

# Writing For Reading

## Guide for Developing Print Materials in Nutrition for Low Literacy Adults

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## Guide for Developing Print Materials in Nutrition for Low Literacy Adults

**T**his guide is designed to offer relevant, useful and practical tips on developing and targeting written nutrition information to adults with low literacy skills. The information is based on our findings in a two year study in which we developed and evaluated two sets of nutrition education materials for low literacy mothers. One set was authored in simple language by nutrition experts and the other was directly written in language of the target group. This was done by using statements elicited during specially designed training sessions which we called participant interaction sessions.

## Background

Our review of nutrition information uncovered the following concerns that are common pitfalls to avoid when you develop materials:

### Pitfalls

- The content of the message and the method used to present nutrition information may be inappropriate for a low literacy target audience.
- Relevance of the message to the needs and desires of the target audience is vitally important.
- Information seeking behavior is different among low literacy adults from that of those with better reading skills.

The following statistics and descriptions are used to document the importance of considering special needs of low literate populations in developing materials.

### Special Needs

- 57 million Americans do not have skills adequate to perform basic tasks such as reading food labels. Of those, 23 million are considered to be functionally illiterate because they do not have the competencies necessary to function in society. An additional 34 million are semiliterate because they are able to function, but not proficiently. In the area of consumer economics and health, 20 to 30 percent of the adults in the U.S. are severely limited by low literacy skills.
- Characteristics such as low income, poor health, unemployment, large families, isolation, immobility, inadequate housing, low self esteem, low self confidence and a high degree of dependency are more common among people with low literacy skills than the general population.
- Adults with low literacy skills are more likely to live in rural or inner city areas, to live in a southern state, to be an older adult, and to be male than people with higher level reading skills.
- Impersonal mass media techniques are not well suited to nutrition education for low literate adults.
- Informal contacts such as friends, family and neighbors are common sources of health and nutrition information for this population.

# Assessing the Audience

We recommend the following techniques for determining specific nutrition education needs of your clientele:

## **Focus Groups**

In our study, we conducted six focus group interviews with 28 low income mothers to determine factors affecting food purchases, shopping habits and sources of health and nutrition information.

## **Personal Interviews**

After completing the focus group interviews, we conducted individual hour long interviews with 18 low income mothers. At this time we asked more probing questions in regard to meal patterns, food preparation, attitudes toward snacks and budgetary causes.

## **Interviews of Agency Personnel**

We talked with persons who work with this same target audience in other programs. County social services, the Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Program, the Special Supplemental Food Program for Women, Infants and Children, and vocational school staff gave us their perspective of the nutrition information needs and literacy levels of their clientele.

## **Other Sources**

We consulted the Wisconsin Department of Health and Social Services to find data on education levels and ages of possible clients. We also delved into census data to locate people with less than high school education. We consulted adult literacy teachers in vocational schools and at local non-profit agencies (community centers, neighborhood centers, parent-teacher organizations, and public schools) for recommendations regarding possible clientele.

# Developing Materials

Based on our literature review and our experience in developing materials for this project, we make the following recommendations regarding content and style of written materials:

## **Include new information and repeat it for learning purposes.**

This passage illustrates our repetition of important points. “If your child doesn’t drink milk, she’s not getting calcium. Calcium is important for healthy bones and teeth. Why not give her cheese or snacks made with milk? Then she’ll get the calcium she needs to keep her bones and teeth strong.” In one paragraph we restated the importance and sources of calcium several times.

## **Include how-to information.**

For example, we explained how mothers and children can make snacks that are fast, fun and filling. We listed a variety of how-to tips including: put up colorful pictures to build your child’s interest in new foods; swap snack recipes with a friend; using a cookie cutter, cut sandwiches into interesting shapes.

## **Use peer language to increase personal identification, improve readability and optimize the tone of the communication.**

We found that text developed from statements by members of our target group was no more informative than text written by experts, but less skilled readers reacted

more positively to the peer statements as relevant to their own problems and experiences. The risk of stating a message in terms that appear condescending or preachy is lessened when peer language is used.

