.

2. Erdmann and Dodge, cited by Huey, "The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading," pp. 73-74.

3. Huey, "The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading," pp. 72, 73, 142.

by favoring a helpful expectancy of what is to follow. Context gives a set which tends to supply much which the sense of sight would have to supply without it, and fewer cues seem to be needed to touch off perception. When meaning is wanting and words are unfamiliar, perception depends more upon letters than context and smaller units are perceived at a fixation. In the perception of sentences and phrases one either grasps them as wholes or else few of either letters or words are known after an exposure. Uncertainty results unless meaning inheres.

Letters, letter
groups, and
parts of words.

Letters are not of equal value as cues to per-
ception.¹ Certain ones are more potent than

others and are called "determining or dominant" letters. Some parts of letters are more potent than other parts and are called dominant parts. The first letter of a word and those letters which extend above the line are very important in starting the process of perception, because in breaking the monotony of the word form to the eye, they give the parts or the whole word characteristics which guide to recognition of a total form. Some groups of letters or syllables common to groups of words are strong cues. The first part of a word is more important than the last part.

Sounds of letters
and letter groups.

The auditory minded may especially profit
by cues given by the sound of the initial

letter and groups of letters common to many words.

The conclusion we draw is that perception takes place in

1. Zeitler and Messmer, cited by Huey, "The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading," pp. 89-95, and Dearborn, "The Psychology of Reading," Columbia Univ. Contribs. to Philosophy and Psychology, Vol. XIV, No. 1.

word wholes, phrase wholes, and sentence wholes. The cues are of several kinds and perception is a result of the coexcitations of various kinds.

3. The Work of the Reader and Suggestions for Assisting Him.

What bearing has the knowledge of the child on the work of learning to read? The reader must do three things, viz:

(1) master the symbols in which the author casts his thought, (2) get the meaning, and (3) express it by means of the voice and body to an audience. The problem in this section is to note the nature of the work and offer some suggestions in assisting him.

(1) Mastering the Symbols. The use of symbols to get meaning from the printed

page involves, (1) the making habitual a complex set of eye movements, and (2) the quick recognition and perception of words, phrases, and sentences. The eye movements must become so automatic that no consciousness is needed to direct them; the written words must become so familiar that attention is freed to carry on thought.

Habituating the eye. The movement of the eye in reading has already been described. It is unusually difficult and fatiguing.

The eye is not accustomed to making short, quick rhythmic movements such as is required in reading. It is not natural for it to follow a horizontal straight line in its work. The new task is so difficult that the eye wants to call in the finger to aid

in following the line and in finding the beginning of the next one. But it is not the movement alone that is taxing. The eye has no rest at the pauses or fixations. The muscles must hold it rigidly focused on the symbols. Seeing must take place and recognition of words follow in a flash.

The habits most necessary to form are those of long, rhythmic movements, short, wide seeing fixations, quick, wide recognitions and perceptions. Rate of reading depends upon them. Since the rate of eye movement is practically uniform the possibility of increasing the speed of reading is in the main one of increasing the attention span in the pause so as to take in the widest range of words possible and of shortening the average length of the pauses.

Suggestions. The following suggestions are offered to aid in shortening the eye pauses:-

(1) The child should be keenly interested. Here, perhaps, the most important factor is the material.

(2) Use easy, familiar material. Difficult material introduces too many fixations. It narrows the span of attention and the field of vision in seeking clues to the strange word.

(3) Use meaningful material. Twice as many words can be grasped at a fixation when given in connected sequence as when given in isolation.

(4) Build up the oral speech vocabulary..

(5) Have less oral reading and more silent reading. The best adult silent readers read twice as fast silently as orally, but they also read orally twice as fast as the slow silent read-

ers.¹ Rapid silent readers are rapid oral readers. Too much oral reading fixes habit of lip movement.

(6) Get rid of lip movement. In the first year much can be done to prevent the habit from becoming deep-rooted.

(7) Let children give main thoughts after reading silently.

(8) Set a question which requires the reading of part or all of a selection in order to get the answer. See how quickly the answer can be found.

Habituat- Good reading requires that perception be as instan-
ing the per-
ception of taneous as possible and in as large units as possible.
words.

Perceiving in large units has two advantages. It favors speed and is less straining on the eyes and mind. If word, phrase, and sentence form can be made the cue, then the recognition is more instantaneous. To the extent that the cues are parts of the word it must take longer because of the successive action of cues in tipping off the perception. Experiments show that there are the two types of readers, those for whom the total form of word, phrase, or sentence acts as cue to perception, and those who perceive by means of dominant parts. There is, however, no indication as to the extent that large units can become the method of perception at all.

Sugges- We offer the following suggestions for quick word percep-
tions. tion:-

(1) In visualizing new words emphasize the first part of the word more than the last part. It is a more potent cue.

