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Reading Strategies, Tenth Grade World History

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READING STRATEGIES
TENTH GRADE WORLD HISTORY

by

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the requirements for the degree of
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Abstract

Text specific reading/learning strategies that reflect recent theoretical research in the reading process were incorporated into the 10th grade world history curriculum. These methods were intended to afford success for a specific group of students who had a history of failure and so lead those students toward independent reading and learning. They were also intended to motivate the world history teachers to use procedures that are congruent with the findings of research in reading and learning.
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Problem Statement

Many high school students have difficulty comprehending textbooks and related reading material. Their difficulty becomes more apparent as levels of educational expectation escalate and as local curriculum reflects the emphasis on higher academic standards. High school teachers find themselves in a "Catch 22" situation. Although they are aware that the requirements of standardized tests do not necessarily insure that their students acquire optimum and independent reading and thinking skills, teachers may be pressured to be sure that their students perform well.
Rationale

Although language acquisition is sequential from birth, schools consider the teaching of reading to be their domain. School curriculum and society assume that at a certain level of development, students can "read." An example of this assumption is the textbook shift from narrative to expository style at about the fourth grade level (Blossam, 1975). The question of what is meant by reading either is not asked or is answered in terms of college or graduate school indoctrination or personal reading experience. Herber (1970) maintains that teachers resort to teaching the way they were taught. In the last two decades research in reading has revealed much of a theoretical nature about the process of skilled reading—the desired result of reading instruction and a necessity for successful high school students. Although much remains, in Huey's words, a "tangled story" (Lovett, 1981), recent insights in cognition and language comprehension will have an impact on future reading instruction.
Purpose

High school teachers, who must work with prescribed and adopted textbooks and curriculum, must deal with the problem of limited reading fluency on a pragmatic rather than theoretical level. Paradoxically, an understanding of reading theory can lead to practical solutions. The assumption is that an increased awareness of the reading process and the reading problems of high school students by their teachers will lead to better teaching strategies. Research has validity ultimately in implementation. Understanding can lead to changed attitudes and altered attitudes to more effective reading for high school students. Herber concurs with Niles that "...we are moving gradually toward a time when reading will be taught mainly in the subject fields with regular content materials" (Herber, 1970). It is the purpose of this project to select and implement specific strategies in targeted world history classes. These strategies should reflect what is known about how students learn, the abilities of the student and the needs of the classroom teacher.
Review of Literature

In the last decade or so the quantity of research on reading has increased rapidly. The people concerned with such research represent diverse orientations, backgrounds, and interests, i.e. psychologists, classroom teachers and those concerned with the assessment and remediation of reading difficulty. The extensive research that is being published on reading and that this variety of people is trying to follow, appears in an ever-increasing and bewildering array of scholarly publications. It has become difficult for the researcher, the student, and the consumer of research on reading to keep abreast of developments in the field. (MacKinnon, 1981, p. ix)

A review of recent models of language acquisition is an indicator of divergent, and sometimes convergent, theories in research. The understanding that there is not one single answer to the problem of less than fluent reading is necessary to avoid over simplification of solutions when working with student readers. The consumer of research must extract from any model that which is relevant, useful, and reasonable as it relates to the classroom.

Gibson (1972) states that reading is a cognitive process that begins with perception and ends in meaning and conceptualization. The theories of Sperling (1972) and Gough (1972), however, deal primarily with the perceptual process and are representative of the "information processing" approach to reading theory.
Information Processing Theory

The assumption made by Sperling (Growder, 1972) is that short term memory is basically auditory. Visual input is translated into auditory form. The term "icon," as used by Sperling, is defined by Gough (Lovett, 1981) as "a relatively direct representation of a visual stimulus that persists for a brief period after the stimulus vanishes" (p. 7). Furthermore, Sperling assumes that the "icon" is an "unidentified or pre-categorical visual image, a set of bars, slits, edges, angles and beads" (p. 9). The theory is based primarily on experiments that consist of letter recognition, random strings of letters and patterned masks. Short term memory or immediate recall is measured in milli-seconds. Auditory superiority is assumed to be the result of the auditory or acoustic-phonological character of primary memory. Auditory items enter short term memory directly, while visually presented items must be translated neurologically (Lovett, 1981).

Expanding on Sperling's work, Gough's (1972) model of the reading process describes the sequence of events that occur in one second of reading and is an example of the linear model information processing theory. His assumption is that we read letter by letter and that the reader has a "lexicon" that can be reached through phonological information; he can understand the spoken word. Readers go from print to meaning by way of speech and letters in the reader's "icon." Symbols are processed serially at a rate of one every ten to twenty milliseconds. The reader maps phonemes, described as "abstract entities that are related to the sounds of language" (p. 337) by a
system of rules. The model's syntactic and semantic section is named "Merlin" and its depository, "TPWSGWTAU"--The Place Where Sentences Go When They Are Understood." (p. 340)

Conrad (1972), although not as linear as Gough, contributes to the primacy of the role of phonology. He theorizes that silent reading is on a continuum from lip moving to apparent absence of detectable speech. His work includes experiments with vocal motor activity as detected by electromyographic techniques. A study of deaf children leads to the hypothesis that for hearing people phonological coding is a preference--not a necessity.

Analysis by Synthesis Theory

Analysis by synthesis, or the psycholinguistic view of reading, is commonly associated with Kenneth Goodman (1970) and Frank Smith (1983). According to this perspective, reading is not primarily visual. Decoding, or transfer of graphic symbol to sound, is stressed minimally. The reader is a "language user who interacts with the graphic input" (Goodman, 1970, p. 6). The efficient reader uses as little visual information as possible to get meaning (Jenkins and Pany, 1980).

