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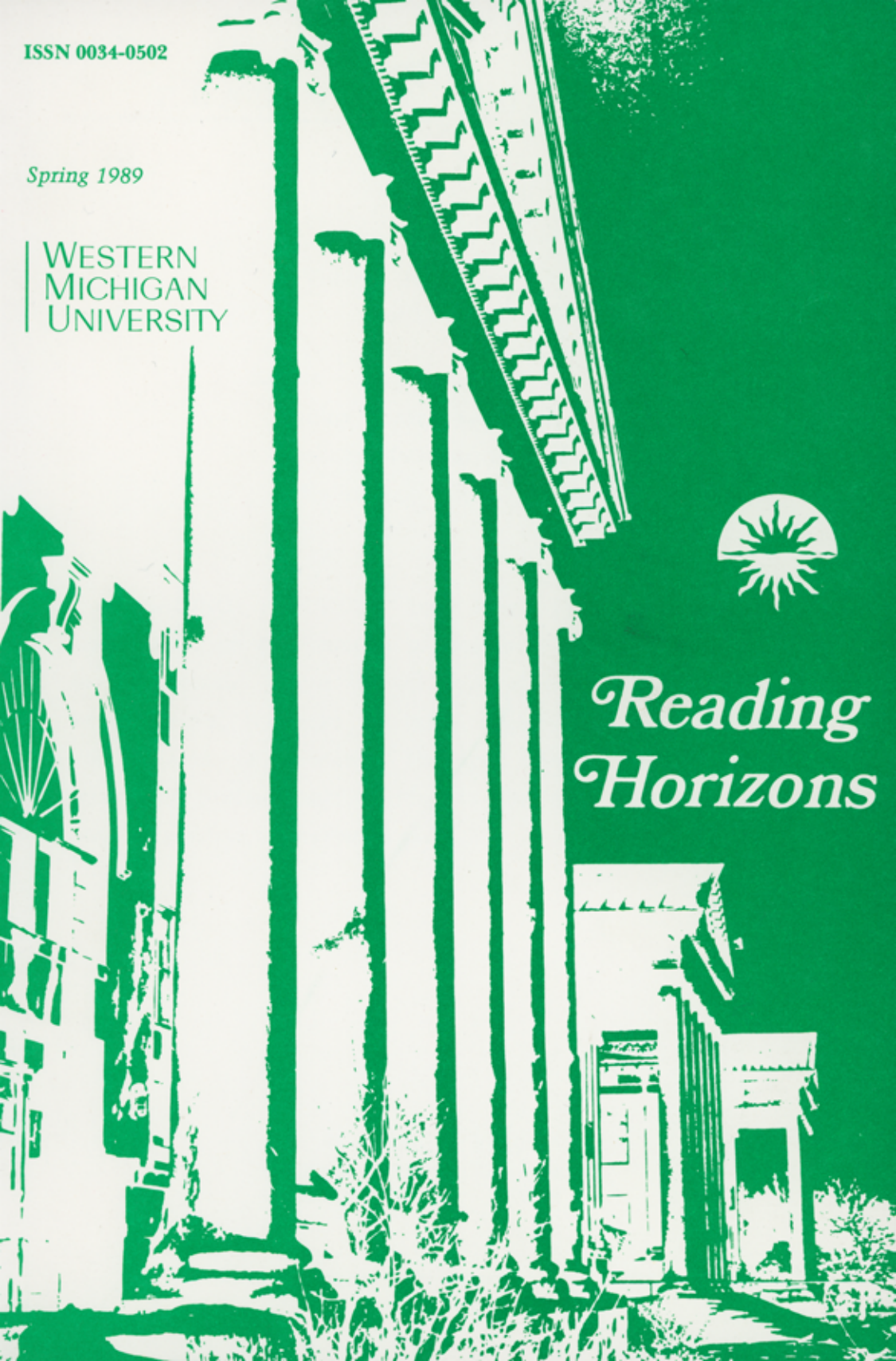
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INCREASING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE READING AIDE: A GUIDE FOR TEACHERS

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Having another adult in the classroom to assist in the reading program can be a mixed blessing. While most teachers welcome help in meeting the individual learning needs of students in the classroom, this help can sometimes turn into a hindrance if the assistant is not supervised properly. Herein lies the problem in many teacher and aide teams: teacher training programs do not train teachers how to supervise another adult in the classroom. All of the teacher's education and experience is directed to working with children. This problem is further compounded by the dearth of inservice training by school districts in working with adult assistants.

A study conducted in New Jersey found that teachers in that state were not well informed and/or trained about the appropriate use of instructional aides ("Are Instructional Aides Being Misused?" 1980). A follow-up study disclosed that only 27% of the districts employing aides in that state indicated that training in the use of aides was provided for teachers ("Instructional Aides," 1982). This problem is common in other states as well.

It is the purpose of this article to share ideas on supervisory techniques that teachers can implement to increase the effectiveness of another adult assisting them in the classroom. While this article focuses on the reading aide, these techniques are equally applicable when working with student teachers, parent volunteers, or any other adult whom the teacher might have in the classroom to provide help with the instructional program.

Communicating

Many teachers who are working with an aide for the

very first time feel as if a stranger were trespassing on their private terrain--their classrooms. Acceptance and trust need to develop for the two to function as an effective team. But "mutual trust cannot be decreed. It can only develop through free and open communication" (Bowman & Klopff, 1969, p. 3).

For the teacher and aide to function as a team, effective communication is necessary (Anderson, 1987; Brubaker & Sloan, 1981; Nielsen, 1977). Communication for the teacher/aide team starts with planning for instruction. The first planning session should take place at the beginning of the year before the students arrive, or--if aides begin work after the school year has begun--before they assume instructional duties in the classroom. In the beginning, much time will be needed for preplanning. The planning time can be decreased as the team increases the efficiency of their operation and they begin to stockpile plans and ideas that can be used in the future. As the team members begin to develop a routine, a weekly planning session of thirty minutes, or a few minutes at the beginning or end of each school day will be sufficient. The key to success is that planning is done on a regular basis.

During the initial planning session, it is important to discuss the division of responsibilities between the teacher and aide. Teachers must remain the instructional decision makers in the classroom, because it is they who have the education and certification to perform this role. As such, they must bear the responsibility for diagnosing students' learning needs and problems (although the aide can provide valuable input), and they must present and teach all new content, reserving the aide's role for reinforcement. Because of this division, there will be some responsibilities that are restricted to the teacher, such as determining the content of the curriculum, preparing and evaluating tests, entering information in cumulative folders, and conducting parent-teacher conferences. But there will be many responsibilities that both members of the team can share, such as keeping students on task, checking worksheets, reinforcing previously taught vocabulary, and listening to students read orally.

Another crucial aspect of communication that needs to be developed is some type of nonverbal communication system that will allow the teacher and aide to communicate without disrupting the students who are working on task. For example, if the teacher is working with a reading group at the back of the room and wants the aide to quiet a couple of students who are being disruptive at their desks, the teacher might point to the students and put a finger to her/his lips as a signal to get the students back on task.

It is important during this first planning session to select a designated space for the aide to work with students and to store instructional materials and personal belongings. An additional teacher's desk might be used, or a large table if there is not a second teacher's desk available. Giving aides students' desks to work from is not appropriate, as it could demean the aides' role as authority figures in the classroom, thereby reducing their effectiveness as instructional assistants.

Organizing for Instruction

A high school diploma or its equivalent is frequently the only educational requirement for aides to be hired in most school districts. Therefore, unless aides have had experience in the classroom or prior inservice training, they probably will have no knowledge of instructional strategies. It is essential, therefore, for teachers to model the proper procedures in the management and delivery of instruction. It is not enough for teachers to simply tell aides what to do; they must first let them observe teachers demonstrating what to do. Modeling allows aides to learn the proper procedures firsthand, eliminating the frustration of trial-and-error methods.

For example, if the teacher wants the aide to work with a small group of students who are reading below grade level to regularly reinforce vocabulary words that were introduced the previous lesson, then the teacher should have the aide sit and observe her/him while conducting this review with the group. Afterwards, have a discussion with the aide and explain why each step in this strategy is important. One should note, for instance, that you mix up the order of the word cards each time you ask a different student to read them because students

sometimes memorize the order of the words, but they are not able to actually recognize the words in print. To insure that the procedure is fully understood, ask the aide to describe what was observed. Once the procedure is mastered, the aide would only have to look at the written lesson plans to know what should be done with that group on any given day.

As the instructional leader in the classroom, the teacher is responsible for selecting and providing the instructional materials that the aide is to use. However, the teacher should remain receptive to suggestions from the aide for activities and materials, as most school districts provide staff development sessions for their aides. It is possible that the aide may have learned useful instructional techniques and even have prepared instructional materials at recent sessions. In either case, it is important to assess the effectiveness of the chosen instructional materials and activities on a regular basis to determine if alternate materials and activities need to be used by the aide.

When aides are asked to reinforce a complex lesson, such as phonics, it is necessary to first insure that aides understand the content of the lesson as well as the process or directions for the follow-up activity. Teachers' editions of basal readers use a specialized vocabulary (such as diphthong and r-controlled vowel) which may be unfamiliar to aides. Simply asking aides if they understand the content is not sufficient, as they may be embarrassed to admit that they do not, or they may be misinterpreting the information and say that they understand when, in fact, they do not. Asking aides to paraphrase the directions or explain the content should give insight in whether the material is truly understood.

In organizing for instruction, teachers need to inform aides of the learning needs of individual students with whom they will be working. This may mean disclosing sensitive information, such as names of students who have been diagnosed as learning disabled; so, the necessity of confidentiality must be stressed.

Not only will aides observe and model teachers' instructional techniques, they will also often reflect the teachers' attitudes. For this reason it is critical that

teachers convey and model positive attitudes in working with low achieving students, because it is with these students that aides are most frequently assigned to work.

In the beginning of the relationship for a teacher/aide team, on-the-job training for the aide will increase the teacher's work load. But the time that the teacher spends educating the aide in instructional methodology and skills development will be an investment in achievement gains for individual students as well as an investment in working toward an eventual shared work load for the team.

Establishing Management Procedures

Without good classroom management procedures, even the best planned and organized instruction will be ineffective. It is the teacher's responsibility to determine and post appropriate classroom rules. It is then necessary for the teacher to insure that the aide understands the classroom rules and procedures. Some aides work with more than one teacher each day, and interpretation of rules and classroom procedures often vary from teacher to teacher. For example, "Be prepared when it is time to start the lesson" may mean for the students to clear their desks and wait quietly for directions in one classroom. In another classroom, this same rule might mean for the students to have their workbooks and pencils on their desks and have the book open to the next story.

Reserving the enforcement of classroom rules for the teacher alone can be compared to the mother who tells her misbehaving children that they "are really going to get it when father comes home!" To most children, this means they can continue to misbehave until the father comes home because they are going to "get it" anyway. For aides to be effective assistants in the classroom, they must be able to enforce the classroom rules. To be successful in this, the students must recognize the aide as an authority figure along with the teacher, and this point should be stated when the classroom rules and procedures are first covered or when the students are first introduced to the aide.