(2) Drill should be given upon phrase and sentence recognition rather than upon word perception by means of sound and letter analysis.

1. Huey, "Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading," pp. 174, 175.

(3) Use of easy supplementary readers for sight reading.

(4) Phonics, spelling, syllabication, and other devices for word recognition are valuable in proportion as the words so drilled upon function in meaning more reflexly in the regular reading exercise. The symbols are tools for thought getting. They seem often to be made tools to aid pronunciation rather than to get meaning. These devices have most value perhaps to objective types of readers whose perception is by means of dominant parts, instead of total form.

(5) All drills on words and phrases as such should be separated from the regular reading lesson.

(6) Use frequent silent drills.

(7) Make drills short and snappy. There is not much gained in a drill in which attention is not concentrated, and often some harm. The attitude of the drill period may go over into the regular reading. Interest is an essential feature. Many primers provide for repetition but kill interest by the monotony and senselessness of the material. One reader for the sake of repetition repeats the same word fourteen times on the same page and in the same position on the page. The same lack of value in material is seen in phonic repetition:

"Can Fannie fan Dan?

Fannie can fan Dan."

"The bat hit the cat on the mat."

(8) Phonics should be graded, and not taught too early in the reading process.

(9) The formation of good habits of eye movement and quick perception is conditioned by hygienic requirements of the child and the printing.

(a) The child should be kept in good physical condition. The ability to attend and the happiness of the child in his work are factors in learning and are affected by his physical condition.

(b) Fatigue of eye and mind. The work of reading is full of dangers to the beginning reader, and care should be taken to stop short of the point of fatigue.

(c) The size of the type and its width are important factors. "For the first year the size of the type should be at least 2.6 mm., and the width of the leading 4.5 mm."¹

(d) Short lines are more economical in eye pauses.² A line length of 90 mm. is considered the maximum desirable length. One of 75 to 85 mm. is preferred. Experiments show a power of greater visual grasp when lines are short.

Lines of uniform length favor rhythm of eye movement.³ Of the primers and first readers examined, more than half of them had some very short broken lines most of them formed by the insertion of pictures into the body of reading matter. A few had lines of more than the maximum requirement in length.

(e) White unglazed paper should be used in the primers. About twenty-five per cent of the books examined for use by first year readers were faulty in one or more respects.

1. Shaw, "School Hygiene," p. 177.

2. Dearborn, Columbia Univ. Contr. to Phil. and Psych., Vol. XIV, No. 1.

3. Ibid.

Either the contrast between the ink and the paper was not strong enough, or the paper was so thin that the print showed through, or the paper was glossy giving a glare of light that would be harmful to the eyes.

(2) Getting thought. The chief work of the reader, and the purpose for which he masters symbols, is to get the thought of the author. The reader's experience is limited, and the symbols which the author puts on the page are but empty cups. The author furnishes the symbols, but before any thirst is quenched the reader must be able to dip the cups into the sparkling waters of his own experience and slake his thirst for meaning and action. "Meanings in reading are mainly feeling reactions and motor attitudes attaching most intimately to or fused with inner utterance of the words and especially of the sentences that are read."¹ Coupled with this inner speech is a second factor in thought getting, the visual form of words, phrases, and sentences. "The visual forms may often act as cues to touch off this total meaning immediately, this total meaning then guiding the succeeding utterance of the sentence, which is partly an expression of the total meaning thus previously suggested and felt, and is partly also a means of bringing this meaning to full consciousness in its various aspects."² Through

1. Huey, "The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading," p. 167.

2. Ibid, p. 169.

the language instinct the child, before entering school, has acquired much that constitutes part of thought getting in reading, a feeling of sentence structure, of inference and expectation as to what is to follow. These make it possible for the eye to leap over many words or to comprehend them in groups forming phrases and sentences. Meaning then outruns ability to express, and if lip and vocal movements can be inhibited or slurred over the reader can get thought more rapidly. It is not expected that the beginning reader can become a rapid silent reader at once. But because of the ultimate importance of silent reading in life and its immediate importance in oral reading it is essential that it be kept in mind from the first so that correct habits be formed. This work of thought getting will be discussed from the point of view of (1) the author who writes for the beginning reader and of (2) the teacher who assists the pupil in learning to get thought from the printed page.

Suggestions
for the author.

The young reader places four conditions upon
those who would write his books for him.

First. The material must be good literature. We mean by good literature (1) that it shall be so satisfactory to the child that it will stimulate a greater desire to read; (2) that it shall lend itself to the formation of good habits in reading and to good taste in choice; (3) that it must be material of some intrinsic value or make some direct appeal to the emotions

he possesses. This is a strong requirement but not out of harmony with the criterion set up in chapter one.