Central to the analysis by synthesis approach is hypothesis and hypothesis testing. The purpose of the reader is meaning. Predictions are made by the reader on the basis of both semantic and syntactic cues. According to Lovett (1981) the reader uses a "strategy of selectively sampling and text, forming predictions about its structure and content and testing these predictions against the data of further sampling" (p. 4). Substitutions for exact words or variations in syntax are acceptable if the reader understands what he is reading. Oral reading errors, which Goodman labels "mis-cues," are the basis for a diagnostic procedure. Lovett (1981) evaluates:
An analysis-by-synthesis model of reading has definite appeal. It ventures into the semantic realm as few other theories have dared. It capitalizes upon the basic principles of cognitive psychology and is compatible with current models of language comprehension. Finally, it places reading under the power of the reader, allowing it to change forms according to the reader's informational needs; this flexibility stands in sharp contrast to the specific, exclusive processing paths of linear models and to the passive type of perceptual processing they imply. (p. 4)

Frank Smith (1983) labels such theoretical work as Gough's "outside-in theory," meaning that reading is perceived as a "process that begins with the print on the page and ends with some representation or interpretation inside the brain" (p. 59). Other authors use the label "bottom-to-top" in referring to the theories that reading begins with the print and arrives via various circumlocutions at some sort of cognitive activity. It is Smith's contention that these studies account for a large proportion of studies reported in Reading Research Quarterly and predominate in psychological and linguistic research. Information processing theories seem well suited to linear flow charts. Regardless of label, of directional flow, and of terminology, information processing models, according to Lovett (1981), have some positive things in common. They are observable; they can be measured and documented. The problem is that the complexity of the skilled reading process is highly individualized and not always
measurable. It would seem that it is rather like counting apples and
tasting apples. Both are necessary.

Smith is one of the more readable proponents of "analysis by
synthesis" theories. There are no flow charts, and education and
psychological jargon is at a minimum. Perhaps a consequence of a
career as a journalist and editor prior to that of an academic
researcher, his style should not be confused with his theory, which he
calls "inside-out" (Smith, 1983). He explains:

What distinguishes the skilled reader from the novice . . .
is not (as frequently supposed) the amount of visual
information that he can pack into a single fixation,
but the amount of nonvisual information with which he
can leaven the featural input and make it go the
farthest. (p. 63)

He sees no evidence to support serial letter processing or, in many
cases, word processing in a natural reading situation. "In fact, we
are normally aware of words only when words are unfamiliar" (p. 71).
He does not deny the reliable and replicable data of "outside-inners"
but considers it to be artificial and atypical to real life reading.
Smith (1983) acknowledges that his assumption of an "inside-out"
cognitive process makes it difficult to design and conduct empirical
research. Most of the data is based on anecdote, observation and
introspection.

Basic to the analysis-by-synthesis concept is "prediction"--or
"hypothesis testing"--or "guessing." Smith and Goodman have been
dubbed the proponents of a psycholinguistic guessing game. Smith
(1983) defines prediction as "the reduction of uncertainty by the elimination of unlikely alternatives" (p. 30) and specifies four reasons for prediction:

1. There are multiple meanings for individual words. The reader expects an area of meaning.

2. Spellings do not indicate pronunciation. If we know what the word is likely to be, phonics is useful to confirm or reject. Phonics is easy if we have an idea of the word in the first place.

3. There is a limit to how much of the visual information of print the brain can process. The fewer the alternatives, the more efficient reading will be.

4. The capacity of short-term memory is limited. The reader fills it with meaning instead of unrelated letters.

Smith (1983) maintains that one bonus of the prediction process is that the reader is already working on a meaning level. Another advantage is that the language of the reader and the author need not be an exact match, thus accommodating dialect. The "inside-out" theory does not require "recourse to the spoken language for the comprehension of print" (Smith, 1983, p. 61).

Although Smith's ideas appear to be arbitrary and dogmatic, he does remind the reader that reading is still a mystery and cautions against the wholesale adoption of any one theory (p. 70). "Despite the definite appeal of 'analysis-by-synthesis' models," Lovett (1971) points out that the "models remain inadequate primarily for their failure to generate a testable hypothesis" (p. 4).
Developmental Theory

Perfetti (1975) advances a theory to explain what may prevent some readers from becoming fluent. The terms "automatic decoding" and "attention" are the catch words of the approach. "It is suggested that at least some unskilled comprehenders may have failed to develop automatic decoding skills and that this failure may lead to diminished comprehension skills" (Perfetti, 1975, p. 461). If the reader must divert his attention to decoding a word, he may lose the meaning of what he is reading (Adams, 1980). Lack of comprehension may be the result of word-by-word reading in which the student pronounces each word but does not understand what he is reading. Laberge and Samuels (1974) state that "every time a word requires attention, we are made aware of that aspect of the reading process" (p. 314). It is their view that when decoding and comprehension are automatic, reading is easy; when they require attention, it is difficult.

Interactive, Schema Theory

Recent reading theory conceptualizes reading as an interactive process--a bi-directional one which flows from top to bottom and from bottom to top. Reading is considered an "essentially cognitive activity achieved through a very active mode of perceptual processing" (Hacker, 1980, p. 867).

"Rumelhart has postulated a model that goes beyond the analysis-by-synthesis theory of Goodman and Smith and yet incorporates some of the best features of information processing" (Lovett, 1981, p. 7). This schema theory is generally considered to be elaborate and complex. Rumelhart (1980) describes schemata as "The building blocks of
cognition" or "the fundamental elements upon which all information processing depends" (p. 33).

