

# PLAIN Talk

THE NEWSLETTER FOR THE CENTER FOR DEVELOPMENT AND LEARNING ©

## WHEN OLDER STUDENTS CAN'T READ

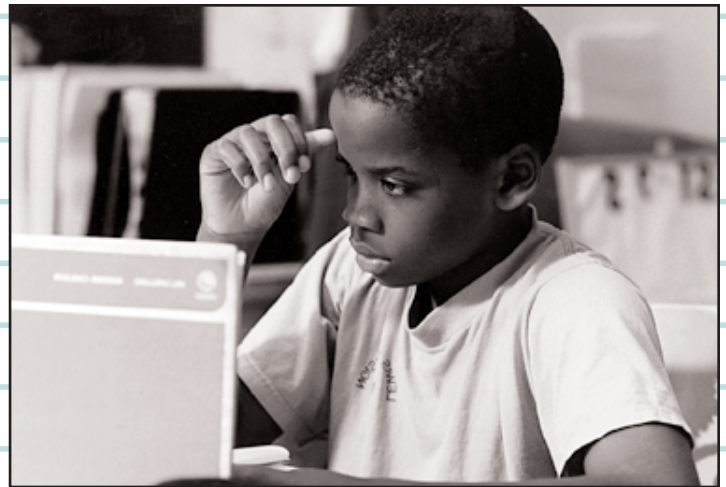
by Louisa C. Moats, Ed.D.

*Both students and educators become frustrated when students beyond 3rd grade display reading difficulties. Research-based reading strategies can build a foundation for reading success in students of all ages.*

Since 1996, state and federal reading initiatives have focused on the problem of reading failure at kindergarten and the primary grades. The focus on early intervention is well-conceived, given the strong evidence that research-based instruction beginning in kindergarten significantly reduces the number of children who experience reading difficulty (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2000).

If children receive instruction in phonological and alphabetic skills and learn to apply that knowledge to decoding words, they are very likely to succeed at reading. Once children fall behind, they seldom catch up, a reason that such states as California, Virginia, and Texas promote early intervention to prevent reading problems. Reading level in 1st grade, moreover, is an astonishingly good predictor of reading achievement into high school (Catts et al., 1999; Cunningham and Stanovich, 1997; Shaywitz et al., 1999; Fletcher et al. 1994). Reading failure begins early, takes root quickly, and affects students for life.

Improvements in reading education in the lower elementary grades, however, are coming too slowly to affect the huge numbers of students beyond third grade who have been the victims of misguided reading instruction and scarce resources. Many people know that about 42 percent of 4th graders score below basic in overall reading skill on the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP). In Washington, D.C., where I am currently studying reading intervention, the proportion of students beyond 3rd grade who cannot read well enough to participate in grade-level work is between 60 and 70 percent, depending on the grade and year of assessment. Too few children can compete in higher education and about half fail to complete high school. In this community, the rate of adult illiteracy—reading below 4th grade level—is 37 percent, the highest in the nation. Nationally, 25 percent of all adults are functionally illiterate.



→ *When Older cont'd. on page 2.*

## CDL'S MISSION

To improve the life chances of all children, especially those at high risk, by increasing school success.

## CDL'S GOAL

Activate and achieve sweeping systemic change in the way children are taught.

## CDL'S ACTION PLAN

Approach the problem of failing schools and school failure from several strategic directions simultaneously by bringing together parents, teachers, principals, university professors, judges, physicians and researchers as a united force.

## CDL'S CORE BELIEF

All children are born with an innate desire to learn, all children can learn to higher levels, and all children deserve equal opportunities to a solid education.

## CDL'S VISION

The very special uniqueness of every child will be identified, respected, honored, and celebrated.

## CALL TO ACTION

Only an informed public can come to the table and make informed decisions that lead to clear and focused action—action that will ensure a solid and equitable education for all children. When you have finished reading this newsletter, please share it with a teacher, a parent, another professional who works with children, or a community/business leader.

Join the CDL's voice in activating positive solutions for our nation's children. Contact us for more information about our programs and/or how you can help at 208 South Tyler Street, Covington, Louisiana 70433.

- Covington (985) 893-7777
- New Orleans (504) 897-2211
- Fax (985) 893-5443
- Email: [learn@cdl.org](mailto:learn@cdl.org)

PLAINTalk is published quarterly by the Center for Development and Learning (CDL). TM and © All rights reserved.

Articles may be reprinted or photocopied for educational purposes with permission and with the following credit:

Reprinted with permission from PLAINTalk, the newsletter of the Center for Development and Learning, (date/author).

Alice Thomas, editor  
Debbi Smith, designer

Visit our website: [www.cdl.org](http://www.cdl.org)

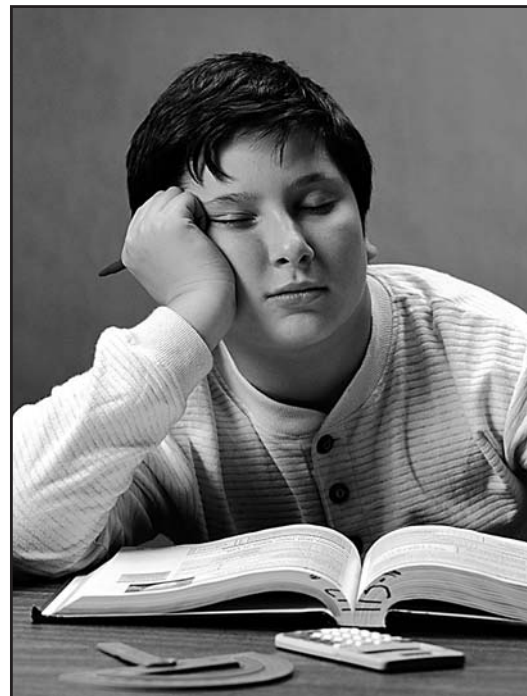
THE NEWSLETTER FOR THE CENTER  
FOR DEVELOPMENT AND LEARNING©

*When Older cont'd. from page 1.*

## THE OLDER STRUGGLING READER

What can be done? Plenty, if we are committed to applying best practices supported by reading research. Converging evidence from psychological studies of reading explains the nuts and bolts of learning to read at any age and in any alphabetic language (Lyon, 1998). Most reading scientists agree that a core linguistic deficit underlies poor reading at all ages (Catts et al., 1999; Shaywitz et al., 1999). At any age, poor readers as a group exhibit weaknesses in phonological processing and word recognition speed and accuracy, as do younger poor readers (Stanovich & Siegel, 1994; Shankweiler et al., 1995). At any age, when an individual's reading comprehension is more impaired than his or her listening comprehension, inaccurate and slow word recognition is the most likely cause (Shankweiler et al., 1999).

To complicate matters, the older student has not practiced reading and avoids reading because reading is taxing, slow, and frustrating (Ackerman & Dyckman, 1996; Cunningham & Stanovich, 1997). Therein lies the most challenging aspect of teaching older students: they cannot read so they do not like to read; reading is labored and unsatisfying so they have little reading experience; and, because they have not read much, they are not familiar with the vocabulary, sentence structure, text organization and concepts of academic "book" language. Over time, their comprehension skills decline because they do not read, and they also become poor spellers and poor writers. What usually begins as a core phonological and word recognition deficit, often associated with other language weaknesses, becomes a diffuse, debilitating problem with language—spoken and written.