Teachers should take care to treat aides as authority figures in the presence of students and parents. Calling aides by their first names or referring to them as "the

aide" or "my assistant" will often imply that this person does not have the same authority to maintain discipline in the classroom.

If the aide uses a behavior management technique that is inappropriate or ineffective, such as telling a student who is talking to "shut up," discuss in private the use of the inappropriate technique and follow up with an alternative method. In this case, suggest making eye contact with the disruptive student and placing a finger to the lips with a stern look on ones' face, as a more effective technique.

Giving Constructive Feedback

In a study by Barnard (1972), feedback was found to be a powerful source of control on the performance of aides working as reading tutors. It was concluded that the mere presence of feedback seemed equally as crucial as the amount or degree of complexity of feedback.

For aides to continue to grow in skills and knowledge, it is necessary to give them constructive feedback. It is important to continually monitor the effectiveness of aides' instructional reinforcement and occasionally to observe them while working with students. Feedback should include three components: (1) telling what was done right, (2) telling what needs to be improved, and (3) giving specific ideas on what to do to improve.

For example, if the teacher observed the aide giving a vocabulary reinforcement lesson prior to having the students read the story orally, she/he might say, "You did a good job with this lesson today. I especially liked the way you had each student read each word on the board. And your handwriting is so nice. It's a good model for the students to follow.

"I noticed that some of the students were flipping through their books and playing with their pencils at the beginning of the lesson while you were pronouncing the words for them. Some of them were not looking at the words at all.

"Next time you do this kind of lesson, collect their pencils when they come back to the group, and wait to pass out the books until it is time for the students to read. That way, there will be nothing to distract them

while they are supposed to be listening and looking at the vocabulary words."

The aide should always be informed promptly and discreetly when something has been done incorrectly. Browne (1972) relates that "criticism should be infrequent and in private. It should be directly at the activity rather than the person, and it should be constructive" (p. 14). Therefore, it is essential to follow up with ideas for alternate methods.

The aide should also be given positive reinforcement for a job well done. Teachers should "praise good work and good ideas as often as possible, at the moment it is deserved. Praise enhances self-esteem if it is given before other people. Sometimes it can be put in writing so the paraprofessional can take it home to show family and friends" (Browne, 1972, p. 14). The use of positive reinforcement will create a feeling of confidence for the aide and helps to insure that the praised behaviors will be repeated in the future.

Often, when two adults work in close proximity, problems arise. Browley (1981) identified six areas that can be the cause of conflicts between members of a team:

1. Philosophical differences
2. Personality conflicts
3. Communication breakdown
4. Lack of planning time
5. Disagreement over assignments
6. Student behavior problems

When conflicts such as these do arise, it is necessary to sit down and identify the problem and work together to resolve it. Often, just stating the problem openly is enough to dissipate it. At other times it is simply a matter of making sure the aide knows what is expected. Frequently, solutions can be worked out without going to the school administrator.

If an aide works with more than one teacher, then all of these teachers need to meet to provide feedback for administrative consideration on the performance of the aide when it is time for the annual evaluation.

Providing Staff Development

York (1971) identified a key issue when she said, "It is

a rare teacher, indeed, who possesses naturally the knowledge and skills required to make team teaching goals a reality" (p. iii). Therefore, staff development needs to be provided for teachers on effective methods to utilize aides in the classroom. Whenever possible, it is best for both members of the team to attend the staff development sessions so cooperative behaviors can be learned.

Staff development for both teachers and aides that stresses a team approach to instruction would serve to enhance the effectiveness of the reading aide and provide a more positive learning environment for the students. With time, effort, open communication, and appropriate staff development, two adults in the classroom can form an emotional support base for each other as well as for the students. And it is the students who benefit most from an effective teacher/aide team.

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SSR: ITS EFFECTS ON STUDENTS' READING HABITS AFTER THEY COMPLETE THE PROGRAM

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An important objective of any reading program should be to establish the habit of recreational reading in children. To accomplish this, programs such as Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) have been implemented in many classrooms.

Research on SSR has been conducted to show its effects on both achievement and attitude. While several short term studies (Evans & Towner, 1975; Vacca, 1977) showed no gains in achievement, studies conducted over a six month period (Pfau, 1966; Langford, 1978; Milton, 1982; Wiesendanger, 1982) found that students involved in SSR made significant improvement in both word recognition and comprehension, indicating that such gains are realized after the program has been in operation several months.

Likewise, students' attitudes toward reading improved when enrolled in an SSR program. Cline (1980), Pfau (1966) and Hanson (1973) all reported that SSR contributed significantly toward fostering a more positive attitude in children. Although these studies contributed to a greater understanding of SSR, they all measured its effects on attitude and habits of students while they were still involved in the SSR program. For a program to be truly effective, improved reading habits should remain after its termination; however, no research has been conducted in this area.

The present study tried to ascertain what happened after the termination of SSR. Upon completing the program, would students previously enrolled in SSR continue to have better reading habits than those who had not been exposed

to SSR?

A second area of concern was whether the reading ability of the students influenced the effectiveness that SSR had in changing reading habits. Do students of high, middle or low ability reading levels receive the same benefits from SSR, or are its effects greater with one particular group?

Procedure

We decided to monitor the summer reading habits of both children who had, as well as those who had not been exposed to SSR during the previous school year. Included were four heterogeneously grouped classrooms of students who had completed third grade, two of which had SSR incorporated into their reading program. Prior to the third grade, none were involved in SSR.

A simple form was developed so students could record on a weekly basis the number of minutes they read each day during the summer. Each student was given nine forms. Letters explaining the forms, along with follow-up phone calls were sent to parents requesting their participation. In order to more closely monitor progress, they were asked to complete and return one form in the self-addressed stamped envelope every week for a total of nine weeks. Phone calls were made when reminders were necessary. Of the 93 students originally asked to participate, 54 returned the survey for at least eight weeks. We separated the returned responses according to whether or not the student had participated in the SSR program. Of the 54 returned, 25 had participated in an SSR program while 29 had been enrolled in a traditional reading program that did not include SSR.

The second question of the study was answered by dividing the responses into above average, average, or below average categories, based on stanine results from the recently administered California Tests of Basic Skills. Of the 25 SSR students, eleven ranked in the above average, nine in the average and five in the below average categories. Of the 29 students not enrolled in SSR, nine were above average, ten were average and ten were below average. We then compared the summer reading habits of these various groups.

Results and Conclusions

Results of the survey showed students who had partici-

pated during the academic year in a reading program that incorporated SSR read considerably more during the following summer than did those students who had not been part of the SSR program. The average number of minutes read per week over the summer for the SSR group was 90, as compared to 76 minutes per week for the other group. This implies that if teachers help children develop the habit of reading, it is sustained for a period of time, even after they leave the grade. The study emphasizes the importance of incorporating SSR into the primary grade because its benefits remain after the completion of the program.

Above Average Readers

Since the second area of focus was to determine if reading level influenced the effects of SSR, we compared the summer reading habits of students in the above average, average, and below average range to determine if SSR had more impact on any particular group. Overall, the above average students read far more during the summer than did those in the middle or low reading groups. The number of minutes read weekly by the above average group was 137 as compared to 90 for the average and 22 for the below average readers. This supports the premise that the more students read, the better readers they become.

Interestingly enough, the amount of time read by the above average groups was not affected by the SSR program. Above average readers who had been involved with SSR read a total of 140 minutes per week while their counterparts not involved with SSR read a total of 135 minutes. Perhaps SSR had a lesser impact because they had already developed positive reading attitudes and habits. Proficient readers probably came from families who promoted literature or had a teacher in a previous grade who had encouraged recreational reading.

Average

SSR had the greatest effect on the average group. Those who had participated in the SSR program during the academic year averaged, during the summer, a total of 110 minutes per week reading as compared to only 70 minutes for those students who had not been involved in SSR. This indicates that teachers can substantially increase the interest and amount of reading done by the student in the middle

ability group by using effective classroom techniques. It appears more crucial to incorporate SSR into the reading program for these students, because, unlike those in the above average group, they have not fully developed an interest in recreational reading. Since SSR seemed so instrumental in creating this interest, its implementation may make a major contribution toward their improved reading habits.

Below Average

Students in this group read substantially less in the summer than did those in the other two groups regardless of whether or not they had participated in SSR during the academic year. The average amount of recreational reading done weekly was 22 minutes, substantiating the thesis that children who can't read, don't read. SSR had least impact on low ability students. Those who were involved in SSR during the academic year read 21 minutes weekly as compared to 23 minutes for those not involved in SSR. Because students in the above average reading group read substantially during the summer, there would be different reasons for the minimal impact of SSR on the high and low ability groups. If we consider the fact that the students had only completed the third grade and the instructional reading level of the below average group was lower, the below average students would not have attained a proficiency level that would allow for much independent reading. They would have been hampered by the amount of manageable reading material available. If the survey had been conducted on older students, the effect of SSR on the lower ability student may have been more evident.

Summary

The results of this survey indicate that SSR can affect the reading habits of students even after they have completed the program. SSR had the greatest positive effect on students of average reading ability. Excellent readers have already established positive reading habits. These children find time to read regardless of the program. Below average readers were least affected by SSR, which indicates the need to develop motivational techniques that would encourage recreational reading. Teachers should give particular thought to the poorer reader by supplying reading material at their

independent reading level. More time may need to be spent on word identification instruction with this group before the benefits of SSR are realized.

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A SURVEY OF DIAGNOSTIC/CORRECTIVE READING INSTRUCTION AND PRACTICES IN RELATION TO THE INTERACTIVE READING PROCESS

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Over the past four decades the reading disability model that has dominated reading research and practice has been "within the reader" model (Lipson & Wixson, 1986). The model conceptualizes the source of reading disability as residing "within" individual readers (Monroe, 1932) and caused by a combination of non-medical deficit factors associated with the reader (Robinson, 1946). Over the years, the model itself has taken several forms (e.g., development, subskill, information processing); however, a common principle has remained consistent which is the search for causal factors of reading disability that reside within the reader.

A less influential model, the "outside the reader" model, was also conceptualized over forty years ago. Here, the source of reading disability was viewed as residing within pedagogy (Gray, 1922) and described reading behavior as variable under different circumstances (Judd, 1918; Judd & Buswell, 1922). For example, Gray's (1941/84) review of research conducted between the late teens and early twenties indicated that purpose, text difficulty, student interests and motivation, and reader's prior knowledge were critical to understanding text. Three factors were identified that appeared to influence comprehension: 1) factors inherent in the reader, 2) factors regarding pedagogy, and 3) factors inherent in the text material. Historically this model has been largely ignored; however, research on the model has proven influential in current thinking about reading.