Second. The content of the material shall be varied. The study of the child revealed a wide range of inherited tendencies and desires that has kept him in constant contact with home surroundings and from these he has acquired other interests. His wide range of interests calls for a varied content in his reading material. Nursery rhymes appeal to his love of rhythm. They lend themselves to play and dramatization. They fill a need in his life and make a desirable content. Myth, folk tale and legend meet the requirements of recapitulation, and time has pruned away about all that is unsuitable. Fairy tales feed the fancy of the child. Cumulative tales with their round of rhythm, their constant meaningful repetition of words, and with humorous and human elements make their appeal to him. His games and the events of the day which have excited his enthusiasms often provide material more valuable than that found in books. The child is more than play and fancy and at this age is passing into another stage, which demands truth and reality. To satisfy this tendency there is a wealth of true stories from history, biography, nature, and travel. The list will still be incomplete when we add dramatic stories, which so delight children; Bible stories, which contain splendid narratives free from moralization; and directions for industrial work in which they delight.

Third. The illustrations should correspond to the story and aid the reader in interpreting it. There is no experimental evidence to show the relative value of the outline or the detailed or the artistic picture and nothing to show the value added by color. But the color gives the child enjoyment and fine paintings give him appreciation of art; however, these things are of secondary importance in reading where the picture should function to aid the child to assimilate the writer's thought. The primary child requires more aid from the picture than the more adult reader. Our examination of primers and readers showed much lack of correspondence between picture and story. Often the picture suggested activity, life, and movement when the reading expressed no activity and was only a loose collection of sentences none of which were aptly illustrated by the picture. Only a few primers used outline pictures, or attempted to teach words or sentences by their aid.

Fourth. The topics chosen and the language used should be adapted in style and thought to the experience of the reader. It is the principle of apperception that is involved here, and no principle is more widely accepted than that a new experience is understood through the reorganization of old experiences.

On this point Bagley says: "(1) In the beginning experiences are assimilated with reference to primitive needs of the organism, such needs being represented by the instincts. (2) As development continues, the primitive needs come to be overshadowed by acquired needs; these are represented by outgrowths of instinct due to the modifying operation of experience; thus experiences may be said to grow upon themselves--once grafted

upon instincts, they assimilate one another. (3) With continued development, fairly constant systems of experience come to be organized to which experiences are referred. (4) Assimilation with reference to a primitive instinct is an apperception of low degree; assimilation with reference to an acquired need is an apperception of higher degree - the higher, the more remote is the need from primitive instinct."¹

Those who furnish material for children to read have a much wider experience than those for whom they write. The examination of books convinces one that ^{the} topics are not such as the normal child talks about nor the language such as he uses. There is discovered also an obvious attempt on the part of writers of primers to make books of such general content that they will sell everywhere. But the experiences of the child of country and city, of mountain and valley are not the same. This is especially true of primary children whose range of interests and accumulation of knowledge has not yet been widened by reading or travel. The child can only be gradually taken out of his present world into a world of wider interests.

Suggestions for the teacher. The teacher comes into direct contact with the child. The author who writes for first grade children thinks

only of such children in general or of the few he knew well. The teacher's knowledge of her particular group makes it possible for her to select material more closely in accord with the interests and experiences of those composing it. And these same interests and experiences condition her work at every point.

1. Bagley, ^{The} "Educative Process," p. 95.

The motive appealed to, the method used, and the results accomplished depend upon them. The previous discussions of subject-matter, method, and motive and those which are to follow on expression and audience are attempts to square procedure in first year reading with the abilities and experiences of the child. It is not necessary, therefore, to offer suggestions at this place but for the sake of emphasis a few follow.

1. Lessons which the teacher arranges from interesting personal experiences of the children are often superior to those taken from primers.

2. Begin work with silent reading (thought getting) lessons; they require less of the child and make a good preparation for oral reading.

3. Skill in thought getting (silent reading) is not secured through oral reading. It is influenced by silent reading. Experiments show that rapid silent readers not only read more but remember more than slow ones.¹ The suggestions made for shortening the eye pauses and widening the visual grasp, p. 82 have meaning in this connection.

4. There are three tests for accuracy of thought getting: first, ability to use the thought in carrying out activity; second, ability to tell in one's own language the thought obtained; third, the ability to read orally so as to convey the meaning to others.

5. The principle of apperception suggests the great importance of the material used in reading.

1. Quantz, Psychological Review, Vol. II, pp. 28, 38.

6. Be sure that children are interested in the thought. The interest is quickened by the judicious use of questions which connect it up with the child's experiences; by the use of blackboard sketches, pictures, and dramatizations to make the situation real; by the use of material related to other work.

