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An Analysis of Certain Aspects of One Hundred Elementary School Readers to Show the Influence of Changing Objectives

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AN ANALYSIS OF CERTAIN ASPECTS OF ONE HUNDRED ELEMENTARY SCHOOL READERS TO SHOW THE INFLUENCE OF CHANGING OBJECTIVES

A Thesis

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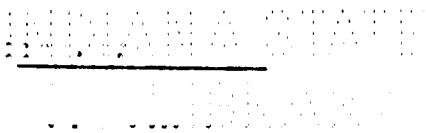

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Reading has from the earliest days of American history been considered the most important subject taught. Children, as well as adults, have many and varied needs for reading. In our present complex and changing civilization those needs are becoming more and more numerous.

In looking back over the history of the teaching of reading in the United States, one becomes keenly aware of the changes that have taken place. In the early days there was only one real objective for teaching reading, namely, in order that the reader might be able to study the Bible. Consequently the primer, the first reading book, was dominantly religious in the character of its content. This type of reading material held sway in America from the famous New England Primer days of the last decade of the seventeenth century until early in the nineteenth century when, because of a variety of causes, more varied interests began to influence the teaching of reading. Objectives were enlarged somewhat to include a mastery of the mechanics of reading, a development of good oral reading habits, and a stimulation of interest in and appreciation of good literature.

From about the middle of the nineteenth century until the end of the first quarter of the twentieth, reading objectives were shifting and being further enlarged upon; but it is in the

years since 1925 that, according to Gray,

> With increasing frequency the fact has been emphasized that reading must provide more largely in the future than in the past for promoting clear understanding, developing habits of good thinking, stimulating broad interests, cultivating appreciations, and establishing stable personalities.[1]

I. THE PROBLEM

Statement of the Problem. It was the purpose of the present study (1) to show the trend of reading instruction in the United States from a few basic objectives to a broader, enriched conception of the purposes of reading; and (2) by an analysis of a number of readers representing the three rather generally accepted periods from 1880 until the present, to show the changes in content, methods of teaching, instructional aids, and mechanical features which reflect the changes in objectives.

Importance of the Study. A study of the development of reading texts is closely linked up with the objectives of teaching reading. The writer believed that an analysis of the texts available for the periods should reveal the changes in objectives. While it is undoubtedly true that because of tradition and other factors, basic points of departure from old objectives were not so common in the early days of each period, yet the tendency for practice to lag behind theory gradually

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[1] W. S. Gray, Thirty-Sixth Yearbook of The National Society for the Study of Education, (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, Part One, 1937), p. 5.

gave way to the more enriched objectives of reading. It was hoped that this study might lead to a better understanding of the difficulties of teachers in using texts not brought up to the standards of the time, and possibly point the way to a more speedy adjustment of text book materials to present needs.

Limitations of the Study. In analyzing the one hundred texts used, an attempt was made to do so as objectively as possible. Many of the items in the various tables are points which have been stressed by authorities in the field and by those who have made experimental studies which have shown the value of these items. However, because of the nature of the study, many of the conclusions drawn have been based upon the writer's subjective judgment after a careful study of the texts in question. Whether or not the texts used are the most representative of the periods was not entirely the guide in choosing them. It was found to be quite difficult to obtain copies of the first three books of series from the 1880 to 1918 period. Out of the nine sets of three books and the four sets of two (others unobtainable) seven of the sets are the same as those used in the studies of Huey, Smith, Lamport and others.[2]

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[2] Edmund Burke Huey, The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading, (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1918), 469, pp.

[3] Nila Banton Smith, American Reading Instruction, (New York: Silver Burdett, 1934), 287 pp.

Harold Boyne Lamport, A History of the Teaching of Beginning Reading, (Chicago, Illinois: University of Chicago, 1935), 516 pp.

II. REVIEW OF PREVIOUS RELATED STUDIES

One of the first problems encountered in this study was that of determining dates for periods of emphasis upon different objectives. In her book entitled American Reading Instruction Nila Banton Smith seems to have covered that problem to the satisfaction of her contemporaries, judging from the frequency with which her dates for the various periods are quoted. In the preface to her book she frankly states:

> Then there was the problem of setting dates for the periods. The marking of any historical period with definite initial and closing dates is a precarious undertaking. There are overlappings and mergings from one period to another, and there are certain continuous strands which extend through all periods. In spite of these difficulties, it seemed desirable to give some idea of when certain aspects of reading development were most in evidence. For this reason, approximate dates were set for the purpose of marking off the periods of strongest emphasis, but with no suggestion that change took place suddenly upon the specific dates indicated in the chapters.[3]

Miss Smith has covered thoroughly the 1880-1918 cultural period of reading instruction with its influx of literary materials. In her treatment of the following brief period from 1918-1925, known as the Utilitarian or Silent Reading period, some have considered that Miss Smith has not done so well. She did not accord this period the importance they feel it should have. Her discussion of the last period from 1925 up to 1934, when her book was published, is good.

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[3] Smith, op. cit., p. v.

Harold Boyne Lamport,[4] in his doctor's dissertation, has done a valuable piece of work in the history of reading. In his exhaustive treatment he goes as far back as the ancient Greeks in approaching the problem. The book is divided into two sections, one dealing with the European developments in reading instruction, the other with American applications of these and with our own original contributions. While Lamport does not classify the objectives, methods, and materials under headings with rough beginning and end dates as Smith did, yet there is a general agreement in their fundamental statements of these.

From Teaching Children to Read, by Paul Klapper, a wealth of material was gleaned on the methods of primary reading. Published as it was toward the end of the silent reading period it gives a good presentation of that method with its applications and implications.[5]

A study of the Thirty-Sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, with special attention to the chapter on "The Nature and Organization of Basic Instruction in Reading" by W. S. Gray, brought the objectives up to the most recent authoritative stated standards approved by the

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[4] Lamport, op. cit.

[5] Paul Klapper, Ph. D., Teaching Children to Read, (New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1926).

Committee on Reading.[6]

In the same Yearbook, Uhl, in the third part of his report on "The Materials of Reading" presented a helpful discussion of the problem of the mechanical features of readers. It is concerned chiefly with the type page, stressing three important elements, "the type, the line, and the space between lines."[7]

While none of these studies have been entirely concerned with the problem of objectives, they are closely related to it and have furnished much valuable information which will be of assistance in this study.

III. ORGANIZATION OF THE REMAINDER OF THE THESIS

Chapter II will give a brief history of the objectives of the earlier periods of American reading instruction. Chapter III will present the objectives of the periods covered in this study with Tables showing the findings relative to a statement of objectives. Chapter IV will deal with the methods in evidence in the texts; Chapter V with instructional aids; Chapter VI with illustrations; Chapter VII with the mechanical features; and Chapter VIII with the story content of the readers.

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[6] "The Teaching of Reading: A Second Report," The Thirty-Sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. (Bloomington, Illinois, Public School Publishing Company, 1937) pp. 65-131.

[7] Ibid., pp. 229-35.

CHAPTER II

EARLY PERIODS OF AMERICAN READING INSTRUCTION

I. The Religious Emphasis Period--1660-1776

The beginnings of American reading instruction were largely based on practice as accepted in England. In an effort to spread and strengthen the new Protestant religion, the English felt bound to provide training in their schools of such nature as to insure a thorough understanding of their religious faith. This meant such reading a bility as would enable them to read the Bible.

The first immigrants to America brought with them this idea. From 1607 until 1776 reading instruction was almost entirely religious in character. The Hornbook, the A B C, the Primer, the Psalter, the Bible were the earliest materials of instruction and were all of a religious nature.

Little or no attention was given to method other than that of mechanical devices for teaching children to recognize the letters of the alphabet. No attempt was made to control vocabulary except to begin with words of one syllable and proceed on up to words of five or six syllables. No provision was made for the necessary repetition to fix new words, of which there might be anywhere from twenty to one hundred on one page. Memorization was very important with oral reading ranking as a close second. There were practically no changes in objectives during this period.

II. The Nationalistic-Moralistic Period--1776-1840

The new generations in America were not so impressed with the importance of religion in their lives. They were more concerned with the manifold problems encountered in building up the young nation. The final break with England brought in the political emphasis to supplant the religious one. Education became secularized during the early 1800's. The system of public education was set up, and reading now had a new work to do.

Readers were strongly nationalistic. The new methods stressed correct pronunciation and enunciation. This stress was to assist in overcoming the dialects in the American language. Many examples and rules were given for this purpose, oratorical and elocutionary selections, patriotic selections, literary works of American authors, information concerning affairs of state--all contributed to the readers of the period.

Not so strongly outstanding, but quietly persistent, was the belief that education should build character. Smith has well put it that, "To inculcate high ideals of virtue and moral behavior was considered a necessary part of the general program of building good citizenship."[1] Readers began to show this trend, and moralizing had come in to stay for a long time.

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[1] Nila B. Smith, American Reading Instruction, New York: Silver Burdett, 1934) p. 37.

III. The Period of Application of Pestalozzian Principles--1840-1880.

Smith has called this period of reading instruction an evolutionary one. Some of the characteristics of the previous period were retained while a number of new ones had been slowly coming in. From about 1840 on, as an outgrowth of a new graded school system, new readers in graded series began to make their appearance. Objectives during this period might be well summed up by quoting from Alonzo Potter:

> The "objects" of reading should be:
>
> 1st, to acquire knowledge both for its own sake and its uses: 2ndly, to improve the intellectual powers: 3rdly, to refine taste: 4thly, to strengthen the moral and religious sentiments.[2]

The first break away from the alphabet method in beginners' books was made at this time. Worcester's Primer, published in 1828, was probably the first advocate of the word method. Bumstead in 1840-1843 strongly stood for the same method. John Russell Webb in his Normal Readers helped greatly the adoption of the word method. The phonic method, used much earlier in Europe, was experimented with here, where it developed into what came to be known as the phonetic method. This latter met with great success, but its popularity did not last because of difficulties met with in printing and also

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[2] T. H. Vail, "Hints on Reading," from Alonzo Potter, American School Journal, Vol. II, No. 1, August 1856, F. S. Brownell, Hartford, Connecticut. Cited by Nila B. Smith, p. 82.

because of the eye strain for beginners.[3] The use of the alphabet-phonetic method in which the sounds of letters were taught, either with or without their names, was evidence that the alphabet method was still very much in use.