A schema theory is basically a theory about knowledge. It is a theory about how knowledge is represented and about how that representation facilitates the use of the knowledge in particular ways. According to schema theories, all knowledge is packaged into units. These units are the schemata. Embedded in these packets of knowledge is, in addition to the knowledge itself, information about how this knowledge is to be used. A schema, then, is a data structure for representing the generic concepts stored in memory. (p. 34)

Hacker (1980) observes that the schema theory has evolved from interdisciplinary research including cognitive psychologists, linguists and specialists in artificial intelligence. He quotes Spiro's simplified summary: "What one already knows will affect what one can come to know" (p. 867). Discussion of schema theory in reading revolves around just how knowledge is stored and how we use existing knowledge to process visually perceived data. Hacker (1980) acknowledges the concept of a hierarchy of the cognitive process. There is not one directional flow; rather there is a complicated interactive process. Rumelhart (1980) concludes:

Although the development of schema-based theories . . . is yet in its infancy and these ideas have not yet proved their usefulness, I believe that they offer the
most promising leads for those of us interested in the
difficult problems posed when we try to apply
psychological theories directly to domains relevant
to education. (p. 57)

Content Area Reading--Background and Theory

According to Smith, Otto and Hansen (1978), "there is probably
less consensus than at any other time in recent history as to how the
reading act occurs and how it is learned. However, we are rapidly
developing a far better perception of the reading process and how it
can best be taught" (p. 17). Herber (1970) quotes Francis Keppel:

... there is an enormous time lag before the best of
innovations finally make their way to our schools, a
resistance of education to the product of research
that is unmatched in other fields ... In education the
process often takes 30 years or more. (p. 3)

The implications of Keppel's statement, if valid, are worth assessment.
"There is general agreement that some systematic structural approach
to teaching does matter and that it is the teacher that makes the
difference between effective and ineffective learning" (Herber, 1970,
p. 3). Therefore, it follows that reading research should be implemented
in the content area classroom as opposed to remedial instruction for
a few students.

Herber's (1970) definitive work on content area reading could be
considered the cornerstone of what is generically termed "reading in
the content area" or RICA. There are parallels between the theoretical
strands that have been discussed and implementation as proposed by
Herber and others. There are variations in approach as suggested by the following terms for a similar process: directed reading activity, instructional framework, structured overview, reading and reasoning guides. Terminology can take on meaning in the light of theory.

"For many years, we have been hearing the softly spoken but never realized slogan 'every teacher a teacher of reading.' This book will make a genuine contribution toward reaching that goal" (Thomas and Robinson, 1972, p. v). Herber (1970) takes issue with the notion that every teacher is a teacher of reading. He feels that there is a great difference between teaching reading in a reading class and in a content class; yet there need not be a total dichotomy. Reading teachers are more concerned with process and skills than content. They select material to teach a skill and provide practice in the skill. On the other hand, content teachers, charged with the responsibilities of the subject he is teaching, can teach students how to use skills to meet the requirements of the content. Skills are functional. Students use the reading process to master the text, a pragmatic approach. The strategy of using and teaching reading skills as a constructive means to an end does, however, require modification of teaching methods. Herber (1970) maintains that content teachers do not understand what they can and should do. To elaborate he quotes Bruner:

Let us recognize that the opposite of understanding is not ignorance or simply not knowing. To understand something is, first, to give up some other way of conceiving it. Confusion all too often lies between one way of conceiving and another better way. (p. 9)
On a less charitable note, Smith Otto and Hansen (1978) state that "Teachers who do accept that all high school students in all contents could profit by reading instruction may be willing to make minor changes, but most are unwilling to make major changes" (p. 245).

Herber (1970) acknowledges that the content teacher faces very real problems: student competence, curriculum pressures, content materials, and teacher education. While some authors, such as Shepard (1978) make a case for detailed student diagnosis, Herber simply acknowledges that there is a wide range of student competence within any group. Not every student has made the transition from the narrative style of initial learning to the expository style of most texts. This is also one of the tenents of Blossam (1975) in her work with gloss notes. Perfetti (1975) suggests that some have failed to develop automatic decoding skills. "Yet students at the secondary level are required to read increasingly complex and abstract exposition, and teachers assume that they are equipped to do so" (Herber, 1970, p. 5). Curriculum, often dictated by standardized tests, can put pressure on content teachers, who "generally have 'so much to cover' that they feel forced to teach more superficially than they know they should" (Herber, 1970, p. 5). Standardized tests—and, subsequently, teacher made tests—often require recall of details rather than concepts and applications. Herber (1970) suggests that the result may be the student, and perhaps the teacher, who rejects anything that is not "on the test." Content materials may force teachers to resort to lecture to convey concepts because either the vocabulary and concept load is inappropriate, or the text does not relate to the curriculum.
Teachers may feel that their preparation "did little or nothing" (Herber, 1970, p. 8) to prepare them to help students comprehend materials. Those who do not seek other employment may resort to teaching the way they were taught. Because the high school teacher has specialized in one field, he may be very knowledgeable in his area. Knowledge of subject matter may lead teachers to assume that students may know more than they do. Subconsciously, they may mentally fill in the gaps in the texts by assuming that all readers have obtained their level of knowledge (Herber, 1970).

For Herber (1970) independence for readers is the ultimate goal. "This is the essence of good teaching: to show students how to be successful in doing what is required of them" (p. 26). He deals with the problem of "buck passing." At each grade level teachers assume that a level of independence was acquired at the previous level and thus put students "on their own" to foster independence and avoid spoon feeding. "This procedure may conversely create dependence as students seek to 'second guess' the teacher and to acquire specific data for feedback" (p. 29). He conjectures that the teachers who reject reading and reasoning guides because they might encourage dependence are themselves fostering dependence. The instructional framework proposed by Herber (1970) is designed to lead students toward independent reading. He perceives reading as a four step process rather than as a unitary act as proposed by analysis-by-synthesis theorists. The four steps are (a) word perception, (b) comprehension, (c) critical and emotional reactions, and (d) application to behavior.

The proliferation of articles, textbooks and workbooks is evidence of increased interest in content area reading. Although, in
general, there are three parts that are common to most, there are variations in the approach and emphasis. There seems to be general agreement on the necessity for orienting reading to what the students already know. This step includes awareness of student backgrounds, previewing, anticipation, purpose setting, motivation and vocabulary instruction. Pre-teaching is well grounded in theory. It is the second step, the implementation step, that seems most subject to deviation in theory and practice. The third step is more or less dependent on the procedures employed in the second phase.