## EFFECTIVE INSTRUCTION

Several principles drive effective instruction in reading and language. Such instruction is intensive enough to close the ever-widening gap between poor readers and their grade-level peers as quickly as possible. Reading intervention grounded in research imparts to older readers the skills they missed in primary grades and can bring them to grade level in one to two years (Torgesen, Wagner, Rashotte, Alexander & Conway, 1997; Torgesen et al., in press). The intervention must match the students' level of reading development, because each stage of growth requires a special focus (Curtis & Longo, 1999).

Very poor readers must have their phonological skills strengthened because the inability to identify speech sounds erodes spelling, word recognition, and vocabulary development. For less severely impaired readers, educators must often target text reading fluency. If students can decipher words, educators must aggressively address vocabulary deficiencies with direct teaching and incentives to read challenging material in and out of school. If students do not know the words they are reading and cannot derive meaning from context, they must expand their vocabularies and learn a repertoire of comprehension strategies (Williams, 1998). Students cannot and should not bypass any critical skills necessary for fluent and meaningful reading just because of their chronological age.

→ *When Older cont'd. on page 3.*

When Older cont'd. from page 2.

Effective instruction stimulates language awareness. Language-deficient children often miss the subtle differences in speech sounds that distinguish words from one another (*pacific/specific; goal/gold; fresh/flesh; anecdote/antidote; cot/caught*). Direct work on speech sound identification pays off. If students cannot efficiently decode words by using phonic relationships, syllable patterns, and structural analysis (morphemes), they benefit from learning the organization of English orthography at various levels. If students are unfamiliar with the features of written text, such as subtitles, paragraph structures, connecting words and phrases, embedded clauses, idiomatic usages, and figures of speech, these can be taught. If students' written sentences are short, incomplete, or stilted, they can learn sentence expansion and construction. Each of these challenges, moreover, can be met in age-appropriate ways, in inter-woven curricular strands that progress along a developmental sequence (Greene 1996).

## PHONOLOGICAL AWARENESS & DECODING

Recognition of printed words depends on the ability to map speech sounds to letter symbols—the *alphabetic principle*—and to recognize letter sequences accurately and quickly—*orthographic processing*. The majority of poor readers who read below the 30th percentile in the intermediate and upper grades have either pronounced or residual needs for instruction in these basic skills. The techniques for teaching older students, however, differ from the techniques of teaching younger students.

Older students have experienced reading failure from an early age so they must be convinced that a renewed investment of energy will be worthwhile. In the Washington Literacy Council program, for example, adult students who have recently developed the ability to match speech sounds to letter symbols speak to incoming students about the helpfulness of the structured language instruction they are about to receive. Phonological awareness, decoding, spelling, grammar and other language skills can be taught as a linguistics course in which instructors use adult terminology such as “phoneme deletion” and “morphemic structure”. Phonemic drills are short tune-ups that include games such as reverse-a-word (Say *teach*; then say it with the first sound last and the last sound first—*cheat*.) Students identify speech sounds before they spell words by using the tapping technique—touching the thumb to successive fingers as they segment and pronounce the speech sounds (Wilson, 1996).

Teachers can teach sound-symbol correspondences in the context of syllable types. Short vowels occur before one or more consonants in closed syllables. Students read the syllables and immediately spell them in longer, age-appropriate vocabulary: for example, *fab, fabulous; pel, compel; com, accomplish*. As they master six or seven syllable types, students learn to visually chunk sequences of letters and understand spelling patterns. For example, the word *rifle* has one *f* and the word *ruffle* has two *fs* because of the syllable structure. *Rifle* begins with an open syllable that ends with the long vowel (*ri*), and *ruffle* begins with a closed syllable (*ruf*); each syllable is attached to the final syllable unit *-fle*. To develop an eye for printed syllable units, students can arc under syllables with a pencil before reading a word.

As students' syllable recognition and spelling progress, teachers can emphasize morphemes—prefixes, roots, and suffixes, mostly from Latin and Greek (Henry 1997).

→ When Older cont'd. on page 4.

*“What can be done? Plenty, if we are committed to applying best practices supported by reading research.”*

Louisa C. Moats, Ed.D.

## BOARD OF TRUSTEES

Marian Arrowsmith  
Nancy Baldwin  
Gerard A. Ballanco, M.D., FAAP  
Donna G. Contois  
Betty R. DiMarco  
Jack Donahue  
Patrick Evans  
Mark Files  
Vaughan Fitzpatrick  
The Honorable John W. Greene  
William H. “Bill” Hines  
Brian Jakes  
Cheryl M. Lilly  
Wendy W. Michell  
Cynthia Hedge Morrell  
Robert D. Reily  
Francoise B. Richardson, Emeritus  
Janice Scioneaux  
Billy Vehnekamp  
Margie Villere

## COMMUNITY ADVISORY COUNCIL

Herschel L. Abbott, Jr.  
Gordon L. Blundell, Jr., M.D.  
Ruby Bridges Hall  
Mary Lou Ochsner

## PROFESSIONAL ADVISORY BOARD

Charles Achilles, Ed.D.  
Robert Brooks, Ph.D.  
Katharine Butler, Ph.D.  
G. Emerson Dickman, III, J.D.  
Betty Edwards, Ed.D.  
Michael Fullan, Ph.D.  
Edward M. Hallowell, M.D.  
G. Reid Lyon, Ph.D.  
Bernice McCarthy, Ph.D.  
Howard J. Osofsky, M.D., Ph.D.  
Carol Rolheiser, Ph.D.  
Robert Sternberg, Ph. D.  
Priscilla Vail, M.A.T.  
Robert K. Wimpelberg, Ph. D.

## HONORARY CELEBRITY BOARD

Henry Winkler

## PRESIDENT & CEO

Alice P. Thomas

## CDL 1994 PGA TOUR NATIONAL CHARITY OF THE YEAR

A 501(c)3 nonprofit organization

THE NEWSLETTER FOR THE CENTER FOR DEVELOPMENT AND LEARNING®

When Older cont'd. from page 3.

Beginning with inflections that may change the spelling of a base word (*fine, finest; begin, beginning; study, studied*), students analyze words into units that often link meaning and spelling—*designate, signal, and assignment*, for example, share a root). Instruction must be cumulative, sequential, and systematic, so that students overcome the bad habit of relying on context and guessing to decode unknown words.

## READING FLUENCY AND WORD RECOGNITION

Sound-symbol associations and word recognition are usually fast and automatic in good readers—such readers employ little conscious attention when they identify words. Third graders typically read at more than 100 words per minute; adults typically read at more than 300 words per minute. Poor readers are usually too slow, even after they become accurate. Slowness generally reflects lack of practice with reading.

For some poor readers, slow word retrieval appears to be an unyielding, constitutional characteristic. These children do not easily develop whole word recognition, but instead decode each word as if it were seen for the first time. Older poor readers can usually increase speed with a great deal of practice at several levels: sound-symbol association, word reading, and text reading at an easy level. Quick speed drills, conducted as challenge games to achieve a goal, can build automatic recognition of syllables and morphemes. For example, students can graph their progress reading several lines of confusable syllables such as *pre, pro, per or can, cane, kit, kite, pet, pete*. (Fischer, 1999). Alternate oral reading of passages in small groups, reading with a tape-recording, choral reading of dramatic material, and rereading familiar text can all support text reading fluency. Above all, however, students must read as much as possible in text that is not too difficult in order to make up the huge gap between themselves and other students.



read, but because they do not read well, their exposure to the words in varied contexts is limited. Students who are poor readers often have “heard of” a word, but lack depth, breadth, or specificity in word knowledge (Beck & McKeown, 1991). For example, one student of ours defined *designated* as *sober*, from the association with *designated driver*. Many poor readers must overcome a huge vocabulary deficit before they will be able to read successfully beyond the 5th grade level.

