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Integrating reading and study skills with language arts and social studies (Grades 7 and 8)

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INTEGRATING READING AND STUDY SKILLS
WITH LANGUAGE ARTS AND SOCIAL STUDIES
(GRADES 7 AND 8)

by
Susan Wysocki

A RESEARCH PAPER
SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
MASTER OF ARTS IN EDUCATION
(READING SPECIALIST)
AT CARDINAL STRITCH COLLEGE

Milwaukee, Wisconsin
1979

This research paper has been
approved for the Graduate Committee
of Cardinal Stritch College by

Sister Marie Colette Roy
(Adviser)

Date _September 18, 1978_

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ILLUSTRATIONS

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The rescheduling of activities, the concern, interest, understanding of my family, and the willingness of my Father and brothers to transport me back and forth to Cardinal Stritch for books, classes, and meetings is all very much appreciated. A sincere thank you goes to all of you.

CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

How many times do teachers think to themselves
or say to their colleagues that children just cannot
read the textbook before them, it is too hard for them
to read, or they just do not apply themselves? Probably,
"quite often" may be the response. What these teachers
may really be saying is that their students do not have
the skills necessary to understand the material before
them to learn the information and to retain it for the
next test or for future use.

No special formula can assure that every child
will have one hundred percent comprehension all of the
time, but applying reading and study skills to the
textbook may increase the number of students who will
understand their textbook material better particularly
if they have difficulty reading, organizing their ideas,
or remembering the information in the textbook.

Learning to use reading and study skills does not
come by magic. Sequential building of the skills is
necessary. These skills must be taught by the teacher.
It cannot be assumed that the children will learn the
reading and study skills unassisted or absorbing them
by reading. Practice is essential in the learning
process. Learning how to study and then applying a
specific reading and study skill to a reading assignment
that already has an established and skill-related purpose
can assist the children in using their time, mind, and

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textbook more efficiently. Therfore, they will become better prepared for their daily reading and studying.

Realizing that teaching today is difficult enough and that children must be motivated to achieve academically, the teacher has the responsibility of helping his or her students in the learning of a subject's content.

Statement of the Problem

To increase reading comprehension in the content areas of Language Arts and Social Studies in Grades 7 and 8, the content area teachers can present reading and study skills for their respective course or courses. Through continual practice and proper introduction of these reading and study skills in coordination with the subject areas, the students in Grades 7 and 8 will be more proficient readers and understand the written word much better and possibly with less frustration or uneasiness.

Several areas to be considered in this paper are listed below:

1. Problems that are encountered in encouraging content area teachers to teach reading and study skills

2. Benefits of using reading and study skills to teach the content material in Grades 7 and 8 Language Arts and Social Studies

3. Skills that are unique to Language Arts and Social Studies

4. Skills that are complementary to both content areas in Grades 7 and 8

5. Skills to use with television lessons and textbooks

6. Materials to use in teaching reading and study skills so the students may understand their lessons better,

6. do research on topics, and apply
   their new skills to a variety of
   reading matter

7. Suggestions offered by authors of research
   and textbooks in showing students how to
   put their reading and study skills into
   practical application

Scope and Limitations

To better comprehension by using reading and
study skills in Language Arts and Social Studies is
the main emphasis of this research paper. The specific
reading and study skills being approached are as follows:
(1) establishing a purpose for listening; (2) establishing
a purpose for reading; (3) previewing techniques; (4) out-
lining and notetaking; (5) learning new words, including
technical vocabulary; and (6) organizing reports and
papers.

Even though the textbooks used in describing
some of the reading and study skills are limited
to the ones used by the seventh and eighth graders
at Holy Family School in Cudahy, the general idea
of teaching the reading and study skills could make
them adaptable to other materials and other grade
levels besides those mentioned here. The television
programs are viewed on the Archdiocese of Milwaukee
channels or on the PBS channel. For Language Arts the
programs, "From Me to You. . .in Writing, "Our Living
Language," and "Wordsmith," which is also seen on
Channel 10, the PBS channel, will be considered, and
for Social Studies the program, "America," a nationally
televised series, will be used to demonstrate reading
and study skills.

One point that should be considered is the
location of the teaching situation as far as the school
is concerned. The seventh and eighth graders are part
of an elementary school, kindergarten through eighth

grade, rather than a separate junior high school. Some
people may consider this a limitation when considering
the information to be presented.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

Literature is like a well-seasoned black
iron pot. You have to learn how to use
it; you've got to control the fire, or
it will burn the vittles, but if you
tend it properly and treat it with
respect, it will nourish you, and last
a life-time.[1]
 --Frank G. Jennings

Many magazines and newspapers, television, and
radio broadcasts have carried comments about the
thousands of people who graduate from high school
each year with minimum skills particularly in reading
comprehension. How can the number of students with
minimum skills be decreased? What can be done to
improve comprehension skills before they reach high
school? How can reading and study skills be taught
developmentally so students can achieve to their best
abilities? Where does the responsibility for teaching
reading stop?

Possibly, classroom teachers can assume the main
responsibility for reading comprehension and teaching
reading and study skills in their content areas or grade

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[1]Majorie Seddon Johnson and Roy A. Kress (eds.),
Developmental Reading: Diagnostic Teaching, Proceedings
of Annual Reading Institute at Temple University
(Philadelphia, Penn.: Temple University, 1967), 6:123.

5

levels. In seventh and eighth grades, for example, the teachers could take the first step toward assisting their students so that they could develop and maintain reading and study skills in Language Arts and social studies by having the teachers show the students how to apply the skills learned to a variety of reading materials such as the newspaper, news magazines, textbooks, and reference books.

Since reading is used in our lives each day, reading and study skills should be taught from grades K-12. Reading and study skills should be carried out in each subject area and be maintained through a developmental program. Teaching students how to use these skills can provide a foundation for better reading comprehension. Training in using these skills in each grade is essential as a continuing educational base to deal with twentieth century reading materials and space age mass media. Varying opinions must be viewed by a knowledgeable and critical-thinking reader. Faced with this complex process and a huge amount of material bombarding the reader, reading and study skills become an asset. These skills, therefore, can act as a guide to improving reading comprehension.

Literature will be reviewed keeping three areas in mind. First, the teacher's attitude is a key factor. How to assist a teacher in modifying his attitude toward teaching reading in the content areas of Language Arts and social studies can produce a favorable means to encourage the usage of reading and study skills as they pertain to a particular subject. Secondly, the benefits of teaching reading and study skills to seventh and eighth graders will be reviewed and evaluated. Thirdly, research articles and literature on using reading and study skills in Language Arts and social studies with textbooks, television, and

supplementary materials will also be considered in the
development of this chapter.

<div align="center">

Problems in Encouraging Content Area Teachers
to Teach Reading and Study Skills

</div>

To encourage teachers to teach reading and study
skills in the content areas requires removing a number of
road blocks in thinking, teaching, and the usage of
materials.

Attitudes to change

First of all, attitude toward incorporating reading
skills into the goal setting process or objectives of the
lesson must be determined. To find out a teacher's attitude
toward reading in subject areas, Vaughan developed "A Scale
to Measure Attitudes Toward Reading in Content Classrooms."[1]
Using this scale to measure a teacher's attitudes can
determine the teacher's position on this issue. Therefore,
someone conducting a workshop or inservice program may find
Vaughan's scale and article describing the scale's use
beneficial in determining attitudes and adjust the approach
to be taken in introducing content area reading. Three
studies previously completed demonstrate that the scale is
reliable and valid.[2] Since an answer sheet was not pro-
vided with the scale, a possible suggestion for an answer
sheet is suggested in figure 1 on page eight.

Reeducation of teachers

Secondly, teachers may find that reeducation may
be necessary so they may teach reading and its related skills.
Reeducation can come in numerous forms. The ones most

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[1]John L. Vaughan, "A Scale to Measure Attitudes
Toward Reading in Content Classrooms," Journal of Reading
20. (April 1977): 605-609.

[2]Ibid., p. 609.

Name _____

Date _____

Answer Sheet

<u>DIRECTIONS</u>:

Indicate your feelings toward each of the items
by placing your response on the separate answer
sheet.

Circle one of the numbers after each question's
number.

The seven possible responses to each items are
represented as follows:

7 = Strongly Agree
6 = Agree
5 = Tend to Agree
4 = Neutral
3 = Tend to Disagree
2 = Disagree
1 = Strongly Disagree

1.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	9.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	10.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	11.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	12.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	13.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	14.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	15.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1								

Figure 1. Answer Sheet for Vaughan's "A Scale
to Measure Attitudes toward Reading
in Content Classrooms."

familiar and probably the ones most used are as follows:
(1) inservice programs; (2) workshops; or (3) college
credits either through school programs where the college
instructor or professor comes to the school or where the
teachers attend classes on a college or university campus.
Sometimes reeducation can become mandatory through new
state certification regulations. For example, the Certi-
fication Committee of the New Jersey Reading Teachers'
Association wrote a letter to the State Board of Education
requesting a change in certification requirements, and this
included the addition of six credits of reading. On March 3,
1976, the New Jersey State Board of Education approved the
addition of six credits of reading for all teachers.[1]
Besides mandatory certification requirements, reeducation
may be encouraged through the use of incentives such as
higher pay, a better or more secure teaching position,
paid tuition, or by allowing teachers a certain amount of
time, two years, for example, to obtain necessary credits
rather than replacing the teachers with those who possess
the essential certification but may lack the experience.
By this method of encouragement, teachers may be willing
to return to school to learn methods of reading to
include in the curriculum.

According to Herber, teachers are comfortable with
familiar procedures, and this leads to a reluctance to
change from the way in which they were taught. To use a
new way of teaching, teachers must feel comfortable with
the method. "A teacher will utilize a new, unfamiliar

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[1]Edward B. Fry and Lillian R. Putnam, "Should All
Teachers Take More Reading Courses?" Journal of Reading
19 (May 1976): 614-616.

procedure only under duress," Herber states firmly.[1]
Possibly, if the teachers are willing to change their
attitudes and return to school, those unfamiliar methods
would become easier to incorporate into their daily
lesson plans.

Skill vs. content

A third obstacle to remove is that teaching a read-
ing skill is just as important as teaching the content of
Language Arts, social studies, or any other subject. In
fact reading and study skills and content material should
complement each other rather than contradict each other.
Placing one skill against the teaching of content defeats
the total purpose of learning. With the addition of read-
ing and study skills, the students could be assisted to
learn more, retain more, apply these skills to other
materials if shown, and be beneficial in helping them
realize that reading is essential in many everyday
occurrences like reading signs, following directions of a
recipe, or reading a label on a can to find out the con-
tents of the container. Then, reading is considered a
useful skill in our modern day world rather than an
isolated school subject. Relevance must be shown to the
students of the 1970's. They must be shown the importance
of what they learn in reading rather than accepting it
because it is being taught. Rarely, do students think
that they read or need specific reading and study skills.
Many of them feel reading is done in reading class or when
they go to the library to get a book. The other subject
reading they do is known as Language Arts or social studies

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[1]Harold L. Herber, Teaching Reading in Content
Areas (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall Co., 1970),
p. 8.

but not reading. Both subject matter and reading and study
skills add to the content area. If the teachers feel an
extra burden is being placed on them by teaching these
skills that will infringe on teaching time, then attitude
changes are essential. Therefore, whether to teach the
subject, the reading and study skills, or both may be
determined by the teachers' attitudes toward both the
content material and the reading skills.

Background in reading

A fourth issue arises because the teachers may
feel unsure of the material due to limited preparation
in the field of reading. Then, two previous problems
reoccur: (1) the attitudes of the teachers and (2) the
education of the teachers. Therefore, an interrelation-
ship among the problems in encouraging content area
teachers to teach reading and study skills does exist.
Determination to strengthen a weakness or limitation
often requires a sacrifice in time and/or money to retain
up-to-date methods, knowledge, or usage of materials in
creative approaches.

Usage of materials

Lastly, readjustment in the usage of materials
may be necessary only as far as reorganizing objectives
to include time for purpose setting and teaching of a
particular reading and study skill such as writing a
research paper. When it becomes necessary to organize
a research paper, a specific approach is needed to act
like stepping stones to the finished product which is
an informative, well-organized, and neatly written
research paper. Steps in writing a research paper are
discussed in more detail in Chapter III.

In the example provided concerning the research
paper, definite behavioral objectives could be written
and just those reading and study skills would be essential
to teach. For example, several behavioral objectives for
writing a research paper could be as follows:

1. After being introduced to the research paper and
   shown how to limit a topic, the students will be
   given a general topic and be expected to list
   two very specific topics along with three questions
   that could be used to start research on the paper.

2. Each student will choose one of his/her specific
   topics and write a five to ten sentence paragraph
   that will be the purpose or main aim of his/her
   paper.

3. After the students complete the notetaking, each
   student will write an outline for his/her paper
   using the topic as the title of the outline. At
   least three main ideas must be included in the
   outline.

Therefore, teachers only need to teach their
students the skills needed to achieve the specific goal
of the lesson or unit. "He does not teach a reading skill
for its own sake, as does the reading teacher."[1] There-
fore, Herber concludes that the content teachers must
reject the role of the reading teacher because there "is
no place for reading instruction, as reading teachers
employ it, in content areas."[2]

Ideas and new vocabulary words must be discussed
before an assignment is read; a purpose should be set
either by the teacher, by the students, or by both the
teacher and the students planning together; and then,
any reading and study skills should be determined and
taught if necessary so the students may approach the
material with confidence in organizing their notes for

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[1]Ibid., p. 10.   [2]Ibid., p. 11.

effective studying. The reading skills will be taught for
a specific reason and not just for the sake of being taught.
By being shown how to set a purpose or purposes for reading,
the students may strengthen their own study skills.

Summary

In summary there are five problems that discourage
content area teachers from teaching reading and study
skills. Briefly, these problems or road blocks are listed
here:

1. The attitude of the teacher

2. The need for reeducation

3. The teaching of content vs. the teaching of
   reading skills

4. The background in reading of the teacher

5. A readjustment of materials usage

Benefits of Teaching Reading and Study Skills
in the Content Areas

Introduction

"William McKay states a functional definition of
the study skills when he says they include any technique
students use in learning school assignments. The study
skills sometimes called reading-study skills, are those
used by students when they need to understand and remember
information from a reference book such as a textbook."[1]

Teachers may ask why should reading and study
skills be taught in the content fields? In investigations
made by Sochor, a number of factors become apparent in the

---

[1]David L. Shepherd, Comprehensive High School
Reading Methods (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill
Publishing Co., 1973), p. 101.

teaching of reading that influence the teaching of reading
and study skills. Sochor's investigations highlight six
specific ideas. First of all, reading is complex, and this
is proved by the second factor, reading comprehension can
be broken down into many skills. With numerous skills
necessary to understand the written word, students need
practical experience in applying these skills to the content
area material. Experiences that will provide a basis for
life long reading skills are imperative. Different patterns
of comprehension skills in each content field are required
to interpret the material; therfore, one content area
material may be understood while another one may not be
understood. Facts may be grasped but that does not mean
the students will be able to read critically. Students
should be able to determine fact from opinion and one view-
point from another viewpoint. Finally, it is not possible
to appraise reading ability in all reading situations with
one reading test whether it be a standardized test or a
teacher-constructed test.[1]

The implications of these investigations by Sochor
are (1) "all teachers should teach specific reading inter-
pretation skills systematically in the subject matter
area;"[2] (2) they should encourage expression of ideas and
the development of concepts; and (3) the reading ability
of students should be evaluated using materials taken from
each subject area.[3]

Reading is a complex process which involves many
skills, and students need practical methods for applying
these skills to the content area materials. Without the
assistance of the teacher in the learning process, it is

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[1]E. Elona Sochor, "Special Reading Skills Are
Needed in Social Studies, Science, and Arithmetic," in
Readings on Reading, eds. Alfred R. Binter, John J. Dlabal,
Jr., and Leonard K. Kise (Scranton, Penn.: International
Textbook Co., 1969), pp. 355-356.

[2]Ibid., p. 356.   [3]Ibid., p. 357.

doubtful whether the majority of the students will take the
opportunity to learn reading and study skills on their own.
Therefore, the teaching or reading and study skills is
beneficial to students for a number of reasons. The
benefits of reading and study skills to students in the
content areas are that, first of all, students will under-
stand the content better; secondly, they will be able to
read the textbook with better comprehension; thirdly, more
information will be retained by the students; and finally,
the students will have a means to condense the spoken word
and the written word into a concise form for future use.

Some students do not use work-study skills, while
other students do not know how to use work-study skills.
According to McKay, we also know that "most students
benefit from an orderly plan of learning."[1] Assuming reading
and study skills create this orderly plan of learning, they
would be useful if the students know how to apply them.
Niles concurs that reading and study skills are beneficial
especially in allowing students to take more and more
responsibility on their own.[2] Sometimes "the difference
between 'A' and 'C' students may not be intelligence or
even motivation, but may be how well they have mastered
efficient study skills as they progress through school,"
is the belief of Cottier and Koehler.[3] In their study
skills program, however, Cottier and Koehler found that

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[1]J. William McKay, "The Nature and Extent of Work-
Study Skills," in Teaching Reading Skills in Secondary
Schools: Readings, ed. Arthur V. Olson and Wilbur S.
Ames (Scranton, Penn.: International Textbook Co., 1971),
p. 167.

[2]Olive S. Niles, "Comprehension Skills," in
Teaching Reading Skills in Secondary Schools: Readings,
ed. Arthur V. Olson and Wilbur S. Ames (Scranton, Penn.:
International Textbook Co., 1971), p. 174.

[3]Susan J. Cottier and Sheri A. Koehler, "A Study
Skills Unit for Junior High Students," Journal of Reading
21 (April 1978): 630.

success was dependent on more than just the students. Parent involvement, reinforcement by the content area teachers, and the integration of the skills and the content were all important factors in maintaining a successful program.[1]

"Although there is no guarantee of and certainly no formula for success, it seems reasonable to assume that if instructors will place emphasis upon guiding their students to gain independence in unlocking the ideas of a discipline, more adequate learning should take place in a given content area," as Robinson points out in his book, Teaching Reading and Study Strategies.[2] Once again the content area teachers become a primary force to supplement the students' learning of the reading and study skills. Junior high school teachers tend to obtain more help and give more help if study skills are considered in clusters of small units. This way the goal of learning a skill may be taught a little at a time.

Organizing ideas into useful notes for study is beneficial. When students learn how to look for organizational patterns in the textbook or other material they read, they gain in the ability to understand the material and retain it for future use.[3]

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[1]Ibid.

[2]H. Alan Robinson, Teaching Reading and Study Strategies (Boston, Mass.: Allyn and Bacon, 1975), p. 2.

[3]H. Alan Robinson, "A Cluster of Skills: Especially for Junior High School," Teaching Reading Skills in Secondary Schools: Readings, eds. Arthur V. Olson and Wilbur S. Ames (Scranton, Penn.: International Textbook Co., 1971), p. 181.

Skills are helpful

Entwisle, Spache, and Strang indicate in their
research that the teaching of "how to study is beneficial
and is reflected in better student adjustment and improved
grades."[1] Further research indiciates that these skills
are helpful for improving the learning of a large number
of students. The benefits are especially noticeable in
three particular incidents: (1) if the students volunteer
to take the study skills courses; (2) if they are self-
motivated to improve their skills; and (3) when they are
not above average in achievement, these skills would
assist them in studying, reading, and maintaining in their
minds what they have read.[2] Once the students feel they
have mastered skills, the challenge must be there for them.
According to Robinson, this challenge is tremendously
important in maintaining the students' skills.

A skillful reader has certain characteristics

In 1920 in the School Review, Lyman suggested
these characteristics as those of a skillful reader.
Lyman saw these characteristics as those used by a skill-
ful reader. The skillful reader (1) reads with a definite
purpose in mind; (2) grasps the main idea or the author's
point of view; (3) observes the author's organization of
ideas; (4) pauses occasionally for reflection to summarize
and repeat ideas much like the SQ3R method; (5) is
constantly asking questions as he reads; (6) continually
applies and supplements ideas from previous or vicarious
experiences to what is presently being read; (7) evaluates

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[1] Ned D. Markesheffel, Better Reading in the
Secondary School (New York, N. Y.: The Ronald Press,
1966), p. 216.

[2] Ibid.

what is being read; (8) varies the reading rate depending
on the type of passage or content; and (9) "ties up what
he reads with problems of his own" by using summarizing
critical thinking plus his past experiences.[1]

Reading and study skills have a future

These characteristics would be the same ones
teachers of the 1980's will be looking for in their
students. If reading and study skills are taught at each
grade level and adapted as the need arises for each
individual, hopefully, by the time the students graduate
from high school, they will be competent in understanding,
evaluating, analyzing, and remembering what has been read
and most probably ready to enter their occupation or
college years with skills readily available for them to
rely on in the future.

Research and Literature on Using Reading and Study Skills in Language Arts and Social Studies

Limitations

General information concerning research studies
of reading and study skills will be presented for the
content areas of Language Arts and social studies. By
using current materials, in most cases, specific data for
each content area's use of textbooks, reference materials,
and television lessons is limited in some areas to general
statements. If the reading and study skills refer specific-
ally to textbooks, reference materials, television lessons,
or a specific content area, this will be mentioned. Other-

---

[1]Sterling Andrus Leonard, _Essential Principles
of Teaching Reading and Literature in the Intermediate
Grades and High School_ (Philadelphia, Penn.: J. B.
Lippincott Co., 1922), p. 168.

wise, within the two content areas of Language Arts and social studies, the reading and study skills will be treated in the broad sense.

Purpose setting

Holmes and Smith both agree that practicing setting purposes for reading is of "inestimable value."[1] By asking questions, purposes may be established. A valuable way to maintain attention on a particular passage is by questioning. This may result with the students focusing their attention directly toward the main idea of the content material they are reading. When students can differentiate between the main idea or topic sentence and its supporting details, taking notes, organizing outlines, and remembering material will establish a more efficient means of studying for the students.

"Ausubel suggests that advance organizers, if constructed and used properly, would enhance learning and aid retention because they tend to clarify and organize an individual's cognitive structure prior to a learning task."[2] In 1976 Baker found that one major limitation to researching advance organizers is that one definition has not been followed. Therefore, further research will be necessary.[3]

Previewing skills

In the content areas of Language Arts and social studies, previewing may be used as an aid to gain information from pictures, graphs, charts, and maps.

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[1]Raymond Duscher, "How to Help Social Science Students Read Better," The Social Studies 66 (November/ December 1975): 259.

[2]Richard T. Vacca, "Readiness to Read Content Area Assignments," Journal of Reading 20 (February 1977): 390.

[3]Ibid., p. 391.

Basic concepts may be determined by practicing skimming.
Through the use of single words, an author's organization
may be determined. The scope of the topic could be
evaluated, and a definite purpose for reading and studying
could be developed. Better reading may depend upon a pre-
reading program which includes teaching for logical
thought. The abstract thinking skills are "important
contributors to good reading because they are required in
forming a hypothesis--which from Goodman's point of view
is a synthesis skill that is essential for effective
reading."[1] Apparently, from his emphasis on logical
thought, Goodman suggests that forming a hypothesis is an
important skill since "a hypothesis is formed by making
statements and drawing conclusions through investigation
of many materials and forms of similar objects" which are
generally done in critical reading.[2]

Presently, no research shows that a prereading
program which includes teaching for logical thought will
lead to improved reading. However, it does seem reason-
able to Nevius that logical thinking is necessary before
on can master the content of reading.[3]

In 1968 Frederick reviewed research on readiness
activities, and it was determined that these activities
were advantages if they (1) lead to a concept; (2) were
relevant to a concept; and (3) provided a direction in
learning a concept.[4]

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[1] John R. Nevius, Jr., "Thinking for Logical
Thinking Is a Prereading Activity," The Reading Teacher 30
(March 1977): 641.

[2] Ibid., p. 642.   [3] Ibid., p. 643.

[4] Vacca, "Readiness to Read Content Area Assign-
ments," Journal of Reading, p. 387.

Listening skills

One definite way to improve the teaching of
reading is to give the proper attention to developing
listening skills.[1] According to Devine, evidence strongly
supports the belief that listening can be taught. Listen-
ing can be positively influenced by teaching as Irwin con-
cludes. Listening training apparently was credited for
creating a significiant difference between the control
groups and the experimental groups in Irwin's research.[2]

In Hallow's study the control group received
systematic instruction plus thirty twenty-minute lessons
in listening comprehension while the control group followed
the usual Language Arts program. Pretests and posttests
measured ability in four areas: (1) summarizing; (2)draw-
ing inferences; (3) recalling facts in sequence; and
(4) remembering facts accurately. Hallow concluded that a
statistically significant difference existed between the
groups, and "listening improved with direct instruction."[3]
As stated by Liberman, a program of readiness and listening
throughout the years in school is necessary to help students
to continually read better.[4]

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[1] James I. Brown, "Listening—The New Frontier
in Reading" in Reading and the Language Arts, comp. and ed.
H. Alan Robinson (Chicago, Ill.: The University of Chicago
Press, 1963), p. 52.

[2] Thomas G. Devine, "Listening: What Do We Know
after Fifty Years of Research and Theorizing?" Journal
of Reading 21 (January 1978): 298.

[3] Ibid.

[4] Donna M. Mills, "Interrelating Reading and
Listening in Grades Four through Eight," in Reading and
the Language Arts, comp. and ed. H. Alan Robinson
(Chicago, Ill.: The University of Chicago Press, 1963),
p. 59.

Study guides and notetaking

Using prepared study guide material in reading the
social studies can be valuable. Vacca stated that the
effectiveness of using reading guides with content areas
other than social studies is in the speculation point
right now. Evidence suggests that content area teachers
can "efficiently and effectively fuse content and process
without sacrificing either."[1] Yet a study guide does not
insure that reading comprehension will be affected
significantly.[2]

Kulhavy's results support the conclusions that
(1) notetaking assists the learner to remember what has
been read from the textbook; (2) notetaking involves more
than identifying textbook units; (3) those who take notes
seem to obtain better content memory than those who just
read or underline the textbook material; and (4) under-
lining parts of a passage is more beneficial than read-
ing alone.[3]

Preparing a lesson on notetaking can encourage
class discussion of strengths and weaknesses of the skill.
Also, it can lead to the realization that despite the fact
that notetaking is time consuming, the end result may be
more beneficial than previously expected. Abrams brought
these ideas into action, and these ideas suggested keeping
a written record of material to remember.

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[1]Richard T. Vacca, "The Development of a Fundamental
Reading Strategy: Implications for Content Area Instruction,"
The Journal of Educational Research 69 (November 1975): 111.

[2]Ibid., p. 112.

[3]Raymond W. Kulhavy, James W. Dyer, and Linda
Silver, "The Effects of Notetaking and Test Expectancy
on the Learning of Text Material," The Journal of
Educational Research 69 (July/August 1975): 364.

Notes were written on four-inch by six-inch index cards. Conflicts arose in the class leading to questions on the purpose of the notetaking and what is worthwhile to remember a month later. The expected complaints about notetaking were received. Notetaking was too laborious, and it was too time consuming. Next, the class tried reading another passage and an entire section before taking notes. This time notes were limited to key words and key phrases. A week later the students took out the cards and studied them for a few minutes. Another test given later produced better results. The results of Abram's study were as follows. Note cards were available in the classroom. Some students used them for reading. The note cards were adapted to other uses, for example, (1) taking notes on class discussions; (2) using the note cards for difficult vocabulary; and (3) making cards to describe characters in a story.[1]

During a study on notetaking, Dunkeld noticed profound effects on the participating teachers' expectations and classroom practices. Changes occurred that were not totally expected. The types of reading assignment were changed. The amounts and kinds of help teachers were prepared to give varied: (1) teachers were more inclined to give shorter reading assignment with more student preparation; (2) they were inclined to spend time on understanding vocabulary; (3) they were more willing to spend class time on clarifying misunderstood topics before the material was read; (4) they were more aware of small group work; and (5) they were more aware of the value of notetaking. In this study teachers reported that the experimental

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[1]Fay Abrams, "Developing Reading and Language Arts Efficiencies in the Content Areas in Grades Four through Eight," in Reading and the Language Arts, comp. and ed. H. Alan Robinson (Chicago, Ill.: The University of Chicago Press, 1963), p. 86.

activities were interesting, worthwhile, and the students'
comprehension gained. Time was well spent in learning to
take notes, and this notetaking skill complemented the
teachers' instruction in social studies, science, and
health.[1]

After looking carefully at the scores, the
teachers concluded that students reading below a sixth
grade level gained from the activities, but they were
unable to master basic skills of notetaking. The great-
est gains were made by the most able students.[2]

Television instruction

Television affords children the opportunity to
meet famous people; hear important issues faced by people
and the government; quiz public figures; and see events
far away. This section on television instruction and its
research will be divided into four sections: (1) uses of
television; (2) television and students' attitudes;
(3) television and teachers' attitudes; and (4) television
and its effectiveness in the classroom.

The uses of television. Researchers' findings
have developed a number of generalities concerning tele-
vision and education.[3] The most significant of these
generalities will be discussed. Children are able to
learn from instructional television (ITV). ITV is more
effective in elementary schools and high schools than in
higher education. ITV can be used to teach any subject
involving one-way communication. ITV works best where
classroom activities are used, and it is more efficiently

[1]Colin Dunkeld, "Students' Notetaking and Teachers'
Expectations," Journal of Reading 21 (March 1978): 544-546.

[2]Ibid.

[3]George N. Gordon, Classroom Television. New
Frontiers in ITV (New York, N. Y.: Hastings House
Publishers, 1970), pp. 89-93.

used when it involves "the solution of large educational
problems and broad educational support."[1] Good planning
and organization are necessary in using instructional
television. The screen size of the television makes
little difference. In teaching skills it is better to
have a viewer orientation rather than a show and tell
approach. The "clarity and continuity of visual material
appears relevant to learning."[2] Researchers have de-
termined that "attention getters irrelevant to the subject
matter will probably impede rather than stimulate learning."[3]
Dramatic presentations, the use of questions, and using ITV
at the beginning or the end of classroom periods all seem
irrelevant to effectiveness. Repeated showings of television
shows probably help learning although live teacher follow-up
is preferred to repeated showings of the same video lesson.
There is no evidence that eye-to-eye contacts between the
television teacher and the students have any effect on
learning. Neither lectures, interviews, nor panel discus-
sions are superior methods in ITV production. "Distance
and width of the viewing angle impede learning from ITV
when clear perception of images is critical."[4] The size of
the group viewing the television lesson does not affect the
students' learning. "Factors other than ITV itself seem to
influence the effectiveness (or lack of it) of homogeneous
grouping, studying by TV at home, etc."[5] Motivation is
very important to the effectiveness of ITV usage. "The
absence of immediate feedback from a teacher does not
appear to effect learning by TV although the opportunity
to ask questions in live classes (or on talkback systems)

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[1]Ibid., p. 91.   [2]Ibid.   [3]Ibid.

[4]Ibid.   [5]Ibid.

seems. signigicant in teaching advanced or complex materials."[1]
Time for notetaking should be provided in ITV lessons.

Television and students' attitudes. According to
Gordon, undivided attention is required of those students
who view instructional television. Gordon continues to
emphasize, "Good habits of attention will only be achieved
if students believe that the ITV lesson is important."[2]
Classroom teachers may emphasize the importance of ITV
lessons by "(1) frequent short quizzes; (2) proper pre-
lesson preparation; (3) well-organized discussions;
(4) • buzz sessions'; or (5) assignments after the lesson
which are based on the lesson's content."[3]

Due to an increasing influence of the peer group
and the increasing competition for time, there seems to be
a decrease of educational television usage after sixth
grade.[4] Elementary school children like being taught by
television while high school students like it less. As can
be seen then, the percentage of children who think tele-
vision helps them in school decreases as they grow older.[5]

> Students like and dislike such a wide range
> of ITV courses that no conclusion may be
> made that certain disciplines produce
> negative attitudes, although liking an ITV
> course may be irrelevant to how much a
> student learns from it.

> Pupils' attitudes toward ITV depend
> upon a) the amount of contact they think

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[1]Ibid., p. 92.   [2]Ibid., p. 195.   [3]Ibid.

[4]Wilbur Schramm, Jack Lyle, and Edwin B. Parker
with a psychiatrist's comment on the effects of television
by Lawrence Z. Freedman, M.D., Television in the Lives of
of Our Children (Stanford, Cal.: Stanford University
Press, 1961) p. 94.

[5]Ibid., pp. 90-91.

they will have with living teachers, b) the
difference between attitudes of live and TV
teachers, c) how much interest they have in
the ITV lessons, d) their attitudes toward
television, and e) viewing conditions.[1]

Due to the increasing influence of the peer group
and the increasing competition for time, there seems to
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grade.[2]

Television and teachers' attitudes. "Teachers'
attitudes toward ITV depend upon a) what they imagine its
threat to classroom teaching to be, b) their attitudes
toward mechanized instruction, c) the value they ascribe
to ITV, d) the difficulties they imagine are involved in
educational technology, and e) their degree of conserva-
tism."[2] Classroom teachers may intentionally or uninten-
tionally decrease the effectiveness of a television lesson
by having the students listen to a lesson and then turn
off the television and tell the students to get back to
work. Hunter strongly advocates that teachers should be
trained in using video lessons. Courses in this area
are limited and perhaps with such a developing availability
of the mass media to the classroom teachers, educational
procedures should be established for the proper utilization
of video lessons.[3]

[1]Schramm, Lyle, Parker with Freedman, Television
in the Lives of Our Children, p. 94.

[2]Gordon, Classroom Television. New Frontiers in
ITV, p. 92.

[3]Ibid., p. 182.

<u>Television and its effectiveness in the classroom</u>.
Television has its shortcoming and drawbacks as well as its
advantages. Elementary and high schools have shown that
English and social studies can be taught in part by
television. Pre-listening activities, listening outlines,
and follow-up activities prepared by the teacher can make
a difference in whether or not a television lesson will be
effective or not.

Himmelweit, Oppenheim, and Vince have concluded
"that television is neither 'a distinct advantage nore a
severe handicap' in school performance."[1] Studies of the
effectiveness of educational television vary in their
findings. Most of the studies collaborate Himmelweit,
Oppenheim, and Vince's conclusions; that is, television
shows not significant superiority over traditional class-
room instruction.[2] The Carnegie Commission on Educational
Television rated educational television as disappointing.
If instructional television was to leave the educational
system, fundamentally the educational system would remain
unchanged.[3]

Siepmann who has studied educational broadcasting
for years reported, "By and large, children learn as much
and as fast by television as under normal circumstances."[4]
A spokesman for the Fund for the Advancement of Education
contradicts Siepmann's claim. He has stated that the
results of using large classes of students maintains that

[1]Schramm, Lyle, Parker with Freedman, <u>Television</u>
<u>in the Lives of Our Children</u>, p. 152.

[2]Ralph C. Preston and Wayne L. Herman, Jr.,
<u>Teaching Social Studies in the Elementary School</u> (New York,
N. Y.: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1968), p. 530.

[3]Ibid.

[4]Lawrence F. Costello and George N. Gordon, <u>Teach</u>
<u>with Television. A Guide to Instructional TV</u> (New York,
N. Y.: Hastings House Publishers, 1961), p. 15.

these students did significantly better than students who
were taught by conventional means in small classes.[1]
Schramm, Lyle, and Parker concur with the spokesman for
the Fund for the Advancement of Education. If motivation
can be retained, children can learn just as much from tele-
vision as they can from a classroom lesson.[2]

In conclusion of this section, television in the
classroom can offer a number of roles. It enables students
to assimilate information. Stimulation of inquiry and
discovery may occur due to television. A new role of
television is its connection with the computerized class-
room. In this instance the computer presents the instruct-
ional material on videotape, a new field of instruction.[3]

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[1]Ibid.

[2]Schramm, Lyle, Parker with Freedman, Television
in the Lives of Our Children, p. 90.

[3]Preston and Herman, Teaching Social Studies in
the Elementary School, pp. 529-530.

CHAPTER III

TEACHING READING AND STUDY SKILLS
IN LANGUAGE ARTS AND SOCIAL STUDIES

Introduction

Skill in organizing information depends
in part upon the extent to which it is
understood. The task is clear. Teach
your students first to read for
organization; then help them develop
skills to record what they must learn
and remember.[1]
—Robert Karlin

Many content area teachers feel that their
students have a firm foundation in reading and that these
students will be able to apply reading and study skills
readily to any content material presented in class with
little or no teacher guidance. The shocking facts, however,
are that the students must be taught how to apply these
previously learned skills to each new learning situation
whether a textbook or a televised lesson is being used.
Reading takes on a new dimension. It seems to disappear
as a distinct subject and become more of an integrated
process with the content area material.

Since the understanding of written and audio-
visual materials is extremely important, comprehension

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[1]Marjorie Seddon Johnson and Roy A. Kress, ed.,
Developmental Reading: Diagnostic Teaching, Proceedings
of Annual Reading Institute at Temple University
(Philadelphia, Penn.: Temple University, 1967), 6: 123.

of materials will be stressed. Practical suggestions that
authors have found useful in teaching reading and study
skills such as purpose setting, notetaking, outlining, and
vocabulary will be emphasized. Study guides setting the
purpose for reading and preparing the students for the
material to be read will be used to build the reading and
study skills into the Language Arts and social studies
curricula for grades seven and eight.