An example of the divergence of thinking in the implementation stage is Herber's (1970) own comparison of his instructional framework with a directed reading activity (DRA). The DRA calls for silent reading in the second phase and assumes a level of independence. Herber calls the second step guidance. Reading and reasoning guides are the vehicle. The goal is development of concepts and generalizations. Herber calls this "structure within" and argues that it permits exploration. If it does not, it is limiting and restricting (p. 39).

Before preparing a reading and reasoning guide, teachers must determine what is important to teach and what skill is needed for the students to comprehend. According to Herber (1970) teachers should not assume that students learn a skill by answering a question. Rather, students should have a "conscious experience in application of a skill to understand the context" (p. 36). Teachers should teach the skill and give students an opportunity under direction, to develop familiarity with it. The skill may be taught independent of content. Students should then be given the experience of applying the skill
and simultaneously understanding the concept. "Structured within" can be adjusted by the teacher to meet more individual needs--particularly if grouping of students is employed. Skills and concepts can be applied at many levels of sophistication. Ideally students are led into active involvement in the reading process, rather than the "passive posture of the listener" (p. 48). Active involvement leads to independence for the reader rather than dependence on the teacher. The desired independence assumes transfer, which is defined as "the application of previous learning to current problems" (p. 17).

Shepherd (1978) also argued for independence in reading but on the basis of the individual's functioning in a democracy. It is also his contention that "the learner must be cognizant of the learning process in order to become independent and self-directing" (p. iii). He views Herber's "structure within" as more of a problem solving procedure (p. 137) reminiscent of Smith and Goodman. He concludes that classroom procedure is based on the teacher's educational philosophy as well as his goals for classroom instruction. Herber would not seem to grant this much latitude. Shepherd's concurrence with Herber holds through the preparation for reading stage--including student background, previewing, introduction of pertinent vocabulary and establishing a purpose for reading. However, in the ensuing steps Shepherd's procedure becomes more of a directed reading activity. Instead of a specific reading and reasoning guide, as advocated by Herber, his second step is silent reading. Follow up activities consist of discussion, re-reading, problem solving (Shepherd, 1978).

Shepherd does make a strong case for vocabulary pre-teaching. "The effective development of vocabulary is directly related to the
ability to conceptualize. Therefore, if a student is to think rather than memorize by rote, he must understand the ideas represented by the word labels" (p. 44). He acknowledges the developmental nature of vocabulary as well as Goodman (1970) and Smith's (1983) cue system theory. He is seemingly in agreement with Perfetti (1975) and Laberge (1974) when he states, "As the high school student reads widely in many subject areas, his need for an ever widening sight vocabulary increases. Fortunately, each word the student learns becomes a sight word. Thus he is able to place his attention upon meaning" (p. 59).

Shepherd (1978) seems to differ with Herber in his stress upon diagnosis as a major factor in content reading. He lists eight instruments including standard tests, school records, informal tests, and cloze tests. Herber (1970) assumes that there is great variance in any group and that tests and records are not reliable or predictive. "Success at one level does not guarantee success at subsequent levels" (p. 5).

Karlin (1964) divides content reading into discrete skills: word recognition, meaning, study skills, appreciation, speed, and interest (p. 87). He suggests that content teachers should help students by teaching content through reading. He, like Shepherd, specifies silent reading as the stage to follow readiness activities, thus by-passing Herber's insistence upon a reading-reasoning guide as implementation for the process of inter relating reading skills, thinking skills, and content reading.

Thomas and Robinson (1972) have compiled a handbook with many pages of examples of specific activities but seemingly little concern for the theory behind the activity. An entire chapter is devoted to
developing flexibility in rate. A section dealing with improving comprehension places great emphasis on readiness activities but stops short of the regimen proposed by Herber (1970) of a reading and reasoning guide. Improving Reading in Every Class (Thomas and Robinson, 1972) seems to contain little correlation between theoretical research in reading as a cognitive process and the application of strategy in content reading.

Classroom Application

A study by Patberg, Dewitz and Henning (1984) deals somewhat superficially with the transfer made from inservice instruction in reading to classroom practice. It is their view that not enough research has been done in this area. The study was based on a fifteen hour content area reading course for eighteen vocational education teachers. Ten different vocational programs were represented. As a pre and post instructional instrument, the instructors used an attitude questionnaire designed to reveal which content area reading strategies the teachers thought were useful before and after instruction. A second evaluation instrument was a unit of instruction planned by the teachers. Third was classroom observation designed to record the strategies used in the classroom. The small sample and the absence of pre-instructional classroom observation make statistics almost irrelevant. Their subjective conclusions, however, may have validity, or at least point the way for further investigation:

Awareness of reading strategies did not mean an appropriate use of these strategies. In comparing the teachers' post test plans and our classroom observation data, we noticed a discrepancy between
what teachers plan to do and what they actually do. Teacher attitudes toward content area reading seem a better predictor of what teachers will do in their classrooms than are planning protocols. Content area teachers' choices of strategy vary with the subject area. (pp. 500-505)
Procedure

The need for subject area teachers in high school to be involved in the reading process is well established. The problem is how best to implement the involvement. The best of theories can gather dust on library shelves unless used to improve the quality of classroom instruction.

The objective of this curriculum project was the implementation of research based reading strategies in lower level 10th grade world history classes over a period of nine months. There were 11 classes, 4 teachers, and approximately 330 students. At the close of the 1984-85 school year two of these teachers had the highest failure rate in the school district.

Project content included specific reading/learning strategies directly related to the text, Scott Foresman's History and Life as well as to the district world history curriculum guide. Specific student study strategies included SQ3R and Cornell notetaking. Two survey instruments were used. Teachers were provided with and encouraged to use pre-teaching strategies such as structured overviews. Reading and reasoning guides to be used with the textbooks were provided when feasible. Content was selected to conform to Herber's (1970) goal of independence for the students.