Effective vocabulary study occurs daily and involves more than memorizing definitions. Teachers deliberately use new words as often as possible in classroom conversation. They reward students for using new words or for noticing use of the words outside of the class. Such strategies as using context to derive meanings, finding root morphemes, mapping word derivations, understanding word origins, and paraphrasing idiomatic or special uses for words are all productive. If possible, word study should be linked to subject matter content and literature taught in class, even if the literature is being read aloud to the students.

## TEACHING COMPREHENSION

Increasing emphasis on more advanced reading strategies is appropriate as students reach the 4th or 5th grade level of reading ability. Students who have not read a great deal often lag in their knowledge of genre, text structure, text organization, and literary devices. They are unused to reading for information, or reading to grapple with the deeper meanings of

a text. The internal questioning that occurs in the mind of a good reader must be explicated, modeled, and practiced many times in group discussions. Probing and using open-ended questions about issues significant to the students are most likely to stimulate language. Great texts such as fables, poems, oral histories, and adapted classics promote student engagement. Even if students are working on word recognition, they will benefit from daily opportunities to discuss meaningful material.

The teacher of comprehension must simultaneously teach students about sentence structure, text cohesion, punctuation, phrasing, and grammar because comprehension can break down at the most basic levels of language processing. For example, students who are poor readers may fail to identify the referent for a pronoun, the figurative use of a word, the significance of a logical connective, or the tone of a phrase.

→ When Older cont'd. on page 5.

## VOCABULARY AND PHRASE MEANINGS

Normally progressing students can read most of the words in their listening vocabulary by 4th or 5th grade. From then on, they learn new vocabulary—primarily by reading—at the rate of several thousand new words per year. Older poor readers are at least partially familiar with more spoken words than they can

## WRITTEN RESPONSE TO READING

Written response to reading can greatly enhance comprehension, but poor readers must have their writing skills developed sequentially and cumulatively. Writing improves when students practice answering specific question types, elaborating subjects and predicates, combining simple sentences, constructing clauses, and linking sentences into organized paragraphs. These are the building blocks of clear expository writing.

Even as students develop the building blocks for writing, shared and modeled writing helps them transcend the daunting challenges of generating and organizing their thoughts. Rather than turning students loose to face a blank piece of paper, the instructor models and demystifies the composition process. First, the class generates and sorts ideas. Then it decides on an outline and topic sentence. Next, the teacher talks the class through each step of a shared composition, modeling decisions about what and how to write. Finally, the teacher models the editing process, pointing out sentences that need elaboration, combination, or reordering, and replaces words as necessary. Students are thus prepared to compose independently.

## INSTRUCTIONS THAT WORK

Older poor readers can often learn to read with appropriate instruction. Joseph Torgesen and his colleagues at Florida State University have brought very poor readers at grades 3 to 5 up to grade level and documented the maintenance of those gains over two years (Torgesen et al., in press). Students in Torgesen's study received instruction for two hours each day for a total of 80 hours. Two approaches, varying in amount of time spent on decoding and text reading, proved effective.

In Sacramento and Elk Grove, California, several schools have achieved significant gains with 6th through 10th graders using Jane Greene's LANGUAGE! curriculum with classes of nonreaders and very poor readers. Mary Beth Curtis and Anne Marie Longo, at the Boys Town Reading Center in Nebraska, report strong efficacy data for their program based on stages of reading development.

*“Given the right approach, students will buy in. In fact, they'll ask why they were allowed to go so far without being taught to read.”*

*Louisa C. Moats, Ed.D.*

All of these approaches assume that older poor readers can learn to read if they are taught the foundation language skills they missed and they have ample opportunity to apply the skills in meaningful text reading. Each approach teaches language structure explicitly to match the developmental needs of the students and uses systematic, structured, and cumulative methods applied to age-appropriate text. These approaches teach language at all levels: sound, word, sentence, and passage. They unpack the building blocks of words, ensuring that students process them accurately, build fluency through ample practice, and teach students to engage actively the meanings in text.

Beyond 3rd grade, poor readers can be taught if the program has all necessary components, the teacher is well prepared and supported, and the students are given time, sufficiently intensive instruction, and incentives to overcome their reading and language challenges. Given the right approach, students will buy in. In fact, they'll ask why they were allowed to go so far without being taught to read.


### References

- Ackerman, P.T. & Dykman, R.A. (1996). The speed factor and learning disabilities: The toll of slowness in adolescents. *Dyslexia*, 2, 1-21.
- Beck, I.L., & McKeown, M.G. (1991). Conditions of vocabulary acquisition. In R. Barr, M. Kamil, P. Mosenthal, and P.D. Pearson (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research*, Vol. II (pp. 789-814). White Plains, NY: Longman.
- Catts, H.W., Fey, M.E., Zhang, X., & Tomblin, J.B. (1999). Language basis of reading and reading disabilities: Evidence from a longitudinal investigation. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, 3, 331-361.
- Cunningham, A.E. & Stanovich, K.E. (1997). Early reading acquisition and its relation to reading experience and ability 10 years later. *Developmental Psychology*, 33, 934-945.
- Curtis, M.E. & Longo, A.M. (1999). *When adolescents can't read: Methods and materials that work*. Cambridge, MA: Brookline Books.
- Fischer, P. (1999). *Concept Phonics: Objectives and Activities, levels One and Two*. Farmington, ME: Oxtan House Publishers.
- Greene, J.F. (1996). LANGUAGE !: The effects of an individualized structured language curriculum for middle and high school students. *Annals of Dyslexia*, 38, 258-275.
- Henry, M. (1997). The decoding/spelling continuum: Integrated decoding and spelling instruction from pre-school to early secondary school. *Dyslexia*, 3, 178-189.
- Lyon, G. R. (1998). Why reading is not a natural process. *Educational Leadership*, 55 (6), 14-18.
- National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (2000). *Report of the National Reading Panel, Teaching Children to Read: An Evidence-Based Assessment of the Scientific Research Literature on Reading and Its Implications for Reading Instruction*. Washington, DC: NICHD. (1-800-370-2943)
- Shankweiler, D., Crane, S. Katz, L., Fowler, A.E., Liberman, A.M., Brady, S.A., Thornton, R., Lindquist, E., Dreyer, L., Fletcher, J.M., Stuebing, K.K., Shaywitz, S.E. & Shaywitz, B.A. (1995). Cognitive profiles of reading-disabled children: Comparison of language skills in phonology, morphology, and syntax. *Psychological Science*, 6, 149-56.

# THE EDUCATIONAL, EMOTIONAL AND SOCIAL EFFECTS OF READING PROBLEMS

by G. Reid Lyon, Ph.D.

*Excerpts from Dr. Lyon's Statement to the Subcommittee on Education Reform, Committee on Education and the Workforce, U.S. House of Representatives, Washington, D.C., March 8, 2001.*

 As we follow thousands of children with reading difficulties throughout their school careers and into young adulthood, these young people tell us how embarrassing and devastating it was to read with difficulty in front of peers and teachers, and to demonstrate this weakness on a daily basis. It is clear from our NICHD research that this type of failure affects children negatively earlier than we thought. By the end of first grade, children having difficulty learning to read begin to feel less positive about themselves than when they started school.