Based on the work of Rumelhart (1977), reading is

currently characterized as an interactive process. The resulting "interactive model" is conceptualized as the interaction of many factors during the reader's print processing, all of which influence comprehension. Research related to the model has indicated a variability among readers' comprehension that is due to the interaction of factors such as: reader's background knowledge, motivation, interest, text structure, task expectations, and flexibility (Anderson & Pearson, 1984; Meyer & Rice, 1984; Wigfield & Asher, 1984; Anderson & Pichert, 1978; Spiro, 1980; Campione & Brown, 1985). As a result, the reader is viewed as an active participant who constructs text meaning.

Current reading literature clearly suggests support for the interactive model. For example, the increasing number of interactive based methodological descriptions and professional papers indicate growing interest in and anticipated value of the model. Yet, within the literature there exist few descriptions of the model's application to diagnosis and correction situations. The void is described by Valencia and Pearson (1986): "Reading assessment has not kept pace with advances in reading theory, research, or practice. On the one hand we argue vehemently for richer and more liberating instructional materials and practices . . . On the other hand, we stand idly by and observe yet another round of standardized or end-of-unit basal texts" (p. 726). Clearly, the view of reading as an interactive process must be included in the diagnostic/corrective area. However, innovation must begin with an examination of existing practice. Currently, practice is heavily grounded in the within-the-reader model and is exemplified by traditional assessment procedures and mastery learning pedagogy (Valencia & Pearson, 1987). This article will present information gathered from reading faculty in teacher training institutions and inservice teachers regarding currently taught or practiced diagnostic and corrective procedures.

To gather this information, a survey was conducted which examined current diagnostic/corrective practices and explored areas of needed change. Also included were perceived areas of weakness in current practices.

The Survey

Two questionnaires were developed for use during this

survey. One questionnaire (A) presented items relative to persons who taught diagnosis and correction of reading disabilities courses. The second questionnaire (B) presented items relative to classroom teachers' and reading teachers' diagnosis and correction practices. Questionnaire A posed the following questions:

- 1) What diagnostic procedures do you currently teach?
- 2) What corrective procedures do you currently teach?

Questionnaire B posed the following questions:

- 1) What diagnostic procedures do you currently use?
- 2) What diagnostic procedures do you not know how to use but would find helpful?
- 3) What corrective procedures do you currently teach?
- 4) What corrective procedures do you not know how to teach but would find helpful?
- 5) What factors put the greatest limitations on your diagnostic/corrective practices?

Questionnaire A was sent to university faculty who taught analysis and correction of reading disability courses at the graduate or undergraduate level. Appropriate faculty were identified from Graduate Programs and Faculty in Reading (1981) and were located throughout the United States. Originally 35 questionnaires were mailed along with a self-addressed stamped envelope. At the end of one month, follow-up cards were mailed to those faculty who had not responded. Seventeen university faculty returned the survey instrument.

Questionnaire B was sent to 70 classroom and reading teachers in 3 mid-sized, midwestern public school districts. Teachers were randomly selected from school district personnel directories and had received training from various teacher training institutions located throughout the United States. Originally, 70 questionnaires were mailed along with a stamped return envelope. Again at the end of one month, follow-up cards were mailed. Forty-five teachers returned the survey instrument.

All classrooms and reading teacher respondents taught in elementary schools. Of the group, 40% had taught less than ten years and 60% had taught eleven or more years. Eighty percent had Masters Degrees and fifty percent had

never taken a diagnosis and correction of reading disabilities course.

Analysis of Responses

Analysis of the survey instruments included identifying thought units (Bales, 1957) and organizing categories which emerged from the thought units (Glasser & Strauss, 1967). Thought units were defined as "the smallest discriminable segment of [written] behavior . . . to which the observer . . . can assign a classification . . ." Data analysis involved four steps. First, two raters independently identified thought units. Second, thought units were organized into categories which emerged from the data. Third, thought units and categories were reviewed and agreement reached regarding the classification of thought unit content under category domains. Fourth, the frequency that thought units occurred was recorded. This procedure was followed for the analysis of both questionnaires. In all, 504 thought units were identified.

Results

In order to more clearly present similarities and differences between the two groups' responses, parallel items for each questionnaire are presented successively.

Questionnaire A, item 1 asked university faculty to identify diagnostic procedures currently taught in reading analysis and correction courses. Results indicated that diagnostic, specific-skills, and testing procedures were taught. The diagnostic procedures category included 16 thought units related to student interest, strengths and weaknesses, attitude, and interviews. The specific-skills category included 14 thought units related to identification of student weaknesses in identified comprehension, word recognition, and study skills areas. The testing procedures category included 23 thought units related to informal measures (i.e. IRI, writing samples) and formal measures (i.e. standardized reading tests).

Questionnaire B, item 1 asked inservice teachers to identify diagnostic procedures currently used to diagnose students' reading difficulties. Results indicated that reading tests and teacher judgment were used. The reading tests category included 72 thought units related to informal

measures (i.e. IRI, miscue analysis, cloze procedures) and formal measures (i.e. standardized and basal reader tests). The teacher judgment category included 98 thought units related to teacher observation, oral reading behavior and writing behavior.

Questionnaire A, item 2 asked university faculty to identify corrective procedures currently taught in reading analysis and correction courses. Results indicated that prescriptive, specific-skills, and integrated approaches were taught. The prescriptive approach category included 7 thought units related to individual plans for instruction and one-to-one tutoring sessions. The specific-skills category included 13 thought units related to providing remediation for comprehension, word recognition, readiness, and oral reading skill deficiencies. The integrated approach category included 19 thought units related to student background information (i.e. prediction-verification strategies, webbing, sorting reciprocal questioning) and developing reading fluency (i.e. reader's theater, story telling, repeated reading).

Questionnaire B, item 2 asked inservice teachers to identify corrective procedures currently used to correct students' reading difficulties. Results indicated that instructional practices and teacher practices were used. The instructional practices category included 25 thought units related to using supplemental basal materials, using whole language strategies, and sending students to reading specialists for instruction. The teacher practices category included 10 thought units related to establishing flexible groups, encouraging students, spending extra instructional time, and increasing student's self concept.

The remaining two questions were included only on Questionnaire B. The questions sought to explore inservice teachers' perceptions regarding their own instructional weaknesses and limitations. The results of each question are followed by several respondents' comments which serve to further illustrate perceived weaknesses and limitations.

Item 3 asked inservice teachers to identify diagnostic procedures that they did not know how to use but would find helpful for working with students who have reading difficulties. Results indicated that specific assessment procedures and current information would be helpful. The as-

assessment category included 32 thought units related to administering the IRI, miscue analysis, and writing analysis were needed. The current information category included 32 thought units related to needing to know new diagnostic trends and procedures.

Sample comments by inservice teachers

--I'm not sure what you mean by writing analysis. I do have my children do a lot of writing and then have them read their own work. I find they read this better than some other material.

--I'm always looking for any procedure that will be useful. What I think would be helpful is the use of diagnostic procedures and time management--how can one incorporate these things into the classroom--using your time usefully and benefit all students.

--There may be a new trend that I am not aware of and that would be it. My biggest complaint is that no one ever taught me how to teach reading, set up classes, materials, interest areas, hands on exposure. Theory is not really helpful when you have to be responsible for reading.

Item 4 asked inservice teachers to identify corrective procedures they did not know how to teach but would find helpful. Results indicated a need for more information and approaches. The information category included 33 thought units related to how to correct language disabilities, teaching exceptional students, and more information about corrective strategies in general. The materials and approaches category included 15 thought units related to approaches for beginning readers and older students, adapting approaches, computerized strategies, literature based approaches, and phonic and vocabulary approaches.

Sample inservice teacher comments

--Teachers need more help designing corrective activities for particular student needs. They (teachers) still rely heavily on workbooks and worksheets to remediate skill deficiencies.

--I was never taught what to do about these errors--just how to identify them and what they are.

--I was taught that first graders are not yet at the remedial stage. Now that I have to teach them, I need more help with corrective procedures for beginning reading. Scheduling does not permit a one-to-one approach.

--I myself have learned the corrective procedures I teach my students after I started teaching. I learned from fellow teachers, professional journals, and articles. I feel this is an area that teacher education needs to improve.

--I think our training is somewhat weak. It's a difficult thing to do.

--This is an area I would like more education. I am not sure what kind of corrective procedures to use.

Item 5 asked inservice teachers to identify the factors which put the greatest limitations on their diagnostic/corrective practices. Results indicated that environmental constraints were the greatest limiting factor. Within the category, 104 thought units related to time, curriculum requirements, teacher/pupil ratio, appropriate testing materials, lack of cooperation among faculty and administration, and lack of procedures.

Sample comments of teachers

--Time has to be the greatest limitation. The typical full-time remedial reading teacher has a schedule of ten 30-minute class periods with 3-4 minutes passing time between each. They serve about 60 students and have assigned duties in recess or lunchroom monitoring. They do not have a planning time of more than 30-40 minutes. However, teachers rarely spend eight hours on the job as other working people do. They complain about having to take work home, but they leave school at 3:00 or 3:30. The profession needs to take a serious look at the amount of time spent at the workplace in alleviating the excuse of not having enough time to conduct appropriate practices.

--Time and courses that teach how to teach! It is easy to grasp diagnostic procedures, they tend to be black or white (concrete). I have found most courses cover diagnosis, but give very little feedback on how to teach to the areas of difficulties. I have attended classes and workshops that spend a lot of time on what is wrong and give one or two examples as to what to do. I'd like some "MEAT"

to work with rather than theory.

Discussion

Diagnostic/corrective courses and practices identified from this survey focus primarily upon identifying and remediating deficit reading skills within the reader. Both surveys indicated use of informal and standardized assessment and corrective measures consistent with identifying patterns of error. Traditionally, these practices isolate reading skills into discrete units and create an unnatural environment for the reader. Inservice teachers identified observation as a frequently used diagnostic procedure, but reading faculty did not include observation as a coursework component. Reading faculty identified some interactive procedures as coursework components which inservice teachers did not include in practice descriptions. Conjectures regarding these results are that assessment instruments and instructional materials which reflect the interactive reading process are not readily available and that diagnostic/corrective practices are consistent with the increasing number of competency based curriculums. Both conjectures suggest that theory and research have moved beyond classroom reality and that a major effort must be made to instigate reform.

Reform must necessarily involve collaboration among universities, state education departments, public schools, and publishing companies. Such a reform effort will necessarily require increased communication, rethinking ideals and values, revising the content of diagnosis/corrective coursework, inservice programs for practicing teachers, and funding. It will be a shift in direction that cannot be accomplished in a short time nor by one faction. However, to not engage in the necessary reform action will only contribute to practices that are inconsistent with knowledge of the reading process.

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ENCOURAGING READING/WRITING LITERACY WITH YOUNG CHILDREN IN THE HOME

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How can parents encourage attaining skills in literacy in the young children in their homes? Here are ten practical suggestions and literature sources for parents to use with their children.

1. Create a "reading and writing corner" in your children's room. Stock it with pencils, pens, magic markers, chalk, chalkboards, paper pieces of posterboard, erasers, and most importantly, BOOKS! Children can experiment with reading, coloring, drawing, scribbling, forming letters, words, sentences, letters, diaries, and stories. Suggested literature sources to create motivation are:

Cheng, Hou-tien, Scissor Cutting for Beginners. NY: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1978.