Therefore, keeping these ideas in mind, the remain-
der of this research paper will deal with the practical
aspects of teaching reading and study skills. Classroom
usage to enhance and improve reading comprehension will be
the main objective of this chapter.

Skills Necessary in These Content Areas: Language Arts and Social Studies

Study skills are defined by technique

"McKay states a functional definition of the study
skills when he says they include any technique students use
in learning school assignments."[1] For example, study skills
such as locating information and reading maps and charts
are essential if the students are going to learn the material
in their textbooks. The more proficient students are in
the study skills, the easier studying will become because
information can be sought, collected, and collated in a
shorter amount of time. "The study skills sometimes
called reading-study skills are those used by students
when they need to understand and remember information

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[1]David L. Shepherd, Comprehensive High School
Reading Methods (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill
Publishing Co., 1973), p. 101 and William McKay, "The
Nature and Extent of Work-Study Skills in Teaching
Reading Skills in Secondary Schools: Readings, ed.
Arthur V. Olson and Wilbur S. Ames (Scranton, Penn.:
International Textbook Co., 1970), p. 160.

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Arthur V. Olson and Wilbur S. Ames (Scranton, Penn.:
International Textbook Co., 1970), p. 160.

from a reference book such as a textbook," according to
Shepherd.[1]

Study skills are important to the content area

Since study skills are used mainly in the content
area, the skills are useful in guiding children toward
techniques that will assist them to become effective and
independent of the teachers they have daily for class.[2]

Through the Language Arts program, children are
introduced to many tasks, techniques, and skills that could
be applied to the other content areas. "Study skills are
not the exclusive domain of the Language Arts program.
They are an integral part of teaching--and learning--in
every curriculum area and at every grade level."[3] The
foundation of these reading and study skills are laid in
the Language Arts program, but it is necessary to teach
these skills using the other content areas' books and
materials. By doing this, the transition of the skill
to another content area may be made smoothly.

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[1]David L. Shepherd, Comprehensive High School
Reading Methods (Columbus, Ohio: Charles C. Merrill
Publishing Co., 1973), p. 101.

[2]Ivan J. Quandt, Teaching Reading: A Human
Process (Chicago, Ill.: Rand McNally College Publishing
Co., 1977), p. 140 and Walter Thomas Petty, Dorothy C.
Petty, and Majorie E. Becking, Experiences in Language:
Tools and Techniques for Language Arts Methods, 2nd ed.
(Boston, Mass.: Allyn and Bacon Co., 1976), p. 398.

[3]Petty, Petty, and Becking, Experiences in Lang-
uage: Tools and Techniques for Language Arts Methods,
p. 398.

Skills are taught through a specific plan

When reading and study skills are used with content
area textbooks, practice should be provided so that these
skills are learned more effectively. Since "all skills
have two characteristics in common: (1) they are develop-
mental and (2) they require practice if they are to be
learned," a particular study sequence or lesson plan is
needed to include the teaching of reading and study skills.[1]

First of all, when study skills are taught, the
content area textbooks should be used so that the teaching
of the skills and the content can be fused. Secondly, the
sequence in teaching the study skills should be followed.
Teaching skills as the need arises tends to be more bene-
ficial since the students can apply the skills to the con-
tent immediately rather than waiting until an opportunity
arises later.[2]

However, before a skill is taught, a number of
prerequistes such as pretests may be used to determine
whether the students can already apply the skill to the
textbook material or whether a plan to teach the skills
is necessary. A possible lesson plan for teaching a skill
is provided by Duffy, Allington, McElwee, and Roehler. A
pretest is devised to determine if the students can use the
skill. Then, a sequence is planned to teach the skill if
necessary, to test the students, and to evaluate their
demonstration of the skill, and then to apply the skill in

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[1]John Jarolimek, Social Studies in Elementary
Education, 5th ed. (New York, N. Y.: Macmillan Publishing
Co., 1977), p. 65.

[2]Shepherd, Comprehensive High School Reading
Methods, p. 191.

many practice situations and actual situations for rein-
forcement.[1]

```
S              (Already know how to use the skill)

K     Pretest---------------------▶ Practice---▶ Apply
        \                        ↗              to Content
I         \                    /                Area Material
           \                 /
L            \             /
              ↘         ↙
L            Teach ◀-------▶Test
             and           (Posttest)
             Apply
```
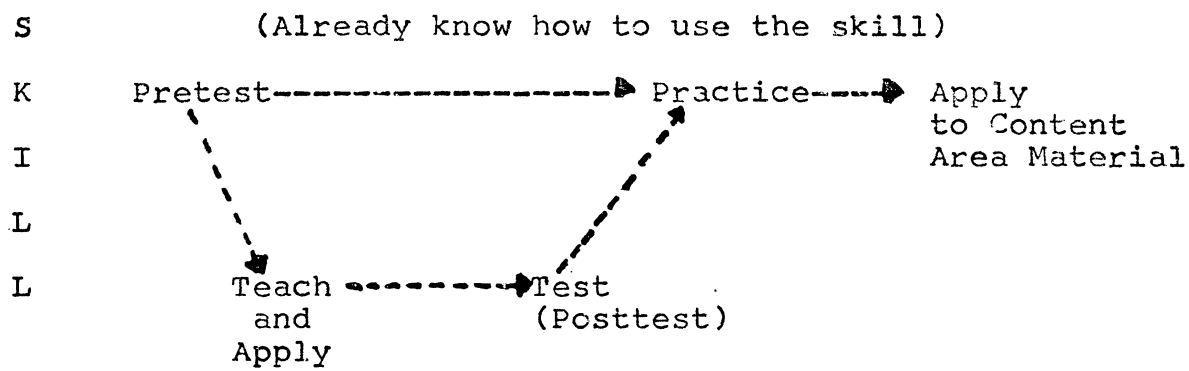
Figure 2. Plan for Teaching a Reading and Study Skill.

Other procedures for teaching skills that Jarolimek
suggested are found in Social Studies in Elementary Education
on page 65. Four procedures in teaching skills that
Jarolimek mentioned are outlined below.

I.   Understand What Is Involved in a Skill

     A. How is the skill used?
     B. What does it mean?
     C. Is there a good model of the skill available?
         If so, when teaching the skill, provide a good
         model.

II. Work through the Use of a Skill under Teacher
     Guidance

     A. The teacher should verify that the students
         understand the steps in using the skill.
     B. The students should make correct responses
         concerning the usage of the skill.

III. Provide Additional Practice in Complex Usage and
     Variation of the Skill

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[1]Gerald G. Duffy with Richard L. Allington,
Michael R. McElwee and Laura R. Roehler, How to Teach
Reading Systematcially (New York, N. Y.: Harper & Row,
1973), p. 167.

IV. Continue to Practice the Skills over an Extended
Period of Time to Maintain and Improve the Students'
Proficiency in Using the Skill[1]

> Skills need to be taught and retaught, with
> many applications to different kinds of
> content. They are productive tools in
> improving reading and the language arts;
> they open the world of ideas.[2]

Besides being Language Arts skills, these reading
and study skills are used in other content fields. Since
language is used anytime someone speaks or reads, it must
be evident that these skills are applicable to each subject.

Study skills are common to all content areas

According to Lundstrum's findings, at one time
the generally favored view was that there were two basic
types of reading skills (a) skills including "reading/study
skills which were generic or common to all disciplines and
(b) skills which were unique to one or more disciplines."[3]
However, Herber questioned this traditional view of the two
basic types of reading skills. Herber "argues that the
uniqueness does not reside in the skills themselves but
rather in their adaptation 'to meet the peculiarities of
each discipline.' "[4]

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[1]Jarolimek, Social Studies in Elementary Education,
p. 65.

[2]Fay Abrams, "Developing Reading and Language
Arts Efficiencies in Content Areas in Grades Four through
Eight," in Reading and the Language Arts, p. 87.

[3]J. P. Lunstrum, "Reading in the Social Studies:
A Preliminary Analysis of Recent Research," Social
Education 40 (January 1976): 15.

[4]Ibid.

Therefore, the reading and study skills being presented here are common both to the Language Arts and social studies. In the following section, these skills will be applied to students' textbooks and/or television lessons. The reading and study skills are listed as follows:

1. Establishing a purpose for listening
2. Establishing a purpose for reading
3. Previewing techniques
4. Notetaking and outlining
5. Learning and reinforcing vocabulary
6. Organizing reports and research papers

Skills to Be Emphasized for the Content Areas and Skills to Be Used with Textbooks and/ or Television Lessons Now

Establishing a purpose for listening

Introduction. "Attention, may I have your attention, please," are often the word one hears before someone speaks over a public address system. Why does the speaker do this? What purpose does the speaker have in mind? Probably, the speaker wants to make sure the listening audience is aware that a message is going to be presented to the audience.

The listeners probably start thinking about what is going to be said; why is the message being given; what is the purpose of the message; or will it pertain to us or to other people? Therefore, the listeners are already preparing themselves for what is to be said. Now, their attention is focused on the forthcoming message.

Listening definitions. Many definitions for listening have been proposed, but Devine has found the "best working definition to date comes from Lundsteen (1971), who approached it by asking:"[1]

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[1] Thomas G. Devine, "Listening: What Do We Know after Fifty Years of Research and Theorizing?" Journal of Reading, p. 297.

What is listening like?
(comparison definition),
what goes along with listening?
(definition by attribute),
where does it fit?
(definition by classification and
clarification),
what parts does it have?
(structural definition),
and how does it work?
(operational definition).
She concludes that listening is
'the process by which spoken language
is converted to meaning in the mind.'[1]

A chart describing the listening process went one
step further than Lundsteen's definition of listening to
include a third step, evaluation.

The Listening Process

Recognition	Interpretation	Evaluation
1. Hearing	Translating sounds	Weighing ideas
2. Paying attention	into ideas	for worth
3. Recognizing sounds		
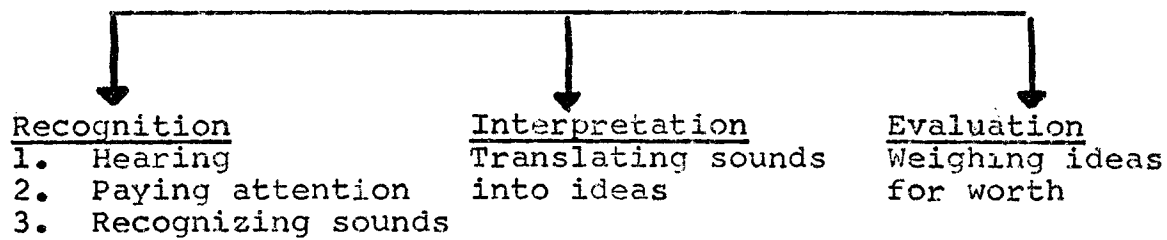
Chart 1. The Listening Process.[2]

Transitional words. In listening the transitional
words that give direction to the lecture, message, or talk
are helpful in assisting the listeners in organizing their
ideas mentally or in taking notes on the spoken words.
Organizational techniques such as sequence, time, relation-
ship, and cause and effect assist the listeners as much as
they assis the person who is reading the printed word.

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[1] Ibid.

[2] English Curriculum Center of the Department of
Public Instruction of the State of Wisconsin, Experimental
Ed., Teaching Speaking and Writing in Wisconsin, (Madison,
Wis.: Wisconsin English Language Arts Curriculum Project,
1966), p. 7.

Listening concentration. Listening requires concentration and effort on the listeners' parts. Without questioning minds, a concentrated effort, and a willingness to listen, the listeners would be lost in confusion or in daydreaming. Ways to avoid these unnecessary predicaments are to learn how to listen through (1) composing and following a listening checklist; (2) learning the listening formula technique, TQLR; or (3) practicing listening through the use of cassettes, records, radio and television, news programs, and (4) using guided plans to improve the listening ability.

Mills provides the reader with "A Listening Check-list" which is divded into three areas: (1) physical aids to assist listening; (2) attitudes to encourage before and during listening; and (3) content aids to think about during listening.[1]

Listening formula. TQLR. The mental processes involved in listening were examined, and they were arranged into a concise listening formula known as TQLR.

<u>T</u>une in
<u>Q</u>uestion
<u>L</u>isten
<u>R</u>eview
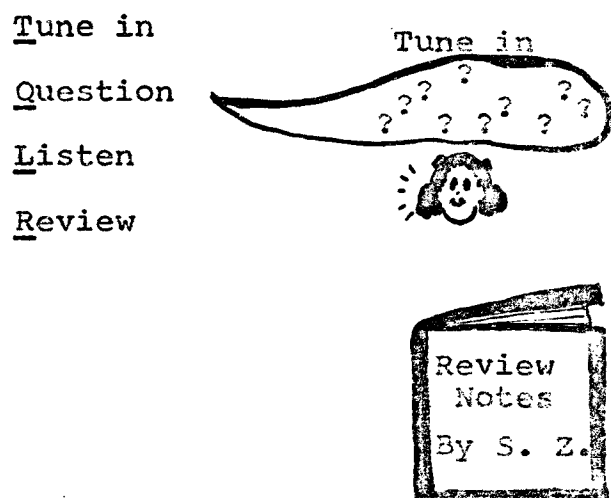
Illustration 1.　The Listening Formula or TQLR.

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[1]Donna M. Mills, "Interrelating Reading and Listening in Grades Four through Eight," in Reading and the Language Arts, comp. and ed. H. Alan Robinson (Chicago, Ill.: The University of Chicago Press, 1963), p. 60.

You **tune** your mind to the speaker's voice and to what the speaker is going to say and to what you are going to hear.

You **ask questions** to anticipate what will be said and what will be heard before the speaker begins talking.

You think before you **listen**. Think while you are listening by relating one idea to another with their main points or ideas. You may want to think ahead to what may be said next.

Go over the material again and **review** what the speaker said by summarizing the important points that will support the speaker's purpose.[1] "Review consists of thinking **after** you listen. It helps you remember what you heard, organize it, and understand it."[2]

In conclusion listening (1) can be beneficial for those who cannot apply higher-level reading skills usi ng written material but have the mental ability for listening; (2) can act as a support to the students as read-along; and (3) can play a complementary role in learning.[3]

Listening still, however, is not generally accepted as part of the standard school curriculum. Surveys of actual classroom practices indicate little time devoted to

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[1]Don H. Parker, _SRA Reading Laboratory IIIa_, _Teacher's Handbook_ (Chicago, Ill.: Science Research Associates, 1964), p. 45.

[2]Ibid., p. 46.

[3]Lynette Saine, "Interrelating Reading and Listening in Corrective and Remedial Classes," in _Reading and Language Arts_, comp. and ed. H. Alan Robinson (Chicago, Ill.: University of Chicago Press, 1963), p. 70.

direct instruction in listening skills even
though the evidence indicates strongly that
such instruction works.

This lack of attention to teaching
listening was noted when listening first
became a subject for research. . . .
Listening is still, as the Commission on
the English Curriculum (1952) noted
twenty-five years ago, 'the neglected
language art at all educational levels.'[1]

Mills offered three suggestions to apply if we
want students to listen. First, have something worth-
while to listen to; secondly, give a purpose for listen-
ing; and thirdly, help students to realize that good
listening, good reading, and remembering are important
to each other.[2]

Establishing a purpose for reading

Listening is a supportive skill for reading. In
the previous section, listening was described as a com-
plementary and supportive skill for reading. Even though
listening and reading require different mental processes,
there are similarities between listening and reading as
well as differences. On the following page the differences
between reading and listening are listed. Since similar-
ities exist between reading and listening, this compari-
son is seen in chart three on page forty-two.

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[1]Thomas G. Devine, "Listening: What Do We Know
after Fifty Years of Research and Theorizing?" Journal
of Reading 21 (January 1978): 300.

[2]Mills, "Interrelating Reading and Listening in
Grades Four through Eight," in Reading and the Language
Arts, p. 62.

Differences between reading and listening are
many. Since reading and listening are two different
processes, it would be expected that they would differ
in some manner. In the chart some of the differences
between reading and listening will be given.

Reading	Listening
1. Readers can control rate at which information is received and can regress to check comprehension.	1. Listeners cannot control the rate at which they receive information or regress to check their listening ability.
2. Readers may reread material.	2. Listeners must adjust their listening to the speaker's speech pattern.
3. Intonation and nonverbal clues are missing unless stage directions are provided and an imagination is used.	3. Listeners cannot re-listen in most instances.
4. Readers can go at their own pace when reading.	4. Intonation and nonverbal clues are given along with words that are spoken.
5. Readers may stop and reflect on material read.	5. Listeners must follow the speaker's pace of speaking.
	6. Listeners cannot stop and reflect on material heard unless it is recorded in some manner.
	7. The speaker's personality and rate of speaking are important.

Chart 2. Differences between Reading and Listening[1]

_____

[1]Patricia M. Cunningham, "Transferring Comprehension from Listening to Reading," _The Reading Teacher_ 29 (November 1975): 169 and Mills, "Interrelating Reading and Listening in Grades Four through Eight," in _Reading and the Language Arts_, p. 60.

<u>Similarities between reading and listening occur.</u>
Both reading and listening have a number of ideas in
common. The chart below lists the similarities.

   Both reading and listening

1. Require purpose, direction, critical thinking

2. Require evaluation and reaction

3. Are basic means of communication

4. Require the reception of ideas.

5. Have the same pattern of receiving the stimulus

6. Are concerned with the intake half of communication

7. Have similar mental processes underlying listening
   and reading

8. Have a complex of related skill components

9. Have a "receiver who is the object of some message
   and is trying to construe its meaning"[1]

10. Require skill in preparing for what is to be heard
    or read

11. Need an objective and receptive attitude toward the
    speaker or author

12. Concentrate on the ideas given

13. Require the interpretation of the ideas

14. Require the selection of ideas that will help learning

Chart 3 . Similarities between Reading and Listening

---

[1]Cunningham, "Transferring Comprehension from
Listening to Reading," The Reading Teacher 29: 169.

[2]Mills, "Interrelating Reading and Listening in
Grades Four through Eight," pp. 59-60 for Nos. 1-5; Devine,
"Listening: What Do We Know after Fifty Years of Research
and Theorizing?" pp. 301-302 for Nos. 6-8; Mills, "Inter-
relating Reading and Listening in Grades Four through
Eight," p. 62 for Nos. 10-14.

The values of the interrelating of listening and reading skills assist in the organizing of ideas and assist in the understanding of the "developmental interrelatedness of listening and reading."[1]

A questioning mind assists in setting a purpose to read. Why is it necessary to read this material? What facts are important to remember? What is the main idea? How do the details support the main idea? For what purpose is this material being read?

These and many other questions usually come to mind as the readers cover the materials that must be read. Therefore, a specific purpose or objective is needed to guide the readers so they might read the material with better comprehension.

Purposes for reading vary. Even in the time of Sir Francis Bacon, books were read for specific purposes. Sometimes only parts of a book are read while at other times, books such as the Bible, a very interesting novel, or a very difficult calculus textbook are read carefully devoting much attention to the content.

In Bacon's essay, Of Studies, he gives his "useful division into books for tasting, for swallowing, and for chewing and digesting:"[2]

> That is some books are to be read only in parts;
> others to be read, but not curiously; and some
> few to be read wholly, and with diligence and
> attention.[3]

---

[1] Saine, "Interrelating Reading and Listening in Corrective and Remedial Classes," Reading and the Language Arts, p. 70.

[2] Sterling Andrus Leonard, Essential Principles of Teaching Reading and Literature in the Intermediate Grades and High School (Philadelphia, Penn.: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1922). p. 173.

[3] Ibid.

Therefore, depending how much or how little to read of a
book depends on the purpose for reading the book in the
first place.

A reading cycle has a specific sequence. Reading
for a specific purpose is the beginning of a reading cycle
as described by Merritt as "a sequence of activities in
which a definition of purpose leads to a reading goal, some
kind of plan for reading to satisfy that goal, the reading
process itself, and the evaluation and consolidation process
that stems from the reading and facilitates further develop-
ment."[1]
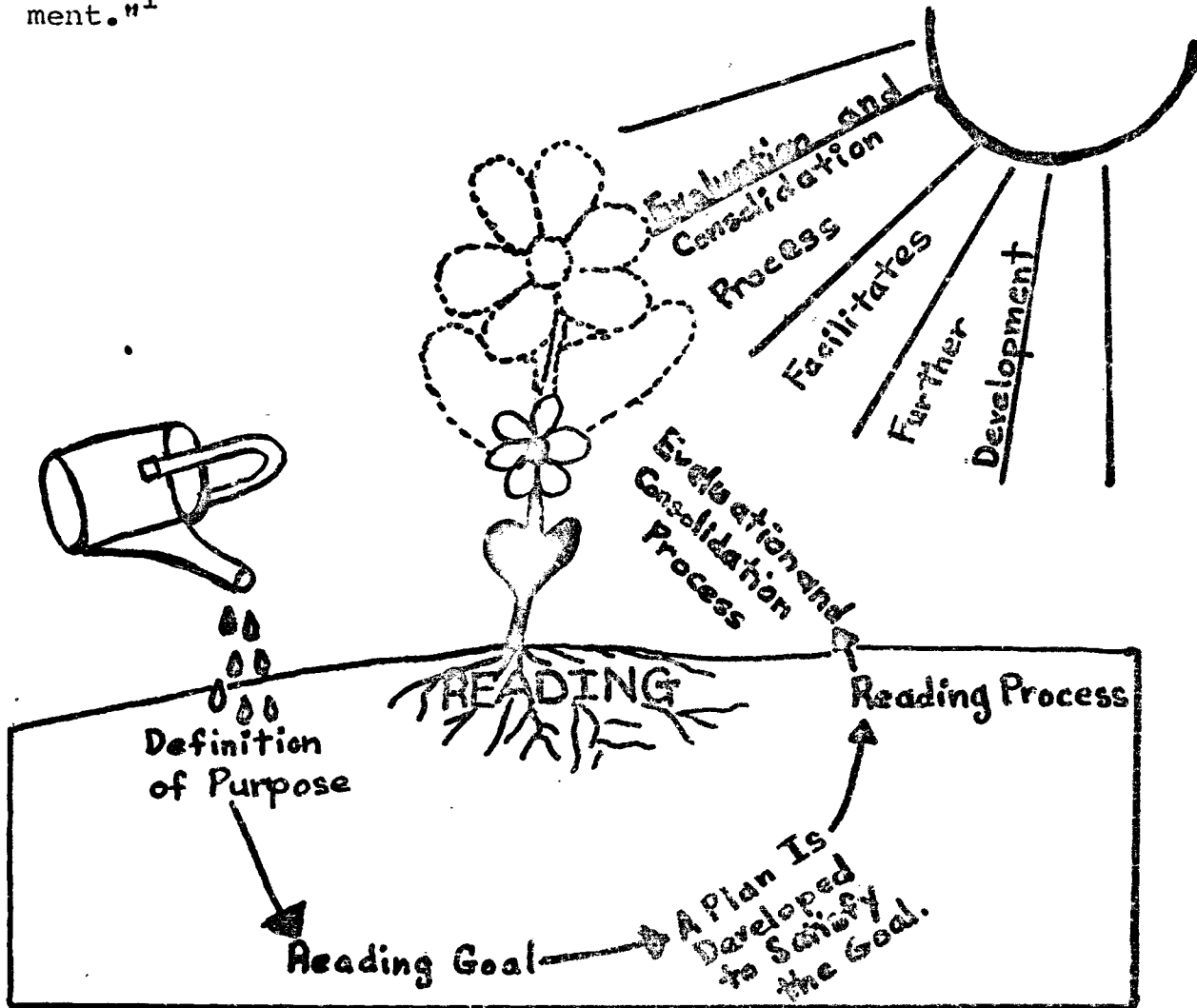
Diagram 1. A Diagram of a Reading Cycle.

---

[1]John Merritt, Perspectives on Reading (Bletchley,
Buckinghamshire, Great Britain: The Open University Press,
1973), p. 44.

<u>Numerous purposes for reading exist.</u> Other terms
one may hear that are interchangeable with the term, <u>pur-</u>
<u>poses</u>, are <u>goals</u>, <u>aims</u>, or <u>objectives</u>.[1] There are numerous
purposes to establish for reading as can be seen from this
list:

1. Enjoyment

2. Skimming, selecting, and referring to reference
   material

3. Mastery of a subject

4. A study of details

5. A study of the main points or ideas

6. Study for a test

7. Question a situation and develop an opinion
   about it.

In reading social studies textbooks, exploratory
reading, or reading for a purpose is essential. Jarolimek
emphasizes that before students start reading, purposes
should be established that the students use as guideposts
as they read in the textbook. He states that " purposes
should be general rather than detailed or highly specific."[2]

Sometimes, self-evaluation of skills, for example,
Language Arts skills and study habits may be a good starting
point for reading for a purpose rather than starting with a
book first.

Here is an evaluation sheet on the Language Arts
skills which can be given to the students at the beginning
of the year. According to the directions, they are requested
to answer either <u>yes</u> or <u>no</u> by checking the proper column.
Therefore, the students' purpose in doing the assignment
is to complete the Language Arts Skills Sheet by following

---

[1]Ibid., p. 13.

[2]John Jarolimek, <u>Social Studies in Elementary</u>
<u>Education</u>, 5th ed. (New York, N. Y.: Macmillan Publishing
Co., 1977), p. 83.

the directions carefully. At the bottom of the sheet is an area provided for the students to use for daily or weekly responses to the Language Arts Skills Sheet and their progress through a quarter or a sememster.

Language Arts Skills Sheet
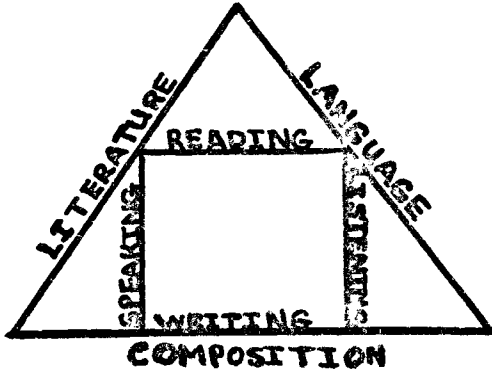
This symbol to the left is a symbol for the Language Arts Skills.[1] Just because we call the class ENGLISH does not mean that we are forgetting the skills of Reading, Penmanship, Spelling, and Listening. These skills are all a part of English.

DIRECTIONS:

Read the following list. Then, place a check in the proper space.

	YES	NO
1. Are you asked to speak up when you are talking?		
2. Do you read as well as you would like to read?		
3. Do you feel you follow directions 90% of the time?		
4. Do you find yourself getting behind in your work?		
5. Does your talking prevent others from listening?		
6. Do people say they cannot read your writing?		
7. Do you ask questions about information you are unsure of in class?		

[1]English Curriculum Center of the Department of Public Instruction of the State of Wisconsin, Experimental Ed., Teaching Speaking and Writing in Wisconsin, front cover.

	YES	NO
8. Are you told you talk too loud?		
9. If someone spoke to you, could you repeat what they said in your own words?		
10. Do you enjoy reading books?		
11. Is your work often erased or crossed out, resulting in a messy paper?		
12. Do you enjoy doing research on a topic of your own choice?		
13. Do you feel you write as neatly as you can?		
14. Do you participate in class or volunteer at least once each class time?		
15. Do you work as hard as you possibly can?		
16. Do you spell as well as you believe you should?		
17. Do you work just to get by with as little as you can?		
18. Do you write small and/or messy because you do not want people to know you can't spell well or write well?		

COMMENTS:

DATE	STUDENT'S COMMENTS	TEACHER'S COMMENTS

Purpose setting is important. Four purposes for
reading materials are (1) to get answers to questions;
(2) for following directions; (3) for determining the
setting or atmosphere; and (4) for critical thinking
resulting from critical reading. Setting a purpose for
reading is the first step in the previewing or prereading
process. Once the purpose or purposes for reading a
selection are established they can be organized (1) on the
chalkboard, (2) on a piece of construction paper or poster-
board, and/or (3) on a duplicating master for separate
sheets for each student. The purpose of this would be for
immediate feedback and future reference.

Writing clear directions are important in purpose
setting. Clearly written purposes for doing the reading
are essential. Any written directions used in establish-
ing a purpose for reading must be clear, concise, and
within the students' comprehension level; otherwise, they
will not understand or be able to follow the given
directions. Pikulski and Jones in their article, "Writing
Directions Children Can Read," give detailed instructions
on writing directions which concentrate on six areas:
(1) sentence structure, (2) vocabulary choice, (3) illustra-
tions or pictures, (4) direction order or sequence, (5) typo-
graphical considerations, and (6) interest.[1] These suggest-
ions offer many possibilities in writing understandable
directions, especially if the directions are followed by the
students independently.

_____

[1]John J. Pikulski and Margaret B. Jones, "Writing
Directions Children Can Read," The Reading Teacher 30
(March 1977): 598-602.

The two purposes for reading: (1) following directions and (2) answering questions will be stressed. Following directions is a common purpose in such activities as cooking, completing a job application form or an application for a Social Security card, doing school assignments, or making an art project. Four materials which may be useful for practicing following directions are listed below:

Abisch, Roz and Kaplan, Boche. Easy-to-Make Holiday Fun Things. Middleton, Conn.: Xerox Education Publications, 1973.

"How to Make Things That Fly." n. p., Minn.: Minnesota Mining and Manufacturing Co., 1974.

Social Security Office, Social Security Administration, South Side Branch, 4331 West Oklahoma Avenue, Milwaukee, Wisconsin 53219; Branch Office, 526 East Michigan Avenue, Milwaukee, Wisconsin 53202.
    Social Security cards will be provided for classes upon reugest.

Temko, Florence. Paper Capers, All Kinds of Things to Make with Paper. New York, N. Y.: Scholastic Book Services, 1974.

Besides following directions, the materials that follow also evaluate how well students carry through on answering questions. The first example involves an assignment on observations which was used in the seventh grade Language Arts class. The directions are stated with illustrations to assist the students in answering the questions and in evaluating whether they are correct or incorrect. The Observation Sheet follows on the next page. A second but more unsuspecting way in following directions, answering questions, and evaluating the results is a teacher-made test which requires students to answer a number of questions. After they have thoroughly read the teacher-made test, the students follow the directions which specifically states, "Read everything carefully and

1 How many triangles can you find in the diagram below of the star? There are more than you think.

ANSWER: _____
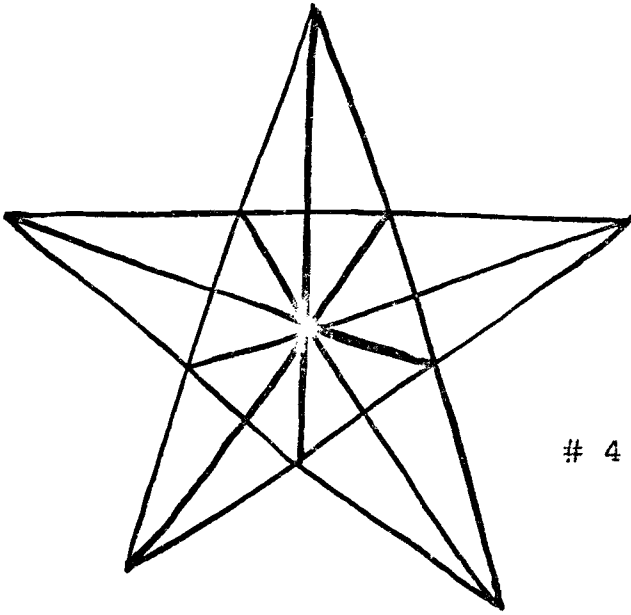
2 Place the numerals 1 through 8 in the squares so that no two consecutive numbers will be next to each other.

None of the following are permitted:
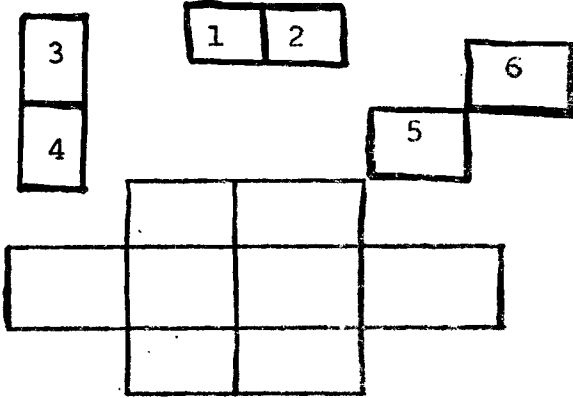
3 A cardboard roll from paper toweling has been cut on a diagonal. Draw a picture of the roll or hand in the actual roll after it has been cut and unrolled.
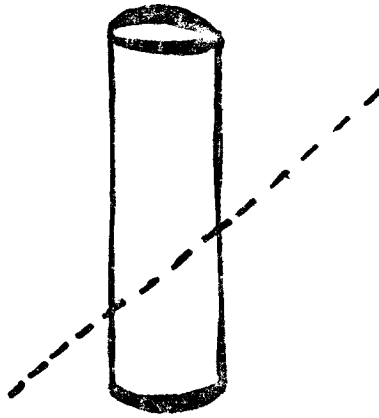
4 Cut out a piece of paper in the form of a right triangle. This triangle may be folded in at least four ways to form pairs of similar triangles.

Where should the folds be made?

Draw the folds on your triangle. You may want to make four triangles and mark each triangle individually.
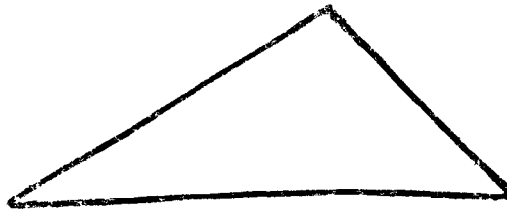
completely before doing anything." One such example of
this type of skill is found in the reading workbook by

Schachter, Norman and Whelan, John K. Activities for
    Reading Improvement, Book One. Just for Fun
    Series. Rev. ed. Austin, Texas: Steck-Vaughn
    Co., 1971, p. 54.

Another example of this skill is provided in Appendix B.
A teacher-made test was developed to determine whether
students read the directions first or whether they just
started to do the questions in front of them.

    While reading a book, students often forget what
they are reading about or studying. Shepherd's ideas
are presented in an illustrated setting so that they may
be useful as a bulletin board display or as a duplicated
sheet to guide students in the reading of a book. The
students would have a basic organization for purpose set-
ting and following through on the purpose: (1) by taking
notes; (2) by listening to others; and (3) by discussing
the issues or ideas with others.[1]

    Another purpose for reading is critical thinking.
Some examples will be presented from an eighth grade
English final examination using the textbook, Ginn Elements
of English 8, as a basis for the statements. The purpose
of this section of the final examination was to determine
whether the conclusions reached from the facts provided
were reasonable or not.

Reaching Conclusions.

Directions: 1. In each group of sentences, a conclusion
           is determined in the last sentence.

         2. From the statements given is the third
           statement a reasonable conclusion or not?

---

[1]David L. Shepherd. "Reading Language Arts, and
the Content Areas," in Reading and Language Arts, comp.
and ed. H. Alan Robinson (Chicago, Ill.: The University
of Chicago Press, 1963), pp. 72-78.

The **purpose** for reading the geography textbook
is to be able to recite orally three facts about Central
America, and the students must write at least three facts.

1. Read the written word that represents the ideas.
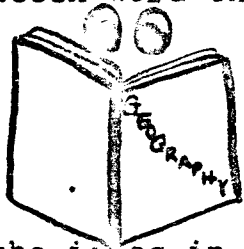
2. Write down the ideas in your own words.

My Ideas on Central America
1. Central America
to _____
2. Theme _____
3. The expe_____

Will the U.S. really give the control of the Panama Canal to Panama?
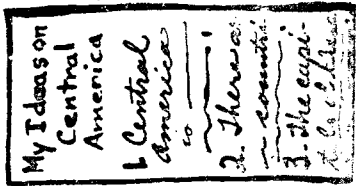
3. Listen to the ideas of others.

Where is Panama?

Panama is a narrow stretch of land nearest South America.

Maybe.
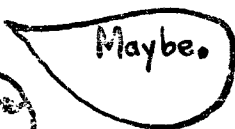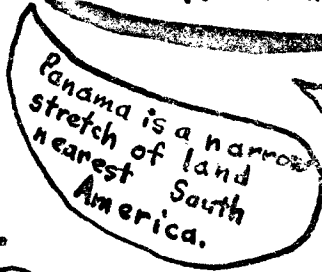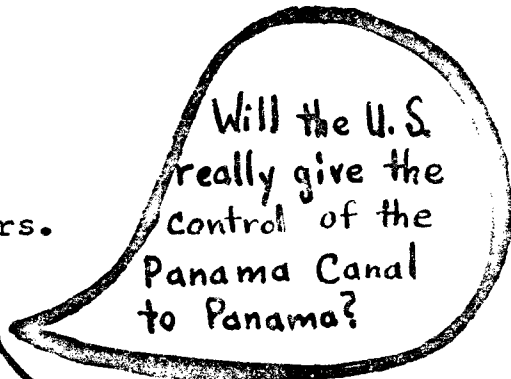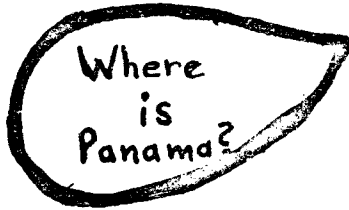
4. Tell your ideas to others.