As we follow children through elementary and middle school years, self-esteem and the motivation to learn to read decline even further. In the majority of cases, the students are deprived of the ability to learn about literature, science, mathematics, history, and social studies because they cannot read grade-level textbooks. Consider that by middle school,

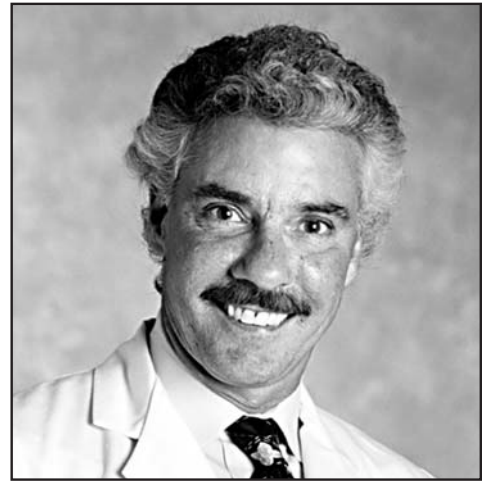
6

*“Young people tell us how embarrassing and devastating it was to read with difficulty in front of peers and teachers, and to demonstrate this weakness on a daily basis.”*

*G. Reid Lyon, Ph.D.*

children who read well read at least 10,000,000 words during the school year. On the other hand, children with reading difficulties read less than 100,000 words during the same period.

Poor readers lag far behind in vocabulary development and in the acquisition of strategies for understanding what they read, and they frequently avoid reading and other assignments that require reading. By high school, the potential of these students to enter college has decreased substantially. Students who have stayed in school long enough to reach high school tell us they hate to read because it is so difficult and it makes them feel “dumb.” As a high school junior in one of our studies remarked, “I would rather have a root canal than read.”



It is important to note that this state of educational affairs describes an

extraordinary and unacceptable number of children. According to the National Center for Educational Statistics (1998), 38 percent of fourth graders nationally cannot read at a basic level—that is, they cannot read and understand a short paragraph of the type one would find in a simple children’s book. Unfortunately, reading failure is disproportionately prevalent among children living in poverty. Indeed, in many low-income urban school districts the percentage of students in the fourth grade who cannot read at basic level approaches 70 percent.

The educational and public health consequences of this level of reading failure are dire. Of the ten to 15 percent of children who will eventually drop out of school, over 75 percent will report difficulties learning to read. Likewise, only two percent of students receiving special or compensatory education for difficulties learning to read will complete a four-year college program. Surveys of adolescents and young adults with criminal records indicate that at least half have reading difficulties, and in some states the size of prisons a decade in the future is predicted by fourth grade reading failure rates. Approximately half of children and adolescents with a history of substance abuse have reading problems. It goes without saying that failure to learn to read places children’s futures and lives at risk for highly deleterious outcomes. It is for this reason that the NICHD considers reading failure to reflect a national public health problem.

On the basis of a thorough evidence-based review of the reading research literature that met rigorous scientific standards, the National Reading Panel (NRP), convened by the NICHD and the Department of Education, found that intervention programs that provided systematic and explicit instruction in phonemic awareness, phonics, guided repeated reading to improve reading fluency, and direct instruction in vocabulary and reading comprehension strategies were significantly more effective than approaches that were less explicit and less focused on the reading skills to be taught (e.g., approaches that emphasize incidental learning of basic reading skills).

*Reprinted with permission of the author. Dr. Lyon is Chief of the Child Development and Behavior Branch at the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD), National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD. He is a member of the CDL Professional Advisory Board. Dr. Lyon will be a keynote speaker at PLAIN TALK ABOUT KIDS 2002. ††*

# EDITORIAL

By Alice Thomas, M.Ed.



Walk into any classroom. Look around the room at the children's smiling faces. Look into their eyes looking up at you. Would you be willing to choose—to make a *Sophie's Choice*—which children will have the opportunity for success and which ones will be sacrificed as educational casualties?

All children can learn...but large numbers of them are not. According to the National Center for Educational Statistics, 38 percent of our nation's fourth graders cannot read at a basic level. Another study states that about 42 percent of 4th graders score below basic in overall reading skill on the National Assessment of Educational Progress. And in poor, inner-city school systems such as Washington, D.C., the proportion of students beyond 3rd grade who cannot read well enough to participate in grade-level work is as high as 60 to 70 percent.

When it comes to reading, failure to learn causes a school crisis because, as Dr. Lyon states, reading skills serve as "THE major fundamental academic ability for all school-based learning." But failure to learn causes more than a school crisis. NICHD-supported longitudinal studies show that failure to learn to read and the resulting school failure cause devastating consequences with regard to social development, advanced education opportunities, employment and emotions such as self-worth. For these reasons, NICHD considers reading failure a social and public health problem.

Learning to read is charged with emotion, both positive and negative. Children cheated of their right to read may well experience a variety of negative emotions, not the least of which is frustration. Dr. Lawson explains that some children externalize these negative emotions with anger and/or aggression while other children may internalize them, causing anxiety and/or depression.

But children are not the only ones who experience frustration. According to Dr. Moats, "both students and



educators become frustrated when students beyond 3rd grade display reading difficulties." According to Dr. Lyon at NICHD, "Many teachers report that they are tied to 'packaged' reading programs, regardless of the quality of the programs or their usefulness for all

children, because they do not understand the reading process well enough to augment the programs or to select different instructional strategies for different children." Dr. Moats effectively outlines the explicit instruction in which our teachers need to be trained if we are to leave no child behind. These instruction methods are research-based and proven.

The American Heritage Dictionary defines teaching in this manner: "to impart

knowledge or skill; to cause to learn by example or experience." Teaching, then, means that learning is taking place. If the students are not learning, then we are not teaching.

What can we do if the children aren't learning? Support both our children and our teachers. How? We must invest in teacher development training that will increase our teachers' capacity to teach reading. Better-equipped teachers will increase both student and teacher success and lower both student and teacher frustration. Our children and our teachers will be so much happier when they are successful—and parents will be, too.

If you want to know how to improve all children's chances for reading success, please join us at PLAIN TALK ABOUT KIDS 2002 to discuss these and other current issues surrounding teaching and learning. ††

*"Are we teaching if the students aren't learning?"*

*Eliot Eisner*

## *When Older cont'd. from page 5.*

Shankweiler, D., Lundquist, E., Dreyer, L.G. & Dickinson, C.C. (1996). Reading and spelling difficulties in high school students: Causes and consequences. *Reading and Writing: An interdisciplinary journal*, 8, 267-294.

Shankweiler, D., Lundquist, E., Katz, L., Stuebing, K.K., Fletcher, J.M., Brady, S., Fowler, A., Dreyer, L.G., Marchione, K.E., Shaywitz, S.E., & Shaywitz, B.A. (1999). Comprehension and decoding: Patterns of association in children with reading difficulties. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, 31, 69-94.

Shaywitz, S.E., Fletcher, J.M., Holahan, J.M., Shneider, A.E., Marchione, K.E., Stuebing, K.K., Francis, D.J., Pugh, K.R., & Shaywitz, B.A. (1999). Persistence of dyslexia: The Connecticut Longitudinal Study at Adolescence. *Pediatrics*, 104 (6), 1351-1359.

Stanovich, K. & Siegel, L. (1994). The phenotypic profile of reading-disabled children: A regression-based test of the phonological-core variable difference model. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 86, 24-53.

Torgesen, J.K., Alexander, A.W., Wagner, R.K., Rashotte, C.A., Voeller, K., & Conway, T. (in press). Intensive remedial instruction for children with severe

reading disabilities: Immediate and long-term outcomes from two instructional approaches. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*.