This brief summary of the above three periods of reading instruction brings the discussion up to the time which was set as the beginning period for this study.

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[3] E. B. Huey, The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading, (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1918), pp. 258-61.

CHAPTER III

OBJECTIVES OF TEACHING READING

I. OBJECTIVES DURING THE CULTURAL ASSET PERIOD--1880-1918.

To the two general objectives for teaching reading, namely, the mastery of the mechanics of reading, and the development of habits of good oral reading, was to be added during this new period a third one--the stimulation of keen interest in, and appreciation of, good literature. Gray says that a "serious weakness of reading instruction in former decades lay in the fact that selections used were organized primarily for the use in teaching pupils to read."[1]

This new period which began around 1880 was to see the rise of many literary readers. The texts of the previous periods had contained some literary selections, but these were intended chiefly for elocutionary or oratorical purposes, and not for appreciation. Educators in various parts of the country were becoming alarmed at the growing prevalence of ability to read without the cultivation of a taste "for that which is pure, elevating, and instructive."[2] Many felt that it was of no

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[1] W. S. Gray, "Essential Objectives of Instruction in Reading," Twenty-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1925), p. 10.

[2] George P. Brown, "Books and Reading for the Young," State Report, (Indianapolis, Indiana: Carlon and Hollenbeck, 1880).

great value to be able to read without knowing what to read. In their campaign for the improvement of reading they acted on the theory that a child's early associations would determine whether he would choose the noble and inspiring in literature or the base and ignoble. To encourage the former, whole treatises were written during this period emphasizing the importance of developing in children an appreciation of literature. Naturally much of this was done in the upper grades, but the foundations were laid in the primary department.

Huey says:

> The subject matter of readers has been taken mainly from the field of literature, and the problem has been one of selection, arrangement, and adaption within this field, the trend being toward the use of literary wholes instead of the earlier selection of scraps.... The Heart of Oak Series, a six-book series edited by Charles Eliot Norton, perhaps marks the extreme of this tendency to "read for literature's sake."[3]

The books used as representing this period are listed in the Bibliography on page 86. There are twelve series with the first reader missing from the Elson Series, the Second Reader from the Barnes's and Pollard's Series, and the Third Reader from the Everyday Classics Series.

II. OBJECTIVES DURING THE UTILITARIAN ASSET OR SILENT READING PERIOD--1918-1925.

Reading in actual life is mainly silent. Schools have treated it as almost, if not entirely, oral. There were some

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[3] E. B. Huey, The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading, (New York: Macmillan Company, 1918), pp. 253-4.

though as far back as the first quarter of the nineteenth century who were beginning to realize the importance of silent reading. John Russell Webb, in his Primer published in 1846, provided exercises in silent reading. Prominent educators such as Doctor E. B. Huey, Daniel Starch, William S. Gray, W. W. Theisen,[4] did experimental work, devised tests of silent reading ability, and thoroughly studied the problem. Their findings were published. The result was the appearance of several silent reading texts.

The writer considers herself fortunate in obtaining the representative texts of the period. They are few in number--eight sets--but six of them are the ones recommended by Harris, Donovan and Alexander[5] as good for drill in silent reading. Two others chosen were the Bolenius Readers, 1923 edition and Stone's Silent Readers, 1925 edition.

Davidson, in her manual for the Lincoln Readers says:

Reading may be either silent or oral, determined largely

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[4] Daniel Starch, Journal of Educational Psychology, (January 1915, Warwich and York, Baltimore).

W. S. Gray, "Principles of Teaching Reading as Derived from Scientific Investigation," Eighteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1919).

W. W. Theisen, "Factors Affecting Research in Primary Reading," Twentieth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, (Bloomington, Illinois, 1921).

[5] Julia M. Harris, H. L. Donovan, Thos. Alexander, Supervision and Teaching of Reading, (New York: Johnson Publishing Company, 1927), p. 317.

by the type of material and the use to which it is put. In silent reading emphasis is placed upon informational rather than literary material, though it does not exclude the literary.[6]

The same author lists concisely and clearly the major reading objectives as:

1. The ability to locate needed data and to read it quickly. Rate.
2. The ability to comprehend and interpret what is read. Comprehension.
3. The ability to find, select, and organize data so as to answer most effectively the purpose in hand. Organization.
4. The ability to remember what is read and to use it at some future time. Retention.
5. The ability to read with enjoyment. Appreciation.

These five objectives: rate or speed, comprehension, organization, retention, and appreciation, and the opportunity to exercise these daily in ways satisfactory to the children result in the attainment of skillful silent reading.[7]

The five major objectives have been expanded farther on in the manual. A complete listing of them may be of value because they are all abilities developed largely through silent reading practice:

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[6] Isobel Davidson, The Lincoln Readers, A Manual for Teachers, (Chicago, Illinois: The Laural Book Company, 1923), p. 2.

[7] Ibid., p. 10.

I. The ability (a) to read quickly, and (b) to comprehend easily.
II. The ability to locate data, etc.
III. The ability to select facts according to worth.
IV. The ability to select facts in order.
V. The ability to organize under essential headings- to outline.
VI. The ability to reason from given data other facts and then prove corrections or incorrections of inference.
VII. The ability to use dictionary.
VIII. The ability to use references.
IX. The ability to make a bibliography.
X. The ability to reproduce a story in part or whole.
XI. The ability to perform in response to directions given.
XII. The ability to memorize.
XIII. The ability to appreciate interpretations in dramatic action.
XIV. The ability to increase vocabulary.
XV. The ability to appreciate refinement of speech.
XVI. The ability to appreciate a joke.
XVII. The ability to use data given in other situations, for specific purposes.
XVIII. The ability to summarize.
XIX. The ability to create or change introduction or ending, to change story from prose to poetry, to drama, etc.
XX. The ability to exercise choice, to form judgment.
XXI. The ability to ask questions as well as to answer them.
XXII. The ability to visualize and describe details.
XXIII. The ability to gather central thoughts.
XXIV. The ability to obtain emotional reaction.
XXV. The ability to select facts for a definite purpose--to skim.[8]

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[8] Ibid., index.

III. THE PERIOD OF BROADENED OBJECTIVES IN READING--1925-Present.

Teachers of literature were objecting strenuously to the neglect of their subject and other educators were disturbed over the length of time children were required to sit at their desks doing silent reading exercises. Add to these the investigations carried on at the time in regard to reading interests, purposes, and habits for both children and adults, and you have a strong case for a broadened reading program.

The Twenty-Fourth Yearbook lists the major objectives of reading as:

I. Rich and varied experiences through reading.
II. Strong motives for, and permanent interest in, reading.
III. Desirable attitudes, and economic and effective habits and skills.[9]

These with all their ramifications are the backbone of the reading program even today. They have been brought up to date in the Thirty-Sixth Yearbook.

Instruction in reading must now increase in scope and in efficiency if it is to serve as a functional instrument toward a full intellectual and social life. While the above broad objectives of reading have changed but little in recent years, the specific aims have been expanded.

Gray has well stated the later conception of these

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[9] Gray, op. cit., pp. 9-19.

expanded aims.

> Examples of such aims are to broaden the vision of readers, to make their lives richer and more meaningful, and to enable them to meet the practical needs of life more effectively; to develop social understanding and the ability to use reading in the intelligent search for truth; to promote a broad common culture and a great appreciation of the finer elements in contemporary life; and to stimulate wholesome interests in reading.[10]

If our pupils are to arrive at the state of intelligent self-direction and social progress it is necessary for them to acquire great independence and efficiency in reading. This calls for abundant materials sufficiently simple for their reading. It is in the content fields that teachers can make the best attack on reading problems on an individual basis.[11]

The Yearbook Committee believes that if reading objectives fail to stress reflection, critical evaluation, and the clarification of meaning, they are incomplete. They recommend carefully planned guidance in reading in the elementary school, the high school, and the college. Naturally the time allotment varies according to the level and the needs of the students.

In planning the analysis of the books, the investigator wished to determine to what extent the editors of the readers of the three periods felt it was important to state the

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[10] W. S. Gray, "Nature and Types of Reading," Thirty-Sixth Yearbook, Part I, (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1937), p. 18.

[11] Ibid. pp. 18-20.

objectives of the reading program as illustrated in their particular texts.

The books were examined for statements of objectives. The results are given in Tables I, II, and III on pages 20, 21, and 22.

It was found that in the 1880-1918 period none of the texts carried statements of objectives. The Pollard Synthetic Reader does provide a manual, a copy of which could not be procured. Whether it states objectives, we do not know, but judging from the general run of manuals of the period, we would be inclined to think it does not. The same may be true of the Aldine Readers.

The findings of this study suggest that early editors of children's readers did not concern themselves with statements of the objectives of their reading program. The first clear statements of such objectives appear in readers published during the silent reading period (1918-1925).

Of the twenty-three books examined for the silent reading period, 48.2% gave objectives in teachers' manuals. (These latter were becoming popular and useful tools in the hands of the teachers during this period). Objectives in teachers' directions totaled 13.1%; those in the preface or introduction 25.6%. There was no statement of objectives in 13.1% of the texts.

In the present period objectives are stated for all except three series of books. The books giving no statement of objectives are the De LaSalle Readers, the Ave Maria Readers,

and the Citizenship Readers. Of these three series, the De LaSalle manual was not obtainable; the introduction to the Ave Maria Readers mentioned no manual; and the Citizenship Readers did not have even an introduction or preface.

The Tables show that in most instances today objectives are stated in teachers' manuals. Of the forty-two books for this period, the statement of objectives was as follows: no statement of objectives--21.4%, and objectives in teachers' manuals--78.6%.