Do you know where Panama is?

It's the country nearest South America.

YES
O
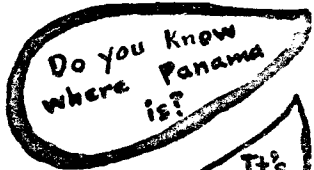
Illustration 2.   Reading for a Purpose.[1]

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[1]Ibid.
　　Footnote is for the four numbered ideas. The
art, organization, and application to geography was
added.

3. Determine the reasonable thinking.

4. Circle the word <u>YES</u> if the third state-
   is reasonable.

5. Circle the word <u>NO</u> is the third statement
   is not reasonable.

YES   NO   Thomas Jefferson was born in Virginia.
               Thomas Jefferson was the third President
                 of the United States.
               The third President of the United States
                 was born in Virginia.

YES   NO   Nathaniel Hawthorne was an American author.
               Nathaniel Hawthorne was born in Massachusetts.
               All American authors were born in Massachusetts.

YES   NO   Margie who has a history of window breaking
                 has recently purchased a slingshot.
               A window was broken by a stone from a slingshot.
               Margie broke the window.

YES   NO   All healthy people can learn how to swim.
               Horace and Heather are healthy people.
               Horace and Heather can learn how to swim.

YES   NO   Apricots are fruits.
               Some fruits are juicy.
               Apricots are juicy.

YES   NO   No radio announcer likes milk.
               Edwina does not like milk.
               Edwina is a radio announcer.

YES   NO   Green plants need sunlight to live.
               Some of the plants in my garden are green.
               Some of the plants in my garden need sunlight
                 to live.

   A final example of reading for a specific reason
is presented in ten statements. The students must determine
whether the ten statements are <u>FACTS</u> or <u>OPINIONS</u>. Part I
is a section from a semester two English Examination for
the eighth grade.

Part I. Fact or Opinion.
          Ten statement are given below.
          On the line provided, write whether the statement
            is a _fact_ or an _opinion_.

1. _____   The Catholic University of America is located
                in Washington, D. C.

2. _____   The Civil Was was fought bravely by both
                sides.

3. _____   Going on vacation was a thrilling experience.

4. _____   The telephone rang at 10:30 P.M.

5. _____   Baseball games are just as exciting as
                basketball games are.

6. _____   When everyone is here, there are nineteen
                students in the classroom.

7. _____   The bride was beautiful in her long white
                gown and lace veil.

8. _____   Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin in 1793.

9. _____   Nathaniel Hawthorne was an American author.

10._____   Sally is a fantastic tennis player.

Previewing techniques

        Establishing a purpose for reading which was
explained in a previous section provided the basis for the
prereading or previewing activities that will be presented
here. Additional steps are necessary to organize units of
study and assist students who have difficulty reading the
textbook for their grade level.

        The structured overview. The term "structured
overview" originated with Herber and his Syracus University
colleagues."[1] "Structured overviews are visual diagrams

---

[1] J. P. Lunstrum. "Readings in the Social Studies:
A Preliminary Analysis of Recent Research," _Social Education_
40 .(January 1976): 15.

of the key vocabulary of a learning task. . . ."[1] In
1969 Earle listed directions for constructing an overview:
(1) Select all the words in the unit that the students
       will need to understand.
(2) Arrange the list of words in diagram form so that the
       relationship among the unit's ideas are shown.
(3) Write the diagram on the chalkboard or the overhead
       projector.
       (a) Explain the reason for the arrangement of the
              words.
       (b) Have the students contribute information about
              the diagram and possibly about the reason for
              the word arrangement.[2]

An example of a structured overview was organized
based upon chapter 1, "American English," Ginn Elements
of English 8, pages 1 through 25 in diagram 2.

Spaces under the supporting details could be
provided for specific examples in the structured overview,
and the students could add the examples to the overview
if it was on a duplicated sheet for each individual, on
the chalkboard, or on an overhead projector. Possibly,
an outline could be made, and the students could add the
specific examples to their ready made outline or they
could write their own outline from the structured over-
view providing they have had previous experience in
writing an outline.

The structured overview is beneficial because it
assists the teacher in (1) clarifying content objectives;
(2) identifying the major ideas; and (3) identifying the
major ideas the students should know. This structured

_____

[1]Richard T. Vacca, "Readiness to Read Content Area
Assignments," Journal of Reading 20 (February 1977): 391.

[2]Ibid.

The English Language

American English		British English
	cracker =	biscuit
	lawyer =	solicitor
	blouse =	jumper
	billboard =	hoarding

Language Growth

- Neologisms
- Slang
- Acronyms
- Technical jargon
- Combining old words
- Words coined from people's names

Dialects

(Dialectologist)

- Eye-dialect
- Regional dialects
- Social dialects

Language Styles

- Standard American English
- Nonstandard American English

Purpose: The structured overview shows how chapter one, "American English," is divided according to the main idea and its supporting details in each section of the chapter. The major ideas are organized in a main idea and supporting detail pattern.

Diagram 2. An Example of a Structured Overview.

overview is useful (1) in previewing the whole unit to obtain a total view of the material to be read through its vocabulary; (2) in preparing the students to read the content by asking them questions about the words; and (3) in introducing the new vocabulary of the unit.

The selection pyramid. Another way of previewing and/or studying a chapter is provided by Paulsen in the drawing of a "Selection Pyramid."[1]

Finding
Main Ideas
in Textbooks

Reading Full
Length Articles

Main Idea
One
Paragraph

Main Idea
Two to
Three
Paragraphs

Reading Paragraphs
with Signal Words

Selecting Details Essential
to the Main Idea

Expressed   Implied
Main Ideas in a Single
Paragraph

Key   Sentences
Key   Words

Reading of an Entire
Chapter
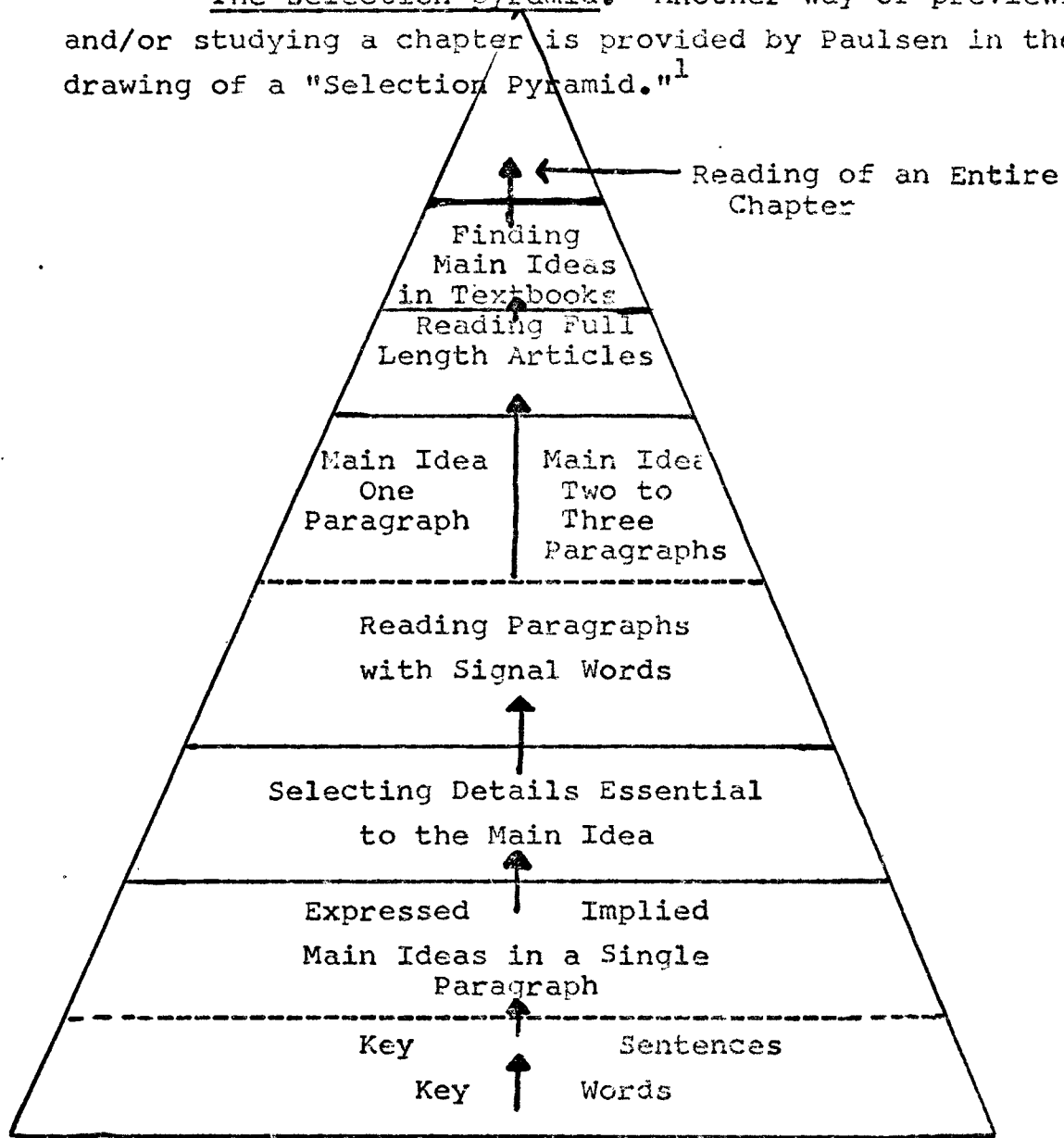
Figure 3. Selection Pyramid.

[1]Leitha Paulsen, "Developing Reading and Language Arts Efficiencies in Corrective and Remedial Reading Classes," in Reading and the Language Arts, comp. and ed. H. Alan Robinson (Chicago, Ill.: The University of Chicago Press, 1963), p. 95, Figure 1.

SQ3R. Reading textbook material is easier if a systematic technique for studying and learning is available such as the SQ3R Method. Massey and Moore have presented in their book, Helping High School Students to Read Better, the SQ3R Method in a manner to assist students in understanding what is expected of them for each step. For easier reading, the SQ3R Method is organized in an outline form.

I. S- SURVEY

A. Look over the material to be read.
B. Read the headings.
C. Glance at pictures, captions, and illustrations.
D. Read the introductory paragraph and the summary of the chapter.
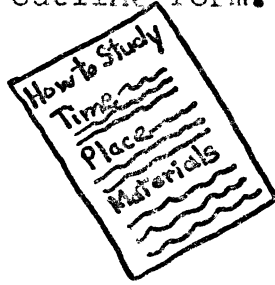
II. Q- QUESTION WHO? WHAT? WHEN? HOW? WHERE? WHY?

A. Create questions to assist in comprehending, understanding, the material.
B. Turn the chapter title and headings into questions to be answered.

III. R- READ

A. Read the material silently to answer to answer each question.
B. Adjust the reading rate.
   1. To the purpose of the material
   2. To the difficulty of the material

IV. R- RECITE

A. Recite in your own words the answer to each question.
B. Check you answer each time.
C. Write down key ideas or other information that will help in recalling the correct answer.
D. Read the material again until you can answer the question correctly if the answer was incorrect.
E. NOTE: Repeat Steps II. through IV. for each question to be answered until all the material has been completed.

V. R- REVIEW

A. Review in your own words what you have learned from the whole section.
B. Check your notes for information marked inaccurately or not completely remembered.

C. Reread any sections you are unsure of and recite the information again.

D. Review the whole selection until you are sure you have accomplished your purpose.

In the September 22, 1977, issue of _Scholastic Search_ Magazine an "Activity Master" was provided applying the SQ3R Method of study to the play, "The Starving Time," on pages 4 to 10.

The SQ3R Method of studying will be presented as it applied to the play, "The Starving Time."

The _Survey_ section previewed the speaking parts, the scenes, and the setting.

The _Question_ section transformed the title into a question to answer.

The _Read_ section provided open-ended statements for each scene. Then, notetaking could be done as the students read.

The _Recite_ section gave practice to repeating the answers written for the _Read_ section. At this point, the students studied by themselves.

The _Review_ section was done, first of all, individually so the students could determine what answers were mastered and which answers needed more study. Then, they studied the answers that were hard to remember and reread the parts of the play where the answers were found. Later, the students reviewed the material in pairs to recheck their memory after the individually completed review and restudying process. All of this studying and review was completed in the classroom during two forty-five minute sessions.

The questions at the end of the play were discussed to determine the students' comprehension of the play. A check test on "The Starving Time" was given to the students based on the paper they completed using the SQ3R study method, "SQ3R: A Study Guide."

Check Test for "The Starving Time"

TOTAL SCORE: _____

STUDENT'S SCORE: _____

DIRECTIONS: Answer each question on this sheet.
Write each answer in complete sentences.

1. Where does "The Starving Time" take place? (City, State)

2. In what year does the play take place?

3. Why would Jamestown run short of food?

4. How did Captain Smith help the settlers?

5. Why was Small sentenced to die?

6. Why did the settlers say Gates came too late?

7. Why couldn't the settlers go hunting?

8. Why did some settlers stay and not go back to England?

<u>The question word or W's method</u>. Another previewing technique is similar to the newspaper style of writing which also contributes question words that can be used to change the headings into questions and provide springboards for hypotheses. For instance, these questions may be listed before previewing the material, particularly a story.

1. Who is the story about?
2. Where does the story or event occur?
3. When did the event occur or when will it occur?
4. What are the characters doing?
5. Who are the characters?
6. What will happen next?
7. Why is this section important, for instance, the beginning or the end?
8. How will the material read be used?

By forming hypotheses through forming questions, purposes have been established for reading the story. As the students read the story, they may evaluate whether the author answered their questions and/or hypotheses or not.

Notetaking and Outlining

<u>Notetaking can be done in a number of ways</u>. Five methods of notetaking are illustrated here, and they are (1) listing of main ideas and supporting details; (2) the outline-summary method; (3) the outline; (4) the precis; and (5) the chart.

The listing of main points students hear require listening ability, concentration on the notetaking, writing quickly using brief statments, shorthand, and/or abbreviations, and keeping in mind the speaker's purpose and organization of material. Students who read and take notes also require a number of skill, some of which are similar to those who listen to a talk or lecture. These skills may be determined as reading comprehension, notetaking, organizational skills, writing the information at a slower pace than one who is listening to a person speaking,

and keeping in mind the speaker's purpose and organizational
technique or techniques.

Listening skills to use in notetaking. While
listening, students can be given guidance in notetaking if
teachers provide each student with an outline of the
expected lecture or talk or lesson. The first step in
teaching students the skill of notetaking is the listening
guide. "Rather than teach students how to go about organi-
zing words on paper, we must first organize these words our-
selves and then tell our students what those words are."[1]
Preparing lecture notes for the proposed topic and prepar-
ing a listening guide require five steps according to
Castallo.[2]

Step 1. The teacher reads the material to be presented and
underlines the concepts that the students should
have in their notes.

Step 2. A graphic overview of those concepts and sequence
in which they come are organized in an outline form.

Step 3. Copies of the outline prepared by the teacher are
distributed to the students.

Step 4. The teacher expands each main point as it appears
in the outline.

Step 5. The teacher fills in the listening guide on an
overhead projector as the students complete their
own listening guides.

---

[1]Richard Castallo, "Listening Guide--A First Step
toward Notetaking and Listening Skills, Journal of Reading
19 (January 1976): 290.

[2]Ibid., pp. 289-290.

<u>Notetaking practice to incorporate into classroom</u>
<u>instruction</u>. Notetaking is "an essential skill for students
and is best taught by content teachers" because notetaking
differs from course to course depending on the content to be
read.[1] The teacher may demonstrate on the chalkboard how
students should take notes from the textbook.

To incorporate notetaking instruction into the
regular classroom instruction is not as difficult as it may
seem. First of all, the students and teacher read a chapter
or a section together suggesting ideas for notes as they
read. Then, the material is discussed and ways to take
notes such as an outline, list, chart, time line, parallel
columns, or comparing two or more ideas are evaluated as to
the way that is most beneficial for the course of study.
The next procedure is to guide the students in the class
by writing the main points on the chalkboard, on an over-
head projector, or on large cards prepared earlier, if
possible.[2] "Most textbooks in the subject areas are organ-
ized to facilitate the students' ability to note the organ-
ization of the subject matter. The relationship of the main
ideas and supporting details can be noted through:

        Title of the Book
            Unit title
                Chapter title
                    Chapter section
                        Topical headings
                            Paragraphs."[3]

Another way of notetaking and reporting is present-
ed by Preston and Herman in their book, <u>Teaching Social</u>

---

[1]Betty L. Hagberg, "Making the Right to Read in the
Content Areas a Reality," in <u>Teachers, Tangibles, Techniques:</u>
<u>Comprehension of Content in Reading</u>, ed. Bonnie Smith
Schulwitz (Newark, Del.: International Reading Association,
1975), p. 125.

[2]Shepherd, <u>Comprehensive High School Reading</u>
<u>Methods</u>, pp. 104-105.

[3]Ibid., p. 105.

Studies in the Elementary School. Seven steps are
established to practice the skill of notetaking.

Step 1. The class is divided into groups of five to six
students who work with the teacher one group at
a time. While the rest of the class does other
work, each member of the group reads silently a
highly readable encyclopedia article, which has
been duplicated by the teacher.

Step 2. The group members select words, ideas, and
sentences that are unclear to them. Discussion
follows to determine the ambiguities and possibly
to use context clues in deciphering the meanings
of any unknown words.

Step 3. The group rereads the encyclopedia article to
search for main ideas. Discussion follows to
examine the appropriateness of the main points.

Step 4. The main idea is discussed and analyzed so that
the students can put the article's main ideas
in a few words.

Step 5. The children put their copies of the encyclopedia
article away and try to write brief notes to stand
for the key ideas in as few words as needed. Thus,
the students are actively involved in their own
learning process.

Step 6. The students take turns telling the group what
they have learned from the article by using
only their brief notes on the main points.

Step 7. All the members of the group write what they have
learned by referring to their notes only.[1]

Finally, these seven steps are used with the remaining
groups. According to Preston and Herman, this is
systematic training in notetaking.[2]

In the Media Memo a task is mentioned by which
notes may be made on a cassette recorder. This technique
is particularly beneficial for students who have difficulty
remembering important points over long reading assignments.
Notes may be recorded on the cassette, and this method is
much faster than taking written notes for these people.[3]

Outlining as a method of notetaking. The first
example of notetaking involves listing the main idea and
its supporting details under it. Basically, this method
lacks the formal outline form, yet it is just as beneficial
in organizing notes. Words, phrases, or sentences may be
used in this method of notetaking.

Title of the Lesson: _____

-Main Point

  -Detail
  -Detail
  -Detail

-Main Point

  -Detail
  -Detail

-Main Point

     Figure 4. Main Idea and Supporting Details
     Method of Notetaking.

---

[1]Ralph C. Preston and Wayne L. Herman, Jr., Teach-
ing Social Studies in the Elementary School (New York:
Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1968), pp. 384-385.

[2]Ibid., p. 385.

[3]"Social Studies," Media Memo (1977), Number 4,
p. 8.

The combination method using both the outline and the summary begins with the students dividing their papers into three parts as the illustration shows.

```
<------->3"<------->    <----------->5½"<----------->
       Outline                        Notes

                           Title of the Lesson:
                           Purposes:  1.
                                      2.
                                      3.



                       8"



<----------------------->8½"<----------------------->
              Summary


 3"
```
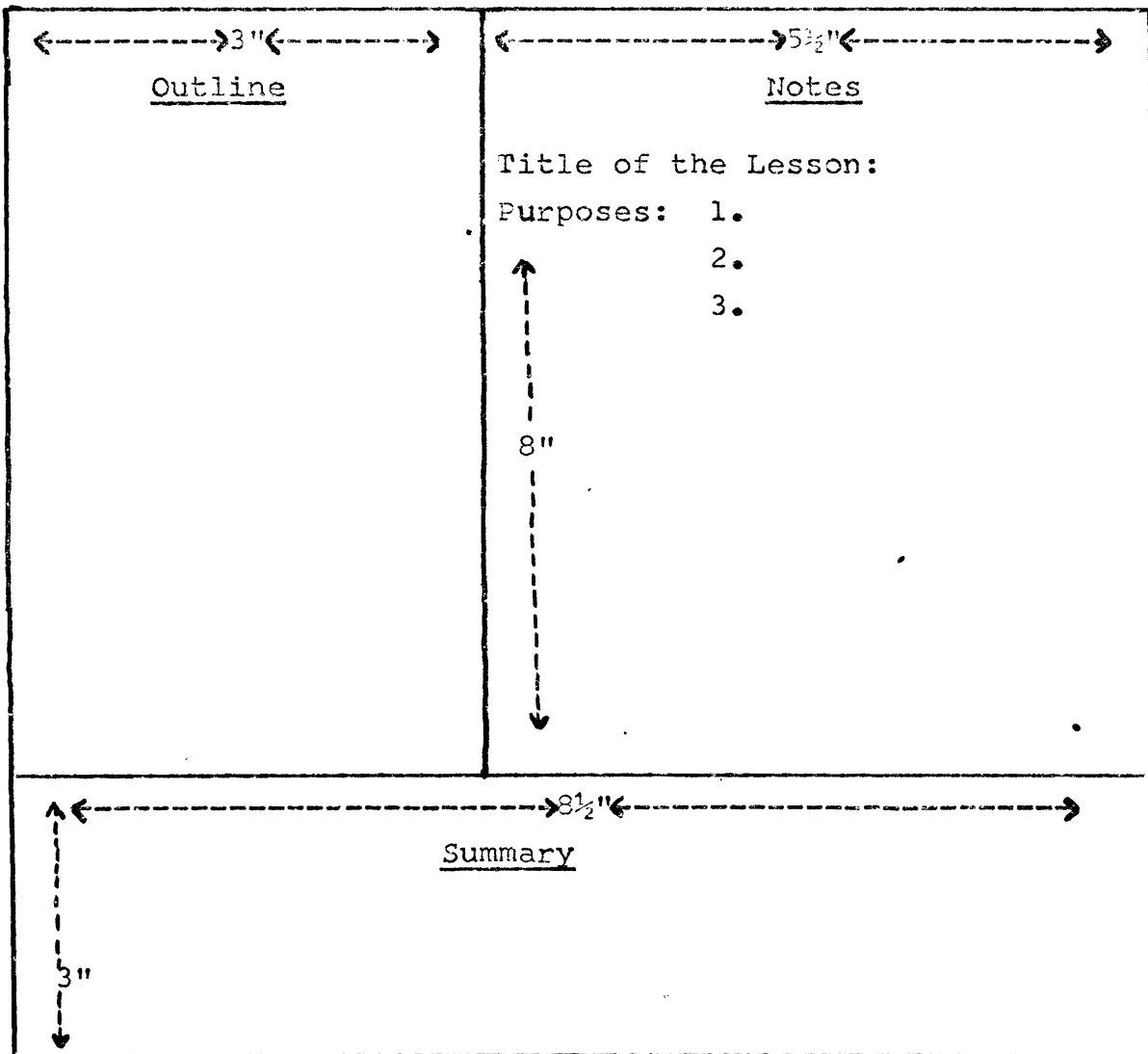
Figure 5.   The Outline—Summary Method
              of Notetaking.

First, a margin on the left-hand side is used to
outline the notes in a concise manner. Secondly, the
larger section to the right of the outline is used for the
actual notetaking. Thirdly, a summary is given on the
bottom of the page under the outline and the notes. Here,
the main points can again be listed and offet another
means of reviewing the notes in a different yet concise
manner.

Notes that are necessary from the textbook or
from the lecture are written in the right-hand section.
Then, any illustrations, graphs, or diagrams may be
sketched in to aid comprehension and memory. After that,
the notes may be converted into an outline. The final
step is writing a summary of the material which may be
helpful in remembering the material, too. This method
of notetaking may be used in taking lecture notes as well
as notes on a textbook or reference book.

The outline is a third way of taking notes.
Writing an outline may be done in several forms. The most
familiar form is the skeletal outline which may be written
using words, phrases, or sentences.

Topic

I.

    A.
    B.

II.

    A.
       1.
       2.
    B.
       1.
       2.

III.

    A.
    B.

Figure 6. Skeletal Outline.

A second form of an outline is the visual outline.
The supporting details are indented under the main ideas.
Further indentations are made for subdetails and any other
details.[1]
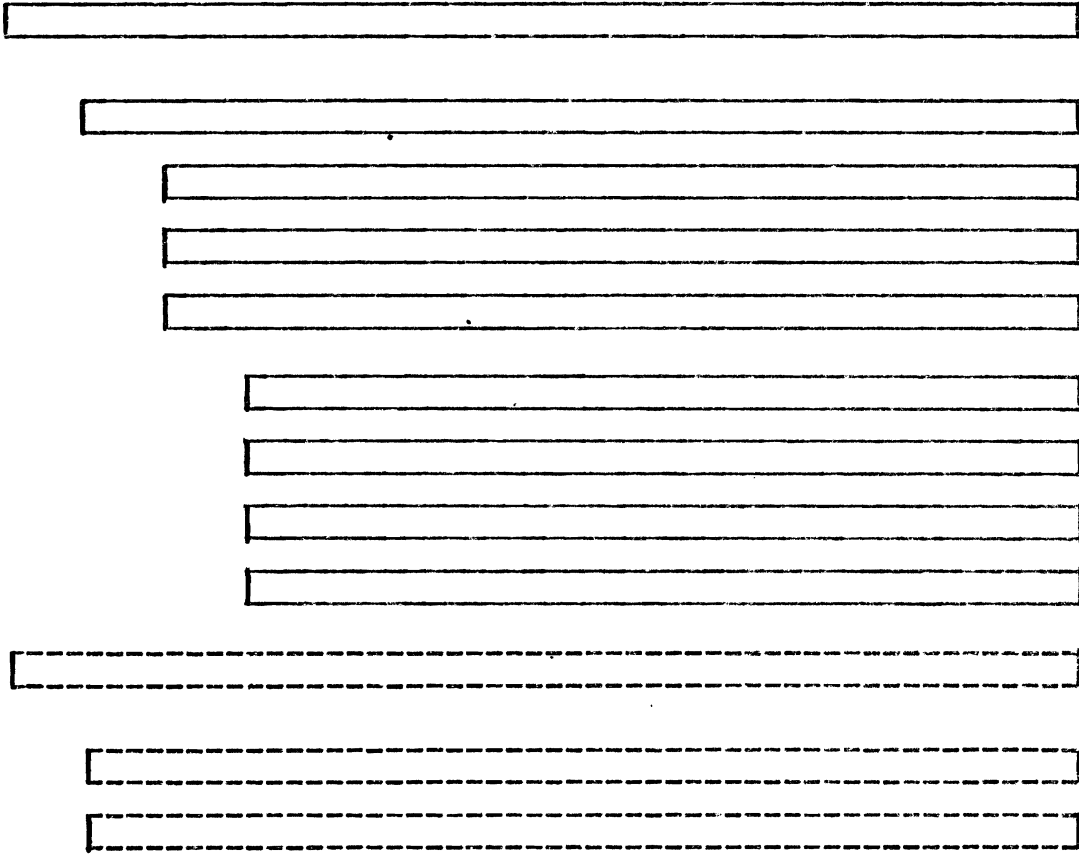
Figure 7. Visual Outline.[1]

A third method uses numbers only instead of
indenting supporting details or using upper and lower
case letters.

---

[1]Sister Mary Consilia, O. P., Ph. D., The Con-
sultant's Notebook, Part Three: Language Alert/Drills
and Skills for Efficient Reading and Writing (Libertyville,
Ill.: Media Workshop and Instructional Media Incorpor-
ated, 1974), p. 17.

```
1.0          Center Heading
1.1          Free-standing heading
1.1.1        Indented boldface heading
1.1.1.1      Paragraph main idea
1.1.1.1.1    Supporting detail
2.0          Center Heading
```

Figure 8. Outline Method Using Numbers.[1]

        Sometimes textbooks contain well-organized material.
Therefore, when the students write an outline, they follow
the author's organizational plan or pattern of the text-
book. For instance, the outline may be written as follows:

```
I.  Center Heading.

        A.  Free-standing heading
            1.  Indented boldface heading
            2.  Indented boldface heading
                a.  Paragraph main idea
                    1)  Supporting detail
                    2)  Supporting detail
                b.  Paragraph main idea
        B.  Free-standing heading

II. Center Heading.
```

Figure 9. Outline Using Well-Organized Textbook
               Material.[2]

        Study guides for textbooks or other materials
such as lectures or television lessons may be organized
in an outline form to assist the students in organizing
their ideas. An outline may be written and then cut

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[1]Lawrence E. Hafner, _Developmental Reading in
Middle and Secondary Schools: Foundations, Strategies,
and Skills for Teaching_ (New York: Macmillan Publishing
Co., 1977), p. 177.

[2]Ibid.

apart. The students either by themselves or with a partner may put the parts together to form the original outline after reading in their English textbooks about reference books.

American Language	Funk and Wagnall

The Bartlett's Book of Quotations

Dictionaries	The New Standard
Encyclopedias	Reference Books
Foreign Language	Who's Who in America
The World Almanac	The World Book

The Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature

I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	
A.	A.	B.	B.	C.		

DIRECTIONS:

1. Cut out each part of the outline on this page.

2. Organize your slips on paper with the correct Roman numeral, captial letter, or number, if any.

3. Mount your outline on construction paper after you have had your paper okayed. Use glue, paste, or tape.

The answer key for this outline follows on the next page.

ANSWER KEY: Answers may vary in the order in which the more specific reference books are given.

As long as the main topics, Dictionaries and Encyclopedias, have the supporting details, the order of the entries should be considered secondarily.

Title: Reference Books

I. Dictionaries

    A. American Language
    B. Foreign Language

II. Encyclopedias

    A. The World Book
    B. The New Standard
    C. Funk and Wagnall

III. The Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature

IV. The World Almanac

V. Who's Who in America

VI. The Bartlett's Book of Quotations

To practice writing an outline and to determine the main ideas and supporting details, a skeletal outline with the words along the right-hand side of the outline may be provided. The students would complete the outline in writing on a topic such as school subjects. An example of this outline writing exercise is presented on the next page.

As students understand the basic outline form and how each part of the outline is chosen as a main idea or a supporting idea and how it is arranged, parts of the outline may be left out. Then, the students with the teacher's assistance may complete the outline together. Practice such as this is beneficial because the students learn how to outline by being shown how and actively participating in the outlining process.

Outlining: A Word Outline

PURPOSE: To complete in writing a word outline.

Use the words to the right of the outline
to complete the outline structure supplied
on the left-hand side of the paper.

Title: _____

I. _____ Anthropology
  A. _____ Creation
    Decimals
  B. _____ English
    Fractions

II. _____ Genetics
  A. _____ Geography
    Geology
  B. _____ Mathematics
    Nouns

III. _____ Percentages
  A. _____ Political Science
    Religion
  B. _____ Resurrection
    Revelation
  C. _____
    School Subjects
IV. _____ Science
    Social Studies
  A. _____ Sociology
    Verbs
  B. _____

  C. _____

V. _____
  A. _____

  B. _____

  C. _____

  D. _____

The answer key for this practice outlining
exercise is found on the next page.

ANSWER KEY for Outlining: A Word Outline.

Title: School Subjects

I. English

    A. Nouns
    B. Verbs

II. Science

    A. Genetics
    B. Geology

III. Mathematic

    A. Fractions
    B. Decimals
    C. Percentages

IV. Religion

    A. Creation
    B. Resurrection
    C. Revelation

V. Social Studies

    A. Geography
    B. Political Science
    C. Anthropology
    D. Sociology

Another form of notetaking is the precis or summary. The main idea of the material to be summarized is maintained, but the students write their ideas in their own words.

The last method of notetaking to be mentioned will be the chart. Sometimes taking notes in columns or in a chart assists in keeping the notes orderly and easy to read for reference in the future. Two examples of the chart form of notetaking will be illustrated in social studies first and then in English or Language Arts.

Comparison and Contrast of Indian Groups

Categories	SIOUX	YAHI	AZTEC
FOOD			
FOOD PREPARATION			
CLOTHING			
TOOLS			
FARMING METHODS			

Chart 4. Chart Form of Notetaking in Social Studies.

Ways Words Are Added to Our Language

Ways American English Grows	Specific Examples

Chart 5. Chart Form of Notetaking in Language Arts.

Vocabulary

Teachers select terms and concepts to be defined.
When vocabulary words are introduced to the students, the
teachers should be very selective in choosing only the key
words or key concepts that are to be defined. The words
could be put on the boards, but the students should see the
words in context either in their textbooks, on study
sheets, or on the chalkboard. Time should be provided to
pronounce the words. The teacher may ask for volunteers
to read the words, and a discussion may be held to deter-
mine the meaning of the word from context, phonetically,
or by structural analysis. If the students have difficulty
determining the meanings of the words, further discussion
should be held to formulate definitions. Vague word mean-
ings could be investigated by a committee who would use
reference materials to determine the meanings. Further
discussion should clarify the meaning. Then, the words
plus their meanings and a sentence example should be
written in the students' notebooks along with illustra-
tions for the words, if available or possible, from the
textbook.[1] The students should use the words during class
time and during group discussions so that they will become
a part of their active or speaking vocabulary. The students
should be encouraged to use their new vocabulary words out-
side of school also.

Too many words and concepts introduced in one class
period may overwhelm the students, and these words and con-
cepts may frustrate the students. Since word meaning
skills do not develop by chance, the teacher must provide
planned, sequential instruction in the use of word meaning
skills. Word meanings could be developed through the

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[1]Paul Witty, Reading in Modern Education (Boston:
D. C. Heath and Co., 1949), p. 194.

repeated and meaningful uses of words in content, in foot-
notes, in a glossary or dictionary, and in the speaking
vocabulary of the students and teachers.[1]

 <u>Students' vocabularies grow in a number of ways.</u>
The students' knowledge of prefixes, suffixes, and root
words will increase their vocabulary and word analysis
ability. "Knowing prefixes and suffixes will help students
in three main ways: (1) to recognize many words easily
and more quickly; (2) to figure out many words that are
not recognized at first by the students; and (3) to get a
clearer understanding of the meaning of many words."[2]

<center>

misspelled

mis spell ed
</center>

mis - a prefix meaning <u>wrong</u>

spell - a root word or base word

ed - a suffix represented by the <u>-ed</u> and is the past tense
  of the verb, <u>spell</u>

   Diagram **3.** Word Analysis: Affixes and Root.

Also, students can gain word meaning through context
clues, and finally, the dictionary which should be the
last resource used for finding the word's meaning.

 Audio-visual aids, for example, filmstrips,
cassette tapes, the radio, and the television, plus
word lists and hobbies can increase the students' vocabu-
laries. Field trips may assist the students to formulate
mental illustrations for concepts and word meaning that they
have learned in the classroom. Students need first

---

[1]Bernice E. Leary and William S. Gray, "Reading
Problems in Content Fields," in <u>Reading in General Educa-
tion</u>, ed. William S. Gray (Washington, D. C.: American
Council on Education, 1940), p. 168.

[2]Edwin R. Rogers, <u>Johnny's Reading Skills</u>
(St. Petersburg, Florida: Johnny Reads, 1965), p. 140.

hand experience so that clear concepts can be developed
to associate the meanings with the words. Pictures can
clarify confusing terms necessary in reading maps that
study terrain, for instance.

Wide reading will also enable the students to
extend their experiences in such a way so as to increase
and enhance their vocabularies.[1] Crossword puzzles are
another means of improving the students' vocabularies.
Also, in the crossword puzzles, the content material from
the textbook could be used as a basis for the word mean-
ing information. The example of a crossword puzzle for
the Depression illustrates this point. These crossword
puzzles could be made for varying reading abilities as
differentiated assignments. Noticing similarities and
differences in words and finding homonyms and synonyms
for words would help the students' vocabularies grow.

In learning concepts the students may need a
general view of history to place a specific event into
sequence, such as the life of Napoleon Bonaparte. The
facts should be organized so that the students can see
the relationships between events. A "time-perspective"
should be thought out possibly in the form of a time
line.[3] Time concepts can be learned and interpreted
through several methods: pictorial symbols, verbal or
statistical information, historical dates, or location of
dates through the association with other events.[4] In
geography place concepts may be learned and interpreted

---

[1]Witty, _Reading in Modern Education_, p. 103.

[2]Ibid., p. 94.

[3]Leary and Gray, "Reading Problems in Content
Field," p. 169.

[4]Ibid., pp. 168-169.

if the students know the meaning of map symbols, and if the
students can read and interpret graphs and pictorial charts.[1]

   Teachers lay the foundation for reading. Teachers
must lay the groundwork or foundation for reading a text-
book by identifying concepts and terms to be stressed or
emphasized for study by the students. Since words, their
meanings, and their pronunciations are all essential to
reading, the basis for concepts will involve the students'
listening, speaking, reading and writing vocabularies.[2]

> Before entering school, the child has
> already acquired extensive listening and
> speaking vocabularies. When the child
> enters school, he begins to acquire two
> additional types of vocabulary: a
> reading vocabulary and a writing vocab-
> ulary.[3]

   How can these concepts and necessary terms be
determined? The information is right at hand: (1) word
lists used in the introduction or the teachers' section
of a textbook; (2) the teachers' manual section which may
be a separate book from the students' textbooks; (3)
teachers may use the new material to be read as a guide to
terms by skimming the material first; and (4) teachers
may keep a list of difficult words found in a unit of
study.[4]

   By introducing the terms and by having the students
listen, speak, read, and write the words, many methods
may be used to introduce the words in meaningful situations.