Torgesen, J.K., Wagner, R.K., Rashotte, C. A., Alexander, A.W., & Conway, T. (1997). Preventive and remedial interventions for children with severe reading disabilities. *Learning Disabilities: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 8, 51-61.

Williams, J. (1998). Improving the comprehension of disabled readers. *Annals of Dyslexia*, 48, 213-238.

Wilson, B. (1996). *Wilson Reading System, Instructor Manual* (3rd Ed). Willbury, MA: Wilson Language Training Corporation.

*Reprinted with permission of the author. Dr. Moats is project director for a four-year longitudinal study of early reading intervention in the Washington, D.C., public schools. Her most recent book is Speech to Print: Language Essentials for Teachers (2000), Baltimore: Paul Brookes Publishing. ††*

# THE CONNECTIONS BETWEEN EMOTIONS AND LEARNING

By Candy Lawson, Ph.D.

## WHAT ARE EMOTIONS?

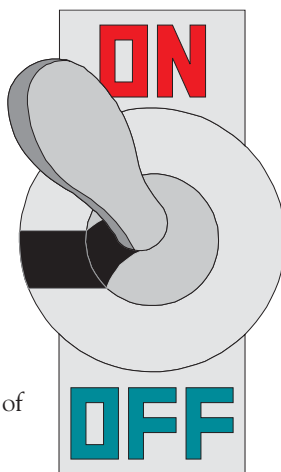


Emotions are the feelings that color our lives and allow us to experience all of the joys and sorrows of life. Never being able to feel the pleasure of eating a hot fudge sundae, the regret of making an unkind comment, the joy of seeing an old friend, the grief of losing a loved one or the awe of seeing the Grand Canyon would make our lives quite bland and meaningless. Dr. Paul Ekman, an expert in the field of emotion, has identified four core emotions that are universally experienced and recognized: fear, anger, sadness and enjoyment. Most researchers believe that there are many families or dimensions of these emotions that result from the myriad blends, variations and nuances that are possible. For example, sorrow, loneliness, grief, dejection and despair are associated with sadness while happiness, joy, delight, contentment and amusement are associated with enjoyment.

## WHERE DO EMOTIONS COME FROM?

Emotions originate in the brain, specifically in the limbic system. The limbic system is a small structure located in the middle of the brain between the lower center or brainstem and the higher center or cortex. The brainstem controls alertness and arousal and sends sensory messages to the cortex via the limbic system. Much of our thinking and learning takes place in the cortex. Memory, an important component of learning, involves the limbic system.

The limbic system interprets and directs emotion and behavior. Priscilla Vail, an expert on learning, has described emotion as the “on-off switch to learning”. According to Mrs. Vail, when the switch is off, the system is dormant and only the potential for learning is available. When the switch is on, the pathway to learning is open. When the limbic system interprets sensory information and dispatches it to the cortex for processing, it sets the emotional tone of the information before it reaches the cortex. If the limbic system interprets the information as positive, it dispatches a message of purpose and excitement and directs our behavior



toward a goal. When this happens, we become motivated to act; thinking and learning are enhanced.

When the interpretation is negative, the switch is turned off and thinking and learning are stifled. The system’s interpretation of sensory information is based on the person’s memories and immediate reaction to a current event. The more positive the learner’s memories and reaction to the event (emotional state), the better the learning will be. Research has shown that happiness has a positive effect on learning, memory and social behavior. Conversely, negative emotional states, such as anger and sadness, have been shown to have a negative impact on learning and motivation.

Because the limbic system is the mediator between thought and feeling, it is easy to see why emotion is so crucial to making good decisions and thinking clearly. Emotions can disrupt thinking and learning. When we are happy we have a “clear mind” but when we are upset we can’t “think straight”. Positive emotions such as joy, contentment, acceptance, trust and satisfaction can enhance learning. Conversely, prolonged emotional distress can cripple our ability to learn. We all know how hard it is to learn or remember something when we are anxious, angry or depressed.

## HOW ARE EMOTIONS FORMED?

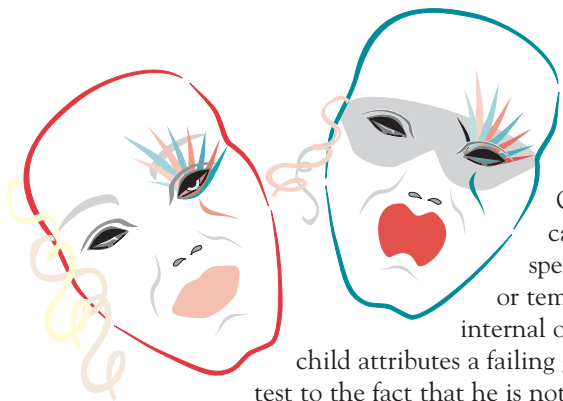
Emotions arise from memories and reactions to current events. Our emotions are formed by how we think about past and present experiences. We all try to explain our own behavior and that of others. The ways that we attempt to explain the causes of behavior are called “attributions”. Dr. Martin Seligman refers to this as our “explanatory style”. According to Dr. Seligman, it’s not what happens to us but what we think about what happens to us that counts. Our thoughts and beliefs are our reality. For example, when a father gets angry at his son, the child might think that he did something to anger his father, that his father is just a grouchy person or that his father had a hard day at work. The first explanation may cause the child to blame himself for his father’s anger. The second attributes his father’s anger to his father’s personality. The third explanation sees the anger as his father’s reaction to a situation. The boy will react quite differently to each of these attributions. Our explanatory style is part of our personality, develops in childhood and, without intervention, is lifelong.

According to Dr. Seligman, there are three dimensions that we typically use to explain why a good or bad event



→ *Connections cont'd. on page 9.*





happens: pervasiveness, permanence and personalization. Our attributions can be global or specific, permanent or temporary and internal or external. If a child attributes a failing grade on a math test to the fact that he is not smart, he is

making a global, permanent and internal statement about his ability. As a result, he will come to believe that his lack of intelligence will affect his test scores on all tests in all subjects forever and there is nothing he can do to change it. If he attributes his poor test score to the fact that the test was really hard, he is explaining his score by specific, temporary and external factors, which can be changed and controlled. He could study harder or in a different way for the next test and receive a better grade.

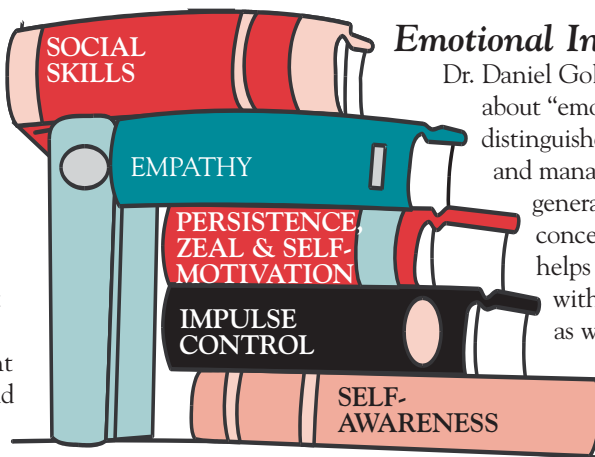
An explanatory style that is global, permanent and external can, when negative events occur, lead to feelings of helplessness and hopelessness (pessimism). Pessimists see a glass half full of water as “half empty” while optimists see it “half full”. The amount of water in the glass is the same; it is how we think about it that makes our experience of it positive or negative. Optimism or positive thinking lies in the way we think about the cause of things that happen. An explanatory style that is global, permanent and internal can, when good things happen, lead to feelings of self-confidence, self-esteem and contentment. Therefore, changing our attributions can change the way we feel. Because negative thoughts lead to negative emotions, we can feel better by thinking better, more positive thoughts. For example, if someone said something that hurt your feelings, you can't control the other person's words but you can control what you think about them and how you react to them. Our thoughts play an important role in how we learn to control our emotions and behavior.