TABLE I

PERCENTAGES OF FIRST READERS OF THE DIFFERENT PERIODS AS TO THE TREATMENT OF OBJECTIVES

Period	1880 to 1918	1918 to 1925	1925 to Present
Number of books studied	12	8	14
Percentage of books with no statement of objectives	100.0	12.5	21.4
Percentage of books with objectives stated in preface or introduction		37.5	
Percentage of books with objectives stated in teachers' directions		12.5	
Percentage of books with objectives stated in teachers' manual		37.5	78.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE II

PERCENTAGES OF SECOND READERS OF THE DIFFERENT PERIODS AS TO THE TREATMENT OF OBJECTIVES

Period	1880 to 1918	1918 to 1925	1925 to Present
Number of books studied	.12	8	14
Percentage of books with no statement of objectives	100.0	12.5	21.4
Percentage of books with objectives stated in preface or introduction		25.0	
Percentage of books with objectives stated in teachers' directions		12.5	
Percentage of books with objectives stated in teachers' manual		50.0	78.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE III

PERCENTAGES OF THIRD READERS OF THE DIFFERENT PERIODS AS TO THE TREATMENT OF OBJECTIVES

Period	1880- to 1918	1918 to 1925	1925 to Present
Number of books studied	12	7	14
Percentage of books with no statement of objectives	100.0	14.3	21.4
Percentage of books with objectives stated in preface or introduction		14.3	
Percentage of books with objectives stated in teachers' directions		14.3	
Percentage of books with objectives stated in teachers' manual		57.1	78.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

CHAPTER IV

METHODS USED IN TEACHING READING

Down through the years there has been a progressive development of methods of reading instruction. Briefly stated there are six which have contributed to the teaching of primary reading. These are the alphabetic, the phonic, the phonetic, the word, the sentence, and the story methods. They are oftentimes classified under the two headings of synthetic methods: the alphabetic, the phonic, the phonetic-and the analytic methods: the word, the sentence, and the story.

None of the six methods mentioned above suffice to accomplish the varied objectives of the twentieth century reading program. Each in turn has to be supplemented by certain features of other methods. The analytic-synthetic approach would seem the best. Early in the present century the term eclectic began to be applied to these various combinations of methods. The most common combinations used were the alphabet-spelling, the sentence-story-phonic, the word-phonic-sentence,[1] and in later times the work type and work and recreational type. The last two mentioned are combinations of several of the others.

I. TWO FUNDAMENTAL METHODS OF TEACHING READING

A. The Synthetic Method. This method proceeds from

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[1] Harold Boyne Lamport, A History of the Teaching of Beginning Reading, (Chicago, Illinois: University of Chicago, August, 1935), pp. 404-5.

letters or sounds to words and sentences. The three basic variations of the method are, according to Lamport's way of stating them, (1) the alphabetic-syllabic-spelling method which emphasizes the recognition of names of letters by sight or by sound, and the learning to read words by building them up from syllables, the spelling of which is emphasized; (2) the phonic method which teaches first the sounds or powers of the letters and through their utterance in rapid succession the formation of words by sounds; (3) the phonetic method in which each sound is expressed by a definite character or sign.[2]

In The Supervision and Teaching of Reading,[3] the authors have evaluated these three variations of the synthetic method. They state that the Alphabetic method begins with the unknown, the names of letters; that it is tedious because it ignores child interests; that it consumes much time. Of the Phonic method they say that viewed in the light of reading as a thought-getting process, phonic synthesis is not a reading method, but merely a tool for mastering technical elements in reading. It is better used as a part of method in teaching reading and not as a reading method itself. The Phonetic method was classified as confusing, with its separate character for each sound of a given letter.

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[2] Ibid., pp. 404-5.

[3] J. Harris, D. Donovan, T. Alexander, The Supervision and Teaching of Reading, (New York: Johnson Publishing Company, 1927), pp. 225-7.

"All synthetic methods fail through not beginning with the lives of children, their needs, and the problems that present themselves for solution."[4]

B. The Analytic Method. This method proceeds from the whole to the part. It begins with pictures, words, or sentences, and breaks them into their component elements. The three basic forms of this method are, according to W. A. Smith, (1) the Word method, which teaches words as wholes, the sound being associated with the total visual form as a unit; (2) the Sentence method, which is based upon the assumption that the sentences rather than the phrase or word is the unit of speech and thought, and that it should constitute the starting point in beginning reading; and (3) the Story method, which places emphasis most completely upon the thought element. It frequently used stories with rhythmic repetition. After the story had been learned as a unit, it was put on the board and then learned analytically sentence by sentence.[5]

Harris, Donovan, and Alexander have likewise evaluated the analytic methods. They claim the Word method was a step in the right direction, but was dull and meaningless. The Sentence method as used by Farnham was only an introductory device which

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[4] Paul Klapper, Teaching Children to Read, (New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1926), p. 46.

[5] W.A. Smith, The Reading Process, (New York: Macmillan Company, 1922), pp. 92-5.

fell back on phonic drills to teach independent word recognition. The Story method can lay claim to giving literary appreciation, to beginning with life situations for the child, and to keeping reading a thought process.[6]

II. EXPLANATION OF TABLE FOUR

A. The Cultural Asset Period, 1880-1918. A study of the Table on page 30 shows that for thirty-five books representing this period, only five books used the straight synthetic approach. These were the Phonic method in the three Literature and Art books by B. E. Burke and the Phonetic method in the two books of Pollard's synthetic series. The analytic method is represented by sixteen books, three for the Sentence method, the Baldwin Readers, and thirteen for the Story method. These last include three Heart of Oak, three Wide Awake Readers, two Elson-Runkel, three Story Hour, and two Everyday Classics. The Everyday Classics books published in 1922, have been placed in this period because they are literary readers and also because they represent a continued use of a single method. The various eclectic methods are represented by fourteen books: three Alphabet-spelling, the three McGuffey's (1885), six Sentence-story-phonic, the three Aldine Readers and the three Holton Curry Readers, and five Word-phonic-sentence, the two Barnes's Readers and the three Indiana Educational Series. The highest

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[6] Harris, Donovan, Alexander, op. cit., pp. 226-7.

percentage is 37.1% for the Story method. The nearest approach to that is the Sentence-story-phonic with 17.1%.

In regard to method during this period the trend seems to be away from the pure synthetic to the analytic and the eclectic methods.

B. The Utilitarian Asset Period, 1918-1925. The Silent Reading Period, or the period of work-type reading, brought in books illustrative of a definitely utilitarian procedure. As stated in the manual to First Lessons in Learning to Study, the beginning book of the Learn to Study Series:

> Since the purpose of this book is to teach pupils how to study, the selections included in it should exemplify the hard-work type of reading. This means they should be informational in character.... The watchword is work, rather than recreation. Its emphasis is not so much on appreciation as on comprehension, soundness of judgment, and skill in remembering.[7]

It is generally recommended in the readers of this period that they be introduced during the second half of the first year, after pupils have acquired a fairly good vocabulary through oral reading.

Summarizing the methods of this period we find that seventeen texts, or 73.9% are almost, if not entirely, work-type. The exceptions are the Lincoln Readers and the Pathway to Reading series which are work and recreational in their plan.

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[7] E. Horn, Prudence Cuthright, Madeline Horn, First Lessons in Learning to Study-Teacher's Edition, (New York: Ginn and Company, 1926), pp. 4-5.

They represent 26.1% of the twenty-three books studied.

C. The Period of Broadened Objectives, 1925-Present.

In the present period of broadened objectives, reading is thought of as "a dynamic process during which something happens to the child, because reading influences the individual's thought life, his emotional life, and even his conduct."[8] If the objectives of establishing attitudes, appreciations, purposes, habits, and conduct are to be realized, the reading program must provide for stimulation, reflection, integration, and the formation of ideas and viewpoints. It must allow for understanding and interpretation on the part of the pupil who can readily associate it with experiences in his own life.[9]

Today educators recognize the importance of different types of reading. Both oral and silent reading have been broken up into work-type and recreational type. Textbooks today utilize both of these types.

Possibly the two most common methods of approach to reading today are the story method and the activity method. In actually learning to read, the child first of all masters a number of sight words in the pre-primer and primer stage. Then, even during the primer period, he is taught to attack new words in a variety of ways--through the use of context clues,

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[8] Sister Mary Marguerite, Teaching First Grade Reading, A Manual, (New York: Ginn and Company, 1942), p. 1.

[9] Ibid., pp. 1-2.

through pictorial clues, configuration, and simple word analysis.

Phonetic analysis in the first grade is frequently co-ordinated with context clues. As a rule formal phonetic analysis is not begun until in the second grade where it is used as a means of increasing the pupil's power of independent word recognition, which is essential in the widened program of reading.

Of the forty-two readers (three books for each of fourteen series) studied for this period, twelve books, representing the first four series in date of publication, use a rather definite story method of teaching. The dates of publication range from 1928 to 1933. The next series was published in 1939, and the last nine series were published between 1940 and 1942. All ten of these series use the work and recreational type of procedure. The Table shows that the twelve books of the story approach are 28.6% of the total number studied and the thirty of the "many method" type are 71.4%.

The progress that has been made since 1880 in methods of teaching reading is a cause for gratification and an incentive to continued efforts to use to the best advantage of children all the means in our power for further enriching and enlarging the reading program.

TABLE IV

NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF BOOKS USING THE VARIOUS METHODS

	1880-1918		1918-1925		1925-Present	
	No. books	%	No. books	%	No. books	%
Synthetic Methods						
(a) Alphabetic						
(b) Phonic	3	8.6				
(c) Phonetic	2	5.7				
Analytic Methods						
(a) Word						
(b) Sentence	3	8.6				
(c) Story	13	37.1			12	28.6
Eclectic Methods						
(a) Alphabet-spelling	3	8.6				
(b) Sentence-story-phonic	6	17.1				
(c) Word-phonic-sentence	5	14.3				
(d) Work-type			17	73.9		
(e) Work and Recreational type			6	26.1	30	71.4
Total	35	100.0	23	100.0	42	100.0

CHAPTER V

INSTRUCTIONAL AIDS

Instructional aids and their organization are among the most important educational features to be noted in analyzing textbooks. In their present form they are comparatively recent, but tracing them back, we find that some slight attention was given to providing aids for teachers in the second quarter of the nineteenth century. John Russel Webb, in his Normal Reader, Number 1, published in 1846, went farther than his contemporaries in providing suggestions for teachers in the introductory pages of his book. Perhaps his attempt to provide the teacher with means of better teaching was the forerunner of the modern, carefully planned, and detailed teachers' manuals.

I. EARLY INSTRUCTIONAL AIDS

At the beginning of the 1880-1918 period most readers provided some instructional aids, chiefly in the introduction to the texts. Some authors scattered them throughout the pages of the children's work. Books illustrating this procedure were the Indiana Educational Series, published in 1889. These books presented a confusing page for the child. The first teachers'-manuals were either interleaved with teachers' editions of the texts or were in paper covered pamphlets.