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[1]Ibid., pp. 169-171.

[2]Lawrence W. Carrillo, *Teaching Reading: A Hand
book* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1976), p. 58.

[3]Larry D. Kennedy, *Teaching Elementary Language
Arts* (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1975), p. 122.

[4]John Udell Michaelis, *Social Studies for Children
in a Democracy Recent Trends and Developments* (Englewood
Cliffs, N. J.:   Prentice-Hall, 1976), p. 362.

Students may come into contact with the words in a way
that is best for their particular learning need; thus
making it possible to reach individual pupil needs.

Context clues assist students in uncovering word
meaning.

```
                        Language Skills
    Printed message    Decoding Skills        Guess
                        Expectations
                                           Check on the guess

                                           Dictionary,
                                           Thesaurus, and/or
                                           Other reference
                                           books

                                           Meaning of the word,
                                           printed message
```
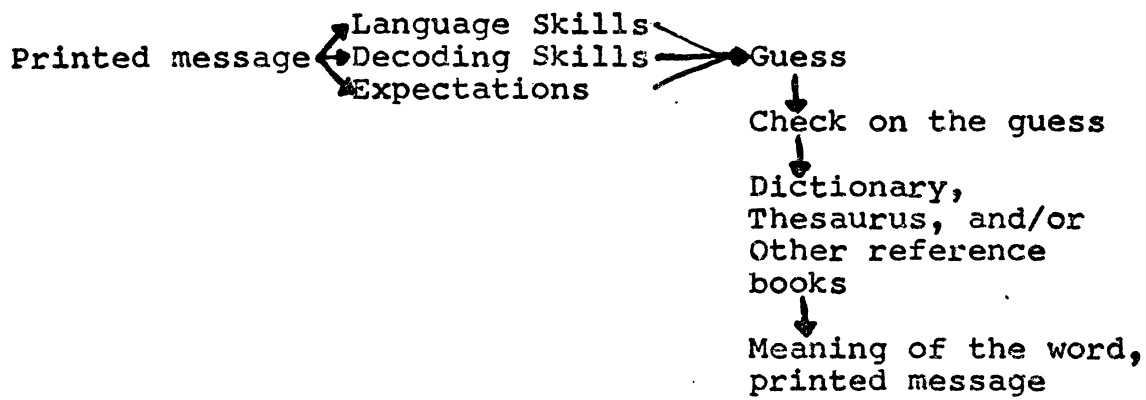
Diagram 3. Vocabulary: Language or Context Clues.[1]

Context clues are valuable in determining the mean-
ing of words. Robinson in his book, Teaching Reading and
Study Strategies, presents the use of "semantic context"
in eight specific ways.[2] First of all, a word's meaning
may be determined by a statement of meaning which may
appear in one of four ways: (1) statement in parentheses;
(2) statement in apposition; (3) a formal definition; or
(4) a subsequent statement. A second way of using context
clues is by example. Words may be defined through context
in six other ways: third way, definition by synonym after
a linking verb or after the word, or; fourth, definition by
experience either life experiences, vicarious experiences,

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[1]Ivan J. Quandt, Teaching Reading: A Human Process
(Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing Co., 1977), p. 12.

[2]H. Alan Robinson, Teaching Reading and Study
Strategies: The Content Areas (Boston: Allyn & Bacon,
1975), pp. 62-65.

or language experiences; fifth, definition by description; sixth, definition by comparison; seventh, definition by contrast; and eighth reflection of intent, mood, tone, or setting.[1]

Numerous vocabulary building techniques are available. Michaelis in his book lists twelve vocabulary building techniques. The four main vocabulary building techniques are (1) "independent decoding or word recognition skills; (2) phonetic analysis; and, above all, (3) structural analysis; and (4) context clues which increase in importance as the students advance to the upper grades and high school."[2]

Besides these four techniques, Michaelis has eight other vocabulary building techniques that are just as useful as the four techniques previously mentioned: (5) picture clues; (6) first hand experience through films, field trips, demonstrations, the processing of materials, or dramatic play; (7) group discussion to define terms, give explanations, correct misconceptions, list difficult words, point out changes in word meanings, use roots to build new terms or consider specific questions; (8) directed listening and oral reading by introducing new terms and concepts; (9) vocabulary aids like card files, word lists, scrapbooks, or picture dictionaries; (10) pictures collected to illustrate terms and concepts; (11) glossaries; and, lastly, (12) dictionaries.[3]

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Michaelis, Social Studies for Children in a Democracy Recent Trends and Developments, pp. 363-364.

[3] Ibid.

Activities for vocabulary growth provide a variety
of ways to present new material, reinforce previously used
and learned terms and concepts, and review the essential
parts of the lesson. Another way of using vocabulary
activities is to provide for individual differences in
learning speed, learning style, learning specific material
within the content areas and with regard to this paper in
particular the content areas of Language Arts and social
studies, by using these activities to create or develop
differentiated vocabulary assignments, skill sheets, study
lessons, enrichment activities or activities to do for
free time or just for fun.

Suggestions and examples of vocabulary activities
are provided on the following pages to assist the reader.
Probably many of these ideas are not new, but there is
an attempt to gather ideas that are relatively easy to
present to students and require a minimum of extra work
and time that is so precious to teachers. A few activities
require more time and planning, but they are activities
that will be useful for times to come.

The emphasis of the activities for vocabulary
building is the content areas of Language Arts which
includes Reading and Spelling and social studies. These
activities may be modified to be built into any content
area's curricula provided that the teachers set aside
the time in their planning schedule for such activities
and their development.

POLITICAL   America during the Depression
SCIENCE
         "The Only Thing We Have to Fear," Pages 60-69.

DOWN

1. _____ income tax.

2. President during the first three years of the Depression.

3. Social _____ Act.

4. "Hoover blankets" was another name for _____ tucked inside a shirt to keep warm.

5. "_____ the Court."

6. Because some companies could not sell their _____, their stock lost value.

7. Gives a person part ownership in a business.

8. In 1932 sawmill workers earned about _____ cents an house.

9. This act gave rights to unions.

ACROSS

10. _____ of the 1920's was built on credit, faith, and nothing else.

11. In the election of 1932, Roosevelt won all the states south and _____ of Pennsylvania.
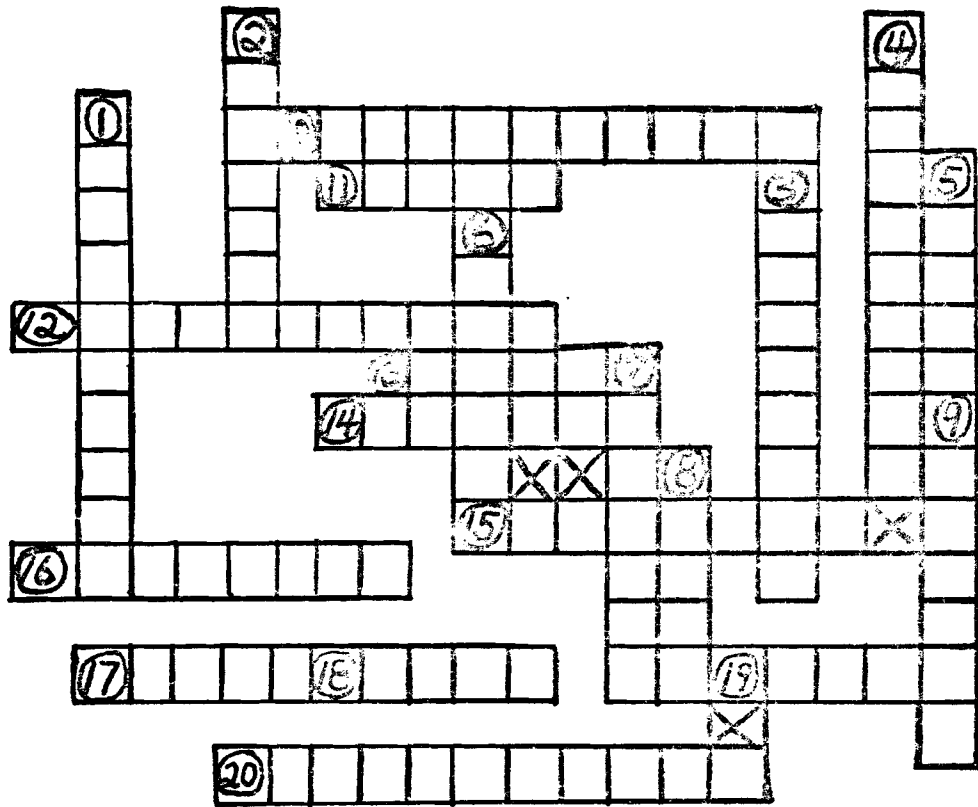
ACROSS

12. Stock Market Crash started the Great _____.

13. Many people _____ faith in American free enterprise system in 1929.

14. In the late 1920's there were more _____ than people could buy.

15. Excess money given to stockholders.

16. Spending more money than the government had; going into debt.

17. F. D. R.'s plan for recovery was the New _____.

19. "Power of the ballot" meant a person could _____ for another President as leader.

20. Another name for free enterprise is _____.

Answer Key:

Down	Across
1. graduated	10. Prosperity
2. Hoover	11. west
3. Security	12. Depression
4. newspaper	13. lost
5. Pack	14. radios
6. goods	15. profits
7. stocks	16. deficit
8. five	17. much
9. Wagner	18. Deal
	19. vote
	20. capitalism

Concentration

1. Find a meaning for each word given to you.

2. Use the glossary or a dictionary for the meanings.

3. Write the meaning for the word on your paper.

4. Then, write the word on one card given to you.

5. Write the meaning of the word on another card.

6. Do not put the word and the meaning on the same card.

DIRECTIONS FOR PLAYING CONCENTRATION:

1. Collect the cards from your group and put them together in a deck.

2. Shuffle the cards.

3. Cut the cards and reshuffle them.

4. The dealer will place the cards on the table in neat rows. For example:
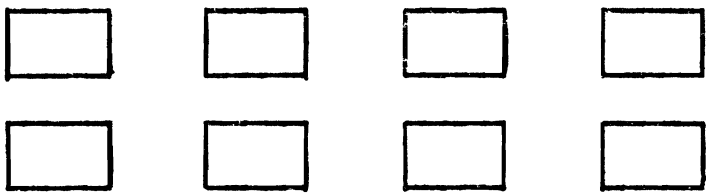
5. The object of the game is to match a word with its meaning.

6. A person or player who matches the cards, the word and the meaning cards, takes the pair of cards off the table and takes another turn until matches of the cards are no longer made.

7. When a match is made, the other cards are not moved, but they are left in the same places.
   a. If a person matches a pair, another turn is given.
   b. The game continues until all the cards are matched.
      (1) Each card equals one point.
      (2) The scores are totaled at the end of the game.
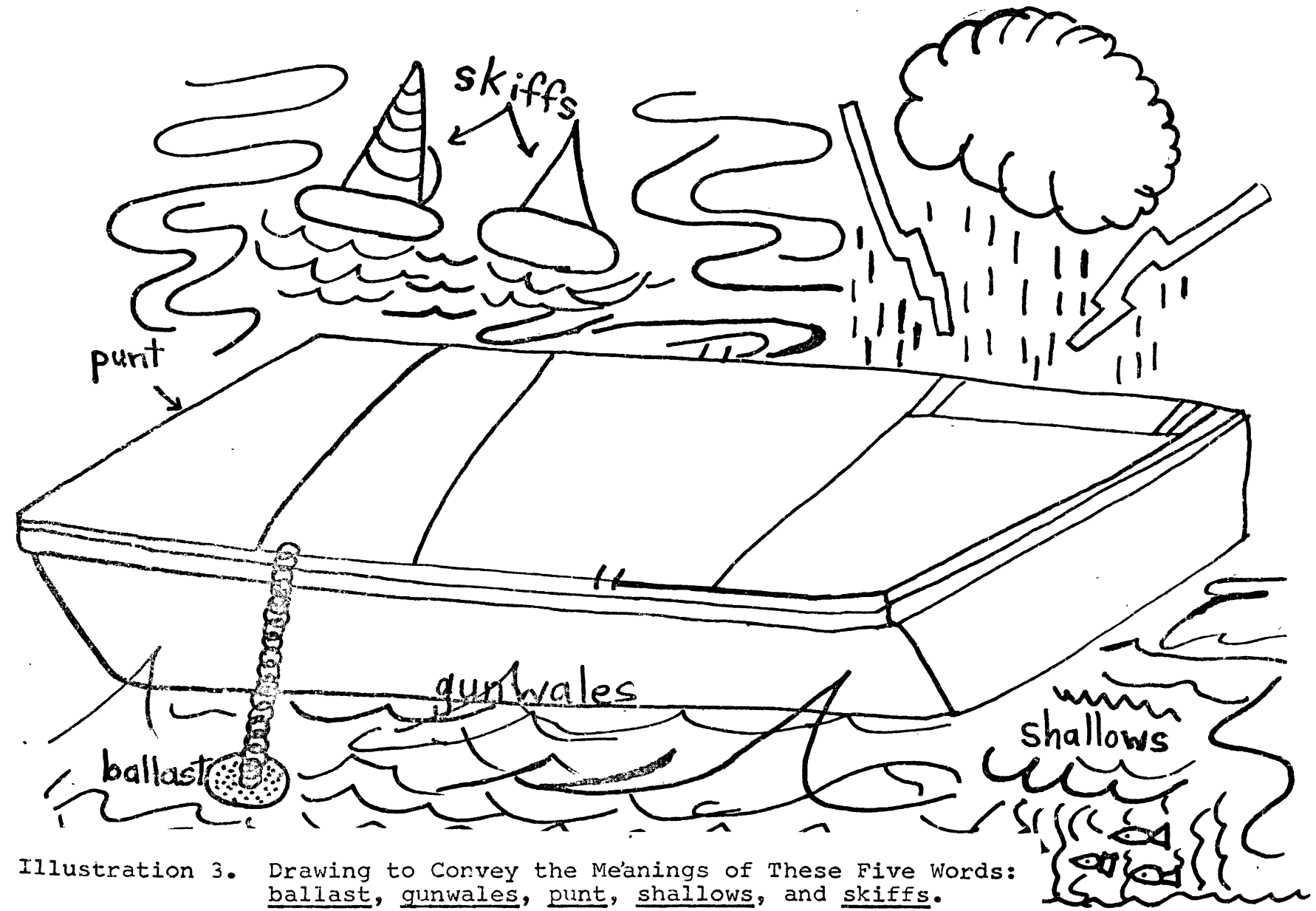
Illustration 3. Drawing to Convey the Meanings of These Five Words:
ballast, gunwales, punt, shallows, and skiffs.
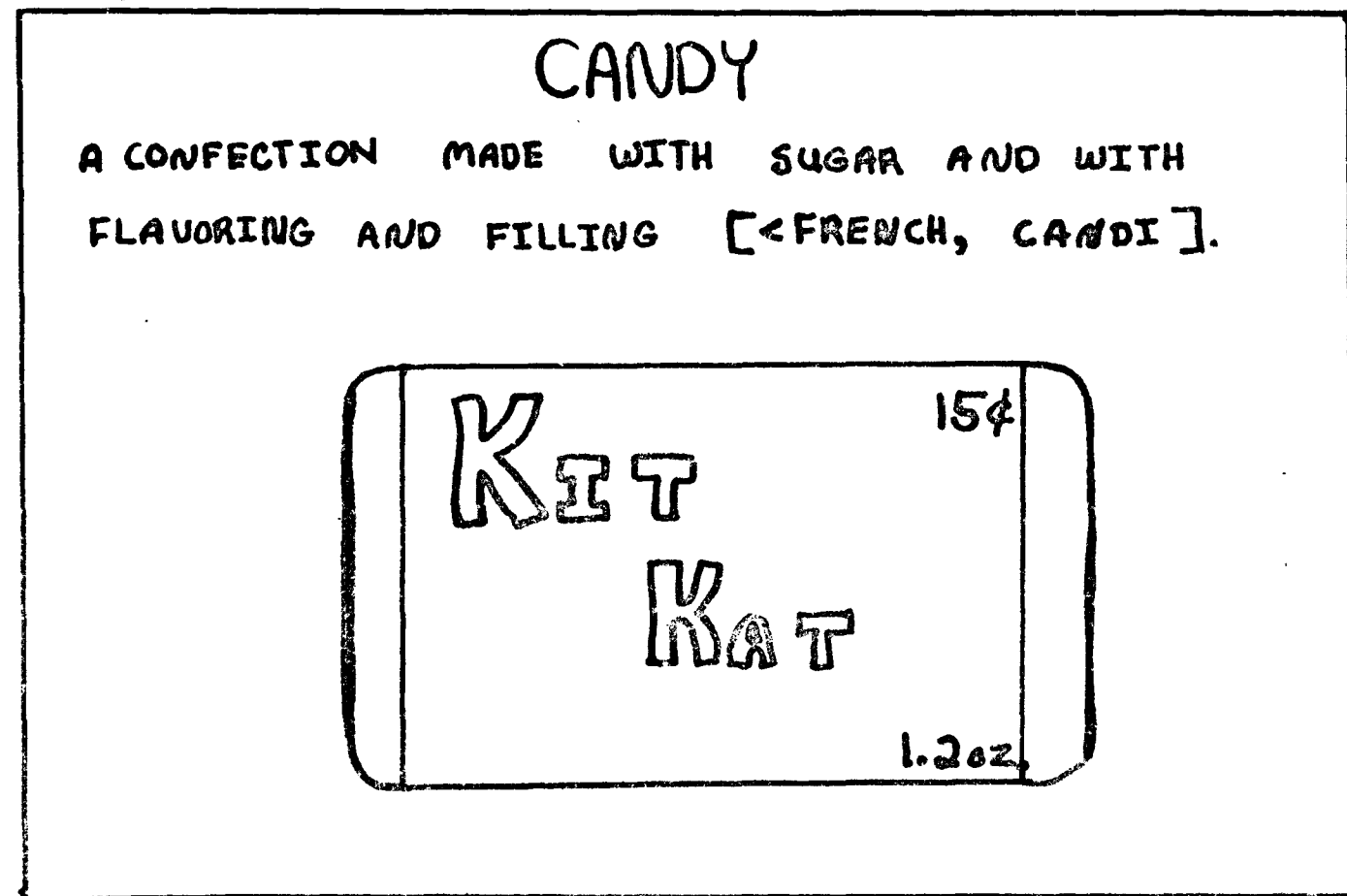
Illustration 4. An Example of an Activity to Do with Word Etymologies.
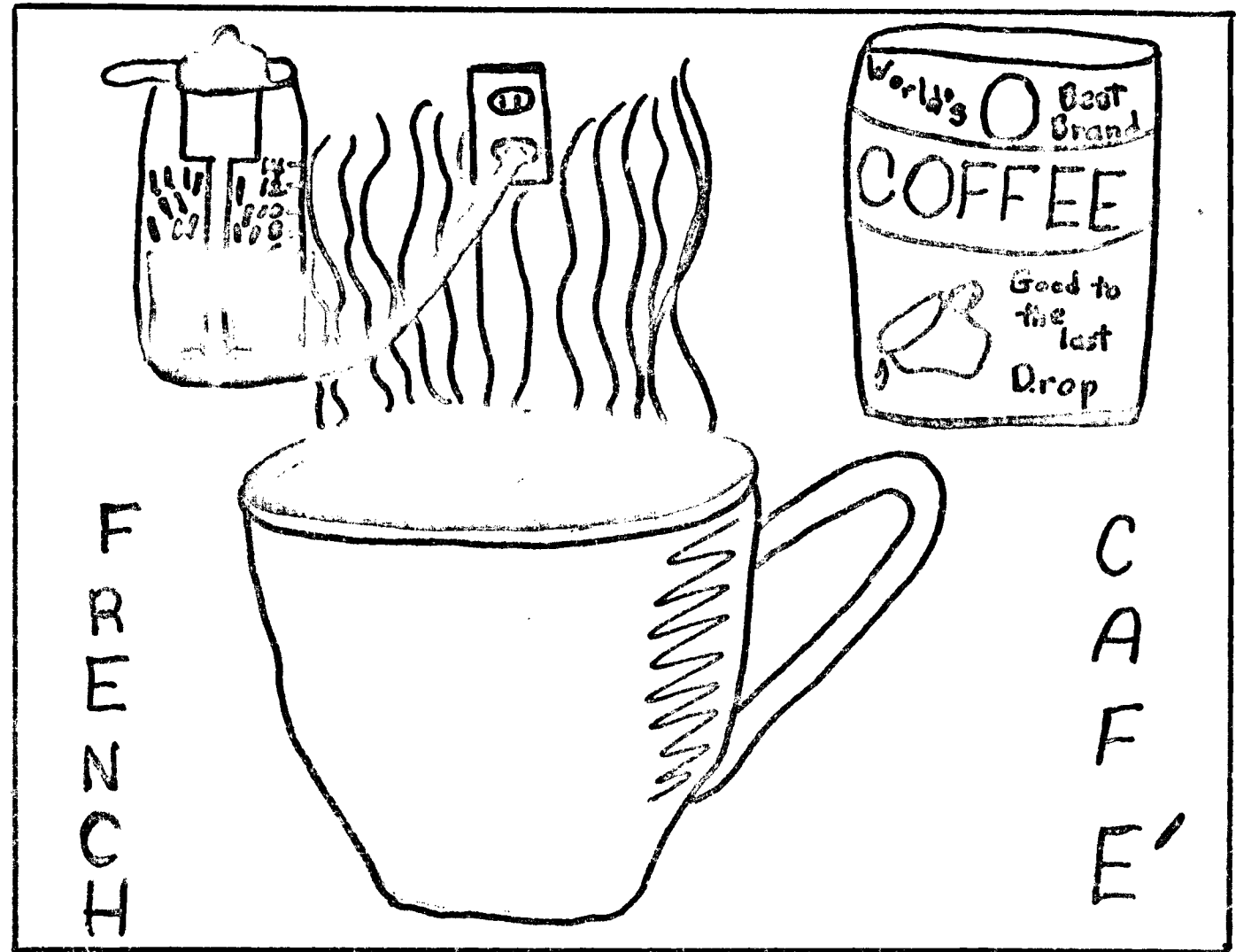
Illustration 5. Another Example of an Activity to Do When Studying Word Etymologies.

NAME_____

SUBJECT_____

DATE_____

GRADE_____

FIND THE CORRECT WORD MEANING

<u>DIRECTIONS</u>: 1. Match the meaning in Column A with the underlined word in the sentence in Column B.
2. Place the letter from Column B on the line provided in Column A.

COLUMN A	COLUMN B
_____1. Methodical in habit.	A. <u>Summarize</u> the story in fifty of your own words.
_____2. Overpowering.	B. Did you <u>encroach</u> on your neighbor's property?
_____3. Trespass; intrude.	
_____4. Not taking sides.	C. The ship received a <u>lateral</u> blow from the torpedo.
_____5. Fitness.	D. The train's whistle let out a <u>prolonged</u> blast as it passed the railroad crossing.
_____6. To extend.	
_____7. Busy.	E. Patty Hearst was <u>quizzed</u> on her life after her kidnapping.
_____8. To examine by close questioning.	F. Seeing everyone eating made the food <u>irresistible</u> to me.
_____9. To present briefly.	
_____10. Coming from the side.	G. When Peter is working, he looks very <u>industrious</u>.
	H. Getting their homework and chores done requires <u>systematic</u> planning.
	I. Her <u>eligibility</u> on the volleyball team depended on her ability to serve.
	J. The U. S. was <u>neutral</u> until the bombing of Pearl Harbor.

For the <u>Dial-A-Word</u> activity card a few simple
materials are necessary, cardboard, scissors, a compass or
a precut circle, paste, glue, or staples and a stapler,
colored markers, and two brass fasteners. (1) A large
rectangular piece of cardboard is the basis of the activity
card. (2) Two thinner rectangular pieces of cardboard about
three inches by one half inch form the area that the root
of the word insert slides through to view each root
separately. These pieces are pasted onto the middle area
of the larger cardboard piece which is about **nine** inches
by **twelve** inches. About one half inch of space is left
between the pieces. The ends are secured on the cardboard
for about one inch. The remainder of the small rectangular
pieces is free from the cardboard. Paste, glue or staples
may secure the ends of the cardboard to hold up against a
lengthy workout or usage. (3) Either draw two circles
with a compass or trace a precut circle. Cut out both
circles. (4) Divide each circle into eighths. (5) One
circle will have the following prefixes printed on in each
of the eighths: <u>re-</u>, <u>un-</u>, <u>dis-</u>, <u>phono-</u>, <u>tele-</u>, <u>sub-</u>, <u>auto-</u>,
and <u>multi-</u>. Care should be taken in printing so that all
hyphens are closest to the center of the circle. (6) For
the suffixes these should be printed in the eights as shown
in the diagram: <u>-ed</u>, <u>-ment</u>, <u>-y</u>, <u>-ion</u>, <u>-or</u>, <u>-ly</u>, <u>-ship</u>,
and an empty space in case some words do not require a
suffix to form a word. For the suffix circle all the
hyphens should be pointing toward the outside of the circle
rather than the center as with the prefix circle. (7) Brass
fasteners should be placed through the center of the circles
and through the large piece of cardboard to attach them.
(8) The insert for the roots should be made narrow enough
to fit inbetween the cardbaord pieces in the middle of the
card. The insert should be made of cardboard. The roots
which should be printed on the cardboard are shown on the
following page.

Root Insert for Dial-A-Word:

```
color

graph

ject

act

friend

establish
```

Dial-A-Word has a number of possible word combinations. Below are listed some of the possible word combinations.

Word List:

1. react
2. reaction
3. friendship
4. establishment
5. discolor
6. multicolor
7. multicolored
8. disestablishment
9. autograph
10. phonograph
11. multiaction
12. reject
13. unfriendly
14. subject
15. subjected
16. telegraphed

Make-A-Word is an activity for spelling. The circles are twisted on the brass fasteners so that words of five letter are made. A possible word list for Make-A-Word are given below:

1. salad
2. talon
3. lever
4. piper
5. saver
6. penal
7. polar
8. solar
9. tenor
10. level
11. solid
12. liver
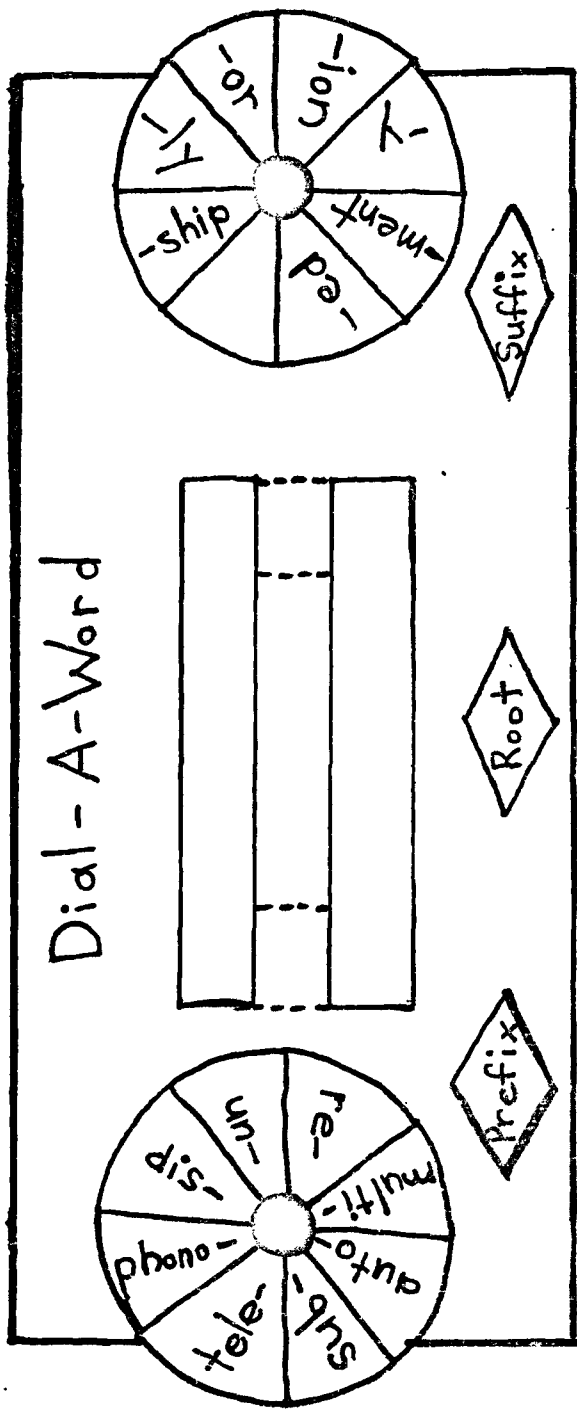
Illustration 6. Dial-A-Word.
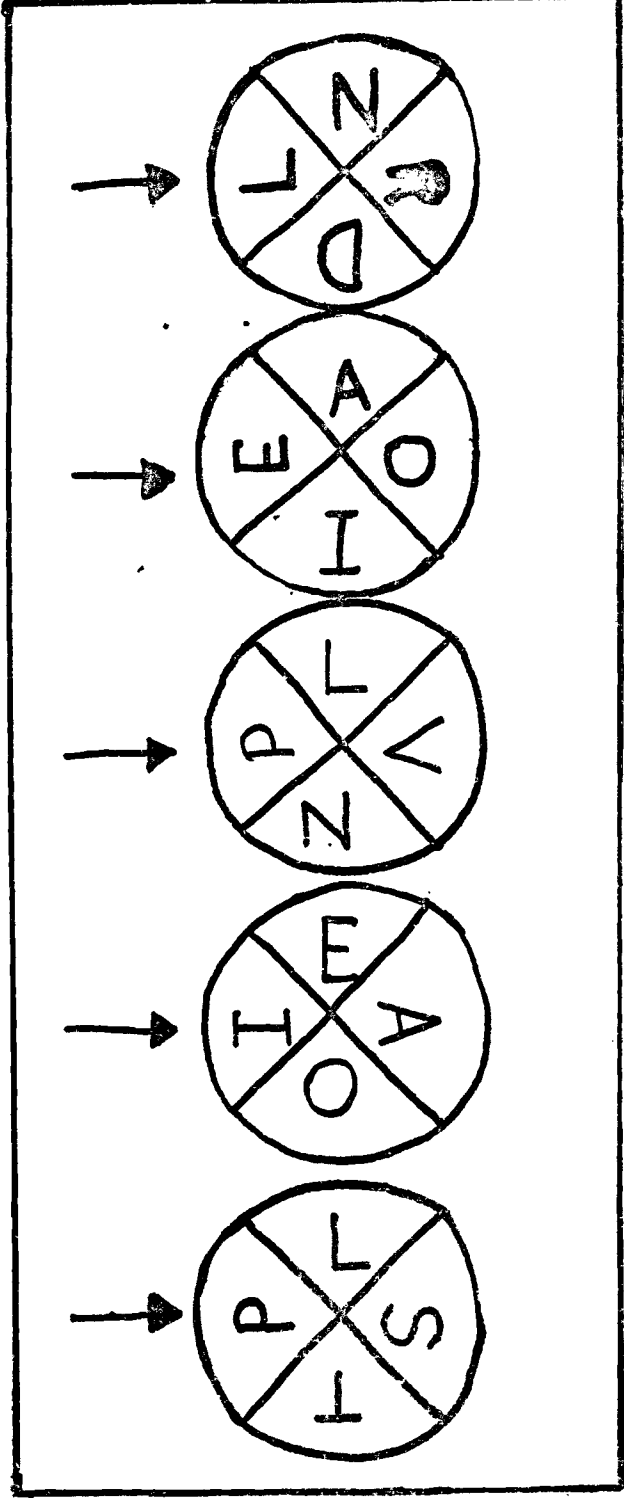
Illustration 7. Make-A-Word.

Organizing reports and papers

Report writing, a stepping stone. Organization is
like a stepping stone. We step along a path which leads
us to a world of "Do It Right Now" instead of procrastina-
ting. These stepping stones make it easy to follow a cer-
tain line or thought. Extracurricular consumption of time
and effort is not allowed. While time is used wisely, steps
are marked off showing completed work. This leads us to a
goal of completing a task, peace of mind, and satisfaction
in "a job well done."

Before a research paper is introduced in the eighth
grade English class, several other materials are introduced
to the students mainly because the organization of their
textbook is followed. In their textbook, Ginn Elements of
English 8, chapter 8, "The Reporter's World," presents the
mass media by introducing the two main divisions: the
electronic media and the printed media. Then, a newspaper
unit is begun as a media of information. Newspaper articles
are classified into types, analyzed, and written. Students
collect each type of newspaper article and label it. They
analyze the subjectivity or the objectivity of the news
article, and they learn to write leads, headlines, and
finally, the actual article. Since the eighth graders are
responsible for the publishing of the school newspaper, an
opportunity is available to the students to use their
skills and see them in print. After being presented this
information, the students start a unit on report writing.

Report preparation. Bringing information to others
and presenting them with new ideas and thoughts to consider
is an important part of writing, especially a report.
A topic must be chosen, then limited if necessary, researched,
organized, written, proofread, rewritten, and lastly, the
final touches for the written paper must be added such as

illustrations, footnotes, a bibliography, an appendix, if needed, and a cover for the report.

Necessary tools. For writing a report, several tools are necessary: (1) library research skills which include using the card catalogue, locating the books on the library shelves, and using the book's table of contents and index; (2) encyclopedia locational skills; and (3) specific reference book skills such as using The Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature, Roget's Thesaurus, and The World Almanac; (4) organizing and writing a bibliography; (5) notetaking; (6) writing an outline; (7) writing footnotes; and (8) writing skills such as spelling, penmanship, punctuation, using complete sentences, sentence variety, and paragraph development. Notetaking and outlining have been discussed in a previous section; therefore, this information will be deleted from the report writing section.

Topic choice. Students may either be assigned to groups or select their own groups to discuss choosing topics for writing a report, limiting their topic to one specific approachable idea, and formulating questions that may guide the students during their library research.[1] Together they will choose a topic, for instance, the mass media. Since this topic is too broad, some narrowing of the scope of this topic will be necessary. Moving from the mass media to the topic, movies, would be another step in limiting the topic. Yet at this point, the topic is not sufficiently limited. Diagram 5 points out how the topic may be limited in scope so a report may be written.

---

[1] Ellen T. Kerrigan, M. Ed.; Lena T. Trojano, M. Ed.; Mary C. Concannon, Ph. D.; Margaret M. Hock; and Constant J. De Cotiis, Ph. D., Patterns of English I (New York: William H. Sadlier, 1968), p. 76.

```
General or broad topic--Mass media
                        Movies
                        Movies of 1977
Specific or narrowed    "Star Wars"
topic-------------------The Special Effects Used
                        in Making "Star Wars"
```

Diagram 5. Limiting a Topic.

Therefore, The Special Effects Used in Making "Star Wars" is an example of a possible topic to use. Once the topic choice is narrowed, questions should be formulated and then written out for reference during the writing of the research paper. Some examples of questions are presented as follows:

Questions:

1. What were some of the special effects used in the movies, "Star Wars"?

2. How were these special effects accomplished?

3. Who was responsible for these accomplishments?

4. What types of materials, knowledge, and movie techniques were necessary to develop the special effects?

5. How were the robots built to walk and talk?

6. After seeing the movie, "Star Wars," what is my opinion of the effectiveness of these special effects?

7. Where can the answers to these questions be obtained?

References:

a. The movie, "Star Wars"

b. TV Special, "Behind the Scenes of 'Star Wars' "

c. Book entitled, Star Wars

d. Write to the producer or director of the movie "Star Wars" concerning the special effects

e. Milwaukee Public Library's Ready Reference, 278-3011, for the address of the producer or director of "Star Wars"

f. Research topics from the subject file in the card catalogue: movies and special effects, films, making movies

Once the topic is narrowed and the questions are determined, it is possible to start the research involved in writing a report. Areas to search for current information at the library would be (1) current periodicals; (2) the newspapers; (3) the vertical file; (4) The Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature; (5) books on movies and special effects; (6) call Ready Reference; or (7) ask the librarian to assist you. Sometimes television specials may be of assistance or special radio programs. Phonograph records and albums may be beneficial too. It may be beneficial to watch for these special in the TV Guide for television programs and the local listings in the newspapers for radio programs and records.

Since the topic was limited, a statement of purpose was written next.

Statement of purpose. When writing a statement of purpose, it is important to remember several factors: (1) the audience's interests, age, vocabulary level, and previous understanding of the topic; (2) the main point of the report; (3) the questions posed and their respective answers; and (4) a plan of action such as what will be proved, questioned, explained, told about, or illustrated. When the statement of purpose is written and revised, research may continue to the next step.

Writing for a Particular Audience

1. Keep your audience interested

2. Have neat handwriting

3. Remember to punctuate sentences correctly

4. Write appropriately for the audience using the appropriate language style

5. Vary the writing vocabulary according to the age level of the group

6. Know what will be written about in the paper

7. Determine who the audience will be

8. Choose an appropriate type of letter, business or friendly, if one is to be written

9. Have a good attitude toward the audience

Chart 6. Writing for a Particular Audience.