## WHY ARE EMOTIONS IMPORTANT?

### Motivation

Our thoughts and emotions can strongly affect motivation. Motivation is a drive or desire that compels us to do something. If we think we are a good singer, we will likely be motivated to become a member of our church choir. If we think we can't sing, we won't. Often students don't seem to be motivated in school. They don't want to do homework or schoolwork and believe that they have no control over their grades. They

believe that they are dumb or stupid. Even though they put out effort, they are never successful and fail to achieve their goals. As a result, they begin to feel stressed out by school and start to feel helpless and hopeless. In this situation, their thoughts affected or caused their negative feelings. Other times students seem unmotivated because they are anxious or depressed. As a result, they have trouble concentrating in school and can't keep their mind on their work. They may think too much about personal problems and focus on the negative. In this situation, their emotions affected or caused their negative thoughts. In both situations, a lack of motivation prevents new learning; it “turns off the switch”.



### Emotional Intelligence

Dr. Daniel Goleman has written a book about “emotional intelligence”. He distinguishes the ability to understand and manage our emotions from general intelligence or IQ. His concept of emotional intelligence helps us understand why people with high IQ's don't always do as well in life as those with more modest intellectual ability. Dr. Goleman has identified five qualities that comprise emotional

intelligence: knowing our emotions (self-awareness), managing our emotions (impulse control), motivating ourselves to achieve goals (persistence, zeal and self-motivation), recognizing emotions in others (empathy) and managing relationships with others (social skills). He sees these as the steps necessary to achieve high emotional intelligence. Because emotional intelligence is learned rather than inherited like general intelligence, it can be nurtured and strengthened. Therefore, parents and teacher's play an important role in sculpting a child's emotional intelligence, contentment and success in life. Deficits in emotional intelligence can create serious problems in our relationships and impact our physical health.

Emotions influence how we perceive and react to life, which in turn, determines how content and successful we are. We achieve emotional intelligence by attaining our goals and managing negative emotions. Unmanaged, negative emotions take control of life. It is impossible to manage our lives until we can manage our negative emotions.

*“Negative emotions can be the cause or the effect of problems with learning.”*

*Candy Lawson, Ph.D.*

Emotions are largely, but not entirely, controlled by our beliefs. Beliefs are really attributions, which arise from our memories and reactions to events. We can have rational or irrational beliefs. Rational beliefs are positive, constructive and adaptive. For example, if a child believes that he is smart, when

Connections cont'd. from page 9.

it is time to take a math test, he believes that he will do well if he studies for the test. This belief was formed by memories of doing well on previous math tests when he studied. Positive thoughts like these increase his motivation to study and impel him toward his goal of passing the test. Rational beliefs help us to cope more effectively and gain contentment and enjoyment in life. Irrational beliefs are negative, self-defeating and maladaptive. Irrational beliefs lead to negative emotions like anxiety, anger and depression. For example, if the child taking the math test believes that he will fail the test because he is not smart, he may refuse to study for the test, “forget” that he has a test or become very anxious about the test. These behaviors will cause him to do poorly on the test and lead to feelings of anxiety, anger or depression. These irrational patterns of thinking are like bad habits. They are self-defeating and difficult to change.

Dr. Albert Ellis, a psychologist, has developed a method for changing the way we think, feel and behave, which he has termed “rational emotive therapy”. Rational relates to the thinking, logical part of our brain while emotive relates to the emotional, feeling part of our brain. When we experience an activating event, which can be a current event, situation that we remember or a future event that is of concern to us, the event triggers our thinking and system of rational and irrational beliefs. Using self-talk to access our beliefs, we generate emotions and behaviors. Rational self-talk helps us manage our emotions and behavior, while irrational self-talk prevents self-control.

## WHAT HAPPENS WHEN WE CAN'T MANAGE NEGATIVE EMOTIONS.?

### Externalizing Behaviors

Some children (and adults) have trouble managing negative emotions. In children, emotional problems are usually manifested as behavioral problems. Some children tend to externalize or under control their emotions and behavior. They may act out their negative thoughts and feelings by being impulsive or aggressive. Anger is the core emotion associated with externalizing behaviors.

*“The connections between emotion and learning are bi-directional and complex.”*

*Candy Lawson, Ph.D.*

Frustration often leads to anger. Frustration occurs when our wants, efforts and plans are blocked. We do not get what we want. Children who have a low tolerance for frustration believe that the world is “too hard” and they can't stand it.

Children with learning differences are often easily frustrated because tasks, such as

learning to read, are incredibly difficult for them. They try their best but don't succeed regardless of how hard they try. Children also respond with anger in situations that are perceived as threatening to their self-esteem. If a child is being picked on in school because he can't read, he might react with anger.

Children who are angry are often unable to correctly identify the source of their anger. Anger is not caused by an event; it is caused by the angry person's thoughts and reaction to that event. Angry children might be disruptive in class, annoy and bully other children or get into fights. They might resent rules and refuse to follow them. They might also refuse to do homework or to do what their parents and teachers tell them to do. Sometimes they might even get suspended or expelled from school or get in trouble with the law. Often children who act in these ways are not very happy and wish that they could be different. Their behavior problems only serve to make things worse. They feel bad about themselves and lack self-confidence and self-esteem.

Expressing anger does not mean getting rid of it. In fact, the more you express anger, the more likely you are to become angry in the future. It becomes another learned habit. Anger usually has a

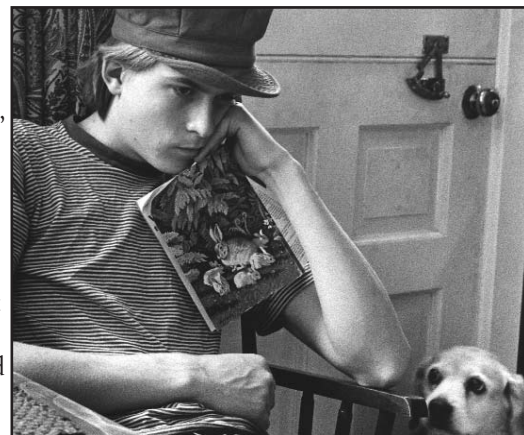
negative impact on relationships and does not lead to contentment and success. Replacing anger with assertiveness is more likely to achieve the desired goal.

### Internalizing Behaviors

Other children who have trouble managing their emotions tend to over control or internalize their feelings. They may feel scared, unhappy, anxious or sad. They may be overly sensitive and get their feelings hurt easily. They might also withdraw from other people and spend a lot of time alone even though they don't like to be alone. They might have trouble concentrating and paying attention in school. These behaviors may lead to poor school performance, which can reinforce feelings of anxiety, sadness and low self-esteem.

*“Emotions are the on-off switch to learning.”*

*Candy Lawson, Ph.D.*



→ Connections cont'd. on page 11.