Farjeon, Eleanor. The Little Bookroom. NY: Henry Z. Walck, Inc., 1956.

Gibbons, Gail. Paper, Paper Everywhere. NY: Harper and Row Publ., Inc. 1983.

Testa, Fulvio. If You Take a Percil. NY: Dial Press, 1982.

2. Develop sight word vocabulary through the creation of a PICTODICTIONARY. Let your children design a picture for each letter of the alphabet and write its meaning underneath the illustration. Staple the pages together and title it. (Child's name)'s Pictodictionary. If your children are too young to caption the pictures, write it for them. Have your children identify and talk about the pictures with you. Nancy Willard's book titled Simple Pictures are Best (1977) is highly recommended. It is illustrated by Tomie de Pacla and published by Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., New

York. Also, read a variety of alphabet books to stimulate interest; for example:

Balian, Lorna. Humbug Potion: An A-B-Cipher. Illus. by author. Nashville, Tenn.: Abingdon Press, 1984.

Elting, Mary, and Michael Folsom. Q Is For Duck: An Alphabet Guessing Game. Illus. by Jack Kent. NY: Clarion Books, 1980.

Hyman, Trina Schart. A Little Alphabet. Illus. by author. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1980.

Isadora, Rachel. City Seen from A to Z. Illus. by author. NY: Greenwillow Books, 1983.

Kitchen, Bert. Animal Alphabet. New York: Dial Press, 1984.

Lalicki, Barbara. If There Were Dreams to Sell. Illus. by Margot Tomes. NY: Lothrop Lee and Shepard Books, 1984.

Lobel, Arnold. On Market Street. Illus. by Arita Lobel. NY: Greenwillow Books, 1981.

Matthiesen, Thomas. ABC: An Alphabet Book. NY: Grosset & Dunlop, Inc., 1981.

Stevenson, James. Grandpa's Great City Tour: An Alphabet Book. Illus. by author. NY: Greenwillow Books, 1983.

Watson, Clyde. Applebet: An ABC. Illus. by Wendy Watson. NY: Farrar, Straus & Girous, Inc., 1982.

3. Take your children to Story Hour in the library. Read Anne Rockwell's book I Like the Library (1977) published by E. P. Dutton & Co., New York, to develop curiosity. Have them choose books to be read aloud at home during bedtime story hour. Suggested "bedtime stories" are:

Brown, Margaret W. A Child's Good Night Book. Illus. by Jean Charlot. NY: Albert Whitman, Co., 1943.

Good Night Moon. Illus. by Clement Hurd. NY: Harper, Row, Publishers, Inc., 1947

Herman, Charlotte. My Mother Didn't Kiss Me Good-Night. Illus. by Bruce Degan. NY: Dutton Co., 1980.

Mayer, Mercer. There's a Nightmare in My Closet. Illus. by author. NY: Dial Press, 1968.

Rice, Eve. Goodnight, Goodnight. Illus. by author. NY: Greenwillow Books, 1980.

4. Locate wordless textbooks in the library. They are

picture books without captions. Let the children become storytellers. Have them look at the illustrations in the story and interpret them in their own words. Use a cassette recorder to tape their stories or write them on a piece of paper. Here are several examples:

Briggs, Raymond. The Snowman. NY: Random House, 1978.

Crews, Donald. Truck. NY: Greenwillow Books, 1980.

de Paola, Tomie. Pancakes for Breakfast. Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1978.

Mayer, Mercer. Ah-Choo! Dial Press, 1976.

A Boy, A Dog, A Frog. Dial Press, 1967.

Frog Goes to Dinner. Dial Press, 1974.

Frog on His Own. Dial Press, 1973.

Frog, Where Are You? Dial Press, 1969.

The Great Cat Chase. Four Winds Press, 1974.

One Frog to Many Dial Press, 1975.

Two Moral Tales. Four Winds Press, 1974.

Two More Moral Tales. Four Winds Press, 1974.

Ormerod, Jan. Sunshine. NY: Puffin Books, 1983.

Spier, Peter. Peter Spier's Christmas. NY: Doubleday and Co., 1982.

Peter Spier's Rain. Doubleday & Co., 1982.

Young, Ed. Up a Tree. Harper, Row, Inc., 1983.

5. As an alternative to wordless textbooks, have your children create stories based upon their own experiences. Let them dictate their stories into a cassette recorder. Write out your children's stories on pieces of construction paper. Have them draw pictures to accompany the stories. Let them read their creations aloud to other family members.
6. Stimulate your children's imagination through questions. Develop and ask "What if . . . ?" or "Would you...?" questions with them. Let them answer each question in a sentence with a reason. For example, "What if you were as fast as a jet?" or "would you like to be as hard as a rock?" "Why or why not?" Encourage

them to describe what they would see, feel, hear, smell, and taste. Recommended books are:

Klein, Lenore. What Would You Do If.....? Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1961.

Zolotow, Charlotte. Do You Know What I'll Do? NY: Harper, Row, Publ., 1951.

7. Develop the basic skill of sequencing with your children. Have them put in correct order their normal daily activities. Ask them: "What did you do first, get out of bed or eat breakfast?" After shopping, taking a family trip, baking, or doing other family activities, have the children recall the steps in the order in which they occurred. For example, "What did we do first?" "Then what did we do?" As an alternative, have your children help you cook. Ask them "What did we put into the bowl first, flour or milk?" "Then what did we do?" Use recipe books to get your children involved, such as:

Moore, Eva. The Great Banana Cookbook for Boys and Girls. Illus. by Susan Russo. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin, Co., 1983.

The Seabury Cookbook for Boys and Girls Illus. by Talivaldia Stubia. NY: Seabury Press, Inc., 1971.

8. Save magazines. Cut the magazine pages apart. Have your children paste their favorite illustrations to a piece of construction or posterboard paper. Let them identify and label each person, place, or thing which appears on that page. For example, a child can label the parts of a tree: roots, trunk, bark, limbs, branches, and leaves. Read Clyde Bulla's book A Tree Is a Plant (1960) to stimulate interest. It is a Harper, Row book illustrated by Lois Lignell.
9. Collect and save the food section of the newspaper. Have your children cut out the food items. Give them categories such as meat, fruit, and vegetable, and let them sort the pictures into the correct category. Have them paste each category and sorted pictures into a scrapbook. Before you take your children to the supermarket, read the following books:

Catling, Patrick. The Chocolate Touch. NY: Bantam Books, 1981.

Devlin, W. & Devlin, H. Cranberry Thanksgiving. NY: Four Winds Press, 1971.

Hutchins, Pat. Don't Forget the Bacon. NY: Puffin Books, 1978.

McCloskey, Robert. Blueberries for Sal. NY: Viking Press, 1948.

Oxenbury, Helen. Shopping Trip. NY: Dial Press, 1982.

Rockwell, A. & Rockwell, H. The Supermarket. NY: Macmillan, Inc., 1979.

Sendak, Maurice. Chicken Soup with Rice. NY: Harper, Row, Inc., 1962.

10. Create an art center in the basement, garage, or kitchen area of your home. Place paint, crayons, felt-tip markers, play dough, paintbrushes, and other supplies in an "art box." Let the children feel free to create murals or other pieces of art. Display their creations in the house and let them talk to you about their artistic works. Good books for creating are:

Emberley, Ed. Ed Emberley's Drawing Book: Make a World. Boston MA: Little Brown & Co., 1972

Hoban, Tana. Shapes and Things. NY: Macmillan Publishing Co., 1970.

Rockwell, Harlow. I Did It. NY: Macmillan Publishing Co., 1970.

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The ten suggestions and literature sources can be effective tools for developing reading readiness with children. They can be easily implemented within the home to encourage behaviors leading to literacy.

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NEWSLETTERS FOR PARENTS

News for Parents from IRA is published three times a year by International Reading Association members. It contains a practical list of suggestions for motivating children to read and a recommended booklist. Write to the IRA, 800 Barksdale Rd., P. O. Box 8139, Newark, Delaware, 19711.

Parents' Choice is published four times a year. It reviews media-movies, games, records, toys, television, story records, and books. Write to Parents' Choice Foundation, Parents' Choice, P. O. Box 185, Waban, Mass. 02168

Why Children's Books? is published quarterly and gives parents sources relating to selecting and sharing books with children. Write to The Horn Book, Inc., Park Square Bldg., Boston, Mass. 02116

LEAFLETS AND BROCHURES

Choosing a Child's Book contains criteria for selecting books for children of various age levels, booklists, and periodical listings. Write to The Children's Book Council, 67 Irving Place, New York, NY 10003. Enclose a self-addressed stamped envelope.

The International Reading Association produces a series of pamphlets which are available for a small cost. The titles include: Why Read Aloud to Children?, What Books and Records Should I Get for My Preschooler?, What is Reading Readiness?, How Can I Help My Child Get Ready to Read?, How Can I Encourage My Primary Grade Child to Read? and others. Write to the International Reading Association, 800 Barksdale Road, P. O. Box 8139, Newark, Delaware. 19711.



TEACHING READING IN THE CONTENT AREAS: A FRAMEWORK FOR INCREASING LEARNING

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Participants in inservice courses may not be the most enthusiastic students since they are often enrolled to meet a school district requirement. If, indeed, the prerequisite for enrollment in such a course were previous methods courses in reading, the number of enrollees would be quite limited. Content teachers simply may not have had the desirable background methods courses in reading during their undergraduate training in the content fields (Morrison and Austin, 1977) to aid them in acquiring the essential behaviors necessary to teach students how to use effective strategies for understanding text.

The ramifications of this limitation are more serious for some inservice teachers than others. Some teachers seem to realize intuitively that effective reading skills are critical to students' success in content subjects while others do not indicate such knowledge. Those who realize this need to hone their skills to facilitate meeting student needs.

Shannon (1984) describes the desirable teaching behaviors for the content area classroom teacher as:

1. Sensitivity to the readability of materials;
2. Preparation for reading;
3. The use of reading in the content areas;
4. Outside reading (supplementary reading);
5. Knowledge of principles of reading in the content areas (p. 129).

It should be noted that each of these behaviors should be included as components of theory and practice in reading methods courses. However, one course in the teaching of reading in the content areas is generally insufficient to train preservice teachers in effective reading instruction.

Educators Askov and Dupuis (1979) suggest that content area teachers who may be well-versed in their subject areas frequently experience difficulty individualizing instruction and facilitating direct instruction of reading skills essential to effective comprehension of text. There is evidence that direct instruction enhances learning and is effective (Hansen and Pearson, 1983; Raphael and McKinney, 1983; Raphael and Pearson, 1982; Reis and Spekman, 1983; Tharp, 1982). A body of teacher effectiveness research confirms that students learn when they are taught under the directiveness of the teacher (Bauman, 1984; Blair, 1984).