Three time savers in doing research for a paper or report are as follows. First, seek bibliographies compiled by authors on a specific topic or written at the end of a chapter or at the end of a book. Secondly, write the call number on your bibliography cards so that the book may be found later if it is needed. Thirdly, write the library's name or abbreviation on your bibliography cards if you use more than one library for your research. This will assist the researcher to locate a book quickly.

Following the establishment of the purpose for writing, the criteria for the written report was established. The students were given a checklist to keep track of the completed parts of the paper, and the teacher had a corresponding checklist for each student. Notes, dates, and conference comments were listed on the students' sheets.

An example of the checklist may be found on the following page. Specific expectations for the report are discussed, and a listing of how each student will be graded is provided during the discussion so the students know exactly what will be expected of them. An example of the written report grading sheet is found below.

Written Report Grading Sheet

Name: _____

Subject: _____

Date: _____ Grade: _____

Topic: _____

Grades

Cover: _____

Outline: _____

Bibliography form: _____

Footnotes, if any: _____

Neatness: _____

Spelling: _____

Capitalization: _____

Punctuation: _____

Penmanship: (Ink/Typed): _____

Organization: _____

Development of topic: _____

Sentence structure and variety: _____

OVERALL GRADE: _____

COMMENTS:

LANGUAGE

    LITERATURE

        COMPOSITION

            READING

                SPEAKING

                    LISTENING

                        WRITING

Research Paper Checklist

(See textbook for English 8, pages 195-196.)

DUE DATES

_____Topic approved.

_____Bibliography cards started.

_____Note cards, 3"x5" index cards, bought; or paper cut to 3"x5" size.

_____Decide on a statement of purpose and write it out. (P. 189, EX. A)

_____Bibliography cards completed.

_____Note cards completed.

_____Organize notes and write an outline. (P. 189, EX. B)

_____Describe the audience you are writing for. (P. 189, EX. C)

DUE DATES

_____Write an opening paragraph that will catch the attention of the reader. (P. 189, EX. D)

_____Write a second short paragraph to introduce ideas and purpose. (P. 189, EX. E)

_____Write your first draft.

_____Revise the first draft.

_____Develop a conclusion.

_____Second draft.

_____Bibliography page completed.

_____Whole paper completed.

Due dates are estimated for the first four expecta-
tions, and then, the other due dates can be adjusted
accordingly. Depending on the students' working speeds,
due dates may be modified to adjust to the students'
abilities. Therefore, flexibility would be essential for
estimating future due dates for each individual as the
writing and research of the report progressed. A time span
of a week or more may be given for each of these tasks
after a definite due date is established: bibliography
cards and basic research, and two days may be given for the
statement of purpose if need be. More time and teacher
guidance may be needed for some students who have difficulty
in planning, learning, or studying.

When each skill has been introduced, the students
who could work faster were allowed to work ahead of the
established due dates if they could fulfill the given
expectations and have their research report checked at
specific agreed upon intervals. At this point, the speed
of the report writing is not as important as learning the
steps of report writing and completing them and the report.

An outline of the steps in writing a report as
shown in diagram 6 may be written on the chalkboard or on
a transparency. An alternative to the diagram would be
the drawing of the stepping stones, figure 10, Stepping
Stones to Completing a Research Report, may be given to the
students on a duplicated sheet to assist them in determin-
ing the major steps in writing a research report or the
stepping stones may be used to create a bulletin board
for reference during the report writing unit.

On this page the diagram which summarizes the steps in writing a report in outline form will be presented.

Steps in Writing a Research Report

I. Topic Choice

II. Limitation of the Topic

III. Bibliography Cards--Started

IV. Statement of Purpose and Audience Evaluation

V. Preliminary Research--General Information

VI. Revision of the Statement of Purpose

VII. Research--Specific Information and Notetaking

VIII. Notecards--Started

IX. Outline Development

X. Bibliography Cards and Notecards--Completed

XI. Organization of the Report and Report Writing

XII. Proofreading

XIII. Revision of the Report

XIV. Bibliography, Footnotes, and Appendix or Appendixes

XV. Good Copy of the Report

XVI. Completed Research Report

Diagram 6. Summary of the Steps in Writing a Report: An Outline.

On the following page the drawing representing the stepping stones toward completing a research report will be shown. Instead of presenting the library research skills after the drawing, they will be discussed in the Reference Book section of the Materials division of this paper.
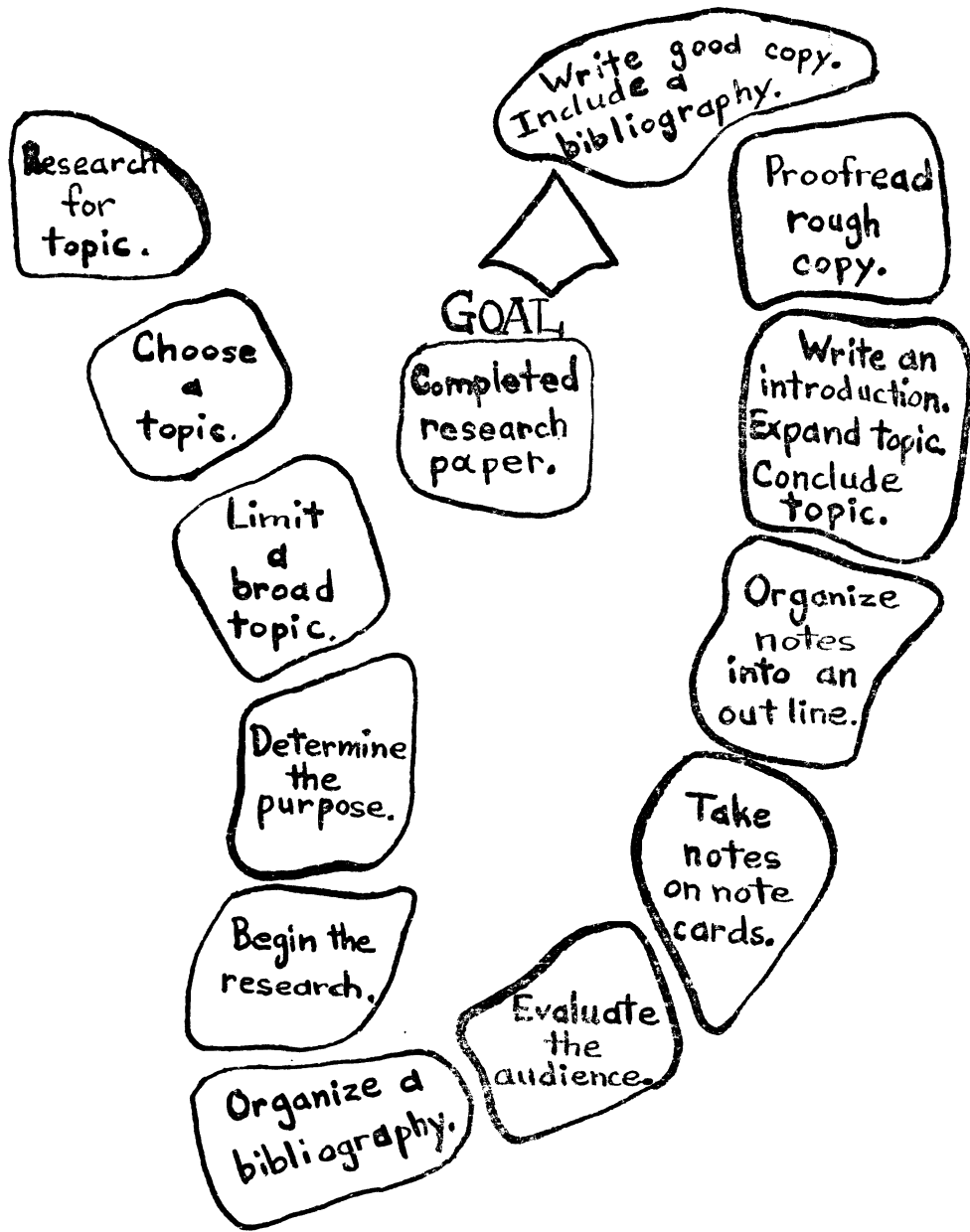
Figure 10. Stepping Stones to Completing a Research Report.

Notetaking. Trying to sort notes taken on both
sides of loose leaf paper, scraps of paper, or assorted
sizes of paper may be troublesome and lead to lost notes,
misplaced papers, or just confusion. William and others
offer suggestions to students who are writing reports or
papers. Take notes carefully and organize them on 3-inch
by 5-inch notecards. Here is a summary of Williams'
ideas.[1]

1. Keep a 3-inch by 5-inch index card of each source
   of information so proper credit may be given in
   the bibliography or in the footnotes. When each
   source is on a separate card, alphabetizing the
   information is much easier.

   It is best to include the author's name, title
   of the book in an abbreviated manner, page
   number, and the book's call number so information
   may be located later if it becomes necessary.

2. Keep separate notecards for each division of the
   topic. Then, other index cards may be sorted
   behind its proper section.

3. Read information thoroughly first. Then using
   your own words, summarize the author's ideas and
   begin taking notes. Do not copy directly from the
   source of information unless it is being quoted.

Bibliography information. At the end of research
reports is a listing of the books, periodicals, and any
other sources which have been used to prepare the report.
This listing of reference sources is known as a biblio-
graphy. During the presentation in class of the biblio-
graphy information, a form sheet may be given to the
students so they may refer to the sheet for reference
while they are writing their bibliography cards and their
bibliography.

---

[1]Elizabeth Williams, Ginn Elements of English 8,
Lexington, Mass.: Ginn & Co., 1970, p. 181.

In the Handbook of your English textbook, examples of a book, a magazine, and an encyclopedia entries of a bibliography are given. The last name of the author is written even with the left-hand margin of the paper followed by a comma, and the first name of the author follows with a period after it. The title of the book, magazine, or encyclopedia is written after the author's name, and it is underlined. Then the place of publication followed by a colon and the publishing house, a comma, and the copyright date are added. Bibliography entries are arranged in alphabetical order according to the authors' last names or the title of the book, magazine, or encyclopedia if it does not have an author. If the titles start with a, an, or the, the titles are alphabetized by the next word.

Example entry for a book:

Hagen, Conny. Alcoa's Book of Decorations. New York: Golden Press, 1959.

Footnote information. The purpose of footnotes is to give credit to the author who is responsible for an idea or thought. It helps the reader to check the facts or the way the summarized points of the book, magazine, or encyclopedia compare to the original source. The footnote reference to a book includes the author's name (first name last name), the title of the book (underlined), and the page number or numbers. Footnotes for magazines and encyclopedias will be given below and on the following page. Footnotes are divided from the context of a written work by a line about one and one half inches long.

Magazine article, no author:

[1]"Growing Tiny Trees," National Geographic World, Number 29 (February 1978), p. 12.

Magazine article with an author:

[2]Shelley Smolkin, "All-American Yourth Bowling
Champs," <u>Young Athlete</u>, 2 (Febraury 1978): 16-19.
<div align="center">(Volume 2)   (Page numbers)</div>

Encyclopedia article without an author:

[3]"Silverware," <u>Funk and Wagnall Standard Refer-
ence Encyclopedia</u>, (Volume 22), pp. 8009-8010.
<div align="center">or</div>
<div align="center">22: 8009-8010</div>
<div align="center">Volume : Page numbers</div>

Any material copied word for word or ideas not
generally known must be footnoted. Material from a text-
book does not need to be footnoted unless it is copied
word for word, but the textbook must be in the biblio-
graphy whether a footnote is provided or not.

<u>Bibliography notecard organization</u>. In the
following examples suggestions are offered for organizing
the information on notecards for the report's bibliography.

Author: (Last name, first name)	
Title: (Underlined)	
Place of publication:	A book
Copyright date: (Year)	
Page(s):	

Author: (Last name, first name)	
Title of article: (In quotation marks, " ")	
Name of magazine: (Underlined)	A magazine article
Volume number: Page(s)	
Date of the magazine:	

```
Name of show:

Series title:                          TV show or

Date of the show:                      movie
```

```
Name of show or speaker:

Channel:                               Radio program

Time, if possible:

Date:
```

```
Name of movie:

Year of issue:                         Movie or

Date seen:                             film

Location:
```

```
Name of person being interviewed:

Topic:

Date interviewed:                      Personal
                                       interview
Interviewer, if different from the
person who is writing the article:
```

The report, the beginning. Beginning the report
may be less complicated by choosing one of the five ways
Williams mentions in her textbook, Ginn Elements of
English 8. Common ways of opening a report are to begin
with (1) an example, (2) an anecdote, (3) a quotation,
(4) a question, or (5) a definition which may or may not
be followed by a personal definition.[1] Using one of
these techniques may supply an interesting or attention-
getting device introduction besides including the state-
ment of purpose in the first part of the report.

The report, the middle. In the main body of the
report, the main idea developed by the statement of pur-
pose is further elaborated upon by supplying supporting
details. Questions formed at the beginning of report
writing process are answered in this section. Specific
points may be explained, proved, questioned, told about,
or illustrated here. Personal opinions or experiences
may be incorporated with the ideas already presented if
they pertain to the main idea of the paper or report.

The report, the conclusion. Ideas may be
summarized or tied together in the conclusion. Concluding
remarks may be made, and suggestions for further study
may be given. Personal conclusions may be added, also.

---

[1]Ibid., pp. 186-188.

<u>Materials to Use in Teaching the Reading and Study Skills</u>

<u>Reference books</u>

<u>Introduction</u>. "The library and its reference works could be considered an educational medium, culture transmitter, and social institution—an instrument of social change in developing countries."[1]

<u>Reference materials</u>. Reference materials like people come in all shapes, sizes, and colors. Each piece of reference material has its own specific information which is unique to it alone like a personality and its features belong to each person. Many times we accept these materials just the way they are without challenging our minds to creative and varied use of the books and other materials. Forgan in his recent book, <u>The Reading Corner: Ideas, Games, and Activities for Individualizing Reading</u>, presents numerous learning activity sheets which may become springboards for development of materials made by the teacher or better yet the students.

Often, an unused resource in the classroom is the student. Many times small groups could organize a game, bulletin board activity, or self-learning package for themselves and/or others. Dictionary skills, vocabulary development, library skills, plus skills tests in areas of study skills, parts of a book, and reference materials offer a wealth of material that may be developed into lessons for or by the students themselves.

Using the actual reference book would be more beneficial due to copyrights and the new copyright law which went into practice and enforcement on January 1, 1978.

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[1]B. Ardhanareeswaran, "Reference Skills and Education for Development," <u>Journal of Reading</u> 20 (May 1977): 676.

More information about the new copyright law and its
effects are found in appendix C. The New Copyright Law
of 1978, as an addition to assist teachers.

Some activities to encourage the usage of refer-
ence materials and reinforce reference material skills
and library skills will be presented. Many of these
ideas are probably not new, but as far as this paper is
concerned, the activities are useful in guiding students
to become more aware of what a library has to offer them.

An interest inventory. An interest inventory
may be valuable so teachers may determine the following
information about their students: first of all the
students' general school interests; secondly, their
activities outside of school; and lastly, their general
attitude toward books and reading.

Name _____

Date _____

Interests

1. List your hobbies or the things you like to do.

2. What is your favorite subject in school and why.

3. What clubs or other activities do you belong to
    in school?

4. What clubs or other activities do you belong to outside of school?

5. What magazines and newspapers do you have at home?

6. What are the titles of the ones you like the best?

7. What magazines and newspapers do you read twice or more a week?

8. Give the titles of any library books that you have read in the last year.

9. Do you have a library card? _____

10. If you were told you would be the first man or woman to live on a space platform and all you could do would be to read, what reading materials would you bring along with you to make your trip more enoyable?

   Because of weight problems and packing, you would be allowed four items. What four reading materials would you take along?

   Why would you choose these reading materials? (Use the back of this paper if you need more space.)

<u>Library research skills</u>. One way to become familiar with the card catalogue is to have the librarian or the teacher introduce it to the students. Preparation for the visit to the school library or to the neighborhood library may be made by the teacher. The card catalogue may be compared to a <u>Sears</u>, <u>Penneys</u>, or other type of catalogue which contains a variety of information on the products. On the other hand, the card catalogue organizes its information not by an index in alphabetical order but by arranging all its information alphabetically on three types of cards: (1) the author card, (2) the title card, and (3) the subject card. Alphabetizing exercises may be done at this point to check the students' understanding and proficiencies in alphabetizing. Possible alphabetizing exercises are suggested.

The teacher may ask a student to alphabetize a series of five words on an index card. The student should try to do this exercise orally rather than in writing.

Another activity or exercise involves a list of words with each word individually being written on a piece of cardboard and then alphabetized. The directions for the exercise are given as follows:

1. List the words from either Word List 1 or Word List 2 on the next page on posterboard, cardboard, index cards, or construction paper covered with clear Contac paper.

2. Write the directions on the outside of an envelope or box which will hold the word cards.
   DIRECTIONS: Put the words in this envelope in alphabetical order.
   After the word cards are in the proper order, have the teacher or a student check them for you.

2. Another set of directions may be written instead
   of the ones previously mentioned:
   DIRECTIONS: 1. Place these word cards in alpha-
                   betical order.
                2. On your paper, write these numbers
                   in a column like this:

                   1. _____
                   4. _____
                   7. _____
                   12. _____
                   15. _____

                3. Which words should fill in the
                   blanks?
                4. Write these words after their
                   proper number.

Word List 1	Word List 2
remember	repeating
remembrance	repeat
memory	repression
memorize	represent
memorial	reparation
prove	representation
improve	repeated
improvement	repetition
transition	reduction
transoceanic	reduce
transitive	repeatedly
transportation	requirements
transit	responsible
transformation	request
reassign	record

Large cards illustrating the author, title, and
subject cards of the card catalogue may be made on poster-
board by the teacher or by the students. These cards would
assist the students in identifying the information on the
cards more readily. Also, they would be useful as visual
aids or part of a bulletin board display preferably prepared
by the students' supplemental knowledge and creativity
giving them an active participation in a classroom activity.

The library itself, however, is organized by using
the Dewey Decimal System. Each card in the card catalogue
and each book on the shelf are given a corresponding Dewey
Decimal number as shown in Illustration 8 . In this way
books are located easier, and they may be arranged on the
shelf faster due to the orderly manner of organization.

Book location activities. Assisting students in
locating books in the library may be accomplished by using
several techniques.

1. Actual library books bought from a library
book sale may be placed on a shelf in the order of their
Dewey Decimal numbers. Cards could be made for each book,
and the cards could be organized in a box like the card
catalogue. For students who need practice, a small library
could be used first and practice in locating books on a
smaller scale could be completed in this manner.

2. To help students put the books back in the
correct order, one student at a time may be given one or
several books, and the teacher or another student may
determine whether it is put back in the correct area.

3. Books borrowed from the library or bought
from a library book sale could be put on a shelf in a
random order, and the students must correctly place them
in their proper order according to the Dewey Decimal
System.

Germany by GERHART H. SEGER

914.3
S 454
1977
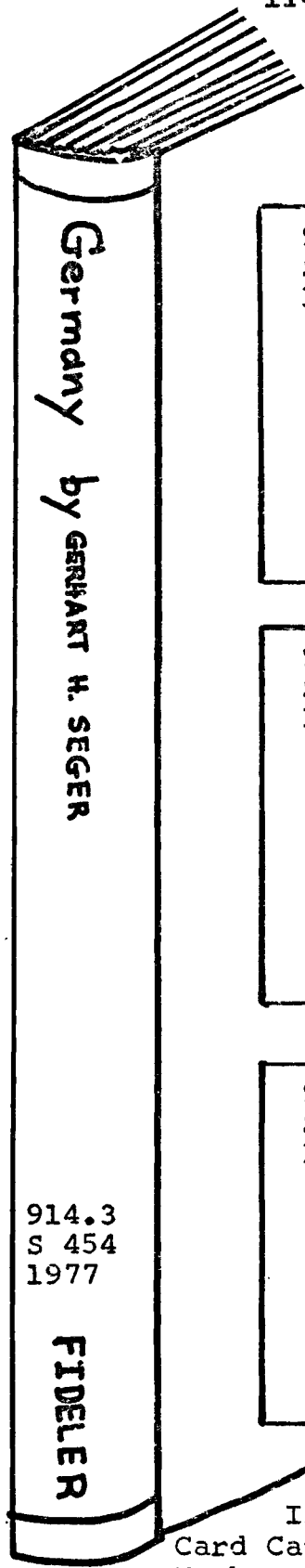
FIDELER

AUTHOR CARD

914.3
S 454
1977

Seger, Gerhart H.

Germany

Grand Rapids, Mich.:
The Fideler Company

1977   ill.   158 pages

18 page Skills Manual

TITLE CARD

914.3
S 454
1977

Germany

Seger, Gerhart H.

Germany

Grand Rapids, Mich.:
The Fideler Company

1977   ill.   158 pages

18 page Skills Manual

SUBJECT CARD

914.3
S 454
1977

GERMANY--EAST: WEST

Seger, Gerhart H.

Germany

Grand Rapids, Mich.:
The Fideler Company

1977   ill.   158 pages
18 page Skills Manual

Illustration 8 . Comparing the
Card Catalogue Number to the Bookbinding
Number. Examples of the Three Types of
Cards Found in the Card Catalogue: the Author
Card, the Title Card, and the Subject Card.

4. Students could be given a list of one to four
books to locate in the card catalogue and obtain specifically
listed information from the cards such as (1) the Dewey
Decimal number, (2) whether there are illustrations in the
book, or (3) how current the book is by checking the copy-
right date.

5. A list of topics could be given to the students
to choose from. The students must find two books on the
shelves, and they must give each book's author, title,
publication information, and copyright date plus the Dewey
Decimal number from the card catalogue.

6. Write a bibliography for a specific topic.

7. Students may make a bulletin board to help
themselves use the Dewey Decimal System. This mnemonic
device may be a useful starting point or springboard of
ideas.

Ten Classes of Books		Mnemonic
000-099	General Works	Good
100-199	Philosophy	Pupils
200-299	Religion	Require
300-399	Social Studies	Speedy
400-499	Language	Learning
500-599	Science	So
600-699	Useful Arts	Use
700-799	Fine Arts	Fine
800-899	Literature	Library
900-999	History	Helps

Chart[1] 7. Dewey Decimal System Classifications and
Mnemonic Device (Memory-Helper).

---

[1]
Joseph Bellafiore, Review Text in English Language
Arts, Preliminary (New York: Amsco School Publications,
1958), p. 363.

8. An actvity mapping the school library or the local library with specific purposes in mind will assist the students in their Library Search. As surveyors, they would map their way around the library or have a treasure hunt for a special book or reference material. They may be encouraged to become actively involved in the quest.

9. The students would give directions very specifically to locate in the library a section or a book. Not only is this a book locational skill, it will assist the students in writing specific directions.

10. The students must locate specific reference books to use to answer questions previously prepared for them.

11. A get acquainted paper may be given to the students to direct them to the refernce book area of the library.

Getting Acquainted with the Library

1. Where are the reference books located in the library?

2. List the reference books you have used before this visit to the library.

3. What magazine did you find in the library that you liked? List the magazine's name, its date, and an article that you found interesting below.

Or did you find a book you liked instead of a magazine? List the name of the book, its author, and the Dewey Decimal number below.

Is there any particular reason you chose this magazine or book? What interested you most about it?

A brief quiz on the Dewey Decimal System, the card catalogue, and reading an entry from the Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature would provide an opportunity to determine the students' understanding. Depending upon the teacher's objectives, a listing of the Dewey Decimal Classification and its topics may or may not be provided for the students' usage.

The Library

I. Write down the Dewey Decimal Classification section number where you might find each of the following items.

    A. The history of the American people   _____

    B. Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature   _____

    C. The Catholic Church   _____

    D. The mountains of Asia   _____

    E. A dictionary of sports terms   _____

    F. The music of Beethoven   _____

II. Write the names of the reference sources which would be appropriate in the following blanks.

    A. The card catalogue in a large library is generally organized according to _____, _____, and _____.

    B. One source of information is an expert with whom you may hold an _____.

    C. One source of easily available, general summary information on a topic would be an _____.

III. The following item is an entry from the <u>Reader's</u>
<u>Guide to Periodical Literature</u>:

> Glossary of campus slang. L. B. Johnson.
>
> il. McCall 94:55 Ap '67.

Rewrite the information so that someone unfamiliar
with the abbreviations would understand the entry.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

For those who would like further materials to
consult concerning the usage of reference books, the
library, and library skills, a bibliography, A Selected
Bibliography of Library and Reference Materials, will
be provided at the end of this research paper in the
additional selected bibliographies section. Books,
leaflets, magazines, pamphlets, posters, and other
materials were considered for this bibliography.
Hopefully, this bibliography will be of assistance to
teachers in planning their library and reference skills
units and lesson plans. Since these are only some of
the materials available, further information may be
found in libraries whether they are public libraries
or professional libraries.

Library Books and Magazines

Introduction. To combine the use of library books, magazines, letter writing, and research, a short genealogy section was developed. In writing this section on genealogy, it is not possible for students to dash to the local library and obtain an encyclopedia like they may do for other projects. Location skills are needed along with delving and inquisitive minds. Since reference materials are used to some extent, students will benefit from knowing how to use reference materials. Through this activity, the students rely on family contacts and participation. The information gathered may be kept by the family for years to come and, hopefully, be of value to the students' families.

The genealogy section. This activity combines Language Arts and social studies activities which use reading and study skills.

My Roots in the Community, School, and Family

Assignment Sheet # 1 : My Family History

Directions for Stages One and Two and the objectives to be met by the students are listed below:

Stage 1. The students will do the following:

1. Collect pictures of their families both recent and past pictures, plus their pets, their home, and their yard.

2. The pictures will be neatly mounted in any form the students feel is appropriate such as a booklet or a photo album.

3. Each picture will have captions with the event taking place and the names and relationship of the people pictured.

4. Each family member will be pictured.

<u>Stage 2.</u> The students will do the following:

1. Collect pictures of their relatives: great-
   grandparents, grandparents, aunts, uncles, cousins,
   nieces, and nephews.

2. The pictures of these relatives will be mounted and
   captioned in the same manner as before or with some
   modifications if needed.

Assignment Sheet # 2 : My Family History
Objectives to be met for Stage 3 are listed below:

<u>Stage 3.</u>

1. Students must write a friendly letter and a business
   letter using the correct forms of the parts of a
   letter.

2. The students will do an interview of another student
   in the classroom.

   Prepared questions are a necessity along with
   proper materials for notetaking or taking a
   cassette recorder with them.

   The report will be written in paragraph form and
   checked for accuracy by the partner being interviewed.

3. A mock telephone conversation will be presented by
   two students at a time in front of the class. They
   will present a telephone interview.

4. The students will interview the oldest member of
   their family, if possible, or someone in their
   family at least thirty to forty years older than
   they are by one of these methods: (a) telephone;
   (b) letter; or (c) personal interview. If for
   some reason the students have problems finding a
   member of their family, the teacher will be the
   final source to discuss the matter with the students.

Stage 4. Who's Who in Your Family

1. Read an entry of a famous person in the reference
   book, Who's Who in America.

2. After reading the information, several steps in
   writing an entry for your Who's Who in My Family
   should come to mind:

   a. Name, last name first comma first name

   b. Last name is in all capital letters

   c. Year of birth hyphen (-) year of death or an
      empty space if the person is still alive,
      for example, 1963-   .

   d. Occupation

   e. Important accomplishments or achievements
      in your life and the year of the accomplishment

   f. Religion

   g. Address

3. Write an entry in your Who's Who in My Family
   for yourself and the immediate members of your
   family. You should have at least three entries
   in your Who's Who if you are an only child.

Stage 5. Complete a Family Tree Chart shown on the
next page.

Stage 6. My Family Crest and Monogram.

1. Design a family crest or shield. Consider important
   aspects of your family's heritage.

   a. Nationality or nationalities

   b. Length of time your relatives have been in
      America

   c. Family interests or hobbies

   d. People who are in your family
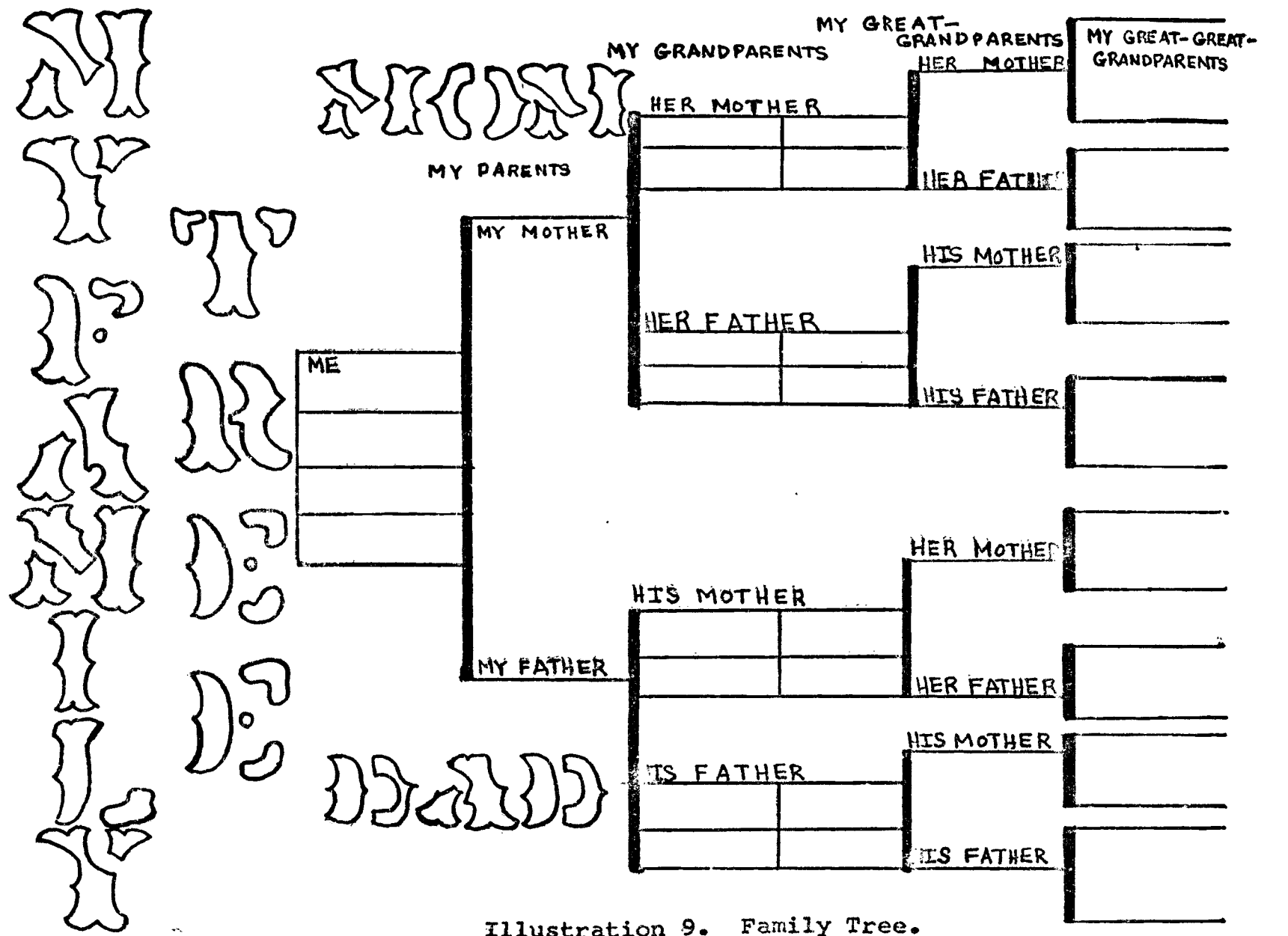
Illustration 9. Family Tree.
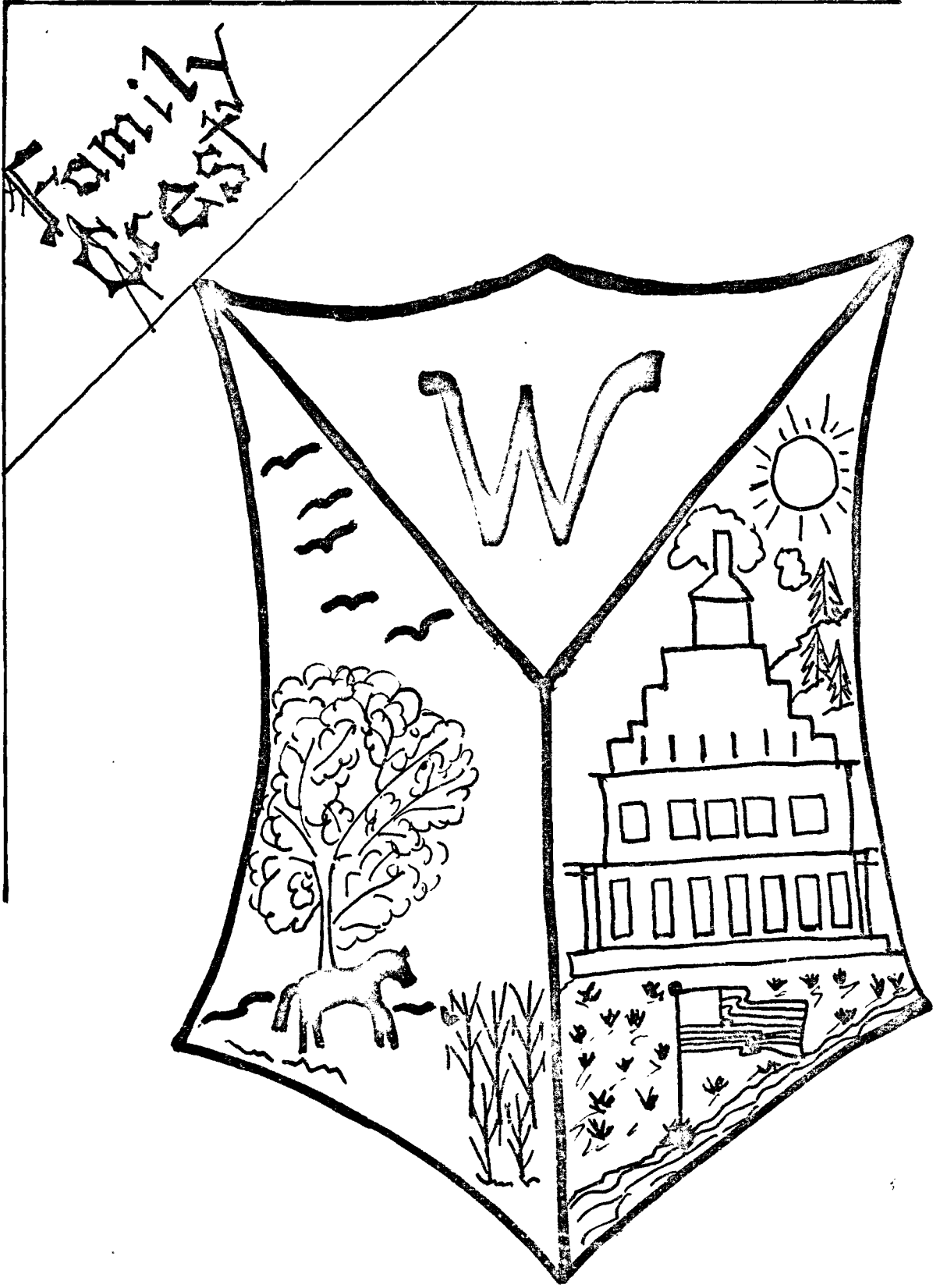
Illustration 10. Family Crest or Family Shield.
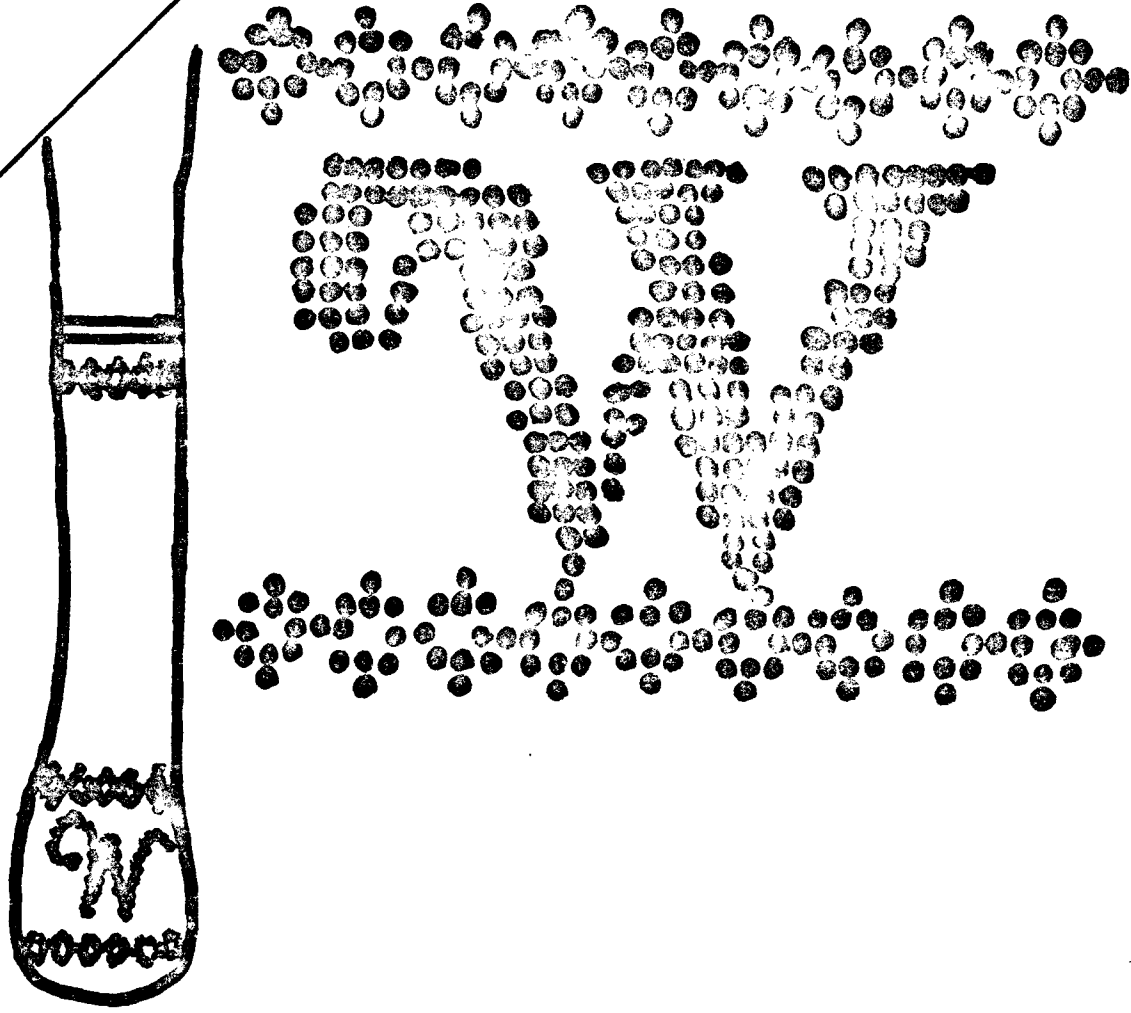
Illustration 11. Silver Pattern and Monogram.

e. Choose a specific shape for your crest.
   (1) Draw the shape of your choice
   (2) Divide it as you plan your construction
   (3) In each part of your crest or shield draw
       a distinctive symbol for your family
   (4) Draw other designs around the basic crest
       is you wish.