## Anxiety

Anxiety is one of the most commonly felt emotions. It has been referred to as the “common cold” of mental health. The core of anxiety is the emotion of fear. People who are anxious may be fearful of specific things such as heights, snakes, lightning, flying or dentists. In school, children may be fearful of tests. The only time the child becomes anxious is when the “target stimulus” is present. Other children become anxious only in social situations. They are extremely uncomfortable in situations where they feel they are being scrutinized or evaluated. They fear they will be humiliated or embarrassed.

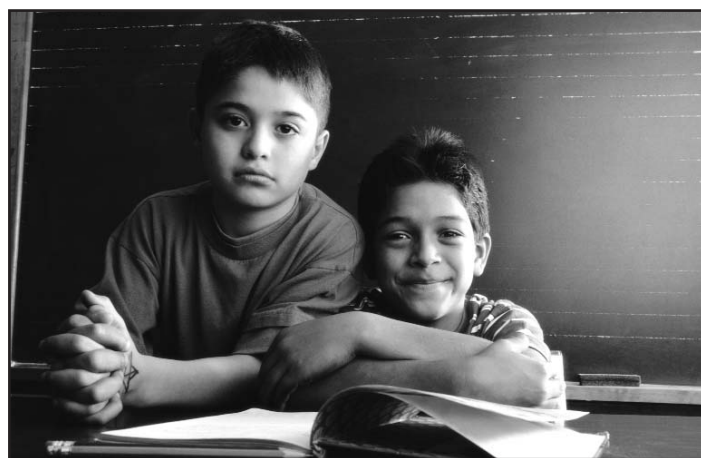
Some children are more pervasively anxious and worry about general things. They feel that they are unable to control their worry. They may worry about how they did on a test, how they look, whether other people like them or what will happen in the future. Children who are generally anxious are apt to appear “keyed up” or “on edge”. Then tend to feel irritable and tense. They may also have trouble sleeping and concentrating and tire easily. Sometimes children that are anxious try to deal with their anxiety by being a perfectionist. Of course, this is not possible and usually only makes them feel worse when they are not perfect.

*“Research has shown that happiness has a positive effect on learning, memory and social behavior. Conversely, negative emotional states, such as anger and sadness, have been shown to have a negative impact on learning and motivation.”*

*Candy Lawson, Ph.D.*

Some anxious children may even obsess about certain things, such as cleanliness, safety, their health or being the best at everything they do. They cannot get these thoughts out of their minds even if they want to or try to. They may attempt to manage their anxiety and prevent feared events from happening by engaging in compulsive behaviors such as hand washing, checking, hoarding or superstitious behaviors. Behaviors such as repeatedly checking to see if a door is locked, being unable to throw anything away or having to repeat a ritual, such as touching a mirror seven times, over and over, can be signs of problems managing anxiety. Although these compulsions are used to reduce obsessive thoughts, they don't work because they too are out of the child's control.

Anxious children may also have panic attacks or episodes of intense fear or discomfort that are accompanied by physical symptoms such as palpitations, shortness of breath or trembling and a fear of going crazy or losing control. These attacks may be triggered by an external event (test, elevator, airplane, crowd) or may be unexpected and come out of the blue.



## Depression

Depression is another internalizing problem that is related to the emotion of sadness. Children who are depressed feel sad and blue. They may also be irritable. They may lose interest or pleasure in activities that they previously enjoyed. They may have trouble sleeping or sleep too much. They may lose their appetite or eat more than usual. They are often agitated, tired and have difficulty thinking or concentrating. Depressed children may also feel worthless, hopeless, helpless, guilty and have low self-esteem. They may even have thoughts of suicide. When a child speaks of suicide, even casually, parents/teachers/adults should never ignore or minimize the statement. Any suicidal thought should be taken seriously and requires prompt professional attention.

Some children attempt to keep their emotions under control but they come out anyway. Children who are anxious or sad may complain of physical problems such as headaches or stomachaches when it is time to go to school, take a test or do homework. Often a medical checkup fails to find a physical reason for these complaints. Many children miss school because of these complaints, which only serves to reinforce them as ways to avoid something unpleasant and increases school problems because of the time and material missed. Other children become preoccupied with eating as a way to avoid negative feelings and feel better. Some overeat because they are anxious or depressed. When they put on weight, they feel bad about how they look. Others think that they are too fat even when they're not and keep trying to lose weight. They believe that if they are thin, they will be perfect and everyone will like

*“Emotions are the relay stations between sensory input and thinking. When the input is interpreted positively, we are motivated to act and achieve a goal. When the input is interpreted negatively, we do not act and do not learn.”*

*Candy Lawson, Ph.D.*

*Connections cont'd. from page 11.*

them. Children who focus too much on eating and their body size usually don't feel very good about themselves.

In the same way, children who smoke or use alcohol or drugs don't usually feel very good about themselves. Using drugs and alcohol may make them feel better for a while, but when the effects of the drugs and/or alcohol wear off, the negative feelings return. The use of drugs or alcohol to "treat" feelings of anxiety or depression is never successful and usually causes additional problems that increase these negative emotions.

## Conclusions

Emotions and learning occur in the brain. Learning means acquiring knowledge or skills. Learning requires thinking. Our thoughts influence how we feel. How we feel influences how we think. The connections between emotion and learning are bi-directional and complex. When we think about a happy incident our mood improves. When we think about an angry incident, we are likely to feel angry. Also, being in a happy mood causes us to think happy thoughts; being in a sad mood brings sad and negative memories and images to mind. There is much research to support that our current mood influences the way we think, perceive events, remember and make decisions. Being optimistic makes us think more positively, be more creative and see and remember neutral events as positive.

*"Learning is charged with emotion, both positive and negative."*

*Candy Lawson, Ph.D.*

12

Because we cannot see our emotions directly, we look to our behavior and that of others to infer how we feel. So our emotions are determined by our interpretation, or what we think about what we see. For example, if someone bumps into us while we are waiting in a line, if we decide that the person who bumped us did this deliberately, we would react with anger. If we conclude that the person tripped on something on the floor, we wouldn't get angry or take defensive action. Also what we expect to happen influences our emotional reaction. If we expect to enjoy a movie, we probably will. If someone told us that we wouldn't like it, we likely won't. Our expectations become our reality and are remembered as such.

Emotions are the relay stations between sensory input and thinking. When the input is interpreted positively, we are motivated to act and achieve a goal. When the input is interpreted negatively, we do not act and do not learn. Negative emotions can be the cause or the effect of problems with learning. Anxiety, depression and anger or frustration can interfere with learning and can result from problems with learning, creating a maladaptive and self-defeating pattern of behavior, which prevents learning and stunts mental/emotional growth. Lack of success or failure to achieve our goals can be




externalized as anger, frustration and acting out, or internalized as anxiety and depression. These emotions are toxic to our well-being and color our world in shades of black and gray. Enjoyment colors our world in bright colors, motivates us to succeed and brings pleasure to life. We cannot become emotionally intelligent if we are unable to learn to think rationally and control our emotions.

## References

- American Psychiatric Association (1994). *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders-Fourth Edition*. Washington DC: American Psychiatric Association.
- Ellis, A. and Harper, R.A. (1997). *A Guide to Rational Living*. North Hollywood, CA: Wilshire Publishing.
- Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional Intelligence*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Seligman, Martin E., Reivick K., Jaycox, L., and Gillham, J. (1995). *The Optimistic Child*. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Thomas, A., Thorne, G., Small, R., DeSanti, P. and Lawson, C. (1998). *MINDWORKS!...And How Mine Works*. Covington, LA: Center for Development and Learning.
- Vail, P.L. (1994). *Emotion: The On-Off Switch for Learning*. Rosemont, NJ: Modern Learning Press.