Phelps (1984) states that content area teachers readily accept the functional value of strategies and resources presented to them in such a course as described in this article and are quite willing to try new ideas with guidance. Most authorities agree that the difficulties that students experience in content subjects are usually due to limited reading skills. Current research on teaching indicates that effective teachers must be able to explain and model the skills and strategies that they want students to be able to demonstrate (Spring, 1985). In addition, content area teachers must develop the necessary background knowledge to facilitate modeling for students the processes involved in comprehension tasks.

This article describes four guidelines which have been found effective in helping content area teachers to develop the necessary skills to enhance learning in the content areas. The instructional practices cited are characteristic of those used by effective teachers and recommended by researchers. The steps include: 1) Needs assessment; 2) focusing on strengths; 3) organizing for the learning tasks, and 4) modeling how to teach concepts and strategies for learning in the content areas.

Step one: Needs Assessment

The prior knowledge, needs, and experiences brought to the situation by each participant determine in large measure what will be learned from the course experiences. Therefore, it is essential to conduct a needs assessment during the initial session to determine entry level needs and understandings. Each participant is given a 3 X 5 card to provide 1) the present teaching responsibility; 2) purpose for course enrollment; 3) prior experiences and training in reading,

and 4) expected outcomes. Once the needs assessment has been completed and the information analyzed, the course plan is modified to meet participant needs and focus on strengths. During the fourth session a second 3 X 5 card is given to the participants. They are requested to identify any areas of need which are not being met at that time and are not included in the course outline.

Step two: Focusing On Strengths

It can generally be assumed that content teachers are proficient in the subject matter of their fields. They understand the special vocabulary, student knowledge, and concepts needed to make learning meaningful to students. An extensive body of research supports focusing on the strengths of learners and building new competencies on prior knowledge (Pearson and Johnson, 1978). Time is spent prior to each class activity taking up concepts and vocabulary, and relating them to the content fields of the participants. These introductory activities are critical since they establish connections between the known and the unknown as well as the purpose for the class activities.

Step three: Organizing for the Learning Tasks

The classroom organization for learning focuses on active participation of the students in the learning process. Several instructional strategies are modeled by the instructor with emphasis on decreasing classroom management problems and increasing the probability of student learning. Lectures are presented on topics focusing on strategies for helping students learn how to learn from text, effective instructional strategies and the instructional environment. Participants work in small groups to develop questions about the lectures or to determine topics for which they would like additional information. Strategy presentations by the instructor focus on understanding reading as an interactive process and effective ways to enhance comprehension skills. Each participant is required to research one instructional strategy meant to enhance comprehension of text materials for presentation to the class. Each small group is required to research one relevant topic and make a group presentation of the findings to the class. Forty-five minutes is provided during each class period for group work. In addition, a variety of current journals, films, and filmstrips are made available in the classroom by the instructor. These materials are available

for in-class use only. A schedule is developed with the instructor for individual and group presentations to the class.

Step four: Modeling Strategies for Teaching and Learning

The instructor has the responsibility for creating the learning environment and facilitating instructional activities designed to teach students concepts and skills. Modeling the teaching of concepts and skills is an effective strategy for demonstrating how to provide definitions and examples of the use of concepts and skills being taught. Such a program can be enhanced by modeling effective strategies for teaching higher order thinking to aid students in effectively processing information.

One teaching strategy to help students understand text is modeled by the instructor during each class session (Appendix A). A point is made to emphasize that each strategy can be adapted for use in most content areas to improve the probability of student learning. A one page summary is provided each participant for each instructional strategy demonstrated throughout the course either by the instructor or the participants. Each summary includes:

1. Content or skill area
2. Objective(s) for the learners
3. Guiding principles
4. Procedures for instruction in sequentially numbered steps
5. Suggestions for variations (if any).

Conclusions

It is important that teachers learn how to learn and in the process learn to provide more effectively for meeting the needs of the students they teach. It is equally important that teachers and learners have available numerous strategies which can be selected for use as the situation demands (Moore, Readence, and Rickelman, 1982). The four guidelines discussed provide participants with an effective learning environment, teaching strategies for active learning, and opportunities to demonstrate skills learned. Utilized effectively, the probability of student learning will be increased through effective instruction.

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APPENDIX A

Sample Lesson Employing Direct Instruction

Note: In direct instruction the teacher shows, models, demonstrates, teaches the skill to be learned (Baumann, 1984). The teacher is the key person in the lesson and provides all of the information, examples, illustrations as opposed to having the learners actively involved in the learning process.

Anticipatory Set: Children learn to speak by first saying words, then phrases followed by sentences. In similar order, the reader must learn to detect the difference between questions which can be answered directly from text (text explicit) - information is found in the text; questions for which answers can be inferred from the text (text implicit) - information in the text can be used to draw an inference, and questions which must be answered from background knowledge (schema implicit). What we will learn to do today is to examine questions developed from a selection and determine which of the three types of information is required to answer the questions.

Direct Instruction:

Follow along with me and read the selection silently as I read it aloud. We will read the selection on the transparency then classify the questions that follow as text explicit, text implicit or schema implicit.

Example:

Testing can be carried out more quickly yet equally accurately if computers are used to present adaptive tests. In this adaptive feature, the response to one question--right or wrong--would determine the difficulty level of the next item presented. That is, the computer would present an easier item if the test taker had just erred, or give a more difficult one if the preceding answer had been correct (Journal of Reading, 29. 88).

What are adaptive tests?

What occurs if the test taker makes an error?

What feature has increased the accuracy of computerized tests?

Can the adaptive feature be used for tests in all subject areas?

Now read the first question and tell me if the answer is

included in the text (text explicit); inferred from information in the text (text implicit), or derived from prior experiences or information (schema implicit). (Student response.) "The answer to this question is schema based. Prior knowledge about adaptive tests is necessary to answer the question." Very good. (Instructor writes schema based in parentheses at the end of the question.) Let's examine the second question to determine the type of information needed to answer it. (Student response.) "The next item presented by the computer is an easier one. The answer is found in the text and is, therefore, text explicit." (Instructor writes text explicit at the end of the question.) Who can help us with the type of information needed to answer the third question? (Student response.) "The answer is text implicit. It is not stated directly, but can be inferred from available information." Yest, that is correct. (Instructor writes text implicit at the end of the question.) Now let's look at the last question. Can the adaptive feature be used for tests in all subject areas? (Student response.) "The answer to this question is also text implicit. One can infer from the word tests in the text that the adaptive feature may be used for different types of tests." Very good. You have demonstrated that you understand the difference among text explicit, text implicit, and schema implicit information. (Instructor writes text implicit at the end of the last question.)

Teacher-Directed Guided Practice:

I have a selection which we will complete together. (Instructor distributes copies of the activity.) Read the directions silently as I read them aloud. Read the selection. Then read the questions which follow. At the end of each question write either text explicit, text implicit, or schema implicit to indicate the type of information needed to answer each question. (Students complete the exercise.) Who can tell us what type of question the first question is? (Student response.) "Schema implicit." Very good. Now, let's answer question two. (Student response.) "Text implicit." Yes, you understand how to determine the different types of questions. It is extremely important to develop more questions that are schema implicit and text implicit that the text implicit type. (Students and instructor proceed to complete the remaining questions.)

Independent Practice

The final activity for this lesson is the independent completion of a similar activity. (Instructor distributes copies of the activity.) It is necessary that students are able to function effectively with these skills before they can effectively read the lines, read between the lines, and read beyond the lines.

Note: Students receive an outline of the steps in the procedure and copies of the exercises used in the lesson.

APPENDIX B - Strategy Outline

Title

I. Content/Skill Area

II. Objectives

- A.
- B.

III. Procedures for instruction

- A.
- B.
- C.
- D.
- E.

IV. Suggested Variations (if any)



KINDERGARTEN: MAGIC MOMENTS

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When a five-year-old enters the classroom for the first time, expectations of his parents and teachers are high, but still higher are the expectations of the child. S/he has heard of this magical day from the time words were understandable. However, the dreams and magical moments are quickly dispelled when s/he finds that s/he cannot conform to the demands of a regimented curriculum. S/he looks around the room at other children who seem to be laughing and doing their activities with ease. Most of them are drawing compliments on their neat work. But no matter how hard s/he tries, the work always seemed to be messy, and even s/he is not pleased with the results.

The small child who walked in with head held high now shuffles out with a dejected backward glance, for this child feels s/he cannot compete. School is not fun--it is exhausting when you are expected to do things you cannot. One may withdraw or may lash out angrily at one's more competent peers (Hammond, 1986). S/he certainly lets everyone know that s/he does not want to be in school. A failure is in the making.

Marie Clay (1979) says, "New entrants differ more, one from another, than at any other time in the next few years. This is because, in their preschool years, they have had very different kinds of experiences; whereas, in school they have many shared opportunities to learn." Although we know that children differ from each other in ways that affect how they learn and what they learn, these differences are not recognized often enough in kindergarten and elementary curricula. While the field of early education has given a great deal of thought to the importance of individual

differences, education policy has not demonstrated this awareness. We continue to operate under the antiquated system that assigns young children to school classes on the basis on their birth date alone. If they do not fit into the kindergarten class, it must be because they are failures or learning disabled. A marginal case, we assume, will eventually catch up; years and years of frustration and failure will have little or no effect.

Immaturity in kindergarten follows the child throughout subsequent school years. Frustration is a constant companion and low self-esteem becomes a personality trait. The child is classified by teachers as low achiever, and if s/he is lucky, is left alone in his/her misery. There is some possibility that some concerned teacher will refer the child to special education testing. S/he is then labeled, and the child's parents and teachers will expect less. Unfortunately, such a child will also be given less and receive less than s/he is truly capable of handling. Desire to learn and to achieve is now beaten down and ceases to exist. The child considers herself/himself a failure, a misfit--the real problem is a lack of maturity, not a lack of ability.

This scenario is repeated every day in schools across the United States, and will continue as long as we assign children to classes on the basis of their birth date alone. The Gesell Institute has indicated that many school difficulties, diagnosed as emotional disturbances, learning disabilities, under-achievement, or even minimal brain damage are the results of efforts by educators to force children to perform at levels for which they are not developmentally ready (Levenson, 1977). Studies have shown that approximately one-third of all chronologically five-year-old children are "Ready," for school, one-third is only marginally "Ready," and another one-third is "Not Ready" (Hammond, 1986). Research further tells us that the majority of these "Not Ready" children are boys, boys who do not develop the small motor skills as early as girls, boys with shorter attention spans. These boys are just too busy throwing the ball or swinging on the gym bars to bother with the fine-tuned motor skills needed for writing or coloring, activities practiced in the classroom. "Practically all hyperactive children are boys" (Williams, 1987). Boys need the freedom to expend aggression, to be visual, hands-on learners, yet the classroom requires an attentive audience, one that will sit quietly and listen.

Before assuming that boys are the most damaged by over-placement, by what some have called the "Birth Date Effect" (Di Pasquale, Moule, and Flewelling, 1980), consider a study of youth suicides by Uphoff and Gilmore (1986). This study showed that while 45 percent of the male youth suicides were summer birth-date children, the figure rose to 83 percent for the female youth suicides who were summer birthdate children. This is truly shocking and bears further consideration.