Theory suggests that low literacy clientele may use more advanced cognitive processes in reading text in peer language than in reading ordinary text, thus understanding is enhanced even though grade level formulas may show peer language to be at a higher grade level of readability.

**Use Language Experience Approach principles to develop peer language materials.**

In developing our peer language pamphlet we used the Language Experience Approach, which is a way to teach reading by using students' own statements as the text. After teachers present information, statements are elicited from learners and written down by teachers. These statements become the text of materials.

We used this approach in our participant interaction groups. We presented nutrition information to each group via a discussion, lecture, and snack food demonstration. Following each presentation segment, we asked participants for their statements and wrote down what they said. The statements became the contents of a pamphlet. For this approach to be most effective, the groups should meet several times. We met with our participants just once, and this limited their opportunity to assimilate the more technical information.

**Use expert opinion to give solutions to problems expressed by the target audience.**

Readers identified more with the pamphlet containing quotes from low literacy mothers, and the materials written by nutrition experts provided more new information. We feel the best materials would have a combination of expert and peer input for greatest effectiveness in a single piece.

**Reinforce general or abstract ideas with specific, concrete examples or illustrations.**

Rather than discuss concepts only in general terms, it is a good idea to include examples with specific foods. Sentences that contain elaborations of the abstract, taking readers from general to specific information, are easiest to understand.

For example, "vegetables" is a general term and "carrots" is a specific one. When you say "You need vegetables to get vitamin A. You get vitamin A in carrots and peas," you have reinforced an abstract concept with a specific and familiar example.

**Give examples using foods named as acceptable by the target audience.**

Make sure the group that will read your pamphlet eats collards and tofu if you use these foods to illustrate important points,

**Be specific and concise, don't use idioms unless they are well known.**

Rather than saying it's OK to indulge in "junk foods" once in a while, we said "Soda and chips are OK snacks once in a while." This avoids the lack of common meaning for the term "junk foods,"

**Use direct, positive statements rather than complex, negative sentences.**

For example, we included some complex sentences where we could have used simple sentences. We wrote "If your child doesn't drink milk at lunch, she's not getting calcium." It would have been more direct and positive to say "Your child gets calcium when she drinks milk."

**Avoid making the meaning of a sentence rely on a single word, especially when it changes the meaning from negative to positive or vice-versa.**

For example, instead of saying “There isn’t just one food that contains all the good things we need,” skip the negative and say “Children should eat many foods to give them the good things they need.”

**Use active, not passive voice.**

Active sentences are clearer and less wordy than passive sentences.

*Active:* Children should drink milk. *Passive:* Milk should be drunk by children.

## Format

**Use bright colors.**

In our focus groups we found a strong preference for bright colors and realistic food photographs. Therefore, we used brightly colored food photos printed on glossy white paper flanked with a cheery yellow grid. We also incorporated colorful type in shades of red, green, yellow and black. We suggest you incorporate bright colors when it is an affordable option.

**Use photographs of real food.**

Uncluttered photographs are preferable to complex drawings or abstract line representations which can be puzzling and distracting. When photographs are not available, use clearly drawn illustrations and keep them directly related to the message you want to emphasize. Our clients advised us to use pictures of foods they could afford, served in dishes they might have in their homes.

**Keep visuals directly related to the message.**

We learned in our literature review that illustrations are useful when they serve to clarify the printed message. Cartoons and busy illustrations can be viewed as condescending, confusing and irrelevant. For example, we used only food photos in our booklets and posters. On the cover of both our pamphlets we featured photos of children tasting snacks.

**Keep paragraphs short and direct.**

A solid block of copy with no indentations can be a psychological barrier to reading and comprehension.

**Keep headings simple and in close proximity to the text they introduce.**

Do not rely on headings to impart new information. For information to be remembered it needs to be in the body of the text.