2. Design a family monogram using your last initial.

   a. Methods to use
      (1) Cross stitch or needlepoint
      (2) Graph paper
      (3) Ink and pen drawing
      (4) Clay or plaster of Paris

   b. Resources
      (1) Needlecraft books
      (2) Lettering entry in an encyclopedia

Stage 7. Draw a map of the United States and Wisconsin.

On the maps put in the cities where you or

your relatives live.

Assignment Sheet # 3. Family Almanac

1. Determine the birthdays of each of your immediate
   family members.
2. Design a calendar for each of the months of the year.
3. Write in each of your family members' birthdays.
4. Write in important family events, past, present, or
   future, such as anniversaries, weddings, births,
   and others for your immediate family and relatives.
5. Make a list of family traditions.
6. Write the family stories or oral history that has
   been passed down from generation to generation.
7. Create poems for each of your immediate family
   members.
8. List any family sayings or humorous sayings they
   may have.

JULY, 1978

Sunday	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday
						1 Aunt Pat and Uncle Harold's Anniversary
2 Arlene and Russell's Anniversary	**3**	**4** Independence Day	**5** Sharon and Michael's Anniversary 3rd	**6**	**7**	**8**
9	**10**	**11** Bob's Birthday	**12**	**13**	**14** Uncle Harold's Birthday	**15**
16	**17** My Birthday	**18**	**19**	**20**	**21**	**22** Lynn's Birthday
23	**24** Aunt Edna's Birthday	**25** Peter's Birthday	**26** Mom and Dad's Anniversary	**27**	**28**	**29**
30	**31** Arlene's Birthday					

Illustration 12. Almanac Page for July.

126
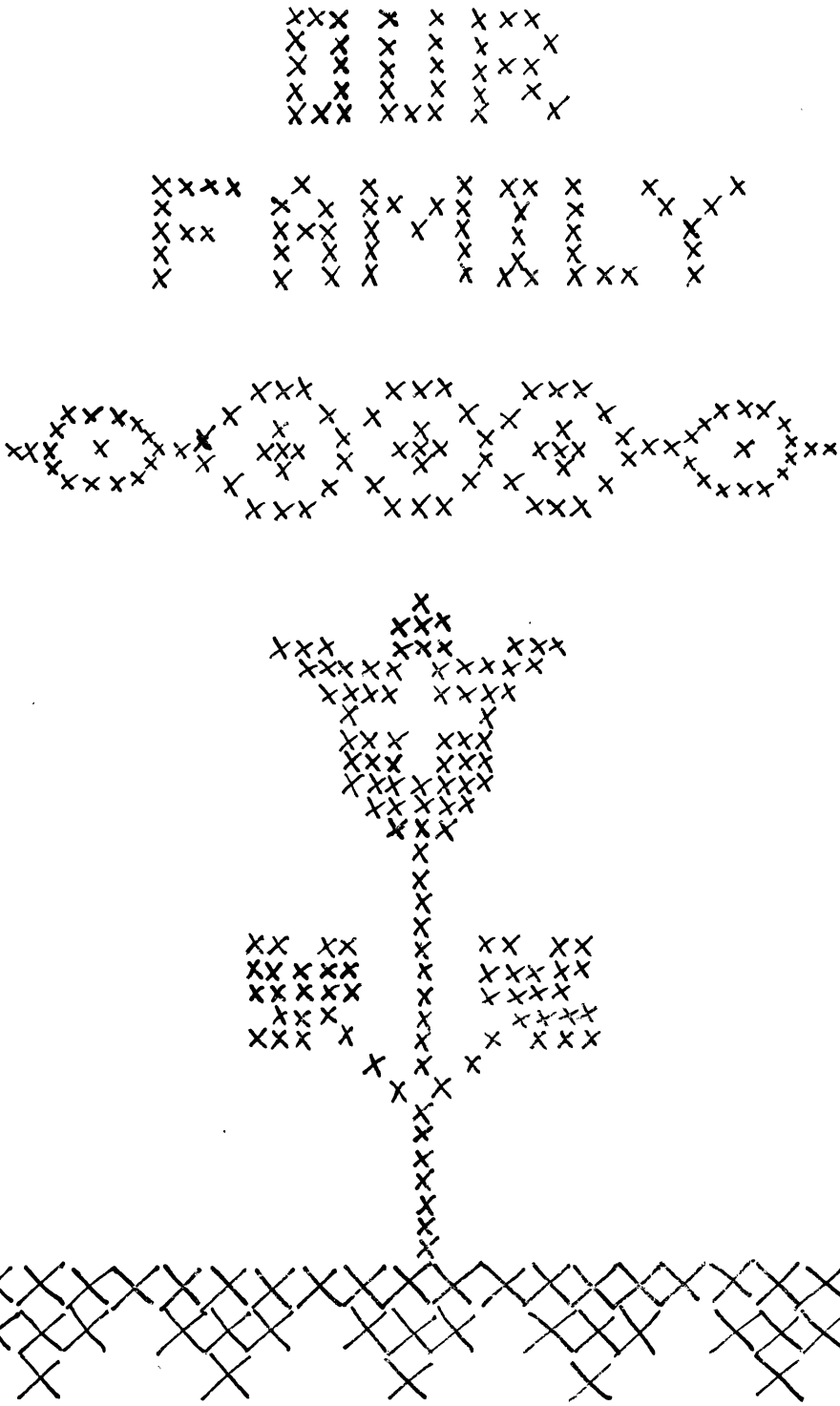
Illustration 13.   Sampler.

Games

Introduction. "Reading is Fundamental" is the
key slogan of the federal government's RIF Program which
provides books for those who do not have them. Usually on
commericals for RIF, the first three letters of fundamental
are capitalized to emphasize that reading can be fun, first,
as well as being a fundamental skill necessary to learn in
school.

Goal. Since the ultimate goal of using games is to
make reading rewarding according to Allington and Strange,
reading can be fun plus rewarding.[1] How this is to be
accomplished depends upon the students and the teachers
who are responsible for their learning. Choosing commercial
games selectively and providing the essential element of
motivation, gaming can be beneficial in learning and/or
in reinforcing reading and study skills. Of course, games
cannot be the whole curriculum, but inserted at the right
moment, games can be resourceful means of making reading
fun.

Viewpoints. Among researchers and teachers, there
is concern about the usefulness of games. Allington and
Strange believe games do not foster positive motivation nor
motivate enough to continue growth in a skill. In other
words, the motivation they observe is two fold: (1) two
or more players pitted against each other, and (2) games
used by the least creative teacher to motivate the children
to learn.[2] Allington and Strange's viewpoints are countered
by Steiner who sees games as an asset to learning. "Despite
criticisms leveled against their use--that they teach

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[1]Richard L. Allington and Michael Strange, "The
Problem with Reading Games," The Reading Teacher 31
(December 1977): 274.

[2]Ibid.

competition, simplify the world unnecessarily, and avoid
issues in 'real learning' games possess an undeniable
ability to motivate and to involve that cannot be
ignored."[1]

Uses. By using games, students must be respon-
sible for their own learning. "They learn best by taking
an active part in their own education."[2] Besides being
motivators, games have diagnostic value, too, according
to Carter. He sees them as useful in three areas:

(1) assessing cognitive functioning;
(2) assessing affective functioning;
and (3) evaluating four areas:
(a) social behavior,
(b) problem solving techniques,
(c) competitive behavior, and
(d) other interactional patterns.[3]

Glazer views games as ways to promote success in
learning to read. Four more ideas of Glazer's encourage
the usage of games.
1. Success at games can reinforce the willingness
   to learn.
2. Games can foster independence and team cooper-
   ation.
3. Games can develop attitudes of self-assessment.
4. Games provide opportunities for "diagnosis,
   teaching, and evaluation."[4]

---

[1]Karen Steiner, "ERIC/RCS Child's Play: Games
to Teach Reading," The Reading Teacher 31 (January
1978): 476.

[2]Ibid., p. 474.   [3]Ibid., p. 476.

[4]Susan M. Glazer, "Learning to Read Can Become
'Fun and Games'," in Classroom Practice in Reading, ed.
Richard A. Earle (Newark, Del.: International Reading
Association, 1977), p. 50.

Games: categories and characteristics. Games are
classified by Glazer into two categories: (1) process
games and (2) reinforcement games. First of all, process
games have the characteristics listed as follows:

1. Develop new ideas based on old ideas,
2. Present many solutions,
3. Are error free,
4. Insure student success, and
5. Develop self-confidence.[1]

On the other end of the learning sequence is the reinforce-
ment game. These reinforcement games possess specific
characteristics, also. These characteristics are listed
here:

1. Signal one correct response,
2. Create a competitive situation, and
3. Create a feeling of satisfaction.[2]

Skills. Games that provide practice in oral read-
ing, silent reading, comprehension, and reinforcement of a
previously learned skill seem to be the most useful for the
students. To determine the skills of each game, the content
areas, and the number of players, consult chart 8, Game
Skills Chart. Games achieve the greatest effectiveness
when used to reinforce skills that have already been
presented.[3]

"Cannery suggests that almost any game can be
turned into a reading or content area game if students are
required, before taking a turn, to read a word, identify a
suffix, spell a word, or punctuate a sentence."[4]

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[1]Ibid., p. 45.   [2]Ibid., p. 46.

[3]Steiner, "ERIC/RCS Child's Play: Games to Teach
Reading," p. 476.

[4]Ibid., p. 475.

	SKILLS					SUBJECTS	
	COMPREHENSION	FOLLOWING DIRECTIONS	ORGANIZATIONAL SKILLS	SPELLING	VOCABULARY	LANGUAGE ARTS	SOCIAL STUDIES
GAMES							
AD-LIB CROSSWORD CUBES	X	X	X	X	X	X	
AUTHORS CARD GAME		X	X			X	X
BOGGLE	X	X	X·	X	X	X	X
CAREERS	X	X			X	X	
FLUSTER	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
THE GAME OF EASY MONEY	X	X					X
GLOBAL FLASHCARDS	X	X					X
GO TO THE HEAD OF THE CLASS	X	X				X	X
GRAPPLE	X	X	X	X	X	X	
LANDSLIDE	X	X	X				X
MONOPOLY	X	X	X				X
THE NEWS GAME	X	X		X	X	X	X
SPILL AND SPELL	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
U. S. FLASH-CARDS	X	X					X
YOUR AMERICA	X	X			X	X	X

Chart 8. Games Skills Chart.

Commercial games. Commercial games such as those
selectively listed in bibliography form could provide
some or all of the possible uses that Cannery mentions.
These games would be particularly useful at free times
during the day, such as before school, at lunch time when
the children are inside, or after school, if this is
desirable.

Guidelines. In choosing games it is best to have
guidelines established.·

Gaming in the classroom should be guided
by the following:
1. Must help in achievement of classroom
   goals
2. Should enrich and give needed practice
3. Avoid games with complicated or vague
   directions
4. Should group by ability
5. Should be used to provide self-competition
6. Should be self-checking
7. Enhances learning and anticipation.[1]

Cannery suggests additional guidelines in using
games: (1) incorporate an element of surprise and
(2) consider the time element. "Too much time spent in
waiting for a turn can minimize instructional benefits."[2]
Accordingly, some examples of games fulfilling these
requirements are Scramble Alphabet, Bingo, and The Guinness
Book of World Records.

Allington and Strange provide a "Checklist for
Evaluating Games" at the top of page 274 in their article
for The Reading Teacher issue of December, 1977. Using

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[1]Ronald G. Noland and Lynda H. Craft, "Methods
to Motivate the Relunctant Reader," Journal of Reading
19 (February 1976): 391.

[2]Steiner, "ERIC/RCS Child's Play: Games to Teach
Reading," p. 475.

the checklist will assist those interested in using games
in the classroom to choose the appropriate ones.

   Content area games. Games may be useful in the
content areas, and two examples of how games may be used
in the classroom will be given.

Content Area	Game	Type	Process or Reinforcement Category
Social Studies	Landslide	Commercially made	Reinforcement
English	Sentence Pattern Card Game	Student or teacher made	Process or reinforcement

Chart 9. Content Area Games.

   The first game, Landslide, is used in the area of
Social Studies (History/Government). Before the November
presidential election or before selecting or electing a
class president, a class could use the Parker Brother's
game to assist them in understanding how a president is
elected; what an electoral vote is; how many votes each
state has in electing the president; and the strategy
necessary to win the game. Either a student who is a
group organizer type or the teacher may divide the class
into groups of four. If there are any people who do not
make up a foursome, they may form a smaller group.
Elimination rounds are played until four students remain.
A final game is played with the highest scorer being
declared the winner or becoming a possibility for class
president. This game gives the students an idea of how
the electoral college works.

When the _Landslide_ game was used in the classroom,
a student organized the teams for playing, and he kept a
record of the elimination rounds. Even after the elimina-
tion rounds were completed, the game was still used during
the noon hour.

The second game, _The Sentence Pattern Card Game_,
was used to reinforce the students' knowledge of sentence
patterns, how to organize a sentence, and to learn the
actual parts that compose each sentence pattern. Since
the game may be student and/or teacher-made, the directions
were provided on a duplicated sheet so the cards may be
prepared, and the game may be played by following the
written directions. The directions for making this game
may be found in Appendix D. Since this game is not an
original design, it is possible the teachers have been
using this game under another name or a modified version.

In summary reading games make reading fun and
rewarding. Allington and Strange believe games offer
little more than winner-oriented motivation while Steiner,
Glazer, and Carter view games as ways that students can
grow in knowledge and in interacting with other people.
Games are classified into two categories: (1) process
games and (2) reinforcement games. Cannery suggests that
games may be used in reading if students perform some
reading skill such as reading a word, identifying a pre-
fix or root, or following directions to play the game.
Games can be skill-oriented. They can be guided and
evaluated by both students and teachers.

In conclusion, games can be useful in the learning
process provided guidance and specific objectives are
given.

Television

Introduction. Television is a unique medium
because it brings into the classroom and into the home
on the spot events to further the informational back-
ground of students and the public. The educational value
of the programs is very promising. Television according
to Schramm, Lyle, and Parker affords children with the
opportunities to meet famous people, hear important people
faced by people and by the government, quiz public figures,
and see events far away.[1] Viewing television must be as
critical as evaluating reading a newspaper article.[2] A
certain art, learning process, is essential to watching
television. "Furthermore, television is a real resource,
for example, assignments and what the teachers call
'enrichment'."[3]

Usage of television in the classroom as an audio-
visual aid. Three main uses of television lessons are
(1) enrichment, (2) cooperative teaching, and (3) total
teaching.[4] Through enrichment, information beyond the
textbook and available audio-visual materials is given to
the students in the television lesson. The television
lesson which is used as enrichment may be used to (1)clarify
obsure material, (2) provide specific illustrations, and
(3) expand further ideas. Since the television program
is a learning device, the lesson may be related to class-
room learning assignments, project work, and the students'
experiences outside of the classroom. Therefore, the
televised lesson is auxiliary to the curriculum.[5]

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[1] Schramm, Lyle, and Parker with Freedman, Television
in the Lives of Our Children, p. 97.

[2] Ibid., p. 184.   [3] Ibid., pp. 184-185.

[4] Costello and Gordon, Teach with Television. A
Guide for Instructional TV, p. 127.

[5] Ibid., pp. 127-128.

Through cooperative teaching, the classroom
teacher supplements the material of the television teacher.
By introducing the lesson and by using textbook material,
a correlation between the televised lesson and the text-
book may be formed.

In depending upon the television teacher to do the
total teaching, the purpose for watching the lesson must
be clearly established by the classroom teacher. By doing
this, the students will realize their expectations whether
they must take notes, complete a chart, write a summary
after the lesson, do a project based on the televised
lesson, place the important events in sequential order, or
get eight or more answers correct on a ten question quiz
following the television lesson. The worse thing to do is
to turn on the television with no purpose for viewing
established for the students and no follow-up activity
such as a discussion.

According to Gordon, there are some guides as to
when instructional television should be used in school.
First of all, television is a means of aiding the class-
room teacher. Secondly, since younger pupils have a
shorter attention span than older pupils, the length of
the lesson should be determined by the age of the students
In the third place "television is best used for courses
where teachers welcome help, subjects where television
offers special advantages, and courses which could not
otherwise be taught."[1]

Costello offers suggestions in using the tele-
vision in the classroom. The television set should be
placed in front of the window wall to avoid glare, and
the seats should be arranged in a triangular pattern in
front of the television. The television should be mounted

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[1]Gordon, _Classroom Television. New Frontiers
in ITV_, p. 87.

so it operates above the students' eye levels. During the telecast, the room should be kept dim but not dark.[1] The sound level of the television should be raised. Teachers should plan on circulating in the room especially during the beginning of the lesson to insure that everyone's attention is focused on the television lesson. Since teachers serve as examples to students, it is desirable for the teachers to view the televised lesson. Even if teachers have seen the lesson previously, they can be the observers of new ideas which can be used to recreate in the classroom approaches which have been seen on the television. Later the pupils' observations may be useful as a resource for new ideas, suggestions, or activities to be used along with the lesson.

Television can be used as an aid to teaching because there are so many means by which is can be a classroom aid. Some ways television may serve as an audio-visual aid are as follows: (1) lectures and demonstrations, (2) panel discussions, (3) interviews, (4) dramatizations, (5) audio-visual device, (6) 'realia', and (7) pupil participation with a talk back system or other device.[2]

The television instructors and their lessons' styles. According to Costello, the total responsibility of teaching the lesson, giving homework, and motivating the students are the responsibility of the television instructor.[3] The instruction by the television teacher should be supported with a specific purpose for the students to view the lesson. Classroom teachers should be supporters, reinforcers, clarifiers, and reviewers of the information presented in the television lesson. Establishing a purpose for the television lesson is essential to active student participation and increases the value of the lesson presented.

---

[1] Costello and Gordon, Teach with Television. A Guide for Instructional TV, p. 133.

[2] Ibid., p. 39.   [3] Ibid., p. 130.

Preferably, a cooperative venture should exist between
the television instructor and the classroom teacher.

The conveying of knowledge to the students may be
dependent on the teaching styles in presenting the lesson.
This may affect how the students will remember the tele-
vision lesson's main points. Since teaching styles vary
from teacher to teacher, it may be beneficial to briefly
outline some of the possible lesson styles that are used
on television and in the classroom.[1] They are as follows:

I. Narrative Devices

    A. Pure exposition
    B. Exposition plus demonstration
    C. Exposition and/or demonstration plus
       reaction

II. Pictorial Emphasis

    A. Skill presentations
    B. Criticism and comment

III. Dramatic Communication

    A. Dance and theater
    B. Interviews and panel discussions and
       debates

The television teacher will usually provide most
of the actual instruction. However, the cooperation of
the classroom teachers with the television instructor may
be dependent upon how well the teacher's guide has been
developed. This may be true especially if the classroom
teacher has never viewed the televised lesson.

Usage of the teacher's guide or manual in the
teacher's preparation of the television lesson. Coopera-
tive teaching may depend upon how well the teacher's guide
(a) clarifies the exact nature of the course of study,

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[1]Gordon, Classroom Television. New Frontiers
in ITV, pp. 142-147.

(b) lists the materials offered in the individual lessons,
(c) states what concepts and/or skills will be presented
by the television teacher, and (d) the specific responsi-
bilities of the classroom teacher.[1] "A teacher's guide is
fundamentally a professional communication. . . ."[2]

Essential parts of the teacher's manual suggested
by Gordon will be provided for the teachers who use the
television in the classroom. The objective of the lesson
should be clarified as to its usage in previous lessons and
lessons to follow. Descriptions of materials used in the
television lesson should be provided. If the teachers are
unfamiliar with the audio-visual materials used in the
presentation of the lesson, an explanation in the teacher's
guide would be of assistance. Suggestions for preparing
the class for the television lesson may be given. In this
introduction to the lesson, the classroom teachers should
refrain from teaching the content of the television lesson.
At the end of the lesson, time should be provided to
clarify points of the lesson, reteach these parts if
necessary, review the main ideas of the lesson, and follow-
up the lesson with an activity. A follow-up procedure may
be suggested in the teacher's guide. Related background
reading for the teacher's professional considerations and
sometimes for the students' reading may be given. Other
educational materials such as films, tapes, maps, and
charts relevant to the lesson may be provided in the
manual. "All materials which the classroom teachers may
use during the video lesson should also be listed along
with any other information which should be on the classroom
chalkboard while the lesson is being shown."[3] Since it is

---

[1] Costello and Gordon, Teach with Television. A
Guide for Instructional ITV, p. 129.

[2] Gordon, Classroom Television. New Frontiers
in ITV, p. 186.

[3] Ibid., p. 187.

essential that the class be totally prepared for the
television lesson, the students should know what materials
they will be needing during the televised presentation.
Hopefully, the teacher's guide will provide a list of
equipment necessary for each student to actively partici-
pate in the television lesson's activities. Guides and
instructional materials provided with the television
lessons should be carefully prepared so the students may
use them.[1]

Usually a teacher's guide follows a specific
lesson outline. Costello offers an outline of the lesson
enumerating ten specific sections. For teachers planning
a television lesson without the benefit of a teacher's
guide outline, Costello's ideas will be briefly outlined,
and an example of a television lesson plan will be pro-
vided.[2]

Outline of the Television Lesson

I. Objective
What should the students know at the completion
of the lesson?

II. Relationship
How does the lesson relate to the overall
objective of the series?

III. Materials

A. Preparation for televised lesson
B. Preparation for the follow-up to the lesson

IV. Introduction
How may the lesson be introduced to the students?

V. Information
What material will the lesson present?

---

[1]Ibid., pp. 186-187.

[2]Costello and Gordon, Teach with Television. A
Guide for Instructional ITV, p. 63.

VI. Questions and Ideas

    A. Classroom teacher's questions and ideas to use
    B. Students' questions that may be asked
       (The teacher will anticipate possible questions
       that the students may ask before, during, and/
       or after the television lesson.)

VII. Suggested Activities

    A. Follow-up activities
       (Further ideas for follow-up activities may be
       found in appendix E, One Hundred Activitiy
       Ideas.)
    B. Relationship to other classroom subjects
       1. Art
       2. The Fine Arts
       3. Language Arts (English, Reading, Spelling)
       4. Mathematics
       5. Music
       6. Physical Education (Dance, Sports)
       7. Religion
       8. Science
       9. Social Studies

VIII. Suggested Readings or Bibliography

    A. Teacher's bibliography
    B. Student's bibliography

IX. Assignment and/or Homework

X. Tests or Check-up Activities

      An example of a television lesson plan for the
fifth episode of the commercial television series,
"America," will be found in appendix G, Television Lesson
Plan. The lesson plan for the episode, "Gone West," will
follow the outline that was developed by Costello as a
guide to the teacher's planning for the usage of television
lessons. This outline guide has been referred to in detail
on the previous page and at the top of this page. The
lesson plan may be developed according to the teacher's
expectations of the students and of the television lesson.

Television's role in teaching reading and study
skills through instructional television lessons and
commercial television programs. Television offers many
areas to delve into and to develop. Currently there is
an emphasis aiming toward teaching adult illiterates
through modifying and adpting the commercial television
programs, "Seseame Street" and "The Electric Company".
Because the main emphasis of instructional television
(ITV) has been in preschool and primary grades, there is
a definite potential to move television into new and
different directions for the future. Mainly decoding
skills in reading have been taught on the educational
channels. The British Broadcasting Company (BBC) has
been motivating children to learn the reading strategies
of sight reading, phonics, and context and structural
clues to word indentification through a story approach.

Now television is broadening its reach beyond
just reading and including speaking, listening, compre-
hension, content areas, study skills, and writing. Acti-
vities are being directed toward commercial television
programs. In their article in the October, 1975, issue
of The Reading Teacher, Adams and Harrison are concerned
with using television to teach specific reading skills.
Table four of their article lists (a) the reading skill
to be emphasized, (b) the type of television materials
necessary, (c) an explanation of the activity, and
(d) the number of students with whom the activity may be
used.[1]

Becker concerns himself with the use of television
in seven areas: reading, speaking, listening, comprehen-

[1]Anne H. Adams and Cathy B. Harrison, "Using
Television to Teach Specific Reading Skills," The Reading
Teacher 29 (October 1975): 49-51, Table 4.

sion skills, the content areas, study skills, and writing.[1]

1. Reading

    a. Develop an interest center on television programs and characters by using posters, pictures, books, magazines, maps, and newspaper articles[2]

    b. Recommend books and reading material keeping in mind the students' television interests.[3] A television interest inventory may determine what the students watch on television and what programs they enjoy.

    c. Have sports books by retired athletes available to read

    d. Have newspaper accounts of televised sports events and use them for reading

    e. Encourage the students to obtain paperback books from educational book clubs like Teenage Book Club (TAB), Discovering, and Read Book Clubs and encourage students to read the books that are related to the television programs[4]

    f. Select topics presented on favorite television programs and

        (1) Discuss them in class

        (2) Read excerpts from the book dealing with the topic

        (3) Tell the students where to find the book[5]

    g. Make a classroom television[6]

---

[1]George J. Becker, _Television and the Classroom Reading Program_, Reading Aids Series (Newark, Del: International Reading Association, 1973), pp. 13-32.

[2]Ibid., p. 17. [3]Ibid., p. 20 for b.

[4]Ibid., pp. 20-21 for c-e.

[5]Ibid., p. 23 for f (1)-f (3).

[6]Ibid., pp. 24-25 for g.

2. Speaking

   a. Draw pictures or collect pictures of television characters

   b. Identify television characters using two teams and a ten question game

   c. Develop role playing interviews

   d. Adapt a television game show to the classroom[1]

3. Listening

   a. List words spoken on television to use in speaking and/or use in writing

   b. Listen for dialects and regional dialects which may serve as an introduction to our evolving language[2]

   c. Listen to themes from television shows on records or a cassette tape and try to identify them

   d. Listen to a cassette tape of voices and situations from television and try to identify them

4. Comprehension Skills

   a. Watch television for different purposes such as

      (1) Summarizing the plot

      (2) Determining interesting words

      (3) Identifying the setting of a television program

      (4) Identifying the way people acted at a particular time

      (5) Identifying the most exciting event of the program

   b. Write a critical review of the program

   c. Write recipes or directions for a project from a televised program[3]

---

[1]Ibid., pp. 16-17 for 2 a-d.

[2]Ibid., pp. 13-14 for 3 a-b.

[3]Ibid., pp. 25-26 for 4 a-c.

4. Comprehension Skills
    d. Write an original plot and omit the resolution
    e. Analyze the methods of persuasion used in the television commercials[1]

5. Content Areas
    a. Make a list of the technical vocabulary from a television program and analyze the words structurally
    b. Introduce new concepts in relation to television that the students are involved in using such as a _budget_
    c. Compute the amount of time devoted to commercials[2]

6. Study Skills
    a. Summarize the program's plot similar to a _TV Guide_ entry
    b. Take notes on an informative television program such as "Wild Kingdom," "Meet the Press," the Jacques Cousteau Specials, and the "National Geographic Specials"
    c. Graph the results of a television preference survey
    d. Compute the mileage traveled in several television programs
    e. List words from television programs that the students do not know[3]

7. Writing
    a. Write a biography of a television character or an entry for a book such as _Who's Who in America_
    b. List adjectives describing a character or locate precise synonyms by using a thesaurus[4]

---

[1]Ibid. for 4 d-e.   [2]Ibid., pp. 28-29 for 5 a-c.

[3]Ibid., p. 27 for 6 a-c.

[4]Ibid., pp. 29-30 for 7 a-b.

7. Writing
   c. Write letters to stars and ask them their
      favorite books
   d. Write a script changing the setting of a series[1]
   e. List the sequence of events in a program
   f. Write critical reviews of television programs
      or television commercials[2]

To reinforce the words presented on the commercial
television program, "Wordsmith", a small accordian booklet
could be made by the students or by the teacher and placed
on duplicating masters. The vocabulary exercise could be
varied for the needs of individual students or for small
groups. The illustration provided on the following page
offers an example of a booklet for the prefix, geo.

Following a television lesson on writing opening
sentences, the students were expected to write an opening
sentence in their notebooks. After having their sentences
checked for appropriateness as opening sentences, their
spelling, capitalization, and punctuation, the students
wrote their opening sentences on a duplicating master.
Lines were drawn at the bottom of the duplicating master
under the opening sentences. After the lesson from the
instructional television program, "From Me to You. . .in
Writing," was duplicated, the students were asked to
choose one of the opening sentences to begin a paragraph
with, develop the idea into a paragraph, and write the
paragraph at the bottom of the duplicating master.

---

[1]Ibid. for 7 c-d.   [2]Ibid., pp 31-32 for 7 e-f.

	G1. Geo- is a prefix which means "earth." This is a Greek prefix, and it is used in many scientific words. All of the words that are in the sections to follow have the prefix,	**G2.** geo-, in them. DIRECTIONS: Fill in the word that completes each section. The same word appears in both sentences.	PASTE
G3. When we study rocks, it is known as _____. The "study of the earth" is _____.	**G4.** Maps come in many sizes and forms. To study maps would be called _____. "Earth writing" is another way of saying _____.	**G5.** Jean's favorite type type of mathematics is a type which involves measuring property by knowing lines and angles, _____. The study of "earth measuring" is _____.	PASTE
G6. Many creatures on earth do not travel outside the earth's atmosphere; therefore, they are "earth centered" or _____. The universe is not earth centered, _____.	**G7.** ANSWERS. G 3. geology G 4. geography G 5. geometry G 6. geocentric	**G8.** Here is one last try. Someone who studies the earth is known as a _____. geologist.	PASTE

Illustration 14. An Example of an Accordian Booklet to Reinforce the Study of Words on the Television Program, "Wordsmith".

"From Me to You. . . in Writing"

Lesson 6 "What's in a Sentence Besides Words?"

1. Going back to school is not as easy as it seems.
2. Older men sometimes play football better than younger people.
3. The wonders of outer space are fascinating.
4. I think you can learn more on T. V. than by listening to a radio.
5. Can over-eating kill you?
6. The great monuments of Washington, D. C., are some of the wonders of the world.
7. Skateboarding is dangerous or fun.
8. Airplanes are helpful as well as dangerous.
9. My trip to Alaska was fun.
10. Diving is a nice sport.
11. Swimming is a great sport.
12. Gynmastics is a very exciting sport.
13. Horses are very interesting animals.
14. Books tell the story of many adventures.
15. Rats are very dangerous to our environment and are equipped for astonishing deeds.
16. Space is an infinite exploration for man for years to come.

Gymnastics

Gymnastics is a very exciting sport. In this sport there are four events: the floor exercise, uneven bars, balance beam, and the jump. The floor exercise is a skill which is done on mats. It shows fast moves, ballet steps, tumbling, and very dramatic moves which are combined together with music being played in the background. The balance beam is a skill which shows a lot of balance as they do stunts back and forth on a four inch beam. The uneven bars show constant moves on one bar higher than the

other. The jump consists of a spring board which they jump off and onto a four foot high box which they push off into the air doing a twist or something like that.

Lesson twenty-six of the instructional television program, "Our Living Language", provided the format for the students to write a story. After the ideas from the lesson were discussed in the class and written on the chalkboard, the main ideas were written on a duplicating master. The students used these ideas as a guide in writing a story developing it in a step by step process. The resulting duplicated sheet is reproduced as follows:

Lesson 26 "Writer's Workshop"

I. Select a plot or idea to develop in written form
II. Choose an appropriate title
III. Follow the outline to write your story
    A. Setting
        1. Where; a location
        2. Mood
        3. Time (past, present, or future)
        4. Main characters
        5. Circumstances or situations
          (Situation characters are facing.)
    B. Main Body
        1. Story unfolds
        2. Conditions or experiences the characters face
        3. Conflicts or adventures
        4. Introduction of new characters
    C. Closing
        (Main Idea of Each Paragraph)
        1. How was the adventure or conflict concluded?
        2. Who resolved the situations?
        3. What really happened?

IV. Editing
    A. Do the sentences belong to the paragraph?
    B. Are the paragraphs related to each other in their ideas?
    C. Are the sentences written clearly?
    D. Does the story hold the reader's attention?

V. Proofreading

    A. Read the story for spelling errors
    B. Read it for punctuation errors
    C. Read it for omission errors, that is, the omission of words
    D. Read it for the duplication of words

The commercial television program, "America", was developed in a lesson to assist the students in note-taking and completing an outline. The lesson was presented as follows:

Episode 3 "Making a Revolution, Parts I and II"

Purpose for Listening: As you view the television lessons, keep these questions in mind.

1. Do you think that there are ever times when it is justifiable to rebel against authority? Give reasons for your answer.

2. If the American struggle for independence actually began after the outbreak of the Revolution,
    a. What caused the Revolution in the first place?
    b. For what goals were the colonists fighting?
    c. Why did most colonists prefer not to support or become involved with the Revolution?

3. What were the major factors that contributed to America's success in the Revolution against the highly trained British Army?

Complete this outline as you listen to the two lessons.

        The American Revolution

I. Struggle for Independence
    A. Main Causes Leading to the Revolution

    B. Goals Sought by the Colonists

II. Factors Contributing to America's Success in the Revolution

Sometimes it is beneficial to have the students list the main points of a television lesson in poster form. A few examples of posters completed by students for the television program, "From Me to You. . . in Writing," are presented here.

What's in a Sentence?

interest

unity   WHAT?   'Suspense

coherence

A <u>topic sentence</u> should have

1. Suspense, comparison, or contrast

2. Suggest what will be developed in a paragraph

Sometimes only part of a thought is written. This is called a <u>fragment.</u>

<u>Fragment</u>: Although I like carrots.

<u>Sentence</u>: I like carrots.

<u>Sentence</u>: Although I like carrots, I don't eat them often.

What's in a Paragraph

A <u>paragraph</u> <u>always</u> has to be <u>planned</u> in one way or another. First, you can plan it in your head or write your ideas on paper.

A <u>paragraph</u> should <u>have</u> <u>three qualifications</u>: 1) <u>interest</u>, 2) <u>unity</u>, and 3) <u>coherence.</u>

<u>Interest</u> is very important and <u>has seven parts</u>:

1. Concrete details

2. Comparison

3. Contrast

4. Suspense

5. Adjectives for more interest

6. Know your reader

7. Catch ideas

Since television is a medium by which activities using listening, reading, and discussion may be developed, television has many uses in and outside of the classroom. Some suggestions for television usage either commercial or instructional television will be enumerated in a list.

1. Use a television program as an introduction to a lesson before it is covered in the textbook.

2. Use a television lesson or program as a review of material after a lesson in the classroom. This serves as a reinforcement.

3. Require the students to establish their own purposes for listening. After the program, ask them if their purposes for listening were met. Have them explain how their purposes were met or why their purposes for listening were not met by the producers of the television program. This may be accomplished as a class or in smaller groups where everyone is required to contribute their own ideas.

4. Have the students pose questions to have answered by the television lesson. After the program, have the students think of resources to seek that would be useful in answering any questions that may not have been answered or resources to locate additional information.