A number of alternatives have been proposed and tried in an attempt to solve the problem of the "Not Ready" child. First, the birthdate cutoff can be pushed back from December to September or even earlier. After all, the age requirement was set early in this century, not because it was deemed the most educationally appropriate, but because it was the most convenient means of assigning children to suitable learning groups (Connell, 1987). This was necessary when floods of immigrant children began coming to America and schools needed to start their educational program. However, this pushback of the birthdate cutoff has only pushed back the problem, and it conflicts with the commitment many public schools have made to earlier and earlier intervention in the education of disadvantaged children.

A second alternative would be to use a developmental screening process to determine a child's readiness for school. There are a number of tests available and in use, such as the Gesell Developmental Evaluation, the Boehm Test of Basic Concepts, or the Metropolitan Readiness Test (Meisels, 1985). Some of these tests, however, are of dubious validity, and all of them would take a lot of time, money, equipment, and trained personnel, all of which are in short supply in most school systems.

A third alternative is to assign the "Not Ready" children to a developmental or transitional class. This is often perceived, however, as retaining the children, only under another name. And retaining children, or grade repetition, has proven to have only mixed, unpredictable results. While researchers believe that results can be positive, grade repetition can be damaging to a child's self-esteem and confidence. It can have a traumatic effect on both child and parents. The parental attitude is crucial to the results of grade repetition.

The parental role is instrumental in yet another alternative, that of holding out their own "Not Ready" child for another year. Many parents do not have the training or knowledge to make this kind of decision a reliable alternative. Most parents are more concerned with seeing their child outfitted with new school clothes and enrolled in the best kindergarten class than in mental and emotional readiness factors. They leave that to the experts, not because they do not care, but because they trust the "experts" more than themselves.

Another alternative is found in the example set in the British Infant Schools and in the New Zealand schools. In these systems, all children enter into a non-graded class where they remain until they demonstrate an ability to pass on to the next level. In New Zealand, the children enter on the day of their fifth birthday. So, while entrance is determined by chronological age, progress is determined by achievement. John Goodlad has written a variation of this in his book, In a Place Called School (1984). He suggests admitting four-year-olds to an ungraded primary school, where the children would be moved from individual activities to parallel group activities and thence to true collaboration, picking up academic, physical, and social skills along the way. From there, the children would enter a four-year non-graded elementary school where they would concentrate on the application of the skills, including social skills. This alternative does depend on having teachers of equal caliber, since students will be under one teacher's influence for more than one year.

Accelerated academics in the early years has been a growing practice in the past thirty years, and it does generally go against what is known about developmental and learning theory. A final alternative is to push the academic curriculum back to the upper grades, and reduce the pressure on the younger children (Cornell, 1987; May and Welch, 1984; Upfoff and Gilmore, 1986). Young children do not need to be sitting quietly in their seats, doing a lot of paper and pencil tasks. They need to be moving and manipulating, experimenting and experiencing. The curriculum needs to be child-centered and process oriented, not task-oriented. Goodlad (1984) believes that schools must be understood as "little Villages" rather than factories, and

that it is the schools themselves, not school systems or our blueprints for schools, that must be investigated.

It is this last alternative which seems to offer the most hope for our young children, our "Not Ready" students. It continues to encourage early intervention, it accepts children at their own developmental level, it allows children to progress at their own pace. It probably would not cost any more than current expenses; if anything, perhaps even less, if the need for remedial education were to drop.

The answer to declining SAT scores is not to increase the pressure on our young children, to "hurry" them through school, to cram their heads full of facts and information. This has been tried and the results have only increased our failures. Let us remediate not the child but our concept of what is best for the child. Let us really go back to the basics, begin at the beginning, with our kindergarten children. Let us keep the magic alive for all of our children past that first day of school.

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VOCABULARY ON THE PLAYGROUND

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Can you recall those feelings you had when you first participated in double-dutch jump rope? As both ropes were being turned, they whipped through the air and made a loud crack each time they beat the ground with a quick, steady rhythm. You might even recall waiting anxiously, your apprehension increasing, before you summoned up enough courage to rush into the twirling blur of ropes. Or you might still clearly recollect those feelings of pride and exhilaration that you had the day on the playground when you were cheered and applauded by your classmates after you stretched to catch the ball that seemed uncatchable. It was the last out so your team won the game.

The first hand experiences shared on the playground provide teachers with numerous opportunities to expand their students' vocabularies. The action in different physical education activities, a description of that action, and the emotions that emerge during and after the activity can be used to generate vocabulary lessons that provide students with a level of awareness for the meaning of the word that isn't provided with dictionary definitions or descriptions by the teacher. The purpose of this article is to give a brief overview of the vocabulary instruction research, delineate vocabulary instructional guidelines based on the research, recommend procedures to follow when using physical education activities for teaching vocabulary, and suggest words that are logically associated with specific physical education activities.

Vocabulary Research

Stahl's (1986) thorough review of research on vocabulary instruction to determine its effect on learning word meanings and on improving comprehension revealed that vocabulary

instruction did have a positive effect on comprehension, particularly passages containing words that had been taught. Stahl surmised that the effectiveness of vocabulary instruction on improving comprehension of passages not containing the words taught might have been due to students' increased interest in learning new words. Vocabulary instruction also improved students' knowledge of word meanings. Not all vocabulary instruction was effective. Methods that gave only dictionary-type definitions for the target vocabulary, methods that gave only one or two exposures of meaningful information about each word, and methods that used only drill and practice with multiple repetitions of the same type of information about each new word did not help comprehension. Mezynski (1983) concluded that vocabulary instruction methods that provided a "breadth of knowledge" about each target word resulted in improved comprehension.

Stahl (1986) proposed that some words are more "definable" than others. With these more definable words, definitional approaches may be effectively used. However, there is general agreement that words representing one's feelings are usually more difficult for students to learn because of the difficulty in conveying a clear meaning; e.g., courage is defined in the dictionary as "the ability to face danger without fear." (Webster's II, 1984) This definition fails to capture the true essence of courage. As one experiences an act of courage and describes the feelings that emerge, it will be revealed that an element of fear was present and that courage involves being able to act even with the presence of fear and danger.

Guidelines for Vocabulary Instruction

The following vocabulary instruction guidelines are based on vocabulary instruction research:

1. Group the words to be learned into semantic categories. Such groupings help students build relationships among the words.
 2. Provide a breadth of experiences with new words, such as first hand experiences, discussions, categorizing, dramatic presentations, games, predictions, writing.
 3. Give students an opportunity to manipulate words in a variety of ways in order to insure a clearer understanding of the words.
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4. Provide for systematic review of vocabulary.
5. Make word learning interesting and enjoyable.
6. Assess informally the vocabulary needs of students on a continuing basis.
7. Create frequent opportunities for students to use new vocabulary.

Teaching Vocabulary with Physical Education Activities

Several procedures may be used when developing vocabulary using physical education activities. Two procedures are described in this article:

Procedure one. 1) Put the words to be learned on the board and either give the meaning of the new word (if you are sure students have no idea of the meaning) or ask students to predict the meaning of each new word. 2) Record the predictions on the board. 3) Inform students that one the playground as they participate in (name the activity) they will get a clearer understanding of the words, because they will be involved in the actions, view the actions and/or have feelings that the words represent. 5) Accompany students to the playground to engage in the planned activity. During participation, use the new vocabulary when opportunities arise. These words may be included as part of specific praise statements, e.g., "You are showing a lot of courage by going quickly into the double-dutch jump ropes," or "Joe, you certainly eluded the ball well in that game." 6) When the students return to the classroom, review the words and the predicted meanings. Ask if they want to change any of the meanings or add to any of the meanings. Elicit examples of their first-hand experiences with the vocabulary, e.g., "As you were jumping double-dutch, when did you move swiftly? What happened that caused you to feel exhilarated? Jeremiah, when did your agile movement prove most helpful in today's game? 7) Elicit from students appropriate category groupings for the new vocabulary. 8) With successive physical education experiences including other activities, review the words in previous lessons by discussing how those words relate to the vocabulary included in the current lesson. Another method is to ask students to identify examples of when the action on the playground or players' feelings exemplified one of the previously learned vocabulary words.

Procedure two. 1) First, take students to the playground to participate in a physical education activity. 2) After returning to the classroom, ask the students to think of words that are related to the (name of the activity). While recording these on the board in a word web, discuss the way they are related to the activity. For clarification of the meanings of some words, remind students of a specific event on the playground that could have generated a certain feeling, a movement that was made in a particular instance, or a description of an action that was used in a contest, e.g., "I noticed that some of you hesitated a few moments before you stepped quickly and competently into the turning ropes. You might have been reluctant at first because you were afraid you would get hit by one of the quick-moving ropes." When words to be learned are not identified by the students, suggest them and give examples of their use on the playground, e.g., "Some of you seemed apprehensive as we began square-dancing for the first time today; however, by the end of class you all seemed to be in a jovial mood. 3) Ask students to identify category groupings for the words in the word web. Discuss the reasons for placing the words in the particular groups that are suggested. Include the new words in the groups as well. 4) Review the new vocabulary with successive games and follow-up discussions. 5) Use a bulletin board display which may be entitled, "The Games We Play and the Words We Learn," to provide further exposure to the new words.

In order for the target words to become a part of the students' writing vocabulary, direct students to write a descriptive or imaginative account of their feelings and the action they were involved in while participating in the physical education activity. Encourage the use of the new vocabulary by giving extra points for each new word that is included. The discussion about the events of the physical education activity provide excellent prewriting activity for this assignment.

The procedures described for developing vocabulary by using students' physical education experiences follow many of the guidelines identified through research for effective vocabulary instruction. The semantic grouping of words into actions and the descriptions of actions and feelings helps students see the relationships among the words as well as

the relationship to the physical education activity. Relationships among the words are also built by presenting a group of words, many of which are synonyms or antonyms, related to a particular game. As suggested by Mezynski (1983), students are given a "breadth of knowledge" about the target words; first hand experience with the game, discussion, prediction, categorizing, and writing. Certainly, vocabulary development is made interesting, enjoyable, memorable through the use of physical education activities.

Vocabulary for Physical Education Activities

Following the REFERENCES, we offer some examples of vocabulary that may be taught with the given physical education activities. Other words may be included with these games or additional physical education activities.