One of our headings read:

**Q:** What are happy snack foods?

**A:** Fruits      Beans      Cheese  
Vegetables      Milk      Grains  
Nuts

While this seemed to be a perfectly simple answer, we did not go on to refer to these foods in the paragraph directly below this heading. The information in this heading was not often recalled by low skilled readers because the heading was too far away from the paragraph and we did not reiterate the important points in sentence form.

### **Use type styles that are not overly simple or ornate.**

We used serif type. According to experts, this is the most familiar of type styles and the easiest to read. **Bold** type, *italics*, sans serif, and other modern type styles have presented comprehension difficulties in certain low literacy studies. Mixing several type styles on the same page is also confusing.

### **Use capital and lower case letters, not all capitals.**

Underlining is more effective in giving emphasis to important points than stating them in ALL CAPITAL LETTERS. Poor readers have trouble with words and sentences that do not follow standard rules of capitalization and punctuation.

### **Use white space to make the reading task appear less formidable.**

For example, in our pamphlets almost half of each page is comprised of white space which separates or surrounds copy. Other studies have shown that generous spacing enhances readability.

### **Use heavy weight paper in a size that is easily stored with cookbooks.**

Our pamphlets were 5 x 8 inches. Most of the people who saved our materials kept them with their cookbooks and recipes for ready reference.

### **Use recipes to reinforce important concepts.**

We printed a set of recipes on 3 x 5 cards. Each contained a photo of the finished dish, an ingredient list, and simple instructions. The recipes could easily be kept in a recipe file. In our evaluation, recipes were the best liked component of our materials. In fact, when we asked for suggestions on how to improve our materials, the most frequent response from our clients was “more recipes.”

## **Formative Evaluation**

### **Use objective measures of reading level to estimate readability of your nutrition information materials.**

We used the Fry, Flesch and Fog readability formulas. The simplest is the Fry formula which classifies reading materials from first grade to college level by measuring sentence length and word length. The Flesch readability formula also measures word length, sentence length to indicate reading ease. The Fog Index uses sentence length and percentage of hard words to judge reading level.

Other measures, such as the Spache readability formula, the Dale-Chall formula, the Smog formula and the Rauding scale have also been used to estimate reading level of written text.

### **Use comprehensibility measures for additional information that readability formulas cannot detect.**

We used several qualitative measures to identify strengths and weaknesses of our materials in terms of comprehensibility. The procedures we found most useful include signaled stopping, free recall, oral reading, miscue analysis, semantic differential, and Cloze test, all of which were conducted with subjects who had low level reading skills.

In *signaled stopping*, we asked readers to tell us their thoughts every time they paused while reading our materials. Their responses included agreement and disagreement, relating of personal experience, and comments about understandability.

Using free recall, we asked readers to state everything they could remember from the materials after reading them. Using these data, we could identify the most memorable information and some misimpressions as well.

Subjects read the text aloud and that teacher noted all mispronounced or omitted words that changed the meaning in the *oral reading miscue analysis*.

We used the *semantic differential* procedure to identify reactions and impressions caused by our materials. After reading the text, subjects rated the materials on a scale where 1 is low and 7 is high for a series of adjectives like “neighborly” and “preachy.”

In our Cloze tests, we deleted every fifth word of the text and asked subjects to fill in the blanks. More correct responses indicate more easily understood passages.

## Dissemination

### **Get readers involved in distributing the materials.**

The way you give out your materials can be as important as how you put them together. Women in our study who were asked to give an extra set of materials to a friend showed improvement in knowledge, attitude and behavior when compared to persons who were not asked to share the information with a friend. The people who interact with materials by helping develop them or by passing them along appear to gain the most from the message in the materials.

### **Find a trusted agency, club, church or other group to give out materials to your target group.**

We conducted our study in cooperation with the Milwaukee Boys and Girls Club. They helped us identify a target audience and cosponsored the distribution of our materials.