5. Record the television lesson on a cassette tape as it is viewed by the students. Have them take brief notes as they listen to the lesson and use the cassette tape to fill-in essential ideas. This technique is helpful for students who have difficulty coordinating three activities such as viewing television, listening to the program, and taking notes at one time. These students could use earphones and the cassette recorder to listen to the tape on their own and skip parts of the tape where their notes are complete. A class discussion could be used also with the teacher completing an outline on the chalkboard or by using an overhead projector. Students could be paired, too.

6. Have the teacher watch the television program ahead
   of time; if possible, request someone else to watch
   the program; or obtain a videotape of the program if
   the school has the essential equipment. By doing
   the previewing process, the teacher may develop a
   lesson for the program which would increase the
   students' proficiency in a specific reading and
   study skill.

7. Tape the program on a cassette tape to listen to
   the audio part of the television program.

8. Use the teacher's manual for ideas. The students
   may want to use the teacher's manual themselves
   which would be beneficial.

9. Develop a bibliography on the topic to be viewed
   on television and then duplicate it for the class.
   Have the students do a written and/or oral report,
   a project, or other activity on the topic. See
   appendixes A, Materials for Writing Students Contracts,
   and Independent Study Group Contracts; E, On Hundred
   Activity Ideas; and F, Television Units for more
   suggestions.

10. Create a poster or display on the topic.

11. Have a collection of books and magazines available
    in the classroom on the television lesson or ask the
    school librarian to have a place in the library
    available for a display on the television lesson's
    topic.

12. Use with the television program reading and study
    skills that may be checked without previewing the
    the program:
    a. Formulate questions before the telecast. Deter-
       mine if the questions are answered. If not,
       form research groups or teams to locate the
       answers to the questions.
    b. Set purposes for viewing the program. This the
       students should do.

12. c. Select the main idea of the program and its
supporting details.

   d. Place specific parts of the program in their
proper sequence.

   e. Divide the class into two teams and have them
alternately recall one idea at a time as many
ideas as possible from the television program.

   f. Ask the students to take notes either on points
that they found useful to them or list three or
four ideas from the program. Therefore, a
specific limit of ideas may assist students.

   g. Have the students paraphrase an idea from the
the television program.

   h. **Observe** the characters and determine from their
actions what type of people they are in the
television program.

These activities are offered as suggestions. Each
of them should be judged according to student and teacher
needs and the possible successfulness of using one of them
with a particular class. Any of these activities may be
used alone or combined with other activities.

Conclusions on television's potential as an
instructional medium. Through their studies, Dunn, Ayers,
and Lamb have concluded that television has tremendous
possibilities as determined through their findings. Dunn's
findings concerning television are (1) as an instructional
medium television is of benefit to children not in the
cultural mainstream, and (2) the greatest benefits of tele-
vision develop as the television lesson is supplemented by
work with parents, teachers, or aides.[1] Finally, Dunn
concluded that time spent in follow-up activities varied
in a positive ratio to the gains measured.[2]

_____

[1]Lamb, "Reading and Television in the United States"
in New Horizons in Reading, p. 372.

[2]Ibid.

Ayers who surveyed elementary students' attitudes
toward instructional television revealed that "Recent
studies have concluded that elementary school children
think they learn more from television than do high school
and college students."[1]

Other results determined by Ayers are that (1) pro-
grams in science and social studies were the most popular,
(2) twenty-two to thirty percent of the students listed
reading programs as the most preferred, and (3) more
preparation was needed prior to viewing the television
lesson and more follow-up activities were needed.[2]

From Lamb's studies these major conclusions are
found. Teachers need to have students more involved in
activities prior to or following the television lessons.
Instructional television can be used to minimize loss of
reading skills during summer vacation. "Pupils tend to
become more critical of instructional television as they
use more of it and their enthusiasm wanes. This trend may
not be irreversible, however."[3]

As far as television's importance as an instruc-
tional medium is concerned, then four ideas seem to dominate:
(1) television has a tremendous potential; (2) television's
impact is great; (3) television is an influential medium;
and (4) children can learn much from television.[4] Tele-
vision's usefulness as a learning tool has grown. Viewers
have had an opportunity to see the read-along program, "The
Defection of Simas Kudirka."[5] Truly, there is a furture
for television in education both at home and in school.

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[1]Ibid., p. 377.   [2]Ibid.

[3]Ibid.   [4]Ibid., p. 381.

[5]WITI, "The Defection of Simas Kudirka," 22 January
1978; and the Educational Communication and Media Branch of
the Los Angeles Unified School District, Dr. Michael Mc-
Andrew, and the CBS Television Reading Program Staff, "The
Defection of Simas Kudirka, A Teacher's Guide for Televi-
sion Reading Enrichment" (New York: CBS Television, n. d.).

Textbooks

Introduction. "Every lesson in every textbook is
a potential source for the best teaching of reading skills.
Few secondary teachers seem to realize this."[1] Assigning
the students to read the textbook will not insure the
growth in reading skills. What may be needed to encourage
the growth of reading and study skills and later strengthen
and sustain these skills is the purposeful teaching of
reading skills incorporated into the daily assignments in
the content area.[2] Since daily assignments are usually
designed from a textbook, this section will be devoted to
the textbook as a material to use to teach reading and
study skills in the content areas of Language Arts and
and social studies.

In many classrooms the textbook is the main means
of transmitting written information. Supplemental film-
strips, cassette tapes, audio-visual materials, and
reference materials usually from the library contribute
much to the learning process. Since students learn by
reading the textbook for a particular class, it is here
that teachers should start in teaching reading and study
skills. How to introduce reading and study skills into
the curriculum and continue using them in a well-designed
program depends on the teachers' own concern with the
importance placed on teaching these skills. A framework
for a basic program may be useful. The ideas to be pre-
sented are not new, but they are based on the ideas of
authorities in the field of reading.

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[1]Olive Stafford Niles, "Comprehension Skills," in
Teaching Reading Skills in Secondary Schools: Readings,
ed. Arthur V. Olson and Wilbur S. Ames (Scranton, Penn.:
International Textbook Co., 1971), p. 175.

[2]Ibid.

Using reading and study skills with the Language
Arts textbook. In many classrooms the textbook is the
main means of transmitting written information. Supple-
mental filmstrips, cassette tapes, and other audio-visual
materials contribute much to the learning process. Since
students usually begin with reading the textbook for a
particular class, it is here that teachers would begin in
teaching reading and study skills and to determine which
ones to select by giving the students an informal reading
inventory. By providing the students with an informal
reading inventory, the teachers would be able to determine
the students' strengths as well as their weaknesses. An
informal reading inventory may be used in any subject area.

Informal reading inventory. Using reading and study
skills is essential to remembering what is learned. This
inventory for the Language Arts is prepared using the text-
book, Ginn Elements of English 7.

Inventory for Reading and Study Skills Usage in Language Arts

Directions: Use your textbook to answer these questions.

Part I. Parts of a Book   Total score: ___10___

                                 Student's score: _____

A.   Does your textbook have these parts?
     If the book does have the part, check the yes column
     and mark the page number where the part begins.
     If the book does not have the part, check the no column.

		YES	PAGE NUMBER	NO
1.	Preface	___	_____	___
2.	Title	___	_____	___
3.	Frontispiece	___	_____	___
4.	Handbook	___	_____	___
5.	Index	___	_____	___
6.	Copyright	___	_____	___
7.	Table of Contents	___	_____	___

	YES	PAGE NUMBER	NO
8. Glossary	____	_____	__
9. Bibliography	____	_____	__
10. Word list at the beginning of the chapter	____	_____	__
11. Acknowledgments	____	_____	__
12. Appendix	____	_____	__

B. Complete the information here by using your textbook.
    If the textbook does not have the information, write
    none on the line.

1. Textbook title: _____

2. Author or authors: _____

3. Place of publication: _____

4. Publisher: _____

5. Copyright: _____

Part II. Using the Table of Contents
    Fill in the statements by using the information
    in the textbook.

                    Total score: _____10_____
                    Student's score: _____

1. Page _____ starts the study of sentences.

2. Chapter _____ deals with studying the English
    language.

3. Chapter six starts on page _____.

4.-5. Two lessons for the chapter entitled "Language
    Families" are (4) _____
    and (5) _____.

6. The lesson on using the library starts on page _____.

7. The lesson that starts on page 187 is entitled

    _____.

8.-9. The Handbook is found from page (8) _____ to
    (9) _____.

10. "Revising Your Description" is a lesson in chapter

    _____.

Part III. Using the Textbook   Total score: ___10___

                                      Student's score: _____

Where would you find this information in your textbook?
Write the page number or page numbers on the spaces
provided.

1.-2. How to capitalize these words:

       cudahy, wisconsin   (1) _____

       the milwaukee journal   (2) _____

3. How to address an envelope _____

4. Punctuage this sentence:

    Jane and David will arrive at the basketball game

    in time to see Larry play___ (4)_____

5. Proofreading symbols _____

6. Methods of developing a paragraph _____

7. How to outline _____

8. What the form class words are _____

9. How to write a bibliography _____

10. The revision process _____

PART IV. Using the Index   Total score: ___15___

                                      Student's score: _____

Using the index, find the page number location of the
information requested.
Then, for some of the questions use the textbook to
locate the specific information being sought.

1. Guidelines for interviewing _____ (page)

2. Give the four guidelines for interviewing:

    a. _____

    b. _____

    c. _____

    d. _____

3. Listening for sentence errors _____(page)

4. Information on standard English _____(page)

5. The poem, "Miracles" _____(page)

6. Write the first line of the poem, "Miracles"

    _____

7. Use of this reference book, <u>The Reader's Guide</u>
for Periodical Literature_____(page)

8. Forms of the outline_____(page)

9. Opinions and facts _____(page)

10. The audience and its importance in advertising
_____(page)

11. Information on the thesaurus _____(page)

12. Abstract and concrete words _____(page)

13. Prepositional phrases _____(page)

14. Limiting the topic of an essay _____(page)

15. Notetaking _____(page)

PART V. Reading a Chart   Total score: ____6____

                                  Student's score: _____

Using the chart on page 61 in your textbook, answer
or complete these statements.

1. The German word for <u>mother</u> is _____.

2. In English the Sanskirt word <u>dvau</u> means
_____.

3. The Latin word for <u>is</u> could be _____.

4. The Russian word for <u>three</u> is _____.

5. The French word for <u>two</u> is _____.

6. In this chart _____ languages are
being compared.

<u>Completing a book questionnaire</u>. To acquaint the
students with the textbook, completing a book questionnaire
may be suitable. Through a preview procedure with specific
purposes, students would become familiar with the parts of
a book. Then, further activities in using an index, a
table of contents, and a glossary would be written later if
the teacher deemed it necessary.

Book Questionnaire

Directions: Can you locate the following information
              in a textbook or a library book?

              Check your "L. K." (Location Knowledge)
              by using a book and your own paper and
              pencil to answer these questions.

1. Title:
2. Author or authors:
3. Publisher:
4. Place of publication:
5. Date of publication or copyright:
6. Is there a preface or an introduction?
7. What is the purpose of the book?

8. How long of a book is it?
    a. Chapters:
    b. Pages:
9. What kind of illustrations are in the book?

10. Is there an appendix?
11. Where would you find the glossary?
12. What kind of information does a glossary have?

13. Is there an index?

14. How is an index useful?

15. Is the book
     a. Well printed and easy to read?
     b. Well illustrated?
     c. Well bound?
     d. Useful for studying or do you need many extra
         reference books?

Using reading and study skills with the English
workbook. The workbook being used in the English or Language
Arts class, Plain English 2, provided an introductory
section, directions, the written activities, and a follow-
up activity. The students worked in pairs, and they read
the introductory section. Partners may be assigned by the
teacher, chosen by the students themselves, or randomly
assigned to work in pairs. The steps used in this paired
study technique will be numbered below:

Step 1. Preview the introductory section by skimming and
identifying the main words in bold black print.
These words would be circled, and the students
would pronounce the words to each other.

Step 2. Read the definitions of the words and/or phrases
quietly.

Step 3. Underline the important information to remember
and study the preliminary material.

Step 4. Say the meaning of one of the words to the part-
ner for practice.

Step 5. Ask questions about the meaning of the partner's
word. The student would quiz the partner on the
words and their meanings.

Step 6. Review the meanings of the words that have caused
difficulty.

Step 7. Read the directions to the written activities
together. The students should be able to para-
phrase the directions to their partner. If the
directions are complicated, the students read the
directions as a class, and each part of the direc-
tions is numbered. The students proceed to do the
written activities.

Step 8. The students do the numbered activities one at a
time alternately in the following manner.
a. Answer sheets are provided to assure the
students of immediate feedback as to whether

a. their answers are correct or need correction.

b. One of the students has the odd numbered answers
    and the other student has the even numbered
    answers.

c. The students who do the odd numbered activities
    are corrected by their partners who have the
    answers.

The reading and study skill technique used with a
workbook just described would seem to be a workable way
of learning for two specific reasons: (1) it would
provide immediate feedback and correction, and (2) it would
provide an opportunity for students to work and to learn
together as active participants in the learning situation.
The assignment completed in pairs may be evaluated, and in
addition, students may comment on their own progress. As
a result of the evaluation and student comments on difficul-
ties during the lesson, individual or small group assign-
ment sheets may be supplied for the students who are in
need of more practice on a particular activity.

An example of an evaluation sheet that may be use-
ful and a sample of a possible assignment sheet for small
group or individual assignment sheets will be presented.

Evaluation Sheet

Please rank each of the members of your group after you
have written their names in the spaces provided.

S = Superior   A = All right

E = Excellent   F = Fair

G = Good   P = Poor

Add comments on the bottom of this sheet and on the back
of this sheet if they will be helpful.

Names of the group members:

1. Willingness to share ideas and help others						
2. Willingness to continue working until all is done						
3. Willingness to listen to the suggestions of others						
4. Amount of work put in by the individual alone						
5. Degree to which you feel he or she worked up to his or her ability						
6. Willingness to work in a business-like manner						
7. If you were given the choice of working with this person again, how would you rank him or her as a choice?						

Comments: (Use the back of this paper if needed.)

ASSIGNMENT:	PRESS CARD
_____	REPORTER:_____
_____	SUBJECT:_____
PAGES:_____	GRADE:_____
DEADLINE:_____	DATE:_____

THE ASSIGNMENT SHEET NEWS

Assignment Number 1978

MONDAY comes with a **BANG!** Don't fear.	TUESDAY is a new day for this year.	WEDNESDAY is midweek cheer.	THURSDAY means the weekend is near.	FRIDAY Deadline is here.

<u>Using reading and study skills with the social</u>
<u>studies textbook</u>. In Horn's research paper, "A Model for
Integrating Skills with the Social Studies Curriculum at
Cudahy Junior High West", she supplemented her study of
skills with material for the seventh grade social studies
textbook, <u>Sources of Identity</u>, which is also used at Holy
Family School in Cudahy. Since she provided lessons for
<u>Sources of Identity</u> which included a textbook inventory
and sample exercises in vocabulary, comprehension, making
inferences, map reading, and practice with charts, this
area of reading and study skills seemed to be sufficiently
developed by her. Therefore, further information using
the seventh grade social studies textbook, <u>Sources of</u>
<u>Identity</u>, will not be repreated. Instead the readers will
be referred to Horn's research paper for these lessons.
The material to follow will be developed using the eighth
grade social studies textbook, <u>Settings for Change</u>, or
using materials by which teachers may develop their own
social studies lessons.

    <u>Planning a class schedule</u>. Because many of the
students had older brothers and sisters who were writing
their own class schedules for college, the students seemed
interested in creating their own hypothetical schedule.
The format was planned by listing three factors: the sub-
jects, the times, and the teachers' names. The purpose
for reading was prepared along with the directions for
competing the class schedule. Then, questions to keep in
mind were written. Afterward the schedule of subjects,
times, and teachers' names plus the class schedule form
were given to the students who were cautioned to use
pencil in completing the class schedule since changes were
probable. A class question period was held to clarify any
uncertainties that the students would have. Further
teacher guidance and discussion with the students were

provided during the completion of the class schedule. The students were allowed to confer with each other quietly during the social studies class. A follow-up activity was based on the purpose setting questions at the beginning of of the decision-making lesson.

Decision-Making: Scheduling Classes

PURPOSE: The purpose of this assignment is to prepare a schedule for yourself.
1. Choose the appropriate times that will complete your schedule.
2. Choose the times so that all the credit requirements are fulfilled.

SUBJECT	CREDITS OR DAYS FOR EACH SUBJECT
Religion	- 5 - Daily
Science	- 5 - Daily
Mathematics	- 5 - Daily
English; Spelling	- 5 - Daily
Social Studies	- 5 - Daily
Reading	- 5 - Daily
Music	- 2 - Monday and Wednesday
Physical Education	- 2 - Tuesday and Thursday
Art	- 1 - Friday

PURPOSE SETTING: As you do this assignment, keep these questions in mind.

1. Who or what influenced you when it came to choosing the time to have a particular subject?
2. When would you prefer most of your classes?
   Morning (8:30-10:30 A.M.),
   Mid-morning (10:30-12:00 Noon), or
   Afternoon (12:30-2:30 P.M.)?
3. Why would you make this choice of time?
4. What types of decisions did you have to make?
5. Did your schedule turn out as you had planned?
   Why or why not?

6. What are some of the advantages of doing this assign-
   ment?

7. What are some of the disadvantages of doing this type
   of an assignment?

8. Feedback--Any Comments:

Schedule: Subjects, Times, and Teachers

ART
    10:00 -   F - Mr. Danek
    1:45 -   F - Miss Bahan

ENGLISH; SPELLING
    8:30 -Daily - Miss Wysocki
    9:15 -Daily - Miss Bahan
    12:15 -Daily - Sister Agnese
    1:00 -Daily - Sister Audrey

READING
    9:15 -Daily - Mr. Danek
    10:00 -Daily - Miss Bahan
    10:45 -Daily - Sister Audrey

MATHEMATICS
    8:30 -Daily - Mrs. Guss
    10:00 -Daily - Mrs. Guss
    10:45 -Daily - Miss Keyser
    12:15 -Daily - Mr. Danek

MUSIC
    10:00 - M, W - Sister Agnese
    1:45 - M, W - Mrs. Guss

PHYSICAL EDUCATION
    10:00 - T, Th- Mrs. Trotter
                   and Mr. Joe
    1:45 - T, Th- Mrs. Trotter
                   and Mr. Joe

RELIGION
    9:15 -Daily - Sister Marilyn
    12:15 -Daily - Mrs. Correll
    1:00 -Daily - Sister Helen Marie

SCIENCE
    9:15 -Daily - Mr. Velasco
    10:45 -Daily - Mrs.
                   Correll
    1:00 -Daily - Mr. Danek

SOCIAL STUDIES
    8:30 -Daily - Miss
                  Keyser
    9:15 -Daily - Sister
                  Helen
                  Marie
    10:45 -Daily - Mr. Velasco
    1:00 -Daily - Miss
                  Wysocki

Class Schedule

TIME	MONDAY M	TUESDAY T	WEDNESDAY W	THURSDAY Th	FRIDAY F
Subject 8:30 Teacher					
Subject 9:15 Teacher					
Subject 10:00 Teacher					
11:30	LUNCH				
Subject 12:15 Teacher					
Subject 1:00 Teacher					
Subject 1:45 Teacher					
2:30	DISMISSAL				

Follow-up Activity

DIRECTIONS: 1. Answer these questions in complete sentences.

2. Base your answers on the assignment that you have just completed.

1. Who or what influenced you in scheduling your classes?

2. What problems did you encounter when you were planning your schedule?

3. What are some of the advantages of this type of an assignment?

4. If you had an opportunity to schedule all your classes early in the day (8:30 A.M.), mid-morning (10:30-12:00 Noon), or afternoon (12:30-2:30 P.M.), when would you schedule the classes?

5. Give two reasons for your answer for the time scheduling in number four.

6. Did you find any disadvantages to doing an assignment like this?

7. Write your comments and/or suggestions here. Use the back of this paper if necessary for your comments.

Writing your own textbook. Using the textbook as a basis of study, the students were asked to select a topic related to the political science section in their social studies textbook. Contract writing was introduced by preparing the students with the sheet, "Before You Write Your Contract. . .", which is located in appendix A, Materials for Writing Student Contracts and Independent Study Contracts. Before the activities were begun, expectations for writing the contracts, completing the project, and the evaluation process were determined. All materials including reference and library books and audio-visual materials that the students had planned to use for their written assignments were listed on the contracts.

After the students had completed their textbook section which involved research, they were to write another contract for their project and oral reports. The teacher's copies of the students' contracts were arranged on the bulletin board under the students' names, and the students had their own copies to refer to, also. A calendar on the bulltetin board was developted to record the students' contract due dates so that they may refer to the calendar during class time if need be, and the teacher could observe at a glance when the oral, written, and project contracts were due.

Teacher guidance was provided all during the activities. The learning center was available daily to the students. Previously, arrangements had been made with the school's learning center director to use the resources available there. An agreed upon library pass stating the student's name, the objective for the day, the time allowed for research, and the teacher's signature provided a guideline for the learning center director and the learning center aides who initialed the four inch by six inch index cards each time the students did their research in the learning center.

Usually, the first five to ten minutes of class
time were set aside for organizational purposes. Most
of the time, however, the students requested library
passes a day ahead of time rather than waiting until the
next day. A log sheet was completed daily by the students
to note their progress especially if the library was being
used for that day. Daily observation sheets for the
students were supplied to list how the students were using
their research time and cooperation during the class time.

After the written assignment was completed by the
students, their papers were put through a Thermofax machine
to produce a duplicating master, and then enough copies of
the booklet were produced for the students and the teacher.
The students collated the paper and stapled the booklet
containing all of their research together. To make the
booklet more utilitarian, a cover and binding of the pages
together would create a more secure textbook for the
students own usage.

The following pages will provide an idea of how
the activities were organized, and a few representative
pages of the resulting booklet will be presented.

Social Studies: Writing Your Own Textbook

DATE DUE: _____

WRITTEN SECTION

1. Print all information in pencil.

2. Do maps, drawings, graphs, and other illustrations
   in pencil, also.

3. Give the section you have a title.
   Subsection titles may be used, also.

4. Keep a list of your sources of information
   for a bibliography.

5. Find information in reference and library books
   and preferably different from the textbook and the
   encyclopedia.

6. Footnote any direct quotations.

7. Identify and/or define new names and words.

8. Write a three to five sentence introduction.

9. Outline the most important information in the text-
   book section you have chosen to do.

   Include:
   a. Chapter title and chapter number
   b. Section title and section number
   c. Page numbers of the textbook that will be
      included.

PROJECT SECTION

DATE DUE: _____.
                    (Limit one to two weeks)

Directions: 1. Prepare a project to supplement the
               written section of the booklet.

            2. Choose the project first, then, read
               the following part.

            3. Possible projects are suggested below.
               Other choices may be made, but they
               must be okayed before actual work is
               started on them.

Project Suggestions:

1. Booklet or collection of drawings, pictures, photo-
   graphs, maps, articles

2. Collection of books and/or posters

3. Dioramas or models

4. Slides, filmstrips, records, cassettes

5. A mounted display

6. A mobile or wall hanging

7. Stitching, needlecraft, or cooking

8. Woodworking, woodburning, or another handicraft

9. Stamp collection with an explanation of how it is related to your topic

10. Art activity for the class to do

11. Puzzle or puzzles of various types

12. Make posters, signs, or advertisements

13. Create a bulletin board

14. Display articles with identification labels

Explain in writing:

1. Specifically what will be done?

2. How will the project be made?

3. What materials will be necessary for the project?

4. How long will the project take to prepare?

5. For your oral presentation, how long will it be?

6. Are you working by yourself, someone else, or with a group?

Evaluation of the Writing Your Own Textbook Activity
Teacher's Evaluation Sheet

RATING SCALE

5 = Excellent
4 = Very good
3 = Good
2 = Satisfactory
1 = Poor

I. BOOKLET SECTION or WRITTEN SECTION

A. Outline _____

B. Footnotes _____

C. Bibliography _____

D. Penmanship _____

E. Pictures, graphs, or illustrations _____

F. Content   _____

G. GRADE FOR THE
WRITTEN SECTION
(Possible total: 20-30)   _____

II. PROJECT SECTION

A. Use of time   _____

B. Finished project   _____

C. Cooperation.   _____

D. GRADE FOR THE
PROJECT SECTION
(Possible total: 15)   _____

III. ORAL PRESENTATION

A. Varied speaking
voice   _____

B. Ability to be
heard   _____

C. Eye contact   _____

D. Composure   _____

E. Visual aids   _____

F. Awareness of the
audience   _____

G. Content of the
oral presentation   _____

H. GRADE FOR THE ORAL
PRESENTATION
(Possible total: 30-35)   _____

IV. OVERALL GRADE

A. Written Section   _____

B. Project Section   _____

C. Oral Presentation   _____

D. OVERALL GRADE   _____

RATING SCALE FOR OVERALL GRADE

      70-80 = Excellent

      60-69 = Very good

      50-59 = Good

      40-49 = Satisfactory

       0-39 = Poor

Students' Evaluation of Their Group

PART I. Read each statement.
         Answer them as completely as possible

1. Subject:

2. Group's name and/or purpose:

3. Group members:

4. Chairperson, if any:

PART II. Read each question in the two sections

        Decide how to answer the questions by choosing
        either yes or no. If you are uncertain of
        which answer to choose, select the answer that
        applies most of the time.

        Circle your response. Again choose either
        yes or no.

Section A. Individual Evaluation: How Did I Work
          in the Group?

1. Did I fulfill my responsibilities?   YES   NO

2. Did I cooperate to the best
    of my ability?   YES   NO

3. Did I keep to business all of the
    time?   YES   NO

4. Did I do my best?   YES   NO

5. Were the people in the group
   kind to me?   YES   NO

6. Was I criticized by anyone in the
   group?   YES   NO
7. Why?

8. Was I kind to everyone in my group? YES   NO

9. Do I want to work with this group
   again?   ·   YES   NO

10. My comments:

Section B. Group Evaluation: How Did the Group
            Work Together?

1. Did the group work quietly?   YES   NO

2. Did the group keep to the topic being
   discussed?   YES   NO

3. Did everyone do something in the
   group?·   YES   NO

4. Did everyone work together without
   conflict?   YES   NO
5. Why or why not?

6. Do you feel anyone dominated the
   group?   YES   NO

7. Was the project completed on time?   YES   NO

8. Was the chairperson elected?   YES   NO
   NO CHAIRPERSON

9. Was the group satisfied with the
   project?   YES   NO

10. My comments:

The Students' Evaluation of the Activities

Directions: Complete the following open-ended sentences
with your own ideas concerning the Social
Studies assignment just completed.

I. <u>WRITTEN SECTION</u>

    A. In dividing the work, I found _____

    _____.

    B. If I had to do research from just books and

    magazines _____.

    C. Doing most of the assignment in the classroom

    rather than at home _____

    _____.

    D. Finding information for the written section was

    _____.

    E. I found writing footnotes was _____

    _____.

    F. Writing a bibliography was _____

    _____.

II. <u>PROJECT SECTION</u>

    A. The directions for the project were _____

    _____.

    B. If I had a choice of doing another activity like

    this, I _____

    C. The choices for the project section were _____

    _____

    D. The part I enjoyed the most was _____

    _____.

    E. I believe I learned these things:
    (Use the back of this sheet if more space is
    needed.)

    _____.

    F. The part I least enjoyed was _____

    _____.

III. ORAL PRESENTATION

A. Giving an oral talk is _____

_____.

B. Whenever I speak in front of the class, _____

_____.

C. Using audio-visual aids for an oral talk_____

_____.

D. When I prepared for this oral talk, _____

_____.

E. Once the oral talk was over, I _____

_____.

Booklet
Writing Your Own Textbook

Booklet Unit 3. Political Science, "Man's Government"
Table of Contents

"The Rights of Men"
Page 1

I. The Right of Men

A. Three hundred years ago a king would be feared feared by his subjects.

B. To disobey a king was sinful in those days.

    C. Englishmen said there was nothing new.

    D. In 1215 nobles forced King John to sign the Great Charter.

II. The Glorious Revolution

    A. People though it was terrible to plot against King James II.

    B. The "Glorious Revolution" was the talk of all Europe.

    C. Politics was on the minds of all people who wrote books about the government.

III. Locke and Law

    A. Locke was a writer.

    B. He was an Englishman who said the "Glorious Revolution" was needed.

IV. Hobbes and Monarchs

    A. Hobbes had grown up under an orderly English government.

    B. Centralized administration ran Europe.

"The Rights of Men"
Page 2

The Glorious Revolution

After 1688, with the signatures of King William and Queen Mary on the Bill of Rights and other acts protecting Parliament, the rule of law, or constitutionalism, was well established in England. Most people thought it was terrible to have plotted against King James II. Other people said the "Glorious Revolution" was needed to settle political problems for England.

Writing student contracts and independent study
contracts on Antarctica and the Arctic. Since the idea
of contract writing had been previously introduced, the
students were enthusiastic to begin another contract. A
filmstrip from the Cudahy Public Library entitled, "North-
land", number 308, and books from several libraries
furnished a basis for the contract introduction on the
Arctic and Antarctica. A selected bibliography for Ant-
arctica and the Arctic is provided at the end of this
research paper. The contract writing followed the organ-
ization that was presented in appendix A, Materials for
Writing Student Contracts and Independent Study Contracts.
This assignment gave the students an opportunity to use
their reading and study skills which had been learned
previously.

Applying reading and study skills in either Langu-
age Arts or social studies. In a previous section various
organizational and reading and study skills have been
presented. In addition to these skills are several other
reading and study techniques: (1) team learning, (2) D. E.
P. Smith's Hypothesis Testing Pattern Steps, (3) Notetaking
System for Learning or NSL, (4) Read, Encode, Annotate, and
Ponder Strategy or REAP, and (5) Transformational Strategy:
Manzo's Re-Quest Procedure.

Guiding pupils in the use of the textbook through
team learning. Team learning is a means of guiding those
who are able to read "only fifty to ninety percent of the
words" in a textbook.[1] Using the team learning approach
originated with Durrell, each step will be presented in the
outline that will follow.

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[1]Ralph C. Preston and Wayne L. Herman, Jr., Teach-
ing Social Studies in the Elementary School (New York:
Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1974), p. 389.

I. The teacher will divide the class into teams of two to three students.

II. Selection of the captain will depend upon good reading ability.

III. The students would be given the teacher-prepared study guide which
   A. Would list questions
   B. Would cover the day's lesson.

IV. The captain will read the questions aloud to the team members.
   A. Each pupil will look for the answers in the textbook.
   B. The answers will be given orally.
   C. Questions would be discussed together.
   D. The captain may consult an answer sheet whenever necessary.
   E. The process will continue for each question written in the study guide.
   F. Every student will answer every question.
   G. The study guide will serve as a guide and not a test.

V. The purposes for the study guide will be beneficial to the students.

VI. The organization of the team learning technique will begin with the study guide.
   A. Questions will be posed.
   B. Alternatives will be provided by the students.
   C. Discussion of the alternatives will be allowed.
   D. The study guide will take the students "through procedures required for understanding the textbook."[1]

VII. The teams will be used only for textbook pages

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[1] Ibid., p. 390.

that will be essential to the lesson rather than
using the procedure daily.

VIII. Team learning is beneficial for literal meaning.[1]

D. E. P. Smith's Hypothesis Testing Pattern Steps.
Developing the main ideas of a textbook through literal
and inferential reading may be accomplished through the
D. E. P. Smith's Hypothesis Testing Pattern Steps (H-T
Pattern). In step one the students will read the first
sentence and assume that it is the main idea. The second
step will involve the students in reading the second
sentence of the paragraph. Then, if the meaning of the
first sentence is supported by the second sentence, the
first sentence is assumed to be the main idea. If the
first sentence is too narrow, the main idea would be
broadened to include the second sentence's idea. The
students continue to read and to take notes in the same
manner as in steps one and two.[2]

Notes should be taken in the following manner
using the H-T Pattern or the Hypothesis-Testing Pattern.[3]
TMI = Tentative Main Idea

TMI 1 _____

TMI 2 _____

TMI 3 _____

TMI 4 _____

Notetaking System for Learning or NSL. Palmatier
has developed a Notetaking System for Learning or NSL
which would provide the reader or listener with a method
of taking reading and/or lecture notes and a systematic
review of master notes. The notes would be organized in

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[1]Ibid., pp. 390-391.

[2]Lawrence E. Hafner, Developmental Reading in the
Middle and Secondary Schools: Foundations, Strategies, and
Skills for Teaching (New York: Macmillan Publishing Co.,
Inc., 1977), pp. 224-225.

[3]Ibid., p. 225.

the following manner. (1) The notes are written on one
side of an eight and one-half inch by eleven inch piece
of loose-leaf. (2) A left side three inch margin is
added to lined paper having no margins. (3) Reading or
lecture notes are written to the right of the margin.
(4) After the notes are written, numbers and letter are
written to identify the material. (5) In the left-hand
margin the students would write labels that would corres-
pond to the "segments of information recorded in the
original notes."[1] The labeling process would allow the
students to complete "informational gaps" while material
would be fresh in the students' minds.[2] (6) Next,
students would insert reading notes into the appropriate
positions in the left-hand margin using the corresponding
numbers and letters from the original notes. (7) For
study purposes the notes would be arranged by placing the
second page on the first page and so on so that only the
left-hand margin would be showing. The labels in the left-
hand margin would be converted into questions by the stu-
dents who would answer the questions and who would after-
wards check their notes for the accuracy of the answer.
When a page of notes would be mastered, it would be placed
in an "I already know" stack.[3]

REAP. REAP is " a strategy for improving reading/
writing/study skills" which was developed by Eanet and
Manzo.[4] Using the REAP strategy would involve four steps.
First, the students read for the author's message or main
idea which would be secondly encoded and organized in the
students' own words. Third, the message would be written
in notes using a summary, thesis, or formulating questions
concerning the author's message or in other words, annotate
the notes. The fourth step would result in pondering the

---

[1]Ibid., p. 180.   [2]Ibid.

[3]Ibid.   [4]Ibid., p. 179.

message which would be processed by thinking about the
message, by studying it, and by discussing it. There-
fore, REAP is an ancronym for Read, Encode, Annotate,
Ponder.[1]

Transformational Strategy: Manzo's Re-Quest
Procedure. Manzo's Re-Quest Procedure has three purposes:
(1) the procedure will promote reading; (2) it will assist
the students to read the material actively; and (3) it will
provide an active learning situation for developing ques-
tions. By using the basic technique, the teacher would be-
come a model for the students' questioning behavior. The
students would ask questions about the textbook materials,
and they would set a purpose for reading. The students
would use the teacher as a model. The lesson would improve
comprehension of what the students would be reading.[2]

The students and the teacher will read the first
sentence silently, and the teacher will close the textbook
while the students ask the questions. The teacher will
answer the questions and will require unclear students'
questions to be rephrased. The teacher will ask the
questions to add to the students' understanding (literal
and interpretation), also. The same process will be used
on the second sentence. During this process, both the
students and the teacher will ask the questions and answer
them (integration and evaluation). To improve the stu-
dents' questioning, positive feedback would be beneficial.
Reading will continue until the paragraph's meaning is
grasped. Predictions may be made as to what the students
think will happen next and why it would happen. This pro-
cedure would be continued with the second paragraph if the
students needed further assistance in using the reading/
writing/study strategy. A follow-up activity would be
useful.[3]

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[1]Ibid.   [2]Ibid., pp. 134-135.   [3]Ibid., p. 135.

Conclusion

The aim of this research paper was not only to develop the thesis as thoroughly as possible but to (1) write the paper in such a manner that it could be read easily; (2) reading and study skills could be used on it; and (3) main points could be determined readily by the reader. Because time is precious and important points must be evaluated, analyzed, and organized by the reader in a limited amount of time, these objectives were planned. However, the successfulness of the thesis and the objectives set in this research paper may be evaluated by the individual reader.

APPENDIX A.
MATERIALS FOR WRITING STUDENT CONTRACTS AND INDEPENDENT
STUDY GROUP CONTRACTS

Introduction

The materials presented on writing student
contracts and independent study group contracts
on the following pages are from information prepared
by Anne M. Bell, Reading Specialist at Bell Junior
High School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin. These materials
were given to me by Mrs. Bell during the 1970-1971
school year.

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Student Contract Form

I hereby pledge that __(A. State activity.)_____
(B. State manner or way in which the activity will be _____
     carried.)_____

_____

(C. State behavioral objectives.)_____

Contract No.:   _____   Contractor: _____

Starting Date: _____   (Student)

Completion Date: _____   Contractee: _____

                                              (Teacher)

Explanation:

    A.   Self-explanatory

    B.   Manner or way in which the activity will be done:

        1. read   5. construct
        2. discuss   6. look at
        3. listen   7. other
        4. write

    C.   Knowledge student hopes to gain and the mechanics of producing the end results:

        1. neatness   5. well prepared
        2. completeness   6. correct spelling
        3. learn to budget 7. develop good habits
            time well   of work
        4. others   8. learn to work
                           independently

Contract No. The first one the student does is number 1,

     the next, number 2, and so forth.

    Contracts should be written in clear, complete sentences. It is not to be signed by the teacher until the form and the contents of the contract are satisfactory.