II. THE PROFESSIONALIZED TEACHERS' MANUAL

It was during the silent reading period that teachers'

manuals became prominent. This teaching method was new and very different from what teachers were accustomed to use. They felt the need of helps. Manuals were detailed and good.

Emma Bolenius was the first to set the standard for a separate and detailed manual for each grade. Her first grade manual for The Boys' and Girls' Readers went much farther than giving detailed instructions for each lesson. It provided for optional and supplementary work and directions for making equipment; it gave bibliographies and discussions of the scientific investigations of the period.

At the opening of the present period (around 1925) the teachers' manual "was rapidly approaching the status of a dignified, attractive, and informative professional book."[1]

A study of the manuals of the readers used in this analysis reveals individuality combined with an almost universal recognition of the different types of reading ability, the different levels, and the necessity of providing for the work and recreational forms of reading.

A brief summary of the tables of contents of some of the late teachers' manuals will illustrate the point.

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[1] Nila Banton Smith, American Reading Instruction, (New York: Silver Burdett, 1934), p. 195.

III. TABLES OF CONTENTS OF SOME OF LATER READING TEXTS

General Manual for New Work-Play Books
A. I. Gates
Macmillan, 1939

Contents

Teachers' Guide for First Year, Unit Activity Series
Nila B. Smith
Silver Burdett, 1936

Contents

Teachers' Guidebook-Curriculum Foundation Series
First Grade Program
Scott, Foresman and Company, 1942

Contents

Teaching First Grade Reading III, Faith and Freedom Series
Sister Mary Marguerite
Ginn and Company, 1942

Contents

First Grade Manual for the Child's Own Way Series
Marjorie Hardy
Wheeler Publishing Company, 1930

Contents

IV. EXPLANATION OF TABLE FIVE

Table Five on page 37 has been limited to that form of instructional aids known as teachers' directions and teachers' manuals. The results of the study of these books show that for the period of 1880-1918 twelve of the thirty-five books, or 34.4%, make no provision of teachers' directions; one book, or 2.85%, gives directions at the beginning; five, or 14.3%, within the text itself; one, or 2.85%, at the end of the text; and sixteen, or 45.7%, in teachers' manuals. The total number giving teacher aids in some form is twenty three, or 65.7%, of all those studied for the period. The trend toward the provision of teacher helps was growing during this period.

The silent reading period very definitely provided teaching aids. As mentioned before, the new method of teaching reading called for direction for teachers if it was to prove a success. Hence the great number of manuals. The only series of books for which the investigator could not find either the manual or a reference to it was the Stone's Silent Reading books. However, these books did provide fifteen, twenty-five, and twenty-eight pages of helps at the beginning. The percentages for the period are as follows: the three with provision at the beginning of the text, 13.04, and the other twenty books, 86.9%. All these provide aids in the manual form.

This study covered fourteen sets of books for the present period of broadened objectives. Of the forty-two books all

except the three Citizenship Readers provide manuals. These readers are by Ringer and Downie and were published by J. B. Lippincott in 1930. There was no reference to a manual. The percentages for the forty-two books are: no manual, 7.14%; and teachers' manuals, 92.8%.

These findings show that during the past sixty years there has been a steady increase in efforts on the part of authors and publishers of reading texts to provide means whereby teachers might use these books to the better advantage of children. During the last decade the manuals have become more detailed, more scientific, and better designed to meet the needs of the modern program of reading instruction based on life situations for children.

TABLE V

NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF BOOKS PROVIDING INSTRUCTIONAL AIDS

	1880-1918		1918-1925		1925-Present	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
No Provision	12	34.3			3	7.14
Provision within the Text						
(a) At beginning	1	2.85	3	13.04		
(b) Within and throughout textbook	5	14.3				
(c) At end of textbook	1	2.85				
Supplementary to Textbook						
(a) Teachers' Manual	16	45.7	20	86.96	39	92.86
Totals	35	100.0	23	100.0	42	100.0

CHAPTER VI

ILLUSTRATIONS

If, as Anne Eaton quaintly says of illustrated fairy tales, "pictures open peep holes for mortals into the kingdom of faierie,"[1] we may just as aptly say all illustrations in children's readers should be "peep holes" into the inner interpretation of the author's thoughts. While the illustrators of most of the readers of today quite definitely aim to keep their illustrations just that, the early history of illustrations in reading texts is not so happy. Comenius, in his Orbis Pictus, (1657) was the first to make use of children's fondness for pictures. In his illustrated t extbook "every subject treated had its appropriate pictorial representation."[2] Many of these were crude, but the book sold well and held its own for more than a hundred years in Europe. An English translation found its way into America in 1659 and went through a number of re-prints. As late as 1810 it was still being printed here.

In the meantime, readers were changing in content and form. Since this study does not go back farther than the 1880

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[1] Anne T. Eaton, Reading with Children, (New York, The Viking Press, 1940), p. 69.

[2] Harold Boyne Lamport, A History of the Teaching of Beginning Reading, (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1935), p. 37.

period of cultural stress, the periods prior to that will not be discussed.

I. THE APPEARANCE OF COLORED ILLUSTRATIONS

It was not until late in the nineteenth century that colored illustrations began to find their way into reading texts. The first of these were in dull, lifeless tones of the primary colors, and their combinations. Of the thirteen series of readers used for the first period of this study only the Wide Awake Readers, The Elson Primary Readers, The Story Hour Readers, and The Holton-Curry Readers make use of colored illustrations. In all of these the colors are dull. In The Everyday Classics (published in 1923, but included with the books of this period because it is of the cultural type and seemed to the investigator to belong in the period) the colors are enlivened considerably by the bright blue used.

In the silent reading period the Lincoln Readers, The Pathway to Reading, Silent Reading Hour, Stone's Silent Reading, and The Study Readers are in brighter colors, while The Bolenius Readers, The Silent Readers, and the Learn to Study Readers are in dull shades.

During the present period, reading texts are more profusely illustrated and on the whole in many brilliant colors. The surprising exception to this is the Child's Own Way series by Marjorie Hardy, published in 1926. Again the colors are dull and few in number.

Table VI on page 44 shows that during the silent reading period, as well as the present one, the percentage of colored illustrations is high.

The only justifiable purpose for a picture in a book is to assist the reader in securing proper images. Far too many of the illustrations in readers of the past have failed in achieving this purpose. "The relation many of the pictures bore to the reading was not particularly clear to the writers, the printers, or the teachers."[3]

Table VI on page 44 shows the result of an examination of the illustrations in the one hundred books. The points used in this table were chosen because educators have considered them important aspects of illustrating textbooks.

For the three periods studied, it was found that the illustrations were mostly authentic. Authentic, as used in this study, was taken to mean that the pictures agreed with the details of the story. An example of what was not accepted as authentic is the picture on page 106 of Pollard's Synthetic First Reader. The text reads: "He used to play in a grove of green pine trees.... The pine trees made a thick shade; so thick that the sun could not get through." The picture is a river scene with a mill in the background. The trees are decidedly not evergreens. The lighting is such as to indicate

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[3] T. H. Briggs and L. D. Coffman, Reading in the Public Schools, (Chicago: Row, Peterson and Company, 1911), p. 114.

that the sun is shining brightly.

Perhaps the 99.8% rank of authenticity for the silent reading period was due to conscious effort on the part of authors of readers during the period to make pictures help to teach. The first grade teacher's manual for the Lincoln Readers gives a concise statement of this. It reads as follows:

> Illustrations have been devised with direct reference to the teaching of the lessons to which they belong. The pictures tend to stimulate interest in the experiences already familiar.... This story is his story and this picture is his picture and there is increasing satisfaction secured through them.[4]

> To an increasing extent pictures are being used to stimulate interest in a subject, to correct misunderstanding, and to enlarge and deepen experiences. They can be used to introduce a subject, to develop it, or as a means of review.[5]

The New Work and Play Books by Gates, Huber and Peardon, the Unit Activity Series by Nila B. Smith, the Laidlaw Basic Readers by Yoakam, Veverka and Abney, the Easy Growth in Reading Series by Hildreth, The Progress in Reading books by Ernest Horn, and Reading Foundation Series (Alice and Jerry Books) by O'Donnell and Carey all exemplify the use of pictures to introduce a subject or unit. These same series and the Quinlan Readers by Myrtle Quinlan, The Curriculum Foundation

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[4] Isobel Davidson, The Lincoln Readers, Teacher's Manual, First Grade, (Chicago: Laurel Book Company, 1926), p. 17.

[5] Mary E. Pennell and Alice M.Cusack, The Teaching of Reading for Better Living, (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1935), p. 130.

Series (Cathedral Edition) by Gray, Arbuthnot and O'Brien, and the Faith and Freedom Series (Citizenship Series) by Sister Mary Marguerite are illustrative of the points mentioned in the above quotations.

In the past, illustrations in readers have been almost exclusively of the boxed-in type. Even small one-inch pictures were frequently thus encased. This analysis revealed that during the cultural stress period 54.1% of the illustrations were boxed-in; during the silent reading period 89.9% were boxed-in; and during the present period 23.6% received that treatment. The high percentage of 89.9% boxed-in during the silent reading period in contrast with the 54.1% of the previous period and the 23.6% of the present period may indicate either intentional or incidental use of this type of illustration. Nothing was found that would prove one or the other.

Illustrations, to justify their presence, should make a child feel the meaning of what he reads. Otherwise, these pictures are a distraction or a menace to accurate thinking. They should "serve as a means of developing interest in reading and a desire to read. In order to fulfill this purpose, the illustrations in readers should simulate a storybook effect."[6] It would seem that the "free" illustration, the one not framed in any way, does this better. In the present period 76.14% of

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[6] Nila Banton Smith, Teacher's Guide for the Third Year, (Near and Far), (New York: Silver Burdett, 1937), p. 33.

the 5719 illustrations studied are free. In the silent reading period the percentage was only 10.1%, while that for the cultural period was 45.9%. The investigator did not consider that this last mentioned higher per cent ranked the first period nearer to the present one because of the great differences in the types of pictures. May one say, there are "free" pictures and "free" pictures?

One more item studied was the point that illustrations should not be so arranged as to distract the eyes from the reading content or in any other way interfere with the formation of correct eye-movement habits. For the three periods studied the percentage was high in favor of good arrangement, being respectively 91.2%, 95.1% and 99.04%.