The procedure involved working directly with teachers and students in the classrooms. Demonstrations were given, and teachers were supplied with text specific materials that incorporated current theories about effective reading and learning. Periodic informal discussions were held by the reading resource teacher with the history teachers for the purpose of motivation and encouragement. In 9 of
the 11 history classes, teachers used procedures and materials as they saw fit or not at all. Deliberate and intensive reading strategies were used in two classes to teach the content of world history.

The two classes which received instruction in reading and study skills along with the world history curriculum were referred to as intensive. Reading strategies were incorporated six weeks after school began. An analysis of the two classes after five weeks of school revealed not only the nature of the students but also a general trend toward failure.

Class A, the morning class, was composed of 33 students, 6 of whom were repeating the course. Although world history is generally a sophomore class, there were seven seniors, six juniors, and four freshmen. The remaining 16 were sophomores. Twelve of the 33 attended a skills center for half of the school day. There were 9 blacks, 24 Caucasians, 14 girls and 19 boys. Five students, as recently as 1983, had been classified emotionally handicapped. One was currently in a substance abuse program. Class B, the afternoon class, had 30 students, five of whom were repeating. Unlike the morning group, this class was composed of 23 sophomores, one senior, two juniors and four freshmen. There were 7 blacks, 23 Caucasians, 13 girls and 17 boys. Five were provisional at grade level; two, as recently as 1983, had been in emotionally handicapped programs. Seven of the students were well known to the dean because of recurrent behavior problems.

Reading comprehension scores from the Stanford Achievement Test were obtained, when possible, for the years 1983, 1984 and 1985
although only scores for the test administered in April of 1985 were ranked. In Class A there were 29 scores that ranged from 83rd percentile to 13th percentile with a median of 39th percentile. Half the class was at the 5th stanine or above; the other half was at the 4th stanine or below. Class B's 1985 Stanford scores ranged from 86th percentile to 3rd percentile with the median at 34th percentile. Eleven students were at the 5th stanine or above, and 14 were at the 4th stanine or below.

The Degrees of Reading Power Form PA2 was given in October of 1985. Student scores were compared with the textbook, History and Life, which was at 63 in DRP units. In Class A two students were at an independent level; six were at a mid instructional level; twelve were below instructional level; four were at frustration level. Two students could not go past the second page, and five did not take the test. In Class B there were no students on an independent level; eight on a mid instructional level. Six were below instructional, and two were at frustration level. Three students could not go past the second page; four tests were incomplete; five students did not take the test.

Additional data were collected to confirm the lack of ability to handle printed matter. Classroom instruction during the first five weeks covered the first 14 items of 57 on the Duval County minimum skills test, which students must pass in May in order to get credit for the class. A simulated test in the format of the skills test on these 14 items was given to the students. In Class A the average score was 64 percent correct or nine correct answers. In Class B the results were the same.
The two teachers of the nine other classes were given Stanford Achievement Test reading comprehension percentiles, and the Degrees of Reading Power was made available for administration. All strategies and materials that were used with the two intensive classes were made available to the other nine classes. The project was designed to span nine months; however, the time frame of this project necessitated collection of interim data that was largely subjective and anecdotal. At the end of the school year specific data, such as student failure rates, student attitudes, 1986 Stanford Achievement Test Scores and post test scores on the Degrees of Reading Power would be compiled.
Presentation of Data

The data below are presented in chronological order, or in the order in which it was used in the project.

SQ3R and Cornell Notetaking

First, SQ3R was presented by the reading teacher to all eleven classes. After an explanation of the rationale using a cartoon transparency (see Appendix A), the reading teacher and the classroom teacher walked the students through the steps using a textbook reading assignment. After practice in surveying, the students were instructed to turn four subheadings in the assigned reading into questions and to write their questions on the left side of their paper leaving the right side blank. They were then told to read one section at a time for the purpose of answering their own questions. Answers were to be written on the right side of their paper, which would later be folded under for the recite and review steps.

Rephrasing a statement into a question was difficult for many students, and most of their questions could be answered in one word. Some were unaware that subheadings in textbooks represented units of thought and that these units could be read as chunks. The idea that SQ3R was a strategy that they could use for themselves was alien, as reflected in the question, "If we don't have to turn it in, why should we do it?" Those students who had had previous experience with the method were quick to say that they had found it to be helpful.

Of the four teachers of these eleven classes, one teacher participated actively in the demonstration; one graded papers. One gave a homework assignment requiring students to rephrase subheadings into questions.
One allowed 20 minutes for the presentation because his students had to finish that day's handout.

Because it seemed obvious that most students could not use SQ3R, on the following day the two intensive classes were given additional modeling of and practice with the questioning process and the divided page method of Cornell notetaking. They were given a page with the line already drawn from top to bottom and the page numbers of three subheadings spaced on the left side of the paper. The reading teacher modeled a survey of the two and a half pages involved. Students were then asked to rephrase the statements into questions and to read to answer their own questions. Students were divided into groups to compare questions and answers.

In a third class session the reading teacher modeled the metacognitive process of surveying and questioning with Unit One in Chapter Five of History and Life. She did one sub-section then asked the students to use the same mental process on the next sub-section. They were told to turn the sub-heading into a question that could not be answered in one word and to write the question on the left side of their papers. After reading and thinking they were to write answers or details on the right side of their papers in their own words. Students were free to compare and to discuss their work.

The following observations were made. Students had difficulty distinguishing between main ideas and related details. They had a tendency to copy word for word from the textbook whether it made sense to them or not. They thought they had to pronounce every proper noun, such as Knossus; and when they tried, they lost the overall meaning.
Survey Instruments

The second procedure was the use of two survey instruments with the two intensive classes. One of these was a study skills questionnaire developed by Bragstad and Stumpt (1982) (see Appendix B). Although many students seemed genuinely interested in answering questions about themselves, several items that were stated negatively and were to be answered yes or no were troublesome. An example is, "I don't bother taking notes on lectures" (p. 178). Self scoring of the fifty items and compiling answers into a profile was cumbersome and involved page flipping. Individual profiles would have been more effective if they had been prepared for and given to each student. One student was delighted to find that "no" was the correct answer to "Daydreaming interferes with my studying" (p. 180). The second survey was developed by the reading teacher and was designed to determine which of nine areas of a reading program students would consider most helpful (see Appendix C). The eighteen item survey of 63 students indicated that comprehension was the greatest area of concern and that college preparation was of least importance.