- (3) Expression. The work of the reader in expression is to get control of the voice and body in making others understand what is read. Oral reading is a very complex activity. It includes seeing ahead, interpreting meaning, and expressing it. It is just because this is so difficult that some have advocated postponing all reading to a later grade, and others have advised having only silent reading in the early grades. But it seems that both oral and silent reading are activities in which the child, if opportunity and encouragement are given, would normally engage in the first school year. Once he is able to get a story from the printed page, he soon wants to share it with others; and because his own language is inadequate he will want to use the words of the author. Nor is he totally unprepared, for as we have already noted thought getting is so intimately tied up with inner utterance and lip movement as to seem a part of it. And a fact of perhaps greater importance is, that "With the utterance in which meanings mainly inhere, we must include the movements of emphasis, of inflection,

of gesture, and of expression generally."¹ Expression in reading is a topic of sufficient importance to deserve treatment in a separate chapter, but since it is not the purpose of this thesis to consider it so fully, there follow a few suggestions for making thought getting guide in expression;

1. The material is important. It must be easy of interpretation and assimilation and appeal strongly to the emotion of the child. Not all material that can be understood is good for oral reading. Good material appeals to the child's desire to converse, to dramatize, to tell in story or describe. Some lessons in primers and first readers should be used, if at all, for silent reading. They are lacking the emotional element which is so important to the child. The literature that contains movement, life, and play of imagination appeals to the reader and to the audience.

2. Thought and emotion guide in expression. In this connection we see the value of silent reading as a preparation for oral reading. Good oral reading is possible when the eye becomes so habituated to the symbols that it can see ahead and enable interpretation in advance of the expression. Oral reading is best accomplished in the first grade only after symbols and meaning have become familiar through silent reading. Let the reader read the selection silently, find where he does not

1. Huey, "The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading," p. 167.

understand and what words are blocking his understanding. The teacher can and should remove these difficulties before the child tries to read orally. The practice of having the reader look through the sentence and look up at the class when expressing the meaning is commended. It is desirable that the reader form the habit of being unwilling to read orally until he understands and has some thought to convey. Thought and emotion impel vocal expression. They manifest themselves in emphasis, cadence, melody, and harmony, and by varieties of force and pitch by all of which the thought is marked and the emotion shown. Inability to think the thought and feel the emotion is easily detected in the insincerity of the expression. Clear and accurate imagery helps the child to understand emotionally. These may be secured by (1) conversations about the pictures in the primer where these are intimately related to the reading matter, and by conversations in which the children picture what they have read, (2) sketches drawn on the blackboard by the teacher, or pictures drawn by the pupils illustrating passages in the reading, (3) fairy stories and stories of adventure, and (4) dramatization.

3. Imitation, if properly used and not overworked, is a useful tool to secure good expression. It is a deeply-rooted instinct and forms one of the strongest tendencies of childhood. It is of great educational worth. A large part of the child's adaptations and interpretations have been obtained by imitation.

Language so closely related to reading has been acquired by it. The teacher will continue to find it a useful aid in adapting the speech organs to their work of pronouncing new words and expressing new shades of meaning and feeling. We have emphasized the value of thought in guiding expression. Imitation is one of the teacher's best tools in getting a correct interpretation. In interpreting the thought of the page, nothing helps the child more, than dramatization where the child tries on in imitation the acts and words he is going to read. It is a good servant in preparing for oral reading. The child should hear good reading at home and in school, for whether we desire it or not, at first he is going to imitate the expression of those he hears. The teacher should see that he has good models. It is essential to make meaning the guide, for we do not want to make the child a parrot repeating things with fine expression but with no meaning. The use of dramatization in the oral reading lesson must be guarded. The teacher should be reasonably sure that her thought and the pupil's are the same, that the pupil's difficulty is that of getting control of the vocal organs to give the feeling and meaning which he has, that the skill required is not beyond his ability, and that she herself sets a good model.

4. The teacher who desires to secure good expression must not ignore the social conditions under which oral reading naturally takes place. These will receive careful consideration in Chapter V.

5. Class criticism as often conducted is not only not helpful, but positively detrimental to both reader and class. It is destructive in type and runs to competition in fault-finding in connection with pronunciation, pauses, inflection, and position. It sets up wrong aims on the part of the reader in his effort to escape criticism, disturbs thought getting and giving, makes the sensitive child self-conscious, and renders reading distasteful. The efforts of the members of the class to try to outdo each other at faultfinding lead to the manufacture of errors and to harmful moral consequences. Moreover, such criticism, even when just, is not helpful, since it furnishes no criterion to help the reader to know what to do in the next situation. The kind of criticism that is permissible must be sympathetic, helpful, and constructive. Every sentence has a central idea; when, by proper preparation for oral reading, the child is brought to appreciate it, the emphasis usually follows. Inflection is a matter of thinking rather than of punctuation. If the thought demands it, pauses must be made whether a comma is required by grammatical construction or not. In work for expression, barring defects of speech and error fixed by imitating poor models, the teacher will do well to remember that the child's language instinct has been building up inflection, emphasis, quality, cadence, the forms the teacher now wishes the child to use, and that, ordinarily, when meaning is clear and emotionally tinged, good expression will follow naturally and correctly.