The study of illustrations revealed a gradual increase in the number of illustrations, though the average number of 73.5% for the 1880 period, of 91.6% for the 1918 period, and 136.2% for the present period do not accurately represent the numbers for the various texts which vary considerably within a period. Colored pictures came in, and came to say, and illustrations while generally authentic, became more vital, more interesting and thought provoking.

TABLE VI

NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF ILLUSTRATIONS

OF DIFFERENT TYPES

	1880-1918		1918-1925		1925-Present	
Total Number Illustrations	2572		2107		5719	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Black and White	1647	64.036	192	9.11	524	9.16
Colored	925	35.964	1915	90.89	5195	90.84
Authentic	2379	94.8	2103	99.8	5453	95.3
Boxed-in	1391	54.1	1895	89.9	1350	23.6
Free	1181	45.9	212	10.1	4369	76.14
Not interfering with eye-movement	2357	91.2	2005	95.1	5664	99.04

CHAPTER VII

MECHANICAL FEATURES OF READERS

Just how important is the mechanical make-up of reading texts, and what are the main points often considered under this heading? These two questions cover a field that has been open to much discussion. Educators have not agreed in their answer to the first part of the question; they have largely agreed in regard to the second part.

State boards of education and textbook committees frequently set up standards which book companies must meet if their texts are to sell. Uhl has listed from among the various items considered, the following three as important elements: "the type, the line, and the space between lines."[1] Clearness is another point that is important. Quoting Uhl again we find his statement:

> Educators are prone to regard the size of type as the only important matter... Clear legibility requires that type be firm and clear--that there be plenty of white within the outlines of the letters and between the letters--in short, clear type is needed more than big type.[2]

The impression of large type is not entirely due to the size of the type itself, but also to the length of line and to the white space between lines.

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[1] Willis L. Uhl, "The Materials of Reading," Thirty-Sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, (Bloomington, Illinois, Public School Publishing Company, 1937), p. 229.

[2] Ibid., p. 230.

I. GENERAL PRINTING STANDARDS FOR TEXT BOOKS

A Research Bulletin of the National Education Association gives the following summary of the large amount of research done in the field of printing standards:

> There are certain general printing standards to be considered. The type face should be legible. The type should be large enough to prevent eye-strain, and somewhat larger for children in the primary grades than for older pupils. The best type size for each grade level is still an open question, but the most generally accepted view is that first books in reading should be printed in 18- to 24-point type; later books in smaller type, but not smaller than 12-point for any grade. Fatigue is said to increase rapidly as size of type is reduced. Lines should not be too long, and the smaller the print the shorter the line should be. Gress recommends a line of approximately forty letter spaces of whatever size type is used. For children's books set in 12- to 18-point type, it is usually recommended that lines should be from 80 to 100 millimeters, that is, about 3 to 4 inches in length. In selecting books for the first grade, particularly, one other point should be noted. These books are sometimes set with irregular margins in order that each line may be a clause, phrase, or convenient thought unit. The advantage claimed for this style is apparent; the question is, Do the irregular margins (particularly irregular left-hand margins) hinder the early establishment of regular eye-movements? Research studies do not show which plan is better, but the weight of opinion seems to favor regular margins rather than convenient thought units.[3]

The above four items--the type size, the clearness, the length of line, the space between lines, and two others--the paper and the binding and cover--are the six points used in this analysis. The findings are tabulated in Tables VII, VIII, and IX. A separate table was made for each grade.

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[3] Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, "Better Reading Instruction," (Washington, D.C.: N.E.A. November, 1935), p. 312.

Type size is measured in "points." To quote from Uhl:

> Printers use the point system for designating different sizes of type, a point being 1/72 of an inch... Type is cast on bits of metal, large type on large bits and small type on small bits. It is to these bits of metal, called slugs, to which the number of points refers and not to the type that is cast upon them.[4]

In the past we have held to the standard of large type for young children and smaller type for older children and adults. Experiments have not proved that this is necessarily a justifiable standard. In fact, an experiment reported by Buckingham[5] revealed that 12- point type was more easily read by first and second grade children than the large sizes now employed. Because of lack of sufficient control of all factors, the experimenters did not claim that the conclusions were entirely reliable. The experimental reading periods were brief. What the results would have been had the reading been over periods of sustained reading is not known.

A point that might be made here is that at the present time reading texts for the first three grades are not in smaller type. This is largely due to the fact already mentioned that school people still want the larger type.

John Laidlaw, president of Laidlaw Brothers, Chicago,

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[4] Uhl, op. cit., p. 230.

[5] B. R. Buckingham, "New Data on the Typography of Textbooks," Thirtieth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, (Bloomington, Illinois), pp. 93-125.

says in a letter to the writer:

> Of course, the exact type that is used in setting any book reflects usually the best judgment of the authors and publishers. There is no absolute rule regarding the matter, but I may say that the size of type used in the various books is the result of the best information that we could obtain when the books were being prepared.[6]

II. RESULTS OF THE STUDY OF THE MECHANICAL FEATURES OF THE READERS

Table VII for First Grade on page 53 shows the point size of the type in the books. This table makes no direct reference to the leading which is so closely related to the point size of type. Leading is indirectly brought out in the item "Space between Lines," for the space between lines is due to leading.

A comparison of the type size for first readers during the three periods studied shows a marked increase in favor of 18- point type. The per cents for the three periods are 58.3%, 100%, and 85.7%. The space between lines or leading during the same periods showed a gradual but steady increase from 75% to 85.7% to 92.9%.

Legibility is much influenced by the sharp, clear-cut outlines of letters in deep black on paper without gloss. The point "Clearness" has been subdivided into lightface, standard, and boldface, according to the lightness or heaviness of the

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[6] John Laidlaw, Citation from a letter received by the writer, (Chicago: Laidlaw Brothers), 1944.

tone of the type.

In the 1880-1918 period one third of the books are in lightface type; from then on they are in standard with the exception of one book in the silent reading period in boldface type, the Lewis and Rowland Silent Reading First Reader, and two during the present period, the De LaSalle First Reader, and the Alice and Jerry Series First Reader.

All of the readers for the three grades are on plain paper, white paper without gloss. Though dull shade paper is mentioned by different writers as suitable for reading texts, none of the books used in this study happen to use such paper.

The length of lines in reading texts has been another point of much discussion. It was on the authority of Huey that the two sub-headings of "regular" and "irregular" were used for this point. He states that "moderately short lines of uniform length"[7] tend to increase speed of reading. The Thirty-Sixth Yearbook mentions a desirable maximum of a four-inch line. The point brought out is not that a short line is easier to read, but that it is less difficult to locate instantly the left-hand end of the next line. In a check on the one hundred readers, it was found that none of them use lines beyond four-inches in length. For the three periods the percentages were rather

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[7] E. B. Huey, The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading, (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1918), p. 177.

high on the side of lines of irregular length. It would seem difficult to arrange the material otherwise since the sentences used for first grade are short. The size of the print and the wider space between the lines would prevent the difficulty of the eye-sweep back to the beginning of the next line. The per cents for three periods were irregular--58.3%, 57.1%, and 57.1%.

The binding and covers of the books were durable, with the exception of Pollard's Synthetic First Reader and the Indiana Education Series First Reader. These were paper covered.

A comparison of Table VII for first grade with Tables VIII and IX for second and third grade shows the following for point size of type: First Grade--the first period 41.7% 14- point and 58.3% 18- point; the second period pushes up to 18- point 100%; the third period drops back slightly with 14- point 14.3% and 18- point 85.7%. Second Grade--the first period 54.5% 12- point and 45.5% 14- point; the second period pushes up to 18- point 71.4% with the remainder of 28.6% at 14- point; the third period drops back to 14- point 71.4% and 18- point 28.6%. Third Grade--the first period 10- point 8.3%, 12- point 66.7%, 14- point 25%; the second period pushes up to 12- point 28.6%, 14- point 57.1% and 18- point 14.3%; the third period drops back somewhat at 12- point 35.7% and 14- point 64.3%. The probable reason for the step-up for the three grades during

the silent reading period was the supposition that the larger type would better enable the children to do with ease the work outlined in the readers.

Wide space (in this analysis 6 points or more) for first grade begins in the first period at 75%; the second and third periods rise to 85.7% and 92.9%. For second grade wide space begins in the first period at 54.5% and moves upward with the next two periods, the per cents being 85.7% and 92.9%. For third grade it is 58.3%, 28.6% and 28.6%.

"Clearness" shows a difference among the three grades for the first period. In first grade only 33.3% were in type of slight clearness while in second and third grades it became 63.6% and 66.7% respectively. During the second period all books in the three grades were out of the class of "lightface" with most books in the "standard" classification and the rest in "boldface." The per cents were standard 85.1%, 100% and 100%. During the third period the per cents were, standard, 85.7%, 78.6% and 78.6%. The remainders were in boldface.

The length of line for second and third grades was much more regular than for first grade. That is as it should be because the reading material is becoming heavier and more of a continuous nature. The per cents were--second grade, regular, 81.8%, 85.7% and 85.7%; third grade, regular 100%, 85.7% and 100%.

The binding was durable in all cases except for one in second grade during the first period, The Indiana Education

Series reader, and for third grade, two, Pollard's and Indiana Education.

Though the relative importance of the mechanical aspects of reading texts is a disputed point, the information gathered here shows that there are inconsistencies in practice in the make-up of readers, and that there are trends which have given us the improved readers we have today.