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	Jump rope	Dodgeball	Square Dance	Softball	Relays	Tumbling	Newcombe Ball	Imaginative Dance	Track	Soccer
amaze	+					+	+			
amble			+		+					
anguish		+		+	+	+			+	+
annoyance		+		+	+		+			+
anticipate	+	+		+	+		+		+	+
anxious	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
assign			+		+				+	
astonish	+	+		+		+		+	+	+
athletic	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
attempt	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
attend	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
avoid		+								+
aware	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
awkward			+			+		+		
balance						+		+	+	
bewilder	+	+								+
boldly	+	+		+		+		+	+	+
brave	+					+				+
cautiously	+	+				+		+		
cheerfully			+					+		
concede				+	+		+			+
consistently	+			+			+		+	+
contribute				+	+		+		+	+
cooperate			+	+	+		+		+	+
cope	+			+	+	+			+	
courage	+					+			+	+
courteous			+		+			+		
cover				+			+			+
dash				+	+				+	
defend				+			+		+	+
defensive				+			+		+	+
deprive				+			+			+
dispatch		+		+						+
dive				+		+	+			+
dodge	+	+								+
dominate				+	+		+		+	+
dynamic					+	+		+	+	
eagerly	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
embarrass	+		+	+				+		
endure	+	+			+				+	+
energetic	+		+			+		+		+

	Jumprope W	Dodgeball W	Square Dance W	Softball W	Relays W	Tumbling W	Newcombe Ball W	Imaginative Dance W	Track W	Soccer W
enthusiastic	+			+						+
escape	+	+		+						+
escort			+					+		+
exceptional		+				+			+	
excitedly		+			+			+		+
execute	+			+		+			+	+
exhaust	+	+						+	+	+
exert				+	+				+	+
explode					+				+	+
fake		+					+		+	+
fast	+			+	+		+	+	+	+
fatigued		+						+	+	+
fearful	+	+		+				+	+	+
fitness	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
forceful		+			+		+	+	+	+
formidable	+				+			+	+	+
frolic			+					+		
frustration	+	+		+	+	+	+		+	+
gaily			+					+		
gently				+	+			+		+
gesture			+					+		
graceful	+		+			+		+	+	
gracious					+			+		
gradually					+	+			+	
grandly			+					+		
grasp	+		+	+	+		+		+	
halt	+	+	+					+		+
handoff	+				+				+	
happily			+			+		+		
helpless					+	+		+		
heroic	+	+		+	+		+		+	+
holler		+	+		+				+	
hurdle							+		+	
impatient	+			+	+					+
impossible	+	+		+					+	+
inescapable		+								
injure	+	+		+	+	+			+	+
intense					+				+	+
joyously	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
kindness		+		+	+	+	+	+	+	+
leapt		+			+	+		+	+	

	Jumprope	Dodgeball	Square Dance	Softball	Relays	Tumbling	Newcombe Ball	Imaginative Dance	Track	Soccer
lively		+	+			+		+		
loft		+		+			+			+
loss				+	+		+		+	+
merrily			+			+		+		
momentum				+		+			+	+
nervously	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
oppose				+	+		+			+
overwhelm		+		+		+	+		+	+
overtake		+		+		+	+		+	+
painful		+		+	+	+			+	+
pant	+				+				+	+
participate	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
perfect	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
persistence	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
precarious		+				+			+	+
precise		+		+			+			+
pursue		+			+				+	+
rough		+								+
scamper		+		+	+			+		+
scramble		+				+				+
serve							+			
skillful	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
skip	+				+	+		+		
smoothly	+			+	+			+	+	
snatch				+	+			+		
sneak		+		+				+		+
softly						+		+		
spontaneously	+							+		
spring						+		+	+	
strut			+					+		
stumble	+				+			+	+	
swiftly		+			+				+	+
swing	+		+	+				+		
tricky		+					+			+
twist	+	+				+				



COMPREHENDING AND USING TEXT IDEAS: THE ORDER OF PROCESSING AS AFFECTED BY READER BACKGROUND AND STYLE

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The kind of reading typically demanded in content classrooms can be viewed as consisting of two major components: the comprehension of a text and the use of those comprehended ideas for such content-related thinking tasks as comparing, evaluating, problem-solving, speculating, and so on (Peters, 1982; Steinley, 1983, 1986). This study is about the order of processing between those two components. In dichotomous terms, that order could be more linear or more parallel. That is, a reader could read a given text in more of a linear fashion, first attending to comprehending the text and then to using those ideas for some thinking task. Or the processing could be more parallel with the reader alternating between comprehending and the thinking task, shifting attention from one component to the other while reading. This study explores two variables which would tend to predict either linear or parallel reading.

Bertram Bruce (1985), offering a "Second Phase" to P. David Pearson's description of the "Comprehension Revolution," suggests that the relationship between comprehension and more general thinking skills may be a natural and necessary area of future study. Previous studies and model-building have focused on the order of processing between decoding and comprehending (e.g., LaBerge & Samuels, 1974; Samuels, 1976; Gough, 1983) or between the components of the comprehending process (e.g., Kintsch & van Dijk, 1978; Ruddell & Speaker, 1985); however the order of processing between comprehension and more general thinking tasks is relatively unexplored. This study expands order of processing models by considering two variables which could affect order in a particular reading task. Specifically, two

research questions are addressed:

- (1) Does the extent of a reader's background affect the order of processing between the two processes of comprehending a text and using text ideas for a thinking task?
- (2) Does the typical processing style of a reader affect the order of processing between these two components?

A host of studies has established that a reader's previous knowledge or background affects the processes and products of comprehension (e.g., Bransford & Johnson, 1972; Pichert & Anderson, 1976); and many studies have demonstrated that cognitive processing styles can also influence comprehension (Spiro, 1979; Dunn, Bruce, Gould & Jay, 1981).

Method

Subjects

Data were gathered from 75 students in four undergraduate content area reading classes the second day of class over two consecutive semesters. Subjects were randomly assigned to one of two groups based on the text they were going to read. Although three of the subjects were graduate students, the rest were either juniors or first semester seniors from the content areas of math, English, art, music, the sciences and social sciences, foreign languages, home economics, and agriculture. They all, as a prerequisite to being in the class, had an overall college GPA of 2.5 or better and had met competency requirements in math, reading, language use, and speech.

Design and Materials

The experiment was structured about the two components of skilled reading discussed above--comprehending and using text ideas for a thinking task. Students read a text about a word game for the dual purposes of comprehension and comparing/contrasting (the thinking task for this experiment) that word game with another word game. The basic purpose was to measure the extent to which the dependent variable of order was more linear or parallel as affected by the independent variables of reader background and style. Each of these independent variables, background

and style, had two levels described respectively as "limited" or "extensive" background and "linear" or "parallel" processing style. This 2X2 design resulted in four groups: limited/linear (n=20), limited/parallel (n=17), extensive/linear (n=12), and extensive/parallel (n=26).

The first independent variable, reader background, was operationalized through the random assignment of subjects, 1) to read about a word game for which they had limited background or 2) to read about one for which they had extensive background. The topic of word games, favoring no particular college major, was chosen as a partial control against the varied backgrounds of the subjects. Moreover, that topic provided a means for controlling the amount (limited or extensive) of background the subjects would have available for reading the text. A preliminary survey conducted the semester before revealed that all students in my content reading classes had heard of and played two of the word games, Crossword Puzzles and Word Search (though under different titles); only two students had heard of (and one had played) Doublets. (In Doublets players begin with two unrelated words, such as dog and cat, and they attempt to link these by interposing other words of the same length and differing from the previous in one letter only.)

Thus a one-page text about Word Search was chosen as the comparison text; a similar text about Crossword Puzzles was chosen for the Extensive background group (n=38); and a third similar text about Doublets was the text for the Limited group (n=37). The three texts were written for this experiment. Other text factors which might affect order of processing--such as length, coherence, conformity to a text grammar, and so on--were controlled by creating texts which basically differed only on the game being written about. Each of the three texts contained six paragraphs, 15 sentences, and approximately 300 words. Each followed a common format that included by paragraph: (1) brief history of game; (2) overview of game and playing procedure, (3) example of the procedure accompanied by a visual, (4) extended example and another visual or visuals, (5) goals of the game including scoring, and (6) (except on Word Search) scoring example.

The second independent variable, reader style, was established through subjects' responses to a "Processing

Style Inventory" which was administered during the course of the experiment. This inventory directed students to classify themselves as either linear processors or parallel processors; and their responses resulted in two groups, linear ($n=32$) and parallel ($n=43$). The linear processors claimed that they typically read in more of a "step-at-a-time" order, typically focusing first on comprehending a text then attending to the thinking tasks for which they were reading. The parallel processors claimed they were typically "do-two-things-at-once" readers who, when reading for some thinking task, tended to switch back and forth (between comprehending and the thinking task) while reading.

The dependent variable, order of processing, was measured by a second constructed instrument, the "Process Summary Sheet." Subjects first read and discussed the comparison text about Word Search, then they received instructions to read the target text--either Crossword Puzzles or Doublets--and compare/contrast that word game with the game of Word Search. When they felt they had completed the two tasks, they completed the following "Process Summary Sheet." (Directions were to mark the one which best described how they accomplished the task. On the originals, the open spaces below included the name of the appropriate word game):

1. I only focused on comprehending the text about _____.
I don't remember doing any comparing and/or contrasting with Word Search.
2. I first focused on reading and comprehending the whole text about _____. Then, when I was done with that, I went back and began comparing and/or contrasting with Word Search.
3. I remember switching back and forth while I was reading. I would read and comprehend part of the text about _____. Then I would do some comparing and/or contrasting with Word Search. Then I would read and comprehend some more, then do more comparing and/or contrasting, and so on until I finally finished.
4. I don't remember thinking about comprehending the text about _____. I only remember comparing and/or contrasting _____ with Word Search.

The "Process Summary Sheet" served as a means for quantifying the self-reports of readers. The four responses

represent a continuum from linear to parallel processing with #1 indicative of remembering only attention to comprehension, #2 indicative of remembering attending first to comprehension and then to the thinking task, #3 indicative of remembering switching between comprehension and the thinking task, and #4 indicative of remembering total attention to the thinking task. When the four possible responses are dichotomized, #1 and #2 indicate linear processing--#2 because it matches the definition, #1 because it suggests a reader who, in effect, never "got to" the second component of using. Similarly #3 and #4 indicate parallel processing --#3 because it matches the definition and #4 because it suggests a reader who, although only remembering the component of using, logically had to allot some cognitive time to comprehension so that there would be information to use for the thinking task.

Procedures

1. Students read the Word Search text. A brief discussion followed to assure familiarity with the game, then the text was returned to the front of the room.
 2. Based on the Random assignment, some received a packet containing the Doublets text; others received one with the Crossword Puzzles text. Other than these target texts, the packets contained exactly the same directions and measures.
 3. Following directions which were both printed and read aloud, the students then read the target text with the instructions to comprehend the text and compare and/or contrast that word game (either Doublets or Crossword Puzzle) with the game of Word Search which they had read about and discussed earlier.
 4. Once students felt they had completed the above task (comprehend and compare/contrast), they were instructed to go to the next page, the "Process Summary Sheet," and mark the choice which best described how they accomplished the task.
 5. Following their completion of this form, they were instructed to turn it over and not refer to it again. Then a brief lecture about two kinds of processors was delivered. The lecture reflected the content and format of the next page, the "Processing Style Inventory," which they completed after the brief lecture. It was
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emphasized in the lecture that whereas the first form they completed was a self-report of their particular reading behavior for that specific situations, the second form would be a self-report on their general reading style. The emphasis was an attempt to attenuate the carry-over effects of the first form on to the second.