*Candy Lawson, Ph.D., is a clinical psychologist at the Center for Development and Learning. ††*





*ANYONE WHO CARES ABOUT  
IMPROVING EDUCATION  
WILL BE THERE.*

**PLAIN** *Talk*  
ABOUT KIDS  
**2002**

A NATIONAL SUMMIT ON EDUCATIONAL CHANGE

**NEW ORLEANS**

**FEBRUARY 18, 19 & 20, 2002**

**HOTEL INTER • CONTINENTAL**

**REGISTER TODAY!**

**REGISTRATION FORM ON PAGE 15.**

13

# Who Should Attend?

Anyone who cares about improving education:

- Teachers
- Professors
- School Administrators
- Parents
- Public Officials
- Business Leaders
- Community Leaders
- Physicians
- Judges
- Probation Officers
- Psychologists
- Social Workers
- Teachers in Training

**THE COURAGE TO CHANGE. ONLY THE EDUCATED ARE FREE.**

14

# Summit Goals

PLAIN TALK ABOUT KIDS is a national summit addressing critical and emerging issues surrounding teaching and learning. Knowledge expansion and knowledge sharing at the three-day summit and 16 follow-up forums will focus on building the capacity of teachers, parents, students, schools and universities.

# PLAIN Talk

ABOUT KIDS

## SPEAKERS 2002



**Harriet Ball**  
RAP, RHYTHM,  
RHYME AND  
'RITHMETIC



**Reid Lyon, Ph.D.**  
THE RIGHT TO READ  
AND THE  
RESPONSIBILITY TO  
TEACH



**Gerard A. Ballanco, M.D.**  
LEARNING PROBLEMS,  
ATTENTION PROBLEMS:  
WORKING WITH THE  
COMBINATION



**Carol Rolheiser, Ph.D.**  
BEYOND MONET: THE  
ARTFUL SCIENCE OF  
INSTRUCTIONAL  
INTEGRATION



**Robert Brooks, Ph.D.**  
AT-RISK YOUTH:  
NURTURING  
RESILIENT MINDSETS



**Dennis Sparks, Ph.D.**  
TAKING PERSONAL  
RESPONSIBILITY FOR  
PROFESSIONAL  
DEVELOPMENT THAT  
IMPROVES LEARNING



**Geoffrey Canada, M.Ed.**  
THE CRISIS FACING  
OUR YOUTH



**Robert Sternberg, Ph.D.**  
HIGHER ORDER  
THINKING AND  
SUCCESSFUL  
INTELLIGENCE



**Norm Green**  
AN INTERNATIONAL  
PERSPECTIVE ON  
LEARNING, TEACHING  
AND LEADING



**Patrick Taylor**  
LOUISIANA'S TOPS  
PROGRAM:  
STRENGTHS AND  
CHALLENGES



**Michael Fullan, Ph.D.**  
LEADING IN A  
CULTURE OF CHANGE



**Glenda Thorne, Ph.D.**  
NEURODEVELOPMENTAL  
PROFILES: THEIR  
RELATIONSHIP TO  
LEARNING



**Dale Hair, Ed.S.**  
HIGH POVERTY, HIGH  
PERFORMING  
SCHOOLS:  
HOW DO THEY DO  
IT?



**Priscilla Vail, M.A.T.**  
READING  
COMPREHENSION



**Edward M. Hallowell, M.D.**  
HUMAN MOMENTS:  
THE POWER OF  
CONNECTIONS



**Robert Wimpelberg, Ph.D.**  
LINKING PROFESSIONAL  
DEVELOPMENT TO  
IMPROVED STUDENT  
ACHIEVEMENT

# ANYONE WHO'S ANYONE WILL BE THERE.

## PLAIN TALK ABOUT KIDS SUMMIT 2002

### February 18, 19 & 20, 2002 Hotel Inter Continental • New Orleans, LA

Summit space is limited to the first 600 registrants. To secure your place at the best possible price, join CDL and register NOW.

#### REGISTRATION

<b>(Before 1/19/02)</b>	<b>Registration after 1/19/02</b>
CDL Member: \$360	CDL Member: \$390
Non-Member: \$450	Non-Member: \$490

Registration fee includes:

- Breakfast & lunch each day of the 3-day summit
- Free entry to any of 16 follow-up discussions held March – October 2002
- Copy of the PLAIN TALK About KIDS *Education Desk Reference*

#### HOTEL INFORMATION

Special rate per room is \$205 per night, single or double occupancy, plus applicable taxes (currently 12%) and occupancy fee (\$2.00 per night). Be sure to mention the Center for Development and Learning and PLAIN TALK for these special room rates. Rates and rooms are guaranteed only through January 19, 2002.

The phone number for the Hotel Inter Continental is (504) 525-5566.



**IT TAKES COURAGE TO CHANGE. BUT CHILDREN'S LIVES ARE COUNTING ON US.**

**Registration Information**      Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Title: \_\_\_\_\_

School/Organization: \_\_\_\_\_

Address: \_\_\_\_\_

City, State, Zip: \_\_\_\_\_

Telephone: \_\_\_\_\_ Fax: \_\_\_\_\_

Email: \_\_\_\_\_

**Payment Information**

CDL Membership ID#: \_\_\_\_\_

Name on credit card: \_\_\_\_\_

Credit Card #: \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_ Visa \_\_\_ MC \_\_\_ AmEx      Expiration: \_\_\_\_\_

#### 4 Easy Ways to Register

1. Complete and fax this form to 985-893-5443
2. Complete and mail this form to: CDL, 208 South Tyler Street, Covington, LA 70433
3. Go online to [www.cdl.org](http://www.cdl.org), and register instantly.
4. Call us at 985-893-7777. We'll register you on the phone.

CDL is a 501(c)3 nonprofit organization.

## THERE WON'T BE ANYTHING PLAIN ABOUT IT!



208 South Tyler Street  
Covington, LA 70433  
(985) 893-7777 • Fax (985) 893-5443  
Website: [www.cdl.org](http://www.cdl.org) • E-mail: [learn@cdl.org](mailto:learn@cdl.org)

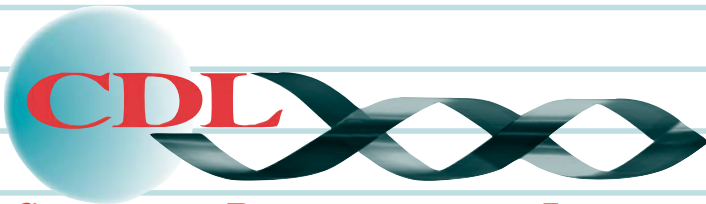
# PLAIN *Talk*

THE NEWSLETTER FOR THE CENTER FOR DEVELOPMENT AND LEARNING ©

JANUARY 2002

WHEN OLDER STUDENTS CAN'T READ	PAGE	1
THE EDUCATIONAL AND EMOTIONAL EFFECTS OF READING PROBLEMS	PAGE	6
EDITORIAL	PAGE	7
THE CONNECTIONS BETWEEN EMOTIONS AND LEARNING	PAGE	8
DON'T MISS PLAIN TALK ABOUT KIDS 2002	PAGE	13

*We are in  
the business  
of improving  
children's  
lives.*



Center for Development & Learning

208 South Tyler Street  
Covington, LA 70433

NONPROFIT  
U.S.  
POSTAGE  
PAID  
KWIK KOPY