### **Provide some means of follow-up.**

Recipients who anticipate follow-up will be more likely to attend to the information. Our participants knew we might be calling them to get their reactions to the materials, The follow-up phone calls helped us to gain valuable insight into the response our materials evoked, and also may have enhanced attention and learning because we showed interest in the subjects’ opinions and valued their reactions.

## Resources

### **Get people from other programs to help you plan your materials.**

Educators and writers may be available to provide information and offer suggestions as you plan and draft your materials. The Land Grant university in each state has experts who devote part of their time to such service. Also, high schools, colleges, vocational schools, and literacy programs in your community may have specialists who can assist you. We found that literacy teachers were very cooperative in letting us pretest our materials with their students.

### **Refer to print resources for additional information.**

We have assembled an annotated bibliography as an appendix to this guide. The citations are articles and books which give further details on topics included in this guide.

Additional information on our research procedures and results will be submitted in the form of research articles for possible publication the *Journal of Nutrition Education*.

# Bibliography

## Resources on Adult Literacy for Nutrition Educators

The following is an annotated list of books and journal articles that nutrition educators may find as useful sources of further information related to the development of print materials for low-literacy adults.

In addition to the references in this list, a number of articles that appear in the *Journal of Nutrition Education* contain pertinent information. The communications section of the JNE supplement "Proceedings of the Workshop on Nutrition Education Research" (Vol. 13, No. 1, Suppl. 1, 1981, pp. 16-33) is an especially relevant source of information.

### A. Overview of the Low Literacy Problem

Hunter, C. and D. Harman. (1979) *Adult illiteracy in the United States*. New York, N.Y McGraw Hill.

The most comprehensive examination of the low literacy problem in the United States to date, the authors provide a discussion of the history of the term "literacy," a thorough statistical presentation of the extent of the low literacy problem, a demographic profile of the low literate population, and a description of the types of programs available in the late 1970s. To conclude, the authors offer their specific recommendations based on the thesis that difficult to reach potential learners would respond to community based programs that address their stated needs and offer options for the future. Appendices list consultants in the field and provide an annotated bibliography.

Kozol, J. (1985) *Illiterate America*. Garden City, NY. Anchor Press/Doubleday.

A call to action by a long-time proponent of humanistic adult literacy programs, the author describes the urgency of the problem of illiteracy and the danger of mechanistic, "functional" teaching approaches. In a chapter on oral history, he describes how words important to the learners and stories they tell can be used as beginning reading material.

### B. The Adult Learner

Bowren, F.R. and M.V. Zintz. (1977) *Teaching Reading in Adult Basic Education*. Dubuque, Iowa. W.C. Brown Co.

This is a comprehensive text for adult reading instruction. It contains chapters on adult learners, learning theory, comprehension, and evaluation. The appendices have quick and easy readability measures, essential vocabulary lists, and diagnostic tests to determine a person's reading level.

Brundage, D. H., and D. Mackeracher. (1980) *Adult Learning Principles and Their Application to Program Planning*. Queen's Park, Toronto, Ontario. The Ministry of Education.

A thorough introduction to the field of adult education, a synthesis and summary of adult education are presented with chapters on characteristics of the adult learner, the learning situation, and program planning. Among the principles stated are: "Adults learn best when content is personally relevant" (P. 31) and "The adult learner needs to feel his past experience is respected and valued by others" (p. 98).

Samuels, F. (1981) *Creating an Effective learning Environment for Disadvantaged Adult Learners*. ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 211 688\*.

In this brief (16 page) paper, the author relates the stress of poverty and sense of powerlessness that affects adult learners in basic education classes to the need for programs that promote self worth, provide access to community resources and contain subject matter relevant to learner concerns.

### C. Non-Formal Adult Literacy Education

Freire, P. (1973) *Education for Critical Consciousness*. New York, N.Y. The Seabury Press.

The author is a Latin American educator who profoundly influenced the field of adult literacy by approaching literacy education as a consciousness raising and revolutionary activity. Here he presents his philosophical arguments and describes in detail the lesson plans he used that combined teaching sophisticated aesthetic, cultural and political concepts with beginning reading and writing instruction. Friere stresses the importance of dialogue between experts and learners.