6. One they had completed this page, the experiment was over, and all materials were collected.

Results

From an informal analysis of descriptive data, the two research questions can be answered positively. The background and style of the reader, as operationally defined, did effect the order of processing as measured by the "Process Summary Sheet." The four responses on the "Process Summary Sheet," it will be remembered, represent a 1-4 movement from linear to parallel processing. Limited background (the Doublets group) resulted in a lower mean score ($\bar{X} = 2.0$) on the "Process Summary Sheet" than did extensive background (Crossword Puzzle, $\bar{X} = 2.57$). In other words, those with a limited background tended to read in more of a linear fashion than those with an extensive background. The percentage distribution of these scores (Figure 1) shows that the limited background scores tended toward the #1 rating on the "Process Summary Sheet" while the extensive background scores tended toward the #4 rating. Similarly, those who classified themselves as linear processor had a lower mean score ($\bar{X} = 1.87$) than those who chose the parallel processor category ($\bar{X} = 2.60$). Their percentages were likewise distributed to support those directions (Figure 2, both Figures shown on the next two pages.) The observations were reinforced by chi-square test of the response distribution among the four groups: limited/linear, limited/parallel, extensive/linear, and extensive/parallel. The obtained chi-square = 3.87, df = 1, was significant at the .05 level.

In short, when readers had limited background, they tended to read in more of a linear fashion. When they had extensive background, their reading was more parallel. Similarly, readers who classified themselves as linear processors tended to read that way; those who classified themselves as parallel tended to read that way.

Figure 1. Effects of reader background: comparison of reader background (limited vs extensive) with reported order on a given task.

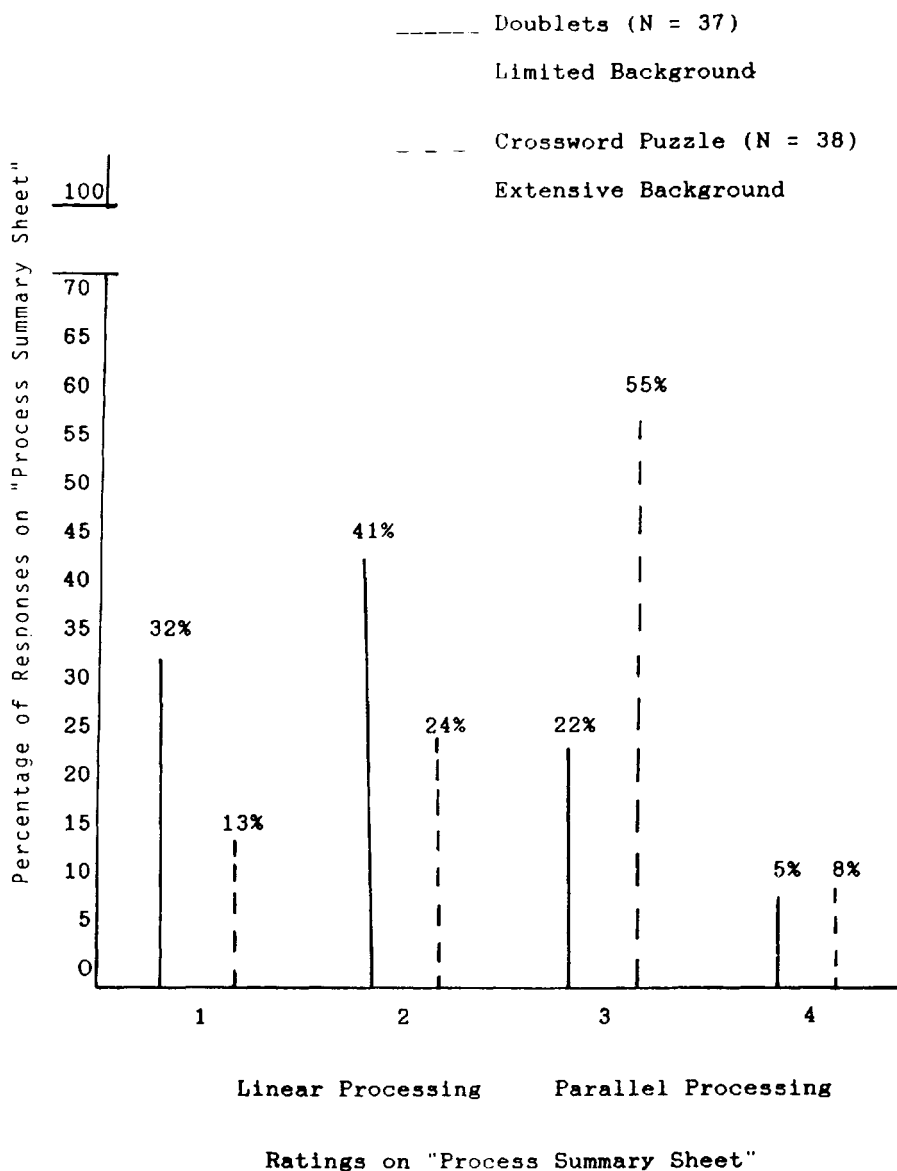
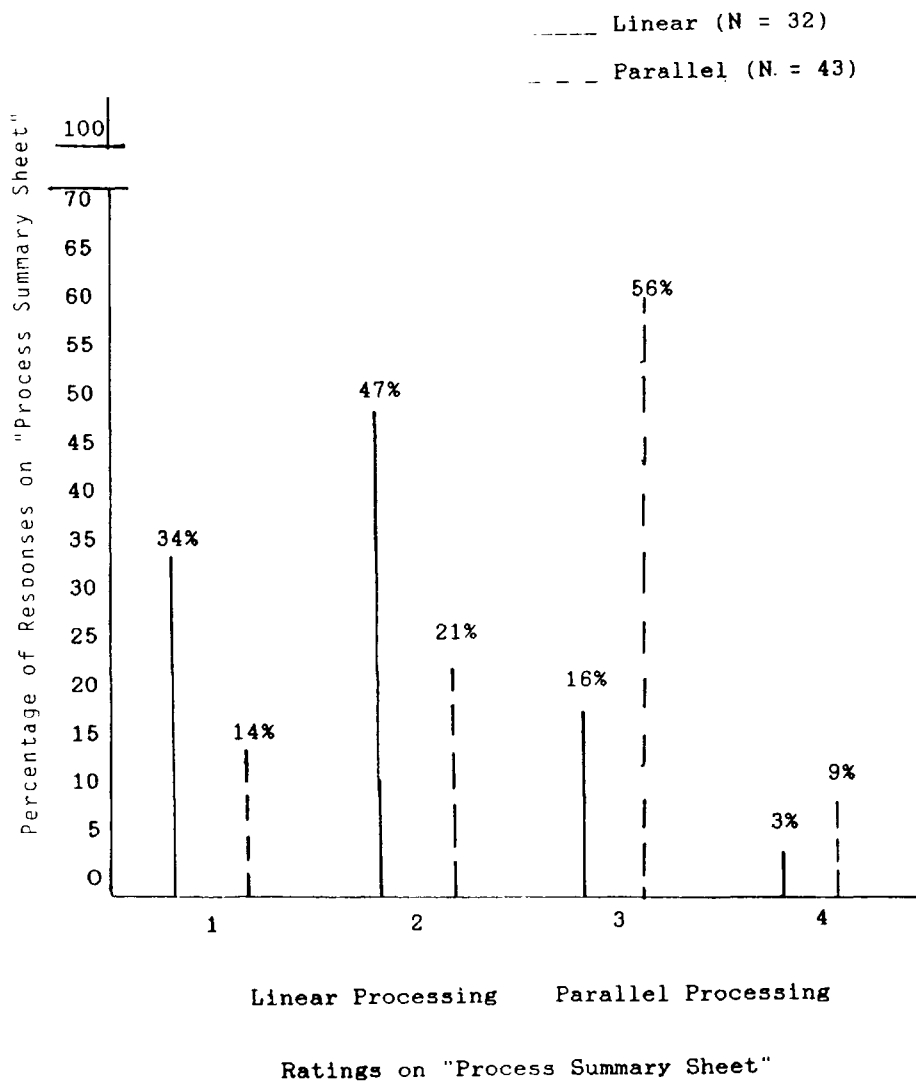


Figure 2. Effects of reader style: comparison of typical processing style (linear vs parallel) with reported order on a given task.



Discussion

The results of this exploratory study support the view that the background and style of the reader do affect the order of processing between the comprehending and using of text ideas for a thinking task. Further research is needed to develop more valid measures of processing style (the "Processing Style Inventory") and the actual processing of a text (the "Process Summary Sheet"). A second limitation has to do with the external validity of the results. Reading in the "real world," even that limited world of schools and universities, contains a wide variety of persons reading a wide variety of texts for a wide variety of thinking tasks. Future studies along these lines must be aimed at better addressing that complexity.

Future studies about these relationships should be conducted from the assumption that the comprehending and using of text ideas for thinking tasks are two related but different processes. If, as Bertram Bruce suggests, future directions should include studying the relationships between comprehension and more general thinking skills, then little is gained by grouping these two components under the rubric of comprehension. From early years on, teachers expect both comprehending and using text ideas from their students, and they commit much time to helping students improve their abilities to do both. Research focusing on the order-relationship between these two components, as well as other relationships that define their dynamics, should eventually contribute to these teaching efforts.

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BOOK REVIEW

English Day-by-Day, Michael Roddy, published by Academic Therapy Publications.

(Editor's Note--To check out this new ESL book, we asked an ESL teacher to use the book and react in writing. The following is by Judy Sims, Kalamazoo Public Schools, Adult Education, English as a Second Language.)

This multi-purpose text stresses language skills in the context of real life situations. It is written on the level of adults who need to learn more about the language and life in th United States. Its units are divided into various aspects of daily routines and normal tasks.

A major strength of the book is the vocabulary section which begins each unit. Comprehensive and contemporary in word choice, the sections generated a lot of good conversations and discussions. I found the students particularly interested in the vocabulary lists.

The conversation sections are possibly the weakest parts. Students found the dialogues too difficult and involved to be effective. However, Mr. Roddy does pose some good questions at the end which generate stimulating discussions in class.

The grammar in this book begins at a very basic and simple level, and did not seem to coincide with the degree of English needed for the vocabulary, dialogue, and reading sections. The students who tried this felt it was too simple. However, the grammar can be used as a good review. In subsequent units, the grammar becomes progressively more sophisticated. All of the examples and exercises pertain to the unit's theme, thus reinforcing the vocabulary and subject areas as well as the grammar points.

The pronunciation exercises are especially useful. Problem areas in pronunciation are addressed and good contrasts are offered.

The life skills section presents just what it says--practical, real life skills, e.g., reading labels, classified ads, utility bills, locating phone numbers, reading and analyzing bills and advertisements.

This is a practical book, covering all the needed areas.