Summary. (1) The first year reader is a bundle of native and acquired tendencies toward activity. By nature he revels in play and rhythm, seeks companionship and imitates, constructs and converses, acquires and inquires, emulates and imagines. He has learned to persist in ends and purposes when these are immediate and closely related to his instinctive desires. He has acquired a large vocabulary of words and will readily engage in the reading experience if given encouragement through the satisfaction and enjoyment of material selected in line with these powers, tendencies, and needs.

(2) Experimental psychology has shown that the eye in reading moves along the line in short, quick movements and fixations and back in one long sweep. Reading takes place in the pauses, and recognition of words comes through various cues such as total form of word, phrase and sentence, sequence, association, meaning, context, letters, letter groups and their sounds. Perception should take place in as large groups as possible because it makes for speed and is less fatiguing to the eye.

(3) The work of the reader is to master the symbols, interpret the meaning, and convey it to others. Mastery of symbols requires that the eye be habituated to a complex set of movements; that there shall be quick recognition and perception of words, phrases and sentences; that the material of the reading lessons shall be interesting, easy, familiar and meaningful; that the word and phonic drills be separated from the reading lesson and be frequent, short, and lively; that the text meet the hygienic requirements of the reader. Thought getting requires that the material be carefully selected with the reader's experiences, powers and interests in mind; that the symbols be thoroughly mastered freeing the mind to think the thought and enjoy the pictures; that lip movement and inner speech be inhibited in order not to interfere with speed. Good expression is dependent upon thought and emotion to guide in expression. The material must be felt to be worth while to the reader and to the audience, and must make an appeal to the child's desire to converse, to dramatize, to tell in story or to describe.

C H A P T E R I V.

E X P R E S S I O N.

The function of a chapter dealing with expression would be to consider the use of the voice and body as the mechanism for setting up habits of clear enunciation, correct articulation, proper pronunciation, agreeable tones and right breathing. It is not, however, the purpose of this dissertation to consider expression further than is done in Chapters III and V.. In the former the dependence of expression upon thought is discussed, in the latter the aid given by an audience is considered.

C H A P T E R V.

T H E A U D I E N C E.

In the reading process, a very important factor and one that is perhaps most neglected in public school work is the audience. Indeed, in oral reading the audience is of prime importance because it provides the incentive that leads a child to think of all those things necessary to make reading most effective; namely, the kind of material selected; the mastery of symbols; the best expression; and the effect on the audience. In silent reading, too, the thought of the possible audience to which he may read his individual or class assignment, or the vision of those persons to whom he may want to tell the experience gained from the written or printed page, inspires the reader to greater effort. This causes him to be more careful in his silent reading to get the full experience of the author, and this care if persevered in will lead to the habit of testing self to see if the entire thought has been gained; a habit that is valuable both in intensive and extensive reading. Such a habit is helpful, too, in oral reading, for with the mastery of the symbols and of the thought, the reader may give more attention to the use of his vocal organs in giving good expression to the experience of the author.

Again, if the reader is sure that he has mastered the symbols, and is confident that he has built up within himself the experience of the writer, he can watch more closely the effect of his reading upon his hearers.

In view of these aids both in silent and oral reading, it is needful that we look more closely into this factor. We shall, therefore, discuss the audience under the following heads: (1) the characteristics of an audience suitable for beginning readers; (2) the value of a suitable audience; (3) how to secure a suitable audience.

The characteristics of a suitable audience.

In past years, little attention seems to have been given to the kind of audience most

helpful to the young readers; not a surprising fact when we consider that child study is of comparatively recent date. In the early schools the teacher was regarded as the main audience, being both judge and jury, and from such court there was no appeal. The rest of the class meant little to the reader, save as here and there a teacher appointed them as spies to watch for mispronounced or omitted words. Something in the way of carefulness on the part of the reader may have been gained by such methods as are suggested above, but spontaneity on the part of both reader and audience must have been crushed out; and, moreover, the attention was focused on the utterance of the words rather than on the expression of the thought. What then are the characteristics of an audience suitable for first grade readers?