Salinger, T. (1978) *A Brief Background of Non-formal Education and Two Applications in Reading*. ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 182 702.

The author describes the methods of Paolo Freire in Latin America and Sylvia Ashton Warner in New Zealand who taught beginning reading in non-traditional ways by focusing on the learner's vocabulary, concerns and creative expressive skills. He relates their methods to the language experience approach used in the United States.

Srinivasan, L. (1977) *Perspectives on Non-formal Adult Learning*. New York, N.Y. World Education.

The author describes models, techniques and teaching aids used primarily in developing countries to teach literacy skills in conjunction with practical subject matter such as agriculture, health, family planning and civics. She contrasts the problem-solving approach, in which literacy is taught by means of programmed texts as part of a prepackaged curriculum, with the self-actualizing approach, in which the group's spontaneous communications are used as the basis for instruction and sequence is determined by learners' interest and readiness for action.

### D. The Language Experience Approach to Reading Instruction

Johnston, J. D., S.G. Strader and R.A. Palmatier. (1975) *The Language Experience Approach, Instructional Concept Guide No. 8*. 309 Aderhold Bldg., Athens, Ga. University of Georgia.

Part of a series to acquaint adult literacy tutors with methods of instruction, this is a practical guide to conducting a lesson in which text is elicited from the learner. Instruction is limited to teaching decoding skills.

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\*ERIC refers to Educational Resources Information Center of the U.S. Dept. of Education, National Institute of Education, Washington, D.C 20208. ERIC makes many types of education literature available through college and university schools of education throughout the country.

Kennedy, K. and S. Roeder. (1973) *A Guide to Using Language Experience with Adults*. ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 103 600.

A clear and effective presentation of the rationale and use of the language experience approach by instructors at a community learning center. The authors recommend producing a "library" of language experience texts, because "there is a lack of good commercial beginning reading material for adults" and because use of the approach results in readings "with simple vocabulary and sentence structure that appeals to adult readers' mature interests and life experiences" (p. 8).

Askov, E.N. and J.W. Lee. (1980) Language experience approach in the content classroom. In R.T. Vacca (ed.) *Journal of Language Experience*, Vol. 2, No. 1, ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 192 252.

Although intended for use with high school students, the concept, presented here, of using the language experience approach to help learners integrate subject matter content can be easily extended to adult groups. The authors suggest a 3 step procedure of content presentation, discussion, and group dictation. Through this approach textbook material that is too difficult as written can be adapted to appropriate reading levels.

### **E. Theoretical Background for Use of Non-Formal, Language Experience Approach Instruction.**

Elsasser, N. and V.P. John-Steiner. (1977) An interactionist approach to advancing literacy. *Harvard Educational Review*, 47(3):355-369.

The authors describe the theoretical positions of adult educator P. Freire and cognitive psychologist L. Vygotsky as background for the view that genuine two-way communication and encouragement of language awareness can affect learners' mental and social development.

Hacker, C.J. (1980) From schema theory to classroom practice. *Language Arts*, 57(8):866-871,

In this article, the author provides an introduction to the schema-theoretic view of reading comprehension that has gained prominence in reading education since 1975. The basic premise is that readers use prior knowledge to interpret text and that without such prior knowledge, comprehension is impaired. The language experience approach to beginning reading is singled out as fitting within a schema theory framework, because it is meant to produce the closest fit between the reader's language and world knowledge and the text.

### **F. Teaching Techniques**

Gollob, H.F. and J.E. Dittes. (1965) Effects of manipulated self-esteem on persuasibility depending on threat and complexity of communication. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 2(2):195-201.

Low self-esteem is a characteristic of disadvantaged learners that has been reported to interfere with learning. In this study the persuasibility of subjects was measured with different types of communication. Low self-esteem was found to decrease persuasibility when the content of the communication was complex or threatening. In contrast, low self-esteem increased persuasibility when the message was clearly stated and non-

threatening. The authors conclude that self-esteem affects persuasibility by affecting the acceptance of the communication and through differential learning of the communication.