Independent Study Group

The Contract and Its Evaluation

I. **THE CONTRACT**

   I hereby pledge that I _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

   Contract No.:   _____   Student _____

   Starting Date: _____   Teacher _____

   Completion Date: _____

II. **PERTINENT DATA**

   A. Proposal submitted   _____

   B. Rough draft handed in   _____

   C. Final copy submitted   _____

   D. Completed project
      handed in   _____

III. **EVALUATION**

   A. Self Evaluation:

   B. Teacher Evaluation:

      1. Comments:

      2. Things done well:

      3. Areas needing improvement:

   C. Date Evaluated   _____

   D. Rating   _____

<u>Before You Even Write Your Contract. . .</u>

1. Clearly state the topic you will read and work on
    for your contract.

2. List carefully the materials you will use such as
    books, magazines, filmstrips, booklets, dioramas .

3. Decide on a reasonable <u>starting date</u> and <u>finishing
    date</u>.

4. Make a duplicate copy of the contract for your recorder
    or teacher.

5. Clearly think about and state your goals or
    objectives.
    Think to yourself:

    I want to learn about _____ so I
    will read <u>(List materials.)</u> . After I have read,
    I will concentrate on learning <u>(Choose some particular
    thing or things to learn.)</u> . I will show that I have
    learned it by <u>(Tell what kind of product.)</u> . (Be
    <u>sure to include the materials you will use and the</u>
    <u>type of report: written, oral, model or diorama.)</u>

6. Decide on what kind of project you are going to do.

7. The following hints will help you know what is expected
    of you for each different type of project.

    a. <u>WRITTEN REPORT</u>
        (1) Use a booklet form with covers. Arrange
             it artistically.
        (2) Make sure your booklet has a Table of
             Contents.
        (3) Be sure to do all your writing in <u>ink</u>, and
             write on only <u>one side</u> of the paper.
        (4) Make it interesting by using drawings, graphs
             pictures, maps, and other types of illustra-
             tions.
        (5) Be sure you give credit to the authors
             by listing your <u>sources of information</u> in a
             bibliography
        (6) Do the booklet neatly, completely, and
             originally. Avoid merely copying.
        (7) Be sure the booklet report is free from
             errors in spelling, capitalization, and
             punctuation.

b. ORAL REPORT
   (1)   Use visual aids to make your report more interesting: slides, maps, pictures, posters, films.
   (2)   Pick out the main details so that your report is no longer than five or ten minutes.
       (Usually you may not have a person's attention if the report takes too long.)
   (3)   Present your report confidently: speak loudly and clearly.
   (4)   Prepare well enough so you can "tell" the report not just read it.
   (5)   Be creative and original.
       Try to think of new and better ways to share your ideas with other people.

c. MODELS AND DIORAMAS
   (1)   Think very hard about your idea and be sure that the scene you show is a good example or illustration of that idea.
   (2)   Make sure visitors know which book this scene is from by displaying the title prominently.
   (3)   Write a short paragraph describing the scene.
       Tell the scene's importance to the whole book.

<u>While You're Working on Your Contract. . .</u>

Assuming that you've written a detailed, specific and challenging contract, you'll want to make sure you're using your time wisely and really getting the most out of your independent study. Here are two helps:

1. Think over how you spend your day. Perhaps once a week, write down your thought and feelings about if you had a good day or if you had a bad day. Tell why. Does it seem that you're learning things and enjoying it? Are you making progress, or are you going too slowly? Keep these ideas on paper with your copy of the contract.

2. Decide on a time for a conference with your teacher. Set up an appointment for some time after your contract and the project have been completed. A good time might be the next class after you present your project.

You probably want to know how your teacher feels about all the work you did on your project and if your contract was a success. Here are some things your teacher and you will discuss at the conference.

CONFERENCE: INDEPENDENT STUDY EVALUATION

Contract Number: _____   Work Period _____

Conference Date: _____   to _____

<u>The Student's Use of Time</u>:
1. Was there sufficient work completed?
2. Was it challenging?
3. Did it present that chance to grow and learn new things, or is the student in a rut?
4. Could the student have done more?
5. Did he choose a place to work that was good for him?
6. What could be done better next time?
7. Could the student do everything he said he would do in the contract?
8. Was the contract too easy?
9. Was the contract too vague?

Summary:

1. Student's comments:
   a. What good lessons did I learn about my topic?

   b. What good lessons did I learn about my work habits?

2. Teacher's comments (evaluation)

_____   _____
Student Signature   Teacher Signature

Guide to Contract Work

I. OBJECTIVES

To have the student:

A. Become more independent.
B. Be more responsible for making his or her own decisions.
C. Develop and employ good habits of work.
D. Challenge himself or herself to broaden the fields of interest by delving into different areas that have not been looked into before this.
E. Use originality in preparing and presenting reports.
F. Learn to use and employ wide use of the school resources such as the library and audio-visual aids.
G. Evaluate his or her own work and how well the time was used while working independently.

II. CONFERENCE GUIDE

A. Contract
   1. Topic clearly stated.
   2. Kind of project stated (oral, written, model or diorama).
   3. List of materials to be used (books, magazines, filmstrips, and other materials) stated.
   4. Goals and objectives stated.
   5. Starting date and completion date stated.
   6. Contract neatly written.
   7. Two copies of the contract made or duplicated.

B. Completed Project
   1. Written
      a. Booklet form with covers
      b. Table of Contents
      c. Report in blue or black ink
      d. One side of the paper used
      e. Pictures, drawings, or other illustrations included
      f. Sources of information given in a bibliography
      g. Report is neat
      h. Report is complete
      i. Report is original, that is, not copied from printed matter without a footnote and preferrably expressed in own words

2. <u>Oral</u>
   a. Use of visual aids
   b. Well organized with main idea evident
   c. Five to ten minutes long rather than being too lengthy
   d. Preparation thought out so that the report is told rather than read
   e. Creative and original way of presentation

3. <u>Models and dioramas</u>
   a. Scene is a good illustration of the idea from the book.
   b. Title is displayed prominently.
   c. Short paragraph describes the scene.
   d. Ingenious use of construction materials

III. Student Growth

A. Responsiblity and Independence
   1. Sought help on own and needed little encouragement
   2. Displayed good habits of work
   3. Made good use of time
   4. Sufficient work completed in time allotted
   5. Made good use of school resources: library, audio-visual aids, community resources, other teachers, and other resources
   6. Showed originality in preparing and presenting the report

B. Areas Done Well

C. Areas Which Needed Improvement

Rating Chart

I. CONTRACT

    A. Clearly stated topic
    B. Kind of project listed
    C. Materials to be used listed
    D. Starting and finishing dates listed
    E. Contract too easy
    F. Contract too vague

II. GENERAL

    A. Evidence time was well used
    B. Sufficient work completed in time allotted
    C. Could have done more work
    D. Make good use of school resources
    E. Well organized materials

III. PROJECT

    A. Work done neatly
    B. Showed good organization and thought
    C. Showed originality in preparation or
       presentation
    D. Completed all work according to the contract
    E. Completed the contract on the due date
    F. WRITTEN REPORT
        1. Booklet form
        2. Organization
            a. Cover
            b. Table of Contents
            c. Body
                (1) Written neatly
                (2) Includes pictures, diagrams, or
                      other illustrations
            d. Neatness
            e. Either blue or black ink was used
            f. Written well
        3. Neatness
        4. Own words were used instead of copying
           word for word
        5. Correct spelling was used

G. ORAL REPORT
  1. Material well organized
  2. Prepared
      a. Spoke without hesitation
      b. Used notes only occasionally
  3. Used visual aids
  4. Creative
  5. Not too long
  6. Not copied word for word

H. DIORAMAS AND MODELS
  1. Scene vivid
  2. Name of book, article is clearly seen
  3. Originality shown
      a. Shown by use of materials
      b. Shown by interpretation of the scene
  4. Short paragraph telling about the scene

IV. CONCLUSIONS

  A. What was done well?
  B. What could have been done better?

V. STUDENT

  A. Showed independence in work or project
  B. Showed growth and maturity since the last
     contract

VI. RATINGS

  A. Very Good
  B. Good
  C. Satisfactory
  D. Poor
  E. Very Poor

Student Contract Form

I hereby pledge that _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Contract No. _____

Starting Date: _____

Completion Date: _____

Contractor: _____
(Student's Signature)

Contractee: _____
(Teacher's Signature)

Independent Study Master Sheet

NAME	CONTRACT NUMBER			CONTRACT NUMBER		
	TOPIC	CONF. DATE	RATING	TOPIC	CONF. DATE	RATING

THE C. Y. F. W. D. AND A. O. C. TEST OR CAN YOU FOLLOW
WRITTEN DIRECTIONS AND ANSWER QUESTIONS CORRECTLY TEST

Introduction

The material to be presented here is a fictitious
test created by fictitious authors. The name of the test
and the names of the authors are given to establish
credibility with the students. The main purpose of this
test is to determine how many students actually read the
directions on a paper before they start doing the questions
before them.

A suggestion would be to set a predetermined time
limit so the students work at a faster than normal speed
and so that the students would not have an opportunity
to possibly let others in on the secret of number 30.

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The C. Y. F. W. D. and A. Q. C. Test
Created by Professors C. Direct and A. Q. Constant

Directions: Read each statement or question thoroughly.
              Follow the directions as carefully as possible.
              Do the test to your best ability.
              Read everything carefully before doing anything.

1. Write your heading at the top of a sheet of paper
    in the upper right-hand corner.

2. Read each of the directions thoroughly before you do
    anything else.

3. Look at the clock and record the time.

4. How many people do you have in your family who live
    at home?

5. Record your best friend's age.

6. How many desks are there in the classroom?

7. Which subject do you enjoy the most?

8. Which subject would you like to see added to the
    school's study program?

9. In what direction is Lake Michigan?

10. What is your favorite radio station?

11. If you were given fifty dollars, what would you buy?

12. Put your first, middle, if any, and last initial
     on your paper next to number 12.

13. Write your Confirmation name next to your initials.
     If you do not have a Confirmation name, write the
     the word, none.

14. Name your two favorite television programs.

15. Give the title of a book you have read in the past year.

16. Give the title of a movie you would like to see or have
     seen.

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17. List three magazines your family or you usually buy.

18. Name your favorite magazine.

19. What is your favorite color?

20. What high school will you be going to or hope to be going to in the coming year?

21. If you could travel anywhere in the United States in the next year, where would you go? Choose two states or places.

22. Who is the person you most admire?

23. Name any hobbies you have. If you must limit yourself, name at least two hobbies.

24. What sport or sports do you participate in at school or with your friends outside of school?

25. List your favorite food.

26. What kind of design would you like to see on your stationery or note writing paper?

27. Have you ever been to Florida?

28. Have you ever been west of the Mississippi River?

29. If you could buy five items valued at a dollar each or less, what items would you buy?

30. After you have read all the statements or questions, answer only questions one, two, eight, and twenty-nine. Then, sit quietly until the time limit is called.

The first of January nineteen-hundred and seventy-eight not only began a new year, but also, new provisions concerning copying any materials from books, magazines, music, lyrics, records, and television programs.

Since the copyright law affects all citizens, it is particularly noticeable at the photocopy machines. Because most of these machines are available and usually unattended, notifications similar to this one found on a machine on February 2, 1978, may be a common occurrence from now on when you use a photocopy machine.

Copyright Law (Title 17 U.S. CODE)
    Subsection 108 (f) (1):
Notice: The copyright law of the United States,
Title 17 U.S. Code, governs the making of
photocopies of copyrighted materials. The
person using this equipment is liable for any
infringement.

Personnel in charge of the schools' mass media and duplicating facilities are readily informing teachers of the importance of The Copyright Law, 1978, Title 17 U.S. Code.   Specific paragraphs were chosen from a bulletin distributed to teachers at an area high school.

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[1]Copyright Law 17, subsec. 108 (f) (1), (1978).
Cudahy, Wis.: Cudany Library 2 February 1978 .

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The new copyright law is a book by itself but
only a very small part deals with teachers so
here is a quick summary.

Section 106: The owner of a copyright has the
exclusive rights to reproduce, edit, distri-
bute, perform, and display.

Section 107: Fair use in education. A
teacher may request a SINGLE copy of any
copyrighted material if he or she is going
to use it in teaching or preparation to
teach. (This part of the law also applies
to a student if he asks for a copy on his
own and is not directed to ask).

A teacher may request Multiple copies for the
classroom if A L L the following conditions
are met. It must be brief (One chapter, or
one poem, or one article). It must be spon-
taneous. (You just noticed the article and
it will reenforce your point tomorrow; i.e.
there is no time to get permission. You will
not be able to demonstrate spontaneity semester
after semester for the same article). Each
copy includes a copyright notice.

Section 107: Prohibitions. Copying shall not
be used to create or replace or substitute for
a text. There shall be no copying of consum-
able i.e. workbooks, exercises, standardized
tests, etc. Copying shall not substitute
for purchase, be directed by higher authority,
be repeated by same teacher, charged for over
the actual cost.

Music people have a whole section of the law
just for themselves; they should know it and
understand it.

If you want to copy something check to see if
it shows a copyright symbol: (C) or (P). If
it doesn't, it is at most only a $100 fine and
probably no fine to copy it.

---

[1]Clark High, "The New Copyright Law," Brookfield,
Wis.: Brookfield Central High School, 3 January 1978.
(Mimeographed.)

Many copyrighted work sheets say right on them
that it is ok for teachers to copy them.

The one part of the law that is not clear is
video recording a TV show. We will make
decisions on each individual request—some will
be refused.

Write for permission to copy. In most cases
you will get permission for a small fee. The
school or department will have to budget for
this in the future. If a publisher says no,
or doesn't answer promptly, or the fee is too
high, tell your librarian. She will be asked
to report to the copyright office every five
years to have the law revised. This is the
only way teachers can have the law changed to
fit their needs.[1]

High is knowledgeable about the new law because
he states on this mimeographed paper that "I have studied
the law and have had 6 hours of class time on it."[2]
Therefore, he seems to be a creditable person to quote
when knowledge of this law is necessary or the concern
of a person in the field of education.

[1]Ibid.   [2]Ibid.

A SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY OF SOURCES CONCERNING THE NEW
COPYRIGHT LAW OF 1978

Copyright Law: Questions Teachers and Librarians Ask.
        Washington, D. C.: American Library Association,
        National Council of Teachers of English, and
        National Education Association, 1977.

        The address and cost of the material is
        as follows: Send two dollars to
        National Education Association
        Order Department
        The Academic Building
        Saw Mill Road
        West Haven, Connecticut 06516.

Copyright Law 17, subsec. 108 (f) (1), (1978). Cudahy,
        Wis.: Cudahy Library, 2 February 1978.

        This notification was a typed one rather
        than an official notification from the
        government.

High, Clark. "The New Copyright Law." Brookfield, Wis.:
        Brookfield Central High School, 1978. (Mimeo-
        graphed.)

        Even though the information is found on two
        sides of one sheet of paper, the material is
        concise and informative.

The New Copyright Law: Questions Teachers and Librarians
        Ask. Washington, D. C.: National Education
        Association, American Library Association and
        NCTE, 1978.

        The address and cost of the material is as
        follows: Send two dollars to
        NEA
        1201 16th Street, N. W.
        Washington, D. C. 20036.

        This apparently is the most recent edition
        of the material according to the 1978 copyright
        date.

Directions for preparing the cards:

1. Cut 3" x 5" index cards in half.

2. Print the cards as the examples show in the
    following manner.

dog	jump	happy	quickly
(noun)	(verb)	(adj.)	(adv.)
		adjective	adverb

is	in the house
(L. V.)	(prep. phr.)
linking verb	prepositional phrase

3. Have a large selection of nouns, verbs, adjectives,
    articles. adverbs, and prepositional phrases for
    more sentence variety.

    Later on, you may want to add other words (parts of
    speech) for more complex sentence patterns. Also,
    noun clauses, infinitives, adjective and adverbial
    clauses could be put on cards in a similar manner
    as a prepositional phrase. In this way, students
    could see that clauses can be found in other areas
    of the sentence rather than thinking they just appear
    at the end of a sentence.

4. Have each deck consist of from forty to sixty cards
    for a N - V - N pattern. Other parts could be
    added later to increase the size of the deck. The
    number of nouns, verbs, and articles in the deck
    would be determined by the teacher. A possible
    breakdown for a forty card deck would be?
    twenty-five noun cards, ten verb cards, and five
    article cards.

    SUGGESTIONS: It would be suggested that the game
    be played by the teacher to gain first hand
    knowledge of the game.

    Before the game could be used in the classroom,
the students should have an understanding of the basic

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sentence patterns through oral and written work such as labeling parts of the sentence and writing sentences.

Directions for playing the game:

1. Two, three, or four students at the most should be in a group, and they should be given a deck containing from forty to sixty cards to play the game unless the students are making their own cards. Then the index cards and material necessary should be provided or the students should be told ahead of time to bring the materials to class for making the game.

2. A basic sentence pattern for example a N - V - N pattern could be put on the board.

3. Each student in a group should be dealt four cards for the N - V - N pattern or one more card than the sentence pattern would need to be completed.

4. The remaining cards should be placed face down on the table.

   a. The person to the left of the dealer would pick one card from the remaining cards on the table.

   b. Then he or she would place the card he or she does not wish to use for the sentence pattern face down on the table next to the pile of remaining cards.

   c. Each player will continue this until someone does make the desired sentence pattern with his or her cards.

Directions for starting the game:

1. At first, the sentence does not have to make sense,
   N   V   N
   dog caught home, as long as it fits the pattern.
   Then the students should make a sentence that has
        N   V   N
   meaning, dog ran home.

2. A list of sentence patterns could be put on the board with the number of points for each sentence pattern. On the next page, examples of the points for certain sentence patterns will be provided.

Points	Sentence Patterns
5	N – V
10	N – V – N or N – LV – N
10	N – V – Art. and N
15	N – V – Art. and N plus prep. phr.

3. The students would keep a record of their scores.

Sentence Patterns	Names			
	John	Joan	Jane	Sam
N – V – N				
N – V – Art. and N				

4. The dealer would select the pattern and the number of points for each game, and the students would proceed on their own with the game as it was previously explained by the teacher.

5. During the first time the game is explained by the teacher, the students should play along in each of their groups. As the students continue on their own, questions would be answered by the teacher as he or she walks around the room viewing the playing of each of the groups.

6. NOTE: The teacher may wish to vary the game to fit his or her students' needs or the teacher's own needs.

APPENDIX E. ONE HUNDRED ACTIVITY IDEAS[1]

1.	Acrostic	36.	Filmstrip making
2.	Advertisement writing	37.	Flannelboard
3.	Atlas work	38.	Flashcards
4.	Banner making	39.	Folders
5.	Baseball quiz	40.	Forums
6.	Bibliography writing	41.	Free verse
7.	Brochures	42.	Games
8.	Bulletin boards	43.	Gestures
9.	Captioning	44.	Graphs
10.	Cartooning	45.	Group discussions
11.	Case studies	46.	Group drawing
12.	Celebrations	47.	Group reports
13.	Chalk talks	48.	Group research
14.	Chart making	49.	Group sculpture
15.	Check lists	50.	Group writing
16.	Choral reading	51.	Guest speakers
17.	Clay modeling	52.	Illustrations
18.	Collage	53.	Indexing
19.	Collections	54.	Interviews
20.	Comic strip drawing	55.	Lecture
21.	Craft use	56.	Letter writing
22.	Creative drama	57.	Library projects
23.	Creative music	58.	Maps
24.	Creative writing	59.	Memorization
25.	Dance	60.	Mobiles
26.	Debate panel	61.	Mosaic art
27.	Definitions	62.	Movies
28.	Demonstrations	63.	Music activities
29.	Diary	64.	Murals
30.	Drawings	65.	Newspaper topic search
31.	Drills	66.	Newspaper writing
32.	Exhibits	67.	Notetaking
33.	Experiments	68.	Open-ended questions
34.	Field trips	69.	Opinion poll
35.	Film making	70.	Oral presentation

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[1]Lynne Wrocklage, "Catechetical Methods," Religion Teacher's Journal 7 (February 1973): 44.

71. Overhead projection
72. Pageants
73. Painting
74. Panels
75. Pantomime
76. Paper sculpture
77. Paraphrasing
78. Periodical use
79. Photography
80. Pictures

81. Plays
82. Poems
83. Printing
84. Pro and con discussions
85. Projects
86. Puzzles
87. Questionnaire
88. Questions and answers
89. Quotations
90. Radio use; radio script

91. Records
92. Replicas
93. Scrolls
94. Self-evaluation
95. Slides and slide making
96. Story telling
97. Tape recordings
98. Television script writing
99. Travel brochure
100. Twenty questions

APPENDIX F. TELEVISION UNITS

Introduction

The materials presented on television units on
the following pages were prepared by John Boland,
coordinator of the teachers' resource center, intern
teacher coordinator, and teacher at Parkman Junior
High School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, during the 1970-
1971 school year. These materials were given to me
by Mr. Boland during the 1970-1971 school year.

Mr. Boland encouraged teachers to add their own
ideas to anything they used from the resource center since
he seemed to believe that the teacher's creativity was
important and should be shared with others. Therefore,
any teachers who happen to find these materials useful
for their purposes should feel free to supplement the
Television Unit and the Television, Newspaper, and Radio
Advertising Unit with their own ideas and share these
ideas with their colleagues.

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<u>Television Unit</u>

It is safe to assume that the children watch a lot of television. This may be put to good use in the Language Arts classroom.

I. Obtain a television listing from the <u>Milwaukee Journal</u> or <u>Milwaukee Sentinel</u> or a <u>TV Guide</u> and post it. Point out daily the programs that the students should watch.

    A. Criteria for selecting "good" programs should be set up by the <u>students</u>. This would then offer points of reference for criticism purposes.

    B. Students could be grouped by rows or by some other method and they could review the television show previews in the paper, and then the group would give a weekly report such as making recommendations for viewing.

        1. Role playing A radio broadcast could be produced. "This is WWWQ your happy radio station with the news of the day."

        2. A panel being interviewed by the rest of the class could be accomplished.

        3. Written weekly reports on duplicating masters could be given to the class to be used as a guide to television viewing. These duplicated television reports could be shared with another class.

II. Write a <u>TV Guide</u> for junior high school students according to their interests.

    A. Include advertisements

    B. Bring copies of the <u>TV Guide</u> to class as examples

    C. Include drawings of stars, an article of special interest, and other similar ideas

III. Create post-program critiques.

    A. With recommendations in mind all students could be asked to watch a particular program. The next day, according to criteria the <u>students</u> previously established, the class would be asked to evaluate the program.

B. Emphasize listening techniques.
Have students measure their comprehension of
what occurred in the television program.

C. Refer to the book, _Techniques of Value Clarifi-
cation_, for ideas on how to encourage students
to take positions with respect to the program.

IV. Develop writing activities with a television pro-
gram as a springboard.

A. Different ending
B. Letter to the company that sponsored the pro-
gram and tell them about the program
C. Different setting: time and location

The Television Unit and the unit to follow, the
Television, Newspaper, and Radio Advertising Unit, may be
used together or separately depending upon the decision
of the teachers using these materials.

Television, Newspaper, and Radio Advertising Unit

I. Student analysis of commercials

Advertisers use rhythmical chants to catch interest
and attention.
For example, these are familiar slogans heard on
commercials:
"Pan Am makes the going great."
"It's what's up front that counts."

A. Students could be asked to _list_ as many of
these rhythmical chants as possible.
1. The lists could then be compiled and
duplicated for all the students in the
class.
2. This should be done _by the students_.
B. Students could then be asked questions, such as
1. Do you notice anything about the rhythm
of these phrases.
2. Why are all of them set to music?
3. What other qualities make them stick in our
memory?

    C. Have the students evaluate the ethical quality
        of these advertisements
        1. Do the ads get people to buy the items they
            do not need?
        2. Should there be a control on advertisements?
        3. If there should be a control on advertise-
            ments, what kind of control should be used?
    D. Refer to the book, Techniques for Value Clarifi-
        cation, for specific activities to encourage the
        students to deal with these value questions.

II. Students should make up a product and sell it using
    advertisements.

    A. These ads could then be
        1. Developed into a radio broadcast
        2. Staged as if they were on television
        3. Written in script form as for a play
        4. Written as if they were for a magazine
        5. Taped on a cassette recorder and then
            played back
        6. Draw pictures
    B. The students could evaluate the affect of each
        others' ads.

III. A speaker to discuss advertising could be asked
     to talk to the class.

IV. Filmstrips on advertising and propaganda could be
    borrowed.

APPENDIX G. TELEVISION LESSON PLAN.

An example of a television lesson plan for the
fifth episode of the commerical television series,
"America," will be presented to assist teachers in plan-
ning their lessons for television.

"Gone West"

I. Objectives

A. Content objectives[1]
1. Significant settlement west of the
Appalachian Mountains did not occur for
almost two hundred years after the
arrival of the first English colonists.
2. The Louisiana Purchase doubled the size
of the United States.
3. The "forty-niners' " spirit of adventure
and perseverance was an important part
of American life.
B. Performance objectives[2]
1. Label and number on a map the territorial
expansion of the United States in the
sequence in which the expansion took
place.
2. Complete a chart comparing and contrast-
ing the motivation
a. Of the pioneers who settled west of
the Appalachian Mountains
b. Of the pioneers who went west to
California in the 1850's[3]

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[1]John P. Neal, Martin W. Sandler, and Nelson B.
Nugent, Study Guide to Accompany the Television Series
America (Lexington, Mass.: Ginn & Co.), p. 17.

[2]Ibid. Written in behavioral objectives.

[3]Ibid. Written in behavioral objectives.

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II. Relationship

According to the teacher's study guide, the overall objective of the series, "America," was determined, as Cooke pointed out, that the United States was in the growing process and how this growth could promote meaning and guidance for now and for the future. In this lesson there was a westward movement and a westward expansion in the United States which led to the beginning of the nation's growth on a large scale. The people and what motivated them to move west of the Appalachian Mountains were viewed.

III. Materials

A. Preparation for the televised lesson
1. Draw a map of the United States with the territories added after the thirteen colonies were settled on a duplicating master without labeling the territories
2. Prepare a chart for the students to complete with notes from the television lesson
3. Write the questions for the lesson on the chalkboard or have them duplicated for each student
4. Duplicate enough maps, charts, and questions for everyone in the class
5. Make a list of the expectations for the oral and/or written reports with the students
6. Collect these materials:
   a. Map of the United States at the present
   b. Map of the United States showing the territorial expansion
   c. Overhead projector, screen, and pointer if the maps are transparencies
   d. Compass
   e. Pictures
      (1) Camping equipment from a catalogue
      (2) Wilderness areas of Canada, the United States, and Wisconsin
B. Preparation for the follow-up lesson
1. Have each follow-up question written on an index card
2. Divide the class into four groups after the telecast
   a. Assign the students to their groups
   b. Have each group develop an answer for their question by
      (1) Choosing a secretary to take notes
      (2) Selecting a representative to report to the class the answer that the group has developed for their one question

IV. Introduction
    A. The lesson will be introduced to the students
       by posing these questions:
        1. If you were going on a camping trip into
          a less populated are like the Northwest
          Territory of Canada, what would you need
          for the trip?
        2. Why are each of these items necessary
          for your survival?
        3. What type of adventures would you expect
          to have?
        4. Suppose you ran out of food and had to
          live there for one more week, what would
          you do?
    B. Compare this experience to the time of the
       early American settlers.
    C. A class discussion of the questions and a
       brainstorming session would follow after the
       questions were introduced.
    D. Pictures of camping equipment from a catalogue
       and pictures of wilderness would be shown to
       the students to help them visualize the area
       of the camping trip.

V. Information
The material that this lesson will present is
as follows:

    A. Virtues of Daniel Boone
    B. Survival of the early settlers
    C. Acquistion of the Louisiana Territory
       1. Controversial acquistion
       2. Made between President Jefferson and
         Napoleon
       3. Exploring of the Louisiana Purchase
         by Lewis and Clark
    D. Fur trapping
    E. Discovery of gold at Sutter's Mill
       1. Rush west to California
       2. Vignettes about the etymology of the
         cities' names along the westward trail

VI. Questions and Ideas
    A. Classroom teachers' questions[1]
       1. What is a frontier?
         a. Are there any frontiers in America
           today? Explain.
         b. Why were the Great Plains the last
           large area to be permanently settled?

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[1]Ibid., p. 20.

2. Why was salt important to those who traveled westward across the Appalachian Mountains?

3. What was the effect of the discovery of gold on the settlement of the American West?

4. What is the difference between the phrases, "the westward expansion" and "the westward movement"?

B. Students' questions that may be asked
1. Why didn't the settlers move north or south?
2. How did the pioneers manage to stay alive on the Great Plains?
3. What happened to the people after the gold was gone?

VII. Suggested Activities

A. Follow-up activities
1. Reports and/or projects
   a. Napoleon
   b. California in the 1800's
   c. Pioneer life
   d. The Gold Rush
   e. Lewis and Clark
   f. Daniel Boone
   g. Indian situation in the 1800's
   h. President Thomas Jefferson
   i. Survival skills needed by the pioneers
2. Footprints of exploration
   a. Trace your foot on two pieces of paper
   b. Use one paper foot for drawing a picture of an explorer or something about his exploration
   c. Use the other paper foot for a short written report on the explorer and his exploration
   d. Mount both feet on construction paper or cardboard
   e. Attach the paper feet to the bulletin board
3. Draw a map of the territorial expansion of the United States from 1776-1960
4. Label on a map each states' year of entrance into the Union
5. Small group work
6. Time line showing the United States' acquisition of new territories and states admitted to the Union

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[1]Ibid., p. 20.

B. Relationship to other classroom subjects
   1. Music
      a. Musical instruments of the time
      b. Songs sung around the campfire
   2. Social Studies and Health (First Aid)
      a. Prepare an emergency survival kit
         to keep in the family's car
      b. Prepare a pet emergency survival kit
         for a dog, cat, rabbit, or animal of
         similar size
   3. Language Arts
      a. Locational skills
      b. Reading and study skills
      c. Spelling skills
      d. Writing skills
   4. Mathematics
         Compute how many miles the pionerrs
      traveled to Sutter's Mill from the state
      of Virginia
   5. Science and Geography
         Wildlife and the natural boundaries
      encountered by the pioneers on their travels
   6. Art
      Construct or draw
      a. A scene of Sutter's Mill
      b. A picture of the wilderness
      c. A scene of the prairie the settlers
         crossed
      d. A scene of how the settlers traveled
         westward
      e. The animals encountered by the settlers
      f. The vegetation encountered by the
         settlers

VIII. Suggested Readings

   A. Pages marked in several textbooks; list would
      be duplicated and posted
   B. Collection of newspaper and magazine articles
      from home file cabinet
   C. Encyclopedia of the United States' History
   D. Books, audio-visual materials, and other
      materials from the library

IX. Assignments and/or Homework

   A. Map illustrating the territorial expansion of
      the United States
   B. Chart comparing and contrasting why the pioneers
      settled west of the Appalachian Mountains or why
      they went to California in the 1850's instead
   C. Written or oral report on the settlers' survival

X. Tests or Check-up Activity
      Each assignment (IX.) will be evaluated.

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        A word building game using the crossword
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adult.

Author Card Game. Racine, Wis.: Western Publishing Co.,
        n. d.
        Author cards are shuffled. Each person calls
an author and then draws a card. If the player gets
the card of the author called, another chance to
pick is given. If the player is unsuccessful, then,
another player picks. The one with the most author
cards matched wins.

Boggle. Salem, Mass.: Parker Bros., 1973.
        A hidden word game is formed by 16 lettered
dice. Players try to list within a time limit
as many correctly spelled words as possible from
an assortment of letters arranged in a four letter
by four letter square. Two to six players may
play the game. For ages eight to adult.

Careers. Salem, Mass.: Parker Bros., 1973.
        A success formula of sixty points in any
combination of points of fame, fortune, and happi-
ness must be obtained. Six players may play.

Fluster. Salem, Mass.: Parker Bros., 1973.
        Words are formed on a game pad. The letter
of the alphabet are randomly chosen from a pool
of letters turned upside down. When the letter
is called the player chooses a place on the game
pad to mark the letter. The object of the game
is to score one point for each word formed on the
game pad grid, a cross-word type puzzle. Two to
four players may play the game. For ages eight
to adult. Solitaire Fluster can be played by
picking letters from an alphabet pool, too,
instead of just saying the letter.

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The Game of Easy Money. Springfield, Mass.: Milton
    Bradley Co., 1956.
        The object of the game is to make money by
    skillful real estate transactions. The average
    playing time is one to two hours or more. Two to
    six players may play. For ages seven to adult.

Global Flash Cards. Springfield, Mass.: Milton Bradley
    Co., 1955.
        The flash cards represent countries of each
    continent plus the Pacific Islands. The flash
    cards are beneficial for use in Geography classes.
    For students in Grades three to seven.

Go to the Head of the Class. Series 16. Springfield,
    Mass.: Milton Bradley Co., 1967.
        The object of the game is to answer as many
    questions as possible correctly and advance to the
    head of the class. One player acts as the teacher
    who is responsible for asking the questions which
    is practice in oral reading. Average playing time
    is ninety minutes. Two to nine players may play
    the game at a time. For ages eight through adult.

Grapple. Salem, Mass.: Parker Bros., 1973.
        Grapple is a scrambled word game. A secret
    word is chosen by each player. Letters are chosen
    from the alphabet pool. The word is assembled, and
    then the word is scrambled before it is shown to
    the next player. The next player is responsible for
    unscrambling the letters to spell the secret word.
    From two to five players may play the game. For
    ages eight through adult.

Landslide: Game of Power Politics. Salem, Mass.: Parker
    Bros., 1971.
        The challenge is to become President of the
    United States. Each player must corner the
    majority of the electoral votes for a victory.
    Manipulation of the popular votes and trying to
    capture each state is a must to win. Three to
    four players from ages nine to adult may play the
    game.

Monopoly. Salem, Mass.: Parker Bros., 1961.
        Monopoly is a game of trading, buying, and
    selling real estate. The time may vary from an
    hour to an hour and a half to a short game based
    on an agreed upon time limit. The game may
    accommodate eight players.

The News Game. Milwaukee, Wis.: The Journal Co., 1977-1978.

    A weekly news game based on the current news covered by the media is the News Game. The Journal Company prints and sends out the game weekly for school usage, and also, it is printed in the Friday Milwaukee Journal. Questions cover the topics of government, politics, places in the news, people in the news, sports, and important weekly events. Questions are divided into categories according to the number of points: one, two and three point questions. The game has encouraged more students to read the newspaper.

Sentence Cube Game. Bay Shore, N. Y.: Selchow and Righter Co., 1971.

    Twenty-one word cubes are placed together as words to make sentences.

Spill and Spell. Salem, Mass.: Parker Bros., 1971.

    Word cubes are tossed from a cup, and then the words are spelled from the letters that are there. Spill and Spell may be played by people of all ages.

United States Flash Cards. Mineola, N. Y.: Renewal Products Co., n. d.

    Each flash card illustrates one of the states, its capital, area, population, location, products, and major cities. The flash cards are helpful to students who wish to improve their location of the states skill and to determine the name of the state by looking at its shape.

Your America. Chicago, Ill.: Cadaco, 1970.

    The object of Your America is to complete the scorecard by advancing the peg over the fifty stars which represent the fifty states on the scoreboard. The game is useful in learning about the presidents, the states, inventors, government, the United States at war, and famous Americans. Two to four players may play the game or it may be played solitairely. This is a family game.

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        Patron saints for many names are listed in
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    patron and the name's meaning, the stores and
    companies from which various items may be purchased
    for the nameday celebration are supplied.

Scheier, Michael and Frankel, Julie. Digging for My Roots.
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    here. Pages contain the basic information to be
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Gordon, Suzanne. "How to Record Your Family History."
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        Written in particular for students, this
    article introduced as people, the students, as
    history. Creation of a family scrapbook and a
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        The article covers a college student in her
    quest to fulfill an assignment to trace her family
    tree. Information is divided into five sections:
    (1) where to begin the search; (2) how to draft a
    family tree chart; (3) where to search for birth
    records including foreign records; (4) how to obtain
    passenger lists for relatives arriving in the United
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        Order blank for old sailing ship lists,
    family armorials, original engravings, and
    genealogical aids. Obtain this information from
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    chart which can be completed by the student is
    given on the back of this two-sided sheet.

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    (2) Claims for Pensions and Bounty Land; (3) Army
    Service Records; (4) Naval and Marine Service
    Records; (5) Passenger Lists; (6) Records about
    Indians; (7) Records about District of Columbia
    Residents; (8) Naturalization Records; and (9)
    Land Records. Other General Information Leaflets
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      they live or lived, and how this influenced the
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151 East Gorham Street
Madison, Wisconsin 53702

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1960 Wadsworth Boulevard
Denver, Colorado 80215

Genealogical Society of The Church of Jesus Christ
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107 South Main Street
Salt Lake City, Utah 84111

General Services Administration
U.S. National Archives and Record Service
Washington, D. C. 20408

The Milwaukee County Genealogical Society (MCGS)
c/o 916 East Lyons Street
Milwaukee, Wisconsin 53202

The State Historical Society of Wisconsin
816 State Street
Madison, Wisconsin 53706

Superintendent of Documents
U.S. Printing Office
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