In the first place, we say that the audience and reader should have similar interests. This means that ordinarily there will be little difference in ages, or perhaps we would better say that both audience and reader will belong to the same period of childhood. Psychologists and students of child study have in a general way shown us what instincts and interests are most active at different ages and so have been able to classify child life into main periods. The recapitulation theory has been suggestive, at least, and has been applied to the selection of material for different grades of reading. That this theory affects the selection of an audience as well has not been so clearly recognized. But if we are to provide the best type of audience we must keep this in mind, and see that our audience has the same or similar interests with the reader. Children who are interested in myths, in repetition stories, in action games, in household pets, in toys, etc., will most naturally respond to the beginning reader.

In the second place, the audience must be able to appreciate and interpret the material presented. This means not only that the audience should be of about the same mental ability as the reader, but that there should have been a similarity of experience. The interests of a child living in a mining district are in the main the same as those of a child living in the country, yet their experiences are different, because the material presented to satisfy the interests of each

has been different. Each because of his environment, has a different vocabulary and, therefore, will interpret new material in the light of his previous knowledge, and necessarily the interpretations will be somewhat different. Symbols must mean the same to both reader and audience if the audience is to appreciate fully the words of the reader.

Again, in oral reading, the symbols must be not only understood by the audience, but be readily interpreted by them, for the oral reading is like the hurrying stream. There is no time to halt or stop to study out symbols; the thought goes on, and unless the audience can at least paddle fast enough to keep up with the reader, they can not get the thought.

In the third place, the audience either should be wholly ignorant of the material presented, or know less about it than the reader.¹ It is at this point, we believe, that teachers have sinned most. Frequently, when the parent or teacher is audience this characteristic is violated; or, if not violated in reality, the child believes his audience to know already what he is asked to read, and responds accordingly. When the class is audience, and the material presented is what each child already knows or can read for himself from his text, if some other interest is paramount in his mind at the time, the usual reader will not attract him much, and inattention to the work at hand results. Children do enjoy a certain amount of repetition; they do enjoy having some stories told and retold, but if

1. Charters, "Teaching the Common Branches," p. 51. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1913.

interest is to be sustained from lesson to lesson, there must be a new note occasionally, something they can get for themselves with little effort. They are eager to learn to read; they will endure much perhaps, but enthusiasm and interest must be sustained. This can not be done if the audience be as wise as the reader, and if we insist on such reading, are we not teaching the first lessons in boredom?

The value of a suitable audience. We have in discussing the characteristics of a suitable audience necessarily touched somewhat on the value of such a factor. We have tried to confine this mostly to the value of the audience itself. We wish now to look at it from the standpoint of the reader, admitting that they are mutually helpful. A good reader must help his audience; a good audience is of great value to the reader. To the latter phase we turn, assuming that the audience conforms to the requirements stated above. Such an audience will in several ways provide a motive for the reader.

Value of the audience in providing a motive for the reader. In the first place, it will furnish a natural and rational environment for the reader. It is unnatural in real life for anyone to read to another who knows already what is to be read; it is unnatural, too, to read to others who have before them the same material, or who are watching for any and all kinds of errors. To require this is to make reading a compulsion when the motive should be a desire. The first year reader, it is true, does not feel these

unnatural conditions so fully as do older children, for he is engrossed with the novelty of learning to read; he is less self-conscious and less socialized. But he is affected somewhat by his audience and we want him to grow to appreciate his relation to those to whom he reads. The rational setting for a reader is to have an audience of like interests, wholly or partially ignorant of the material to be read. Then he may read either to entertain or to inform; to convince or refute; but unless we provide natural surroundings for our beginning reader, we place him in an unnatural position, and, at the very beginning, by introducing this note of artificiality, we tend to destroy the natural motive for reading. For a time the child may be thus imposed upon and strive to respond, but the effort is forced rather than spontaneous. As he sees his audience with open books, pretending to listen to familiar words, he detects the sham of his surroundings, and instead of giving his attention to thought getting and thought giving, he focuses his attention almost entirely on the enunciation of words--thus fostering a fault that may later require patient and severe treatment. "Something is gained, nevertheless, from a reading of selections by pupils when all the other pupils have their books open. What is gained is fluency and accuracy in words."¹ But the loss in interested enthusiasm generally overbalances this gain, and if such reading is insisted on the right kind of motive for reading will in time be destroyed. With many a child the fear of being found wanting leads to the very mistakes he tries to avoid, or if by great care these be avoided, the expression

1. Charters, "Teaching the Common Branches," p. 129.

is stilted and mechanical, and the true pleasure of reading is thereby destroyed.

This leads us to the second point we wish to discuss under the value of an audience in providing a motive of enthusiasm and spontaneity. The reader sees before him children like unto himself; beings of like impulses and emotions, hence responsive to the same incentives. Since their interests are similar, if a child has something to read that he considers worth while, and about which his audience knows less than he, he will want to read it to them, and they in turn will be eager to hear. Moreover, they will react on him as they catch the spirit of the experience he is giving them - enthusiasm begets enthusiasm. The reader, too, will feel freer with such an audience, for the atmosphere is not one of criticism but of attentive interest. This atmosphere is conducive to the growth of the desire to read, and without such a desire, reading will never be as extensive as it should be. A certain amount of pleasure and freedom must accompany beginning reading if the best results are to be secured.