Bettman, J.R. and P. Kakkar. (1977) Effects of information presentation format on consumer information acquisition strategies. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 3:233-240.

This study highlights the fact that information must be easily to be used by consumers and that processability is as important as availability of information. Further, the format in which information is presented is an important determinant of processability.

Johnson, D.W. (1981) Student-student interaction: the neglected variable in education. *Educational Researcher*, 10:5-10.

Constructive student-student relationships are discussed as necessary for achievement, socialization and development of students. Student-student interaction can be promoted by the appropriate use of cooperative goal structuring and the management of controversies among student learners.

Johnson, D.W. and R.T. Johnson. (1983) The socialization and achievement crisis: are cooperative learning experiences the solution? In Bickman (ed.) *Applied Social Psychology Annual*, Vol. 4, Beverly Hills, Calif. Sage Publications.

This chapter summarizes the results of 10 years of theorizing and research by the authors regarding cooperative learning experiences in contrast to competitive and individualistic ones. Achievement is increased in cooperative learning situations. Cooperative learning promotes critical thinking, positive attitudes towards the subject area, and increased perception of fairness in grading. The authors further state that more cooperative learning schools could increase the quality of the labor force.

Brockett, R.G. (1984) Developing written learning materials: a proactive approach. *Lifelong Learning*, 7(5):16.

People who are in control of their own learning are more motivated and persistent because they can adapt their learning experiences according to individual needs and interests.

U.S. Department of Agriculture. (1984) *An Experimental Evaluation of Nutrition Education Methods*. Alexandria, Va. Office of Analysis, Food and Nutrition Service.

The use of small groups, small groups plus follow-up telephone contacts, and mailed lessons plus follow-up telephone contacts and one-to-one home visits were compared to one-to-one teaching methods for cost-effectiveness in nutrition education. All methods were successful in terms of knowledge change. Behavior changes were greatest in the one-to-one methods, but the small group plus phone method was most cost effective.

Doak, C.C., L.G. Doak and J.H. Root. (1985) *Teaching Patients with Low Literacy Skills*. Philadelphia, Pa. J.D. Lippincott Co.

This paperback book has 171 pages of information on making health and nutrition education more effective for persons with low literacy skills. The information is targeted to clinical situations. Background information on literacy and comprehension theories are included along with tips on developing and evaluating written and audio materials. A chapter on visuals and a chapter on writing and rewriting text are included.

## G. Evaluation Tools

Carter, R.F., W.L. Ruggels, K.M. Jackson and M.B. Heffner. (1973) Application of Signaled Stopping Technique to Communication Research. In Clarke, P. (cd.) *New Models for Mass Communication Research*. Sage Annual Reviews of Communication Research, Beverly Hills, Calif. Sage Publications.

Stopping occurs intermittently throughout the course of attending to verbal or written communications and can be used as an indicator of cognitive behavior. In evaluating written material, a subject can be instructed to mark a slash anytime he/she pauses while reading a message. At the end of the passage, the reader indicates if the pause was for agreement, disagreement, thinking, questioning, rereading, confusion, etc. This information can be used to identify problem sections in written text.

Bellenger, D., K.L. Bernhardt and J.L. Goldstucker. (1976) *Qualitative Research in Marketing*. Chicago, Ill. American Marketing Association.

In Chapter 2, "Qualitative Research Techniques: Focus Group Interviews," the history, dynamics, uses, advantages and disadvantages of focus groups are discussed. The focus group interview is a means of obtaining in-depth information via group discussion of a specific topic. The technique was developed in the 1950s as a qualitative marketing research technique based on principles of group therapy. The "give and take" exchange of attitudinal and behavioral information that takes place in a focus group interview can be used to gather background information from clientele groups or to direct interpretation of data gathered by quantitative methods.



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