Graphic Organizers

Third, graphic organizers were used for structured overviews of both concept and vocabulary. One was used to minimize the difficulty that students were having with conceptualizing groups of early peoples in Mesopotamia (see Appendix D). The graphic organizer attempted to relate a familiar concept to new information. Most could easily relate to groups of people in American history. Many were able to see that early Mesopotamia had experienced similar waves of people over a
period of time. The only problem was that some students tried to equate our Indians with the Sumerians, our explorers with the Babylonians, and our founding fathers with the Hittites. A second graphic organizer summarized the importance of each Mesopotamian group (see Appendix E). Both were used on an overhead projector and discussed with the class before students received individual copies.

A pair of diagrams was used as both overview and summary for the concept that classical civilizations made contributions to our civilization today. Using the first diagram, the teacher wrote the important contributions on each of the four spokes and discussed them with the students (see Appendix F). The diagram was used on a transparency before students were given copies. The teacher explained that each spoke would be studied in more detail, but that the concept should be kept in mind. This was designed to give students a purpose for learning about classical civilizations and to supply a framework to which details and facts could be attached. The second diagram was used as a summary and review (see Appendix G).

Because map reading was one of the required skills, two organizers were developed that necessitated not only the use of maps but also the interpretation of the role of geographic features in history (see Appendix H). The second chart stressed the significance of geography and required considerable teacher involvement (see Appendix I). One student was sidetracked to a map of South America, and after about 20 minutes of contemplation concluded that whoever controlled Brazil, controlled South America.

An overview of vocabulary dealing with the development of Greek democracy was presented in two modes. First the teacher used a
transparency with target words in a bubble surrounded by empty spokes (see Appendix J). After an explanation of the target word, students supplied words that they could relate to it. Students were then given the same target words referenced to the pages in their textbook and with contextual use typed in from the textbook (see Appendix K). They were asked to supply the meaning and examples.

**Reading/Reasoning Guide and Directed Reading Activity**

A fourth strategy was a reading/reasoning guide to pages 90 to 97 in *History and Life* (see Appendix L). It was designed to pattern interactive reading and to make factual information about the content more relevant to concepts. Many of the items were placed in the guide to facilitate the relation of the content to the readers' schemas. The item about the Olympics on page 90 generated discussion. The second item in column one, page 91, however, could not be answered from the reading because it had been studied previously. Pages 93 and 96 asked students to relate the words ostracism, spartan, and marathon to their schemas and to use map skills for a specific purpose. Page 96, column 2 and page 97, column 2 contain questions designed to relate the new to the known.

Since this was the students' first experience with a reading/reasoning guide, the logistics of paralleling guide items with the textbook had to be overcome. By far the greatest problem in using the guide was convincing students that not every item had to be answered in writing. Three students commented, "This helped me. Would you do it again?"

A directed reading activity was used to encourage students to read the text independently and purposefully (see Appendix M). It
did not live up to expectations. Unlike the reading/reasoning guide, the directed activity was not specific to page and column. It was, however, structured to incorporate the divided page technique of Cornell notetaking. It required synthesis of textbook information and the drawing of inferences. [sic] "It don't say how they were different," was a characteristic student response, usually followed by, "I give up."
Conclusions and Recommendations for Further Study

First, to teach poor readers to use SQ3R is to make them responsible for knowing what they read. The concept of independent reading is threatening to high school readers who have previously received passing grades by reliance on rote and doing work. A marketing teacher related the story of a student who submitted an unsolicited 50 page extra credit report on China. When the teacher asked her what she had learned, the student replied, "I just wrote it. I didn't read it." SQ3R can be implemented with poor readers if it is done over a long period of time and with regular reinforcement of and practice with the process.

Second, the survey instruments were as useful as the students were honest. There seemed to be a dichotomy in the conceptualization of study between sentence skimming to write answers and incorporating information into the individual schema. Parental emphasis on grades instead of learning became evident in parent conferences.

Third, graphic organizers forced the teachers to rethink content material, to identify target concepts, and to define purposes for reading. If the organizers were kept as simple as possible, students responded positively. Vocabulary overviews that involved students in semantic mapping were more effective than context studies. Teacher-student interaction was essential to the use of graphic organizers.

Reading/reasoning guides and directed reading activities were considered by one teacher to be spoon feeding and by another to be too much trouble. Neither could understand that the process that could be taught was more important than a written product. Students were
similarly negative because the guides necessitated reader involvement rather than simply writing answers. Like SQ3R, reading guides or directed reading activities may be effective over a period of time and with regular reinforcement of the process.

The major obstacle to implementation of reading strategies in world history classes was a firmly entrenched, tenaciously held idea on the part of both teachers and students that learning occurs when the students write answers to questions in the textbook. This mindset was called doing work. The purpose for reading was the completion of an assignment for a grade rather than the integration of information into the schema of the reader. Students who had failing grades complained when strategies that did not conform to the do work mindset were introduced. Two teachers, who had 50 percent failure rates, complained that their students would not do their work. Strategies based on recent research must be considered in the framework of attitudes which were diametrically opposed to what is known about how students learn from printed material.

In conclusion, reading improvement in high school students depends upon attitudes. Reading patterns that have developed in the years prior to high school are not likely to change quickly. However, the use of content area reading strategies over a period of time has been shown by previous studies to effect change.