In the third place a suitable audience will help furnish a motive for the reader because knowing that he will have such hearers, he will strive to read in such a way as to convince them, or make them see things as he sees them. The value of this is two-fold; it provides a strong natural motive for the best preparation, ^{for} and the best delivery possible. The reader

will want to be sure that he has mastered both symbols and thought; he will want to be sure, too, that he has caught the full experience of the author. But he will go farther than this; he will think of the expression and of the control of his vocal organs in portraying most vividly his selection. This will lead to practice in delivery until the audible utterances voice the meaning he has gotten from the written or printed page.

In the fourth place, a suitable audience helps to provide a motive for the beginning reader because the thought of an audience will lead to discrimination in selecting material to be read aloud. Of two or more interesting selections, he will choose the one he thinks will be most interesting to his audience. In order to get such selections the child must necessarily read more widely. We learn to read by reading new material, not by going over and over the same pages. The old idea that the one reader should be used until every word in it was mastered (and spelling was largely the test) has been exploded, and supplementary readers have been introduced in all the grades. The one book idea proves conclusively of what little value the audience was formerly regarded. More and more is the value of the audience being recognized.

Value of an audience in securing good expression.

Under three of the preceding sections we tried to show how the thought of an audience would in oral reading provide a motive for better preparation

and delivery. We wish now to show the value of an audience in

securing good expression.

If the audience has been kept in mind by the reader in selecting material and in preparing for delivery, then he is able when he appears before them to give more attention to the effect of his words. By watching the expression of the audience, he is able in a large measure to know whether or not he is being understood. If he succeeds in building up within them the experience of the author as he feels it, there will be the responsive glance and this re-enforces the speaker. He is able to give himself more fully for he is swept on by his audience. Indeed, we know that many a speaker or reader is made or marred by a responsive or an indifferent audience. Do we appreciate how much this means to a beginning reader?

Another way in which the audience may aid in securing good expression is by having members of the audience give oral reproductions of what has been read. This will show the reader wherein he has failed, and another time his preparation will be more careful in order that his audience may see the picture more clearly.

Again, the audience may be permitted to ask questions of the reader, if there are points they do not understand. This gives the reader an opportunity to give all his attention to expressing in the best possible way those portions that were not made clear.

There is no test so sure as seeing if one is able to put

a thought into action. The audience may be so tested. After having heard read a selection that is capable of being dramatized, some of the audience may be asked to dramatize certain parts, the reader to act as guide. This reveals to the reader how well his reading has been interpreted, and may lead to more careful expression the next time.

The audience as an aid in correcting mistakes. As we have said before, the correction of mistakes in former years was left mostly with the teacher. That the use of the audience as an aid in this work was somewhat recognized is shown when the class was deputized to watch closely for any mistakes in omitted or mispronounced words. This led sometimes to more careful pronunciation. The class became critics along this line but as far as being helpful in expression it failed, - it was not constructive. The aim now is to make the audience helpful in its criticism, not by watching for mistakes in the mechanics of reading, but by showing wherein the audience failed or succeeded in getting the thought as given by the reader. Formerly, it was not unusual after a child had read to hear from the teacher such words as: "Let your voice fall at that dot; let your voice rise at that question mark; read with more expression;" etc. All such criticisms are artificial. Moreover, they are unintelligible to a child beginning to read. The average child of that age does not know how to let his voice rise and fall even if he knows that certain marks mean to do these things.¹ The

1. Ibid, p. 131, 132.

same is true of giving better expression. The term is so variable that even if the child succeeds in giving the correct expression to the selection at hand, this is no criterion for other selections. Only by getting the thought can correct expression be given; and ordinarily, if there be no vocal defects or faulty pronunciations, the child that understands the meaning will express it correctly. By watching the facial expression of the audience and by hearing their responses to questions concerning the selection, the reader is helped to correct poor expression.

Punctuation as such to the beginning reader means little. He soon learns that certain marks mean certain things; indeed, that they are a part of the thought represented by the queer symbols. If an audience is kept in mind, the reader will be more careful to observe these marks both in mastering the thought and in expressing it to others, for he knows they are necessary to the meaning. Instead of such commands as: Do not read so loud; do not read so low; read faster; read more slowly, etc., the audience may be made helpful in correcting such mistakes. It is not natural for a child to speak in the same tone to his playmate near by and to his chum a block away.¹ Neither is it natural that a reader would gallop in his reading, if he observed that his audience could not keep up with him, nor would he dawdle along if his hearers seemed impatient. The character of the selection and the distance from his audience

1. Ibid, p. 132.

are the factors determining how low and how loud he shall read. The same is largely true of the rate of reading, though in this the character of the selection is, perhaps, the more determining factor.