TABLE VII

NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF FIRST READERS

AS TO THE EMPLOYMENT OF CERTAIN MECHANICAL FEATURES

	1880-1918		1918-1925		1925-Present	
Number books studied	12		7		14	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
TYPOGRAPHY						
Point Size						
18 point	7	58.3	7	100.0	12	85.7
14 point	5	41.7			2	14.3
CLEARNESS						
Lightface	4	33.3				
Standard	8	66.7	6	85.7	12	85.7
Boldface			1	14.3	2	14.3
PAPER						
Gloss						
Plain	12	100.0	7	100.0	14	100.0
Dull Shade						
SPACE BETWEEN LINES						
Wide	9	75.0	6	85.7	13	92.9
Narrow	3	25.0	1	14.3	1	7.1
LENGTH OF LINES						
Regular	5	41.7	3	42.9	6	42.9
Irregular	7	58.3	4	57.1	8	57.1
BINDING AND COVER						
Durable	10	83.3	7	100.0	14	100.0
Poor	2	16.7				

TABLE VIII

NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF SECOND GRADE READERS AS TO THE EMPLOYMENT OF CERTAIN MECHANICAL FEATURES

	1880-1918		1918-1925		1925-Present	
Number books studied	11		7		14	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
TYPOGRAPHY						
Point size						
18 point			5	71.4	4	28.6
14 point	5	45.5	2	28.6	10	71.4
12 point	6	54.5				
CLEARNESS						
Lightface	7	63.6				
Standard	4	36.4	7	100.0	11	78.6
Boldface					3	21.4
PAPER						
Gloss						
Plain	11	100.0	7	100.0	14	100.0
Dull Shade						
SPACE BETWEEN LINES						
Wide	6	54.5	6	85.7	13	92.9
Narrow	5	45.5	1	14.3	1	7.1
LENGTH OF LINE						
Regular	9	81.8	6	85.7	12	85.7
Irregular	2	18.2	1	14.3	2	14.3
BINDING AND COVER						
Durable	10	90.9	7	100.0	14	100.0
Poor	1	9.1				

TABLE IX

NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF THIRD READERS

AS TO THE EMPLOYMENT OF CERTAIN MECHANICAL FEATURES

	1880-1918		1918-1925		1925-Present	
Number books studied	12		7		14	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
TYPOGRAPHY						
Point Size						
18 point			1	14.3		
14 point	3	25.0	4	57.1	9	64.3
12 point	8	66.7	2	28.6	5	35.7
10 point	1	8.3				
CLEARNESS						
Lightface	8	66.7				
Standard	4	33.3	7	100.0	11	78.6
Boldface					3	21.4
PAPER						
Gloss						
Plain	12	100.0	7	100.0	14	100.0
Dull Shade						
SPACE BETWEEN LINES						
Wide	5	41.7	5	71.4	10	71.4
Narrow	7	58.3	2	28.6	4	28.6
LENGTH OF LINE						
Regular	12	100.0	6	85.7	14	100.0
Irregular			1	14.3		
BINDING AND COVER						
Durable	10	83.3	7	100.0	14	100.0
Poor	2	16.7				

CHAPTER VIII

STORY CONTENT PRESENTED IN READERS

Success in reading has always been the goal teachers have set for their pupils, but what obstacles there have been in the way of its attainment! Not the least of these has been the dearth of interesting material in the various fields of child interests.

During the earlier periods of reading instruction, the aim seemed to be to learn to read for reading's sake. Little or no attention was given to the content of the reading material. In the earliest period covered in this study (the cultural stress period, 1880-1918), a number of the readers examined especially for first grade consists largely of sentences bearing on nothing in particular. Evidently the aim was to teach either certain sounds or certain families of words, or else just to teach to read. A few examples of lessons from some of these books will show why there was little appeal in the books. All the lessons reproduced here, with the exception of the one from the Literature and Art Reader, carry one or more illustrations. These pictures are all in black and white and are neither interesting nor thought provoking.

Barnes's New National First Reader, 1884, carries for Lesson III, on page 9 a picture of a dog chasing a rat, a reading lesson, three lines long, and a detailed picture of a rat at the bottom of the page.

I. EXAMPLES OF LACK OF CHILD INTEREST IN OLDER READERS

Lesson III (page 9)

New Words

rat big can get this

This is a big rat.

Can the dog get the rat?

The dog can get the rat.

McGuffey's New Eclectic First Reader, 1885.

Lesson I (page 11)

Let the child spell each word in the line, then read the line.

SPELL	READ
is it an ox	Is it an ox?
it is an ox	It is an ox.
it is my ox	It is my ox.
do we go	Do we go?
do we go up	Do we go up?
we do go up	We do go up.
am I in	Am I in?
am I in it	Am I in it?
I am in it	I am in it.

Pollard's Synthetic First Reader, 1890.

Lesson XVIII (page 27)

on fox of sob of top box of

dog chop trot spot fond pond

A fox! A fox!

This fox ran and hid

in the lot.

Can not Spot catch the fox?

Spot is Rob's dog.

Give Rob a stick.

Toss the stick in the pond, Rob.

Spot will bring it back.

Spot lives with Rob.

Rob is fond of him.

Indiana Educational Series, First Reader, 1889.

Lesson 13 (page 21)

Kitty

her

fly

for

(picture)

looks

May

at

it

k

K k k-i-t kit a-t at

Do you see this cup?
It is for little May.
What is on the cup?
A fly is on the cup.
Kitty looks at the fly.

Baldwin's School Reading by Grades, First Year, 1897.

(page 54)

bud rose open garden turn
bud rose open garden turn
Is this a flower?
I think it looks a little like a flower.
It is a pretty bud.
Let it grow, and see what it will be.
Will it turn to a flower?
The bud will open, and then it will be a flower.
Here are three rose buds on one stem.
Let them grow.
By and by they will open and be roses.
Some roses are red, some are yellow, and some are white.
Which roses do you like best?

Burke's Literature and Art Readers, Book One, 1901.

(page 18)

T

Tab

Tab can see a bat.

the cat

the mat.

the man

The cat is fat.

Is the bat fat?

This this

Is this a hat?

This fat cat can see a man.

This is his cab.

The cat is his.

I can see Tab.

Can you see the hat?

II. ELEMENTS WHICH CONTRIBUTE TO INTEREST

While interest is necessarily more or less a subjective quality, the extensive studies made have led to general working principles. Interest is definitely a consequential element so far as the pupil's meaningful learning and understanding are concerned.

Reeder has stressed the importance of interest as "inner experience." He says:

> The first step in teaching reading is to provide an experience out of which thought and its appropriate expression in printed form may arise. The richer the thought and the deeper the interest, the fewer the number of associations necessary to fix the word and sentence forms... When the thought content of the first steps in reading, as well as all later ones, is not simply chosen for the purpose, but is the child's own, arising out of his inner experience, and demanding expression by inner necessity, then will learning to read become as natural as learning to talk.[1]

In 1921 Fannie Wyche Dunn, of Columbia University,[2] presented the results of her study of child interests. She listed six elements in children's reading which contribute most to interest. Briefly they are:

(1) Surprise - unexpectedness, unforseen events, happenings, conclusions, and outcomes.
(2) Liveliness - action, movement, having "something doing."
(3) Animalness - presentation of things animals do, facts about them and their characteristics and experiences.
(4) Conversation - talk.
(5) Humor - from children's point of view.
(6) Plot

Arbuthnot[3] has given a clear presentation of the qualities of a good story for children in an article published by Scott, Foresman and Company. She asks the question: "What makes a good story for children?" In her answer she gives a

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[1] R. R. Reeder, "The Historic Development of School Readers and Methods of Teaching Reading," (Columbia University Contributions to Philosophy, Psychology, and Education, VIII, No. 2, 1900), pp. 89-90.

[2] Fannie Wyche Dunn, Interest Factors in Primary Reading Material, (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1921).

[3] May Hill Arbuthnot, Teaching Trends, (Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company). n.d.

few criteria by which we may judge some of the merits or faults of stories:

1. Is the theme suitable and adequate to the age and interests of the children?
2. Is the plot logical, plausible, full of convincing action leading to a satisfying conclusion?
3. Is there unity in the development of the theme?
4. Is the unity preserved by a decent economy of incident?
5. Are the parts of the story in balanced relationship?
   A. Introduction, which launches the characters, time, scene, and situation and should be clear, provocative, and brief.
   B. Development, or Body, of the story, containing action, conflict, suspense leading up to a climax --it should hold the child's interest and keep him curious to the end.
   C. Conclusion that solves the problem, resolves the conflict; it should leave the reader with a sense of completion and satisfaction.
6. Does the story have style? - the music of prose, the easy fitting of words to mood, of rhythm to emotion.
7. What are the ethics of the story?
8. Is it essentially true to human nature?

While a basal reader is meant to serve as a definite tool for the original mastery of a new skill, there is no reason why it should not in content be built around child experiences and child interests. The interesting everyday experiences of children at primary level are concerned with home, parents, play, family, food, school, friends, and pets. Before children have acquired sufficient vocabulary to read for themselves, they enjoy hearing fairy stories. Few stories of this type appear in first readers because fairy stories stripped of their fanciful terminology and their ethereal illustrations have no interest for these young children. By the time children are in second or third grade, their

vocabulary is large enough to include a variety of terms. Their interest in fairy stories and fanciful tales seems to reach its peak at around eight years. Consequently at this age they are able to enjoy reading fairy stories themselves.

The following excerpt from Green is a clear statement of the children's preferences:

> Children like stories involving action and adventure, surprise, beauty, humor, and remarkable achievement. They prefer stories in which the characters display kindness, bravery, and good judgment, and those which end happily. Given these qualities, a story appeals to children whether it be a myth, folk tale, fairy story, piece of fiction, or the recital of an actual event.... Children in the early grades like stories of a repetitive nature. Among the qualities which detract from children's interest are overmaturity, abstractness, lack of action, unreality, gloominess, monotony, poor literary style, stories of too great length, and books that duplicate too much of the content of books previously read.[4]

III. EXPLANATION OF CHOICE OF INTEREST ITEMS USED IN THIS ANALYSIS

Several studies[5] and articles were consulted before the list for story content of readers was arranged as it has been

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[4] Jenny Lind Green, "When Children Read for Fun," (School and Society, 17:390-92, April 7, 1923).

[5] Dunn, op. cit., 70 pp.
Miriam B. Huber, "Children's Interest in Poetry," Teachers College Record, 28:93-104; October, 1926.
Lewis M. Terman and Lima, Margaret, Children's Reading-a Guide for Parents and Teachers, 2nd ed., (New York: D. Appleton and Company), 1931, 422 pp.
Joy Muchmore Lacey, "What Effect Has the Emphasis on Social Studies Had on the Content of Readers?" (Educational Method, 10:532-7, 1930).

in this analysis. Entire studies have already been made on the one problem of setting up a representative list of child interests. It is not the belief of the writer that the list used here is better than any other. It was grouped in this way in order better to keep the analysis of the content of the lessons within the confines of one chapter in this thesis. However, the items are ones appearing in the studies consulted, although not all the items given by research workers are found in this list by specific mention. As will be shown later, some of these items are implied and listed accordingly.