More study should be done to determine ways to make high school teachers aware of the reading process and to motivate them to use strategies which facilitate learning from printed materials.
References


Appendix A

MEANING - UNDERSTANDING

The light at the top of the stairs

"In one ear and out the other"
Survey Instrument deleted, paper copy available upon request.
Survey Instrument deleted, paper copy available upon request.
Survey Instrument deleted, paper copy available upon request.
Appendix C

Student Survey
Sandalwood Junior-Senior High School

You know better than anyone else what is most helpful to you. Please tell us honestly how you feel about the following statements. The computer will tell us about the feelings of Sandalwood students in general. We will try to plan a program to best meet your needs.

Please put an "X" in the box by the statement that best described the way you feel.

1. If I could work on what I need most, I would stay after school and ride the activity bus home.  
   1 strongly agree  
   2 agree  
   3 disagree  
   4 strongly disagree

2. I hope to go to college. I am worried about making a good enough score on the entrance tests. I may need a review course.  
   1 strongly agree  
   2 agree  
   3 disagree  
   4 strongly disagree

3. I study, but often my grades do not show it. I get frustrated.  
   1 strongly agree  
   2 agree  
   3 disagree  
   4 strongly disagree

4. When I try to read something for school, I often get to the end and do not know what I have read.  
   1 strongly agree  
   2 agree  
   3 disagree  
   4 strongly disagree

5. I wish I could read faster and still know what I am reading.  
   1 strongly agree  
   2 agree  
   3 disagree  
   4 strongly disagree

6. I would like to have a bigger vocabulary. I often run into words I do not know.  
   1 strongly agree  
   2 agree  
   3 disagree  
   4 strongly disagree

7. I have trouble taking tests like the MLST and the SAT. I can do the classwork, but I do not do well on those tests.  
   1 strongly agree  
   2 agree  
   3 disagree  
   4 strongly disagree

8. I wish that in school I could read more of what I am interested in--just for fun.  
   1 strongly agree  
   2 agree  
   3 disagree  
   4 strongly disagree

9. I would like to know how to use the library better.  
   1 strongly agree  
   2 agree  
   3 disagree  
   4 strongly disagree

10. I have trouble studying.  
    1 strongly agree  
    2 agree  
    3 disagree  
    4 strongly disagree
Appendix C

   1 strongly agree  2 agree
   3 disagree       4 strongly disagree

12. I do not make good enough grades to go to college.
   1 strongly agree  2 agree
   3 disagree       4 strongly disagree

13. I wonder why learning a lot of big words is important. I do not use them.
   1 strongly agree  2 agree
   3 disagree       4 strongly disagree

14. I like to read about things that interest me, but I do not have much time to read.
   1 strongly agree  2 agree
   3 disagree       4 strongly disagree

15. When I have to do a term paper, sometimes I do not know how to get started.
   1 strongly agree  2 agree
   3 disagree       4 strongly disagree

16. I wish I could score better on tests like the MLST and the SAT.
   1 strongly agree  2 agree
   3 disagree       4 strongly disagree

17. Even when I try hard, I often do not remember what I read— at least I do not seem to remember what I am supposed to remember.
   1 strongly agree  2 agree
   3 disagree       4 strongly disagree

18. I need to learn to read and study better. If I could get individual help, I would stay after school.
   1 strongly agree  2 agree
   3 disagree       4 strongly disagree

Key to identical questions:

After school or additional help #1 and #18

Study skills #10 and #3

College preparation #2 and #12

Comprehension #4 and #7

Reading rate or speed #5 and #11

Vocabulary #6 and #13

Taking standardized tests #7 and #16

Pleasure reading #8 and #14

Library use and term papers #9 and #15
Appendix D

Imaginary United States
4000 - 300 BC (That's a Long Time!)

EXPLORERS
PILGRIMS
FOUNDING FATHERS
SLAVES
"REBELS"
PIONEERS
INDUSTRIALISTS

MESOPOTAMIA
4000 - 300 BC

SUMERIANS
BABYLONIANS
HITTITES
PHOENICIANS
HEBREWS
ASSYRIANS
CHALDEANS
PERSIANS
Appendix E

MESOPOTAMIA

SUMERIANS
- theocracy (rule by priest)
- contributions
  - cuneiform writing
  - clay bricks
  - the arch
  - wheeled vehicle

BABYLONIANS
- contributions
  - written code of law
    (courtesy of Hammu-ra-bi)

HITTITES
- contributions
  - iron weapons
    (they learned to be blacksmiths)

PHOENICIANS
- contributions
  - an alphabet of symbols
    instead of pictures
  - it was all consonants
    Greeks added vowels
  - Romans made the letters look like ours today

HEBREWS
- biblical names
  - Moses
  - Saul
  - David
  - Goliath
  - Solomon
- "diaspora" (scattering)
  - ten commandments
  - palestine
    (the promised land)

ASSYRIANS
- cruellest of all

CHALDEANS
- hanging gardens
  of babylon
- nabuchadnessar

PERSIANS
- contributions
  - largest empire
    divided into districts
  - rule by despot
  - good system of roads and messengers
  - religion: Zoroastrianism
    "good over evil"

CONTRIBUTION

monotheism
religion
ethical
(judaism)
monothelism
christianity and islam
Classic Civilizations

India

China

Greece

Rome
Contributions of Classic Civilizations
Appendix H

Geography Shapes History

Prove or disprove this statement. Use the maps in your book, or use the maps taped around the walls. You may work in groups, but be sure that you understand and defend what you write down.

Geography would include such things as mountains, rivers, oceans, deserts, deltas, weather patterns and latitude.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EGYPT</th>
<th>MESOPOTAMIA</th>
<th>INDIA</th>
<th>CHINA</th>
<th>GREECE</th>
<th>ROME</th>
<th>FLORIDA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(map p 26)</td>
<td>(map p 33)</td>
<td>(map p 54)</td>
<td>(map p 71)</td>
<td>(map p 27)</td>
<td>(map p 111)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix I

Geography Shapes History

Prove or disprove this statement. Use your mind, your textbook or any other source of information. You may work in your group, but be sure that you understand and can explain what you write down.