The audience, too, may be an aid in correcting mispronunciations, mumbling, poor articulation, etc. For if a child has an appreciative audience, and has something he wishes to read to them, he will want to correct all errors in order to be fully understood. It, therefore, provides a motive for watching and correcting himself.¹ This is much more effective and reasonable than the spying of classmates, or their attempt to "read better than John or Mary" as the teacher often suggests.

Thus we see that in many ways the audience may be helpful in providing a motive for reading, in aiding expression, and in correcting mistakes. In view of all these things, it is fitting that we should inquire how we may secure such an audience. I shall, therefore, discuss briefly the different ways of providing a suitable audience.

How to se- cure a suit- able audience.	Under the caption of characteristics of a suitable audience we have set forth a picture of the ideal audience, for beginning readers; children with similar interests, of about the same mental ability in interpreting thought, partly or wholly ignorant of the material presented. How can such an audience be secured?
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One of the easiest ways is to have as an audience the rest of the class of which the reader is a member. When the

1. Ibid, p. 133.

selection is new, this audience conforms to the above requirements, for the children have been grouped in accordance with mental ability and acquirement. Being of about the same age, they belong to the same period of childhood and, therefore, have many common interests. This plan necessitates individual assignments or individual selections. In the very beginning it is, perhaps, better for the teacher to make the assignment. This naturally requires more time and thought on the part of the teacher but she will be well repaid for her effort in seeing the growth of her pupils. For since the natural conditions for reading are at hand, the reader will have the best motive for reading, and the audience must give careful attention in order to get something of interest to them. Then, too, if the class is held responsible for what is read, they will early form the habit of concentration, and so become more helpful as an audience. In making such assignments, the teacher will find one of her strongest allies in supplementary readers; indeed, her work will be made much easier because of such graded material already at hand. They also give opportunity for an occasional reading of a selection new to both reader and audience - the best actual test for the entire class.

The value of supplementary readers has not been fully recognized until recently, but educators are recognizing more and more that the greater the number of selections the child reads, the better reader he is, and the better the audience re-

sponds. Supplementary readers assist in another way in helping to provide an audience, though in this instance the audience is not naturally ideal. In most instances, however, there is what we might term a borrowed interest because of the natural interest in the reader. We refer to using the home circle as an audience for individual children. The normal child naturally wishes to please his parents by reading to them something new, and the supplementary reader furnishes fitting material.

After the child has read for a short time, he may be allowed to choose a selection to read to the class, to the teacher, to the home circle, or to another class. The entire school may be used as an audience, too, on occasions, either the child himself selecting the material, or the teacher helping him. Opening exercises, special entertainments at the school or in the neighborhood furnish opportunities for such reading and inspire a child to do his best.

Another way of providing an audience is to divide the class into sections, each section having a different assignment. While this does not meet the requirements as fully as does the above type, the reader knows that part of his audience are ignorant of what he is to read. Then, too, the fact that his section is responsible for a certain selection will cause him to want to do his part well in order to bring success to the whole. These sectional assignments result in a kind of rivalry that is much more wholesome than individual rivalry,

because the spirit of cooperation is present.

Supplementary readers help in sectional assignments, also; and other audiences besides the class may be used. Sections may appear in morning exercises, in concert or individual work; or the sections may occasionally take part in public entertainments either reading or dramatizing selections.

Again, the class or room may be used as an audience for a kind of double reading, one child reading the selection, another dramatizing it as it is read. This could be applied to either individual or sectional assignment.

Just as it is easier to know what to do than to do it, so for the average teacher it is easier to know what constitutes a good audience than to provide one. And in the past too little attention has been given to this matter. However, the sooner teachers appreciate the value of a suitable audience and earnestly strive to make conditions in the school natural for the reader, the sooner will our boys and girls become better readers.

Summary. In oral reading a suitable audience is important: it provides an incentive to the reader both for the selection of material and for the expression of the selection. In silent reading this may also prove true, if an imaginary audience is kept in mind. A suitable audience is one with interests similar to that of the reader; one able to appreciate and interpret readily the material presented; one to whom the material is partially or entirely new. Such an audience may be secured (1) by utilizing sections of the same class or part of another class; (2) by individual assignments from the Text or supplementary readers; (3) by allowing selections read to the home circle or to the school in opening exercises, ^{or} to visitors on special programs; (4) by allowing the child to select something new to read to the teacher and class; (5) by permitting one section of the class to read and the other section to dramatize.

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