The list of thirteen interest fields has been arranged alphabetically and is as follows:

1. Adventure
2. Animal and Bird Life
3. Bible Stories and Religion
4. Biography and History
5. Folk, Fairy, Myths, Fables, Proverbs, Mother Goose, Legends
6. Holidays and Festivals
7. Home and Community Life
8. Miscellaneous Stories
9. Nature and Science Stories
10. Other People
11. Poems
12. Toys, Games, Play
13. Useful Knowledge

It may be well to state that though humor is not listed separately, it was found to be present in fair amounts in a majority of the late readers, and less and less so as one goes back through the three periods. Not many of the selections in any of the readers would be classified as strictly humorous ones. It would seem to be better that humor would run like a

slender thread through the pages of the various lessons. In life, humor plays that part if it does not descend to the level of the mere comic.

Under "Biography and History" have been listed stories directly connected with the lives of any great men and women, with historic events, and with fictional characters placed in historical settings. Inventions were listed under "Biography and History," or under "Home and Community," according to the application of their usefulness.

All the fanciful and imaginative stories were grouped together under Number 5. Number 6, "Holidays and Festivals" was used also for birthdays, and celebrations not of an historic or patriotic nature. Number 7, "Home and Community Life" includes school life, since the school was taken as part of the community. Under Number 8, "Miscellaneous Stories" have been listed all lessons which were not readily classifiable under the other twelve headings. Number 10, "Other People" includes stories of the early Indians. All "Poems" were listed under Number 11. By doing this it was possible to see the amount of stress placed on poetry throughout the three periods. Number 13, "Useful Knowledge" was used for lessons on how to do things, lessons about useful metals, etc.

The results of this analysis were tabulated separately for the three grades. The total number of stories for each period and the average number of lessons per book are at the top of the tables. However, as stated before, these averages

cannot show the range in per cents. Some books have as many as 169 lessons, not counting isolated words and groups of unrelated sentences which were not listed in the analysis; and other books have as few as 14 lessons.

IV. RESULTS OF THE ANALYSIS OF INTEREST FIELDS IN EVIDENCE IN FIRST READERS

Table X on page 69 gives the number of lessons in first grade for each interest field and the per cent of the total for the period. The ranks of the thirteen items in the table show the change in stress.

For first grade the ranks are listed below.

Interest Field	Ranks		
	1880-1918	1918-1925	1925-Present
1. Adventure	9		10
2. Animal and Bird Life	2	2	2
3. Bible Stories and Religion			4
4. Biography and History		11	11.5
5. Folk, Fairy, Myths, Proverbs, Fables, Legends, Mother Goose	1	5	7.5
6. Holidays and Festivals	8	9	9
7. Home and Community Life	4	3	1
8. Miscellaneous Stories	7	7	7.5
9. Nature Stories	5	8	5
10. Other People		10	
11. Poems	6	4	6
12. Toys, Games, Play	3	1	3
13. Useful Knowledge		6	11.5

This study has shown the same results as did the search of Ide and Obery[6] in 1931 on the point that folk, fairy, myth,

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[6] Alice M. Ide and Walda Obery, "The Content of Present Day School Readers Compared with Children's Interests and Reading Objectives," Elementary English Review, March, 1931, 8:64-68.

fables, etc., which occupied a preponderance of space in readers, even in first grade have lost their position to home and community life and toys, games, play. Stories about animals and birds keep the same rank in all three periods.

V. RESULTS OF THE ANALYSIS OF INTEREST FIELDS IN EVIDENCE IN SECOND READERS

Interest Field	Ranks		
	1880-1918	1918-1925	1925-Present
1. Adventure			5
2. Animal and Bird Life	3	4	2
3. Bible Stories and Religion	9		9
4. Biography and History	10	11	13
5. Folk, Fairy, Myths, Proverbs, Fables, Legends, Mother Goose	2	1	6
6. Holidays and Festivals	8	11	12
7. Home and Community Life	4	3	1
8. Miscellaneous Stories	6	9	10
9. Nature Stories	5	5	11
10. Other People	11.5	8	8
11. Poems	1	2	3
12. Toys, Games, Play	7	7	7
13. Useful Knowledge	11.5	6	4

Poetry which ranks first in the 1880 period ranks second and third respectively in the 1918 and present periods. Folk and fairy, etc. shifts up in the second period and down considerably in the present. Animal stories rank s econd today, where they were fourth in the middle period and third in the first. Home and community has risen from fourth rank to third and first.

VI. RESULTS OF THE ANALYSIS OF INTEREST FIELDS IN EVIDENCE IN THIRD READERS

For third grade the ranks are:

Interest Field	Ranks		
	1880-1918	1918-1925	1925-Present
1. Adventure			11
2. Animal and Bird Life	4	3.5	3
3. Bible Stories and Religion	11		8
4. Biography and History	7	11	10
5. Folk, Fairy, Myths, Proverbs, Fables, Legends, Mother Goose	2	1	6
6. Holidays and Festivals	10	10	13
7. Home and Community Life	3	2	4
8. Miscellaneous Stories	5	5	9
9. Nature Stories	6	9	7
10. Other People	8	6	1
11. Poems	1	3.5	2
12. Toys, Games, Play	9	8	12
13. Useful Knowledge	12	7	5

Again poetry ranks high. Folk and fairy, etc. has taken a considerably lower rank today than in the two previous periods. Home and community, which ranked first in the present period in first and second grades, has dropped to fourth rank in third grade with other peoples taking first rank. This is in accord with the present tendency to begin with the home environment and to enlarge gradually upon it until in third grade the life of people of other lands becomes interesting to children.

VII. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS ON CONTENT OF READERS.

From the above findings one observes that present day reading material is more nearly measuring up to the child's

interests and the present day reading objectives than in the past. There is a strong tendency to socialize reading materials by presenting stories which deal with significant experiences in the lives of children. This departure from the older procedure is not abrupt or complete. Even the newest and best basal readers carry many riddles, rhymes, and fanciful tales.

A majority of the new readers tend to have continuous reading material, all the stories being related with one another. The same leading characters are used. They are presented, living, acting, growing.

The new literature for reading material in basal texts has proved its worth, and though there will undoubtedly be other changes in the future, it would seem that our present trend is pointed in the right direction.

TABLE X

NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF LESSONS IN THE VARIOUS INTEREST FIELDS

GRADE ONE

	1880-1918		1918-1925		1925-Pres.	
Number of books studied	12		6		14	
Number of lessons in books	653		167		489	
Average no. lessons per book	54.42		27.83		34.93	
STORY CONTENT	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1. Adventure	2	.31			7	1.43
2. Animal and Bird Life	119	18.2	33	19.76	127	25.97
3. Bible Stories & Religion					26	5.32
4. Biography and History			1	.598	3	.61
5. Folk, Fairy, Myths, Proverbs, Fables, Legends, Mother Goose	216	33.1	15	8.98	16	3.27
6. Holidays and Festivals	15	2.29	6	3.593	15	3.07
7. Home and Community Life	79	12.1	27	16.165	153	31.29
8. Miscellaneous Stories	34	5.21	9	5.389	16	3.27
9. Nature Stories	47	7.2	8	4.79	19	3.89
10. Other People			2	1.197		
11. Poems	43	6.58	19	11.365	18	3.68
12. Toys, Games, Play	98	15.0	34	20.359	86	17.58
13. Useful Knowledge			13	7.784	3	.61
Totals	653	99.99	167	99.98	489	99.99

TABLE XI

NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF LESSONS IN THE VARIOUS INTEREST FIELDS

GRADE TWO

	1880-1918		1918-1925		1925-Pres.	
Number of books studied	11		6		14	
Number of lessons in books	567		246		600	
Average no. lessons per book	51.54		41.0		42.86	
STORY CONTENT	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1. Adventure					40	6.67
2. Animal and Bird Life	78	13.75	31	12.60	105	17.5
3. Bible Stories & Religion	8	1.39			24	4.0
4. Biography and History	7	1.23	3	1.21	1	.17
5. Folk, Fairy, Myths, Legends, Proverbs, Fables, Mother Goose	150	26.46	45	18.29	39	6.5
6. Holidays and Festivals	15	2.65	4	1.63	18	3.0
7. Home and Community Life	55	9.70	36	14.63	140	23.3
8. Miscellaneous Stories	23	4.06	8	3.25	23	3.83
9. Nature Stories	25	4.41	24	9.76	21	3.5
10. Other People	1	.18	12	4.88	25	4.17
11. Poems	184	32.45	41	16.66	82	13.67
12. Toys, Games, Play	20	3.52	19	7.72	37	6.17
13. Useful Knowledge	1	.18	23	9.35	45	7.5
Totals	567	99.98	246	99.98	600	99.98

TABLE XII

NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF LESSONS IN THE VARIOUS INTEREST FIELDS

GRADE THREE

	1880-1918		1918-1925		1925-Pres.	
Number of books studied	12		7		14	
Number of lessons in books	774		350		673	
Average no. lessons per book	64.5		50.0		48.07	
STORY CONTENT	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1. Adventure					22	3.27
2. Animal and Bird Life	54	6.97	40	11.43	72	10.70
3. Bible Stories & Religion	11	1.42			32	4.74
4. Biography and History	25	3.23	15	4.29	25	3.57
5. Folk, Fairy, Myths, Proverbs, Fables, Legends, Mother Goose	176	22.74	54	15.43	61	9.06
6. Holidays and Festivals	12	1.55	16	4.57	13	1.93
7. Home and Community Life	73	9.43	46	13.14	71	10.55
8. Miscellaneous Stories	42	5.42	39	11.14	26	3.86
9. Nature Stories	37	4.78	18	5.14	34	5.20
10. Other People	22	2.84	32	9.14	129	19.17
11. Poems	298	38.51	40	11.43	108	16.05
12. Toys, Games, Play	16	2.06	20	5.72	18	2.67
13. Useful Knowledge	8	1.03	30	8.57	62	9.21
Totals	774	99.98	350	100.0	673	99.98

CHAPTER IX

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

I. SUMMARY

The changing objectives of teaching reading have been largely the result of changing environment. The physical in the environment has not been the only aspect that has felt this influence. The different periods of national, social, economic, and religious development in the United States are reflected in education. The educational horizon has been broadened and enriched. In the past we were satisfied with teaching reading that children might be able to read the Bible; now we feel the need for the reading program to reach out and to cover as nearly as possible the entire field of child life.