Write the name of the geographical feature, the civilization in which it was a factor, and why it was important. There may be more than one in each category. Write sideways if you wish.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RIVERS</th>
<th>MOUNTAINS</th>
<th>OCEANS</th>
<th>DESERTS</th>
<th>DELTAS</th>
<th>WEATHER PATTERNS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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</tbody>
</table>
Appendix J

**Propaganda**
- Military
- News
- Taxes
- Advertising
- Election speeches

*the spreading of ideas or beliefs*

**Tyrant**
- Mussolini
- Nixon
- Reagan
- Castro
- Despot
- Dictator
- Hitler
- Stalin
- One man rule

**Ostracize**
- Cut out
- Aids victims
- Untouchables
- Outcast
- Pariah
- Shun
- A way of removing public officials

"Cracy" and "Archy"

- Democracy
- Theocracy
- Monarchy
- Oligarchy
- Anarchy
- Patriarchy

**Demo**
- Demos
- Democracy
- Demographic

**Polis**
- Megapolis
- Metropolitan
- Politics
- Police
Below are some words that the authors of your textbook feel are important to know. They will help you understand more about Greek civilization. There are other words that are important. Add them, but be sure to fill in the columns for the ones you add.

This can help you remember. Fold under the right hand side of the page to review yourself.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WORD</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
<th>CONTEXT</th>
<th>MEANING AND EXAMPLES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Democracy</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>because power is in the hands not of the few but of the whole people</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Propaganda</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>... its main purpose was to spread ideas or beliefs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minotaur</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>... a monster with the head of a bull and the body of a man</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labyrinth</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>... an intricate and bewildering series of passageways</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strait</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>... or narrow channel connecting two major bodies of water</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polis</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>Each clan founded a settlement ... where people would be safe from attack</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oligarchy</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>The first step was most often the formation by the nobility of an oligarchy, or government by the few</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infantry</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>The power of this infantry grew ...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cavalry</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>... until they were a match for the cavalry</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tyrant</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>Many city states came under the rule of tyrants</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ostracism</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>Under Cleisthenes, ostracism was begun</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Appendix K

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WORD</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
<th>CONTEXT</th>
<th>MEANING AND EXAMPLES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Helots</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>... they subdued natives whom they called Helots</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spartan</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>To this day the English word &quot;spartan&quot; means sternly disciplined</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socratic method</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>... the Socratic method consisted of asking questions and then carefully analyzing the answers to try to arrive at truth</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pure, or direct,</td>
<td>97-98</td>
<td>The mass participation of citizens in political life is known as pure or direct democracy.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democracy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Representative</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>Governments in which citizens elect representatives to act for them are called ...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democracy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Republics</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>... or republics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funeral oration</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>This speech, or funeral oration, is remembered because it describes not the soldiers, but the life they fought to preserve</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix L
Reading/Reasoning Guide
History and Life

Column 2
Page 90

How did the Olympic games begin?
Are they still held every four years?
What did the Greeks call themselves?

Column 1
Page 90

What was a "polis"?
What modern day word comes from "polis"?

2 THE GREEKS ESTABLISHED THE BASIC PRINCIPLES OF DEMOCRACY (Line up with this heading)

Locate Asia Minor on the map of page 91. From what groups did the Greeks emerge?
What was the greatest contribution of city-state to civilization

The transition was from the Aegean to the Greek civilization.
How many years did it take?
What is an oligarchy?

Level with the bottom of the page in your book.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Column 1</th>
<th>Column 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What is a law code?</td>
<td>Why did Greek city-states begin to set up colonies?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who was the Babylonian who wrote a code of law?</td>
<td>They had social and religious ties, but they were politically independent. What does this mean?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Give one example of how the nobles were corrupt.</td>
<td>&quot;A number of trends&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>This means a listing will follow.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If you were not part of the nobility, what would your life have been like in early Greece?
Notice that the list is continued.

What is infantry?
What is cavalry?

Were the nobles in Athens overthrown by a tyrant? WHY?

Now were nobles and tyrants different?

Notice the last sentence in the paragraph.

Notice the last sentence in the paragraph.

Solon did not create a democracy, but what did he do?

What was on the Acropolis?

Pisistratus took over and ruled as a tyrant. What was the main thing that he did?

Line up the bottom of this sheet with the bottom of the page in your book.
Cleisthenes was also a tyrant, but how did he strengthen democracy?

What does ostracism mean today?

Democracy grew gradually as the numbers of people allowed to participate in politics grew.

Look at the map on page 87. Locate the Peloponnesus. Would it be a good military stronghold? WHY?

Was Sparta interested in colonization or trade? WHY?

Why did Sparta need military strength?

How did they make sure that their army would be strong?
What would "spartan" mean today if it were used to describe living conditions?

Isn't that awful?

How did Sparta increase its power?

Look again at the map on page 91. Where is Asia Minor in relation to Greece? Why do you think it is called Asia Minor? Is there a Europe Minor?

The Greeks are known today for their fleets of merchant ships. How, when and why did their navy begin?

Marathon--isn't that a track and field event? "The Boston Marathon?"
Why is the race today called a marathon?

Why didn't the Spartans help the Athenians?

Who was fighting whom? Who won?

The Athenians were doing well with their navy. Herodotus said, "Free men fight better than slaves." Do you agree?

Athens became the most important city-state in Greece.

Pericles - remember his name. It is golden.

The generals were controlled by the assembly. Who controls our military?

Do we pay our juries?

Go to page 98. Be sure that you understand what is meant by pure democracy.
Appendix M

The Greek City-State
(Some pages may be 90, 92, 97, 99)

1. Define city-state.

2. What were two of the most important city states?

3. How were they different?

4. What were the contributions of Athens to civilization?

5. What is our heritage from Sparta?

6. Name three other city-states and tell what role each played in Greek civilization.