This study has attempted through an analysis of a number of readers published between 1880 and the present to show developments in (1) objectives in teaching reading, (2) methods of teaching (3) instructional aids, (4) illustrations in text books, (5) mechanical features of readers, and (6) content of text books.

Today, a teacher examining a reader does more than leaf through the book looking at the illustrations and skimming some of the lessons; she does more than go through the table of contents. She studies the text in the light of her knowledge of the objectives of the reading program; she compares with these general objectives those of the particular text as expressed in the preface, the introduction, the teachers'

directions or manual. But a teacher could not always do that. The authors of readers did not express their objectives until in rather recent years.

This study shows that, for the thirty-five books representative of the 1880-1918 period of cultural stress (Tables I-III on pages 20-22) none of the texts stated the objectives exemplified within their pages.

The twenty-three books for the silent reading period from 1918-1925 show that during that period authors and editors were bringing readers into line with the enlarged objectives of the period as expressed by W. S. Gray in the Twenty-Fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. The per cents for the three grades during this period show that for the first two grades only one-eighth of the books gave no statement of objectives and for the third, one-seventh. It seemed significant that the averages for "objectives stated in teachers' manual" (first grade 37.5%, second grade 50%, third grade 57.1%) were rising from first to third grade. Naturally, since in the first grade there was not so much study type reading, the manuals did not stress objectives. The more complex set-up for second and third grade called for a more precise and detailed treatment.

During the present period the forty-two books examined fell in two catagories only: the "no statement of objectives" and "statement in manual." The three series which did not state objectives at all were published at the beginning of the

period (1928, 1930, 1931). All the remaining series s tated the objectives of the reading program in teachers' manuals. These manuals grew from small, paper-bound copies, to dignified bound books of a highly professional type.

Methods of teaching reading have been classified under three general headings: synthetic methods, analytic methods and electic or combination methods. The first of these proceeds from letters or sounds to build up words and sentences; the second begins with pictures, words, or s entences and then breaks them down into their component parts; the last mentioned method is self-explanatory.

Table IV on page 30 gives for the 1880 period 14.3% using synthetic methods, 45.7% analytic methods, and 40% eclectic methods. In the 1918 period the work type method preponderates (73.9%), with work and recreational type (26.1%) making its appearance. During the present period 12 books (28.6%) use the story approach and the remaining 30 the work and recreational type (71.4%), which freely use both analytic and synthetic methods.

The findings of this study on methods are that the swing is away from synthetic to analytic and even eclectic methods in the early period. During the silent reading period the methods used were chiefly eclectic. During the present period the newer form of electic methods, the work and recreational types of procedure, predominates though we now

use with them other of the eclectic methods.

Instructional aids were few and not particularly helpful in the 1880 period. Their first period of rapid development was in the silent reading period. Today we have manuals and other helps in a definite, professionalized, and detailed form.

Table V on page 37 shows that for the 1880 period 45.7% of the books studied provide teachers' manuals; for the silent reading period 86.9%; and for the present period 93.86%.

The purpose of illustrating books is to assist the reader to form proper images. Illustrations in early texts did not measure up to this requirement. Until the beginning of the twentieth century pictures in readers were in black and white. The earliest colored ones were in dull shades and were not particularly pleasing to child eyes. We have little to complain of on this score at present. Readers are a riot of colors appealing to children. The trend has been away from boxed-in pictures to the free ones. A high percentage of the lessons have illustrations arranged in such ways as not to interfere with correct eye-movement.

The physical aspects of readers were considered under the headings of type-size, type-clearness, length of lines, space between lines, the paper, and the binding. For size in first grade the 18- point was the one most favored. The leading or space between lines has steadily increased.

Letters are clear, on paper without gloss. The length of lines is never more than four inches, which has been accepted as the maximum length of lines. Lines are of irregular length in first and second grade, but become more regular in third grade. With few exceptions the bindings are durable. The covers of books now are more attractive to children, especially the covers bound in orange, blue, and red. The tables on pages 53, 54, and 55 give in detail the results of the analysis.

The story content of the one hundred readers used was classified under the thirteen headings in Tables X, XI, and XII on pages 70-72. The content of the books of the early period is definitely not along the lines of child interest.

The change in rank of the thirteen items for the three grades is found on pages 66-68. Those that seem to shift the most were Folk, Fairy, Myth, etc. and Home and Community Life. Animal and Bird Life stays rather constant in second, third, or fourth rank.

Present day reading is making a fairly successful attempt to meet child needs and child interests. The new content of readers, with all its social implications and applications, is here to stay.

II. CONCLUSIONS

Within the past sixty years there have been great changes and small changes in reading texts. Both have done their part in contributing to the realization of the enlarged

objectives of teaching reading. While it is not claimed that the program is perfect today, it is approaching nearer to the goal of

I. Rich and varied experiences through reading.
II. Strong motives for, and permanent interest in, reading.
III. Desirable attitudes and economic and effective habits and skills.[1]

The writer believes that this study has proved the contention that text books of a given period tend to lag behind the teaching theories of that period. Authors, editors, and teachers in the field are not always quick to accept new theories. This fact is not necessarily a condemnation of those engaged in education. While they are eager to accept the new that is truly progressive in a right sense, they are not likely to snap up each fad that may present itself. A progressive reading program, as they would understand it, is one that applies the new that is practical and that will enable them the better to achieve the desired goals. It is superfluous to enlarge upon the fact that when Dr. Gray and his associates approve of the new procedure, it is worth while.

The different analyses show the difficulty under which teachers in a given period labored. Their knowledge of a new

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[1] W. S. Gray, "Essential Objectives of Instruction in Reading," Twenty-Fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, (Bloomington, Illinois, Public School Publishing Company, 1925), pp. 9-19.

method did not help them much in using it with texts which still clung to the old.

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1885 McGuffey's New First Eclectic Reader,
New York: Van Antwerp Bragg and Company

1885 McGuffey's New Second Eclectic Reader,
New York: Van Antwerp Bragg and Company

1885 McGuffey's New Third Eclectic Reader,
New York: Van Antwerp Bragg and Company

1889 Indiana Educational Series, First Reader,
Indianapolis: Indiana School Book Company

1889 Indiana Educational Series, Second Reader,
Indianapolis: Indiana School Book Company

1889 Indiana Educational Series, Third Reader,
Indianapolis: Indiana School Book Company

1890 Pollard's Synthetic First Reader,
Chicago: Western Publishing House

1890 Pollard's Synthetic Third Reader,
Chicago: Western Publishing House

1897 Baldwin's School Reading by Grades, First Year,
New York: American Book Company

1897 Baldwin's School Reading by Grades, Second Year,
New York: American Book Company

1897 Baldwin's School Reading by Grades, Third Year,
New York: American Book Company

1900 Burke's Literature and Art Books, Book One,
Boston: Educational Publishing Company

1900 Burke's Literature and Art Books, Book Two,
Boston: Educational Publishing Company

1900 Burke's Literature and Art Books, Book Three, Boston: Educational Publishing Company

1904 Charles Eliot Norton's Heart of Oak Books, First Book, Boston: D. C. Heath and Company

1904 Charles Eliot Norton's Heart of Oak Books, Second Book, Boston: D. C. Heath and Company

1904 Charles Eliot Norton's Heart of Oak Books, Third Book, Boston: D. C. Heath and Company

1907 F. E. Spaulding's Aldine Readers, A First Reader, New York: Newson and Company, Publishers

1907 F. E. Spaulding's Aldine Readers, A Second Reader, New York: Newson and Company, Publishers

1907 F. E. Spaulding's Aldine Readers, A Third Reader, New York: Newson and Company, Publishers

1921 Murray's Wide Awake First Reader, Boston: Little, Brown and Company

1921 Murray's Wide Awake Second Reader, Boston: Little, Brown and Company

1921 Murray's Wide Awake Third Reader, Boston: Little, Brown and Company

1913 Elson Primary School Reader, Book Two, Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company

1913 Elson Primary School Reader, Book Three, Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company

1913 Coe and Christie's Story Hour Readers, Book One, New York: American Book Company

1913 Coe and Christie's Story Hour Readers, Book Two, New York: American Book Company

1913 Coe and Christie's Story Hour Readers, Book Three, New York: American Book Company

1914 Holton-Curry's First Reader, Chicago: Rand McNally

1914 Holton-Curry's Second Reader, Chicago: Rand McNally

1914 Holton-Curry's Third Reader, Chicago: Rand McNally

1922 Everyday Classics-First Reader, New York: Macmillan

1922 Everyday Classics-Second Reader, New York: Macmillan

1918-1925 Period

1922 Davidson and Anderson's Lincoln Reader, Book One, Chicago: Laurel Book Company

1922 Davidson and Anderson's Lincoln Reader, Book Two, Chicago: Laurel Book Company

1922 Davidson and Anderson's Lincoln Reader, Book Three, Chicago: Laurel Book Company

1923 Bolenius' Boys' and Girls' Reader, First Reader, Boston: Houghton Mifflin

1923 Bolenius' Boys' and Girls' Reader, Second Reader, Boston: Houghton Mifflin

1923 Bolenius' Boys' and Girls' Reader, Third Reader, Boston: Houghton Mifflin

1923 Buswell and Wheeler's Silent Reading Hour, First Reader, Chicago: Wheeler Publishing Company

1923 Buswell and Wheeler's Silent Reading Hour, Second Reader, Chicago: Wheeler Publishing Company

1924 Horn and Shield's Learn to Study Readers, Book One, Boston: Ginn and Company

1924 Horn and Shield's Learn to Study Readers, Book Two, Boston: Ginn and Company

1924 Horn and Shield's Learn to Study Readers, Book Three, Boston: Ginn and Company

1924 Lewis and Rowland's Silent Readers, First Reader, Philadelphia: John C. Winston and Company

1924 Lewis and Rowland's Silent Readers, Second Reader, Philadelphia: John C. Winston and Company

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1925 Coleman, Uhl, Hosic's Pathway to Reading, First Reader, New York: Silver Burdett

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1925 Stone's Silent Reading, Book One, Boston: Houghton Mifflin

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1925-Present

1928 De LaSalle Readers, Book I, St. Louis: Woodward and Teerman Printing Company

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