



Reading Horizons: A Journal of Literacy and Language Arts

Volume 27
Issue 1 *October 1986*

Article 11

10-1986

Reading Horizons vol. 27, no. 1

Follow this and additional works at: https://scholarworks.wmich.edu/reading_horizons

 Part of the Education Commons

Recommended Citation

(1986). Reading Horizons vol. 27, no. 1. *Reading Horizons: A Journal of Literacy and Language Arts*, 27 (1). Retrieved from https://scholarworks.wmich.edu/reading_horizons/vol27/iss1/11

This Complete Issue is brought to you for free and open access by the Special Education and Literacy Studies at ScholarWorks at WMU. It has been accepted for inclusion in Reading Horizons: A Journal of Literacy and Language Arts by an authorized editor of ScholarWorks at WMU. For more information, please contact wmu-scholarworks@wmich.edu.

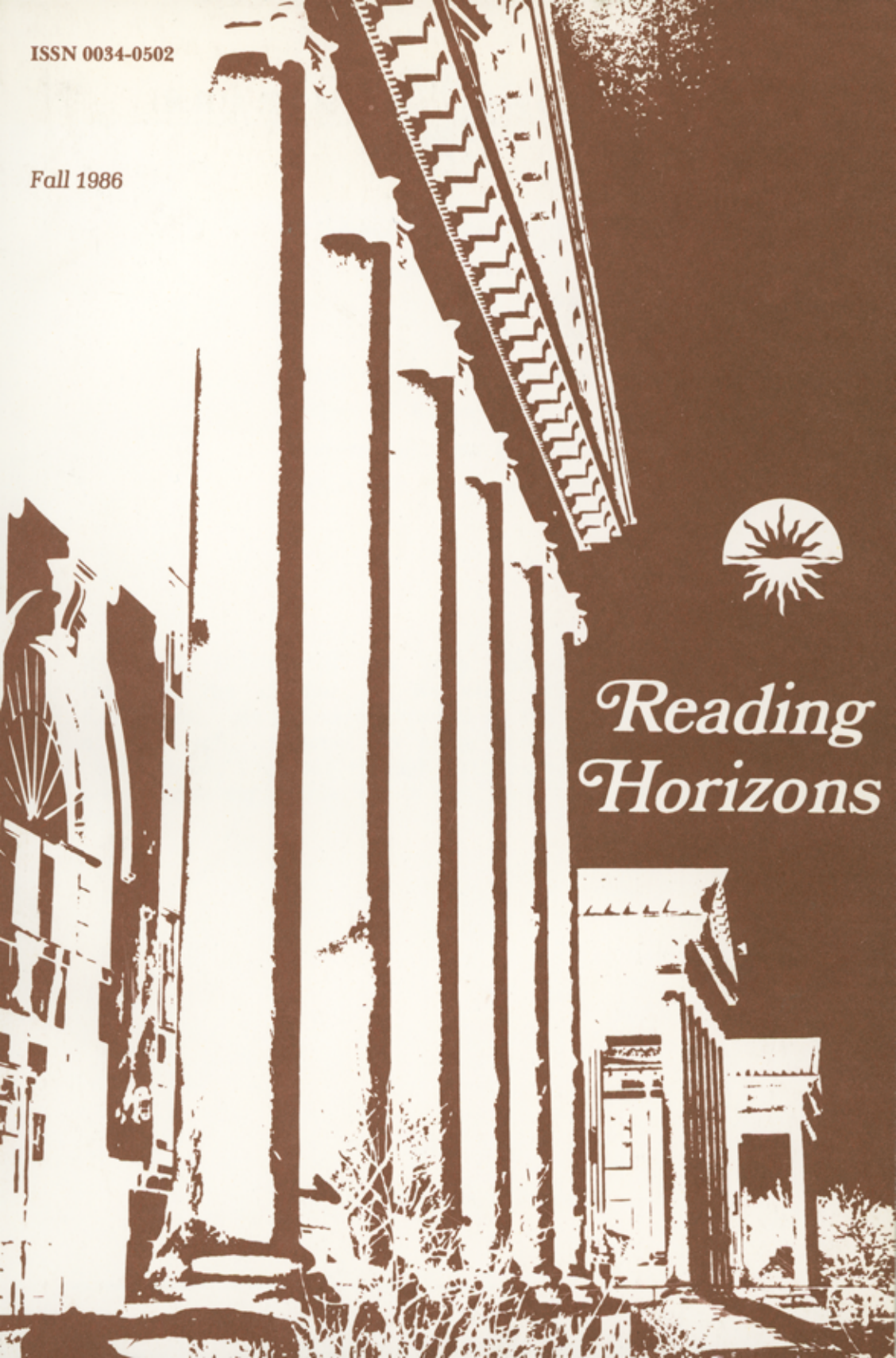


ISSN 0034-0502

Fall 1986



Reading Horizons





Volume 27, Number 1

October, 1986

Editor - Ken VanderMeulen

College of Education

Western Michigan University

Kalamazoo, Michigan 49008

READING HORIZONS has been published quarterly since 1960, on the campus of Western Michigan University in Kalamazoo. As a journal devoted to the teaching of reading at all levels, it seeks to bring concerned and interested professionals together through articles and reports of ideas and developments relating to the ever widening horizons of reading.

Copyright 1986

Western Michigan University

READING
HORIZONS

READING HORIZONS (ISSN 0034-0502) is published quarterly by the College of Education at Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo, Michigan. Second Class Postage is paid at Kalamazoo. Postmaster: Send address changes to WMU, READING HORIZONS, Kalamazoo, Michigan, 49008.

TO
SUBSCRIBE

Subscriptions are available at \$12.00 per year for individuals, \$14.00 for institutions. Checks must be made payable to READING HORIZONS, published October, January, April, and July, No. 4 issue containing Title and Author Index. Rates are determined by printing costs and are subject to change.

TO
SUBMIT
AN
ARTICLE

Manuscripts submitted for publication should include the original and two copies, and must be accompanied by postage for return of original if not accepted. Manuscripts are evaluated without author identity. Address correspondence to READING HORIZONS, WMU, Kalamazoo, MI, 49008.

BACK
COPIES

Microfilm copies are available at University Microfilm International, 300 Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, MI, 48108. Back issues, while available, may be purchased from HORIZONS at \$3.00 per copy.

JOURNAL
POLICY

All authors whose articles are accepted for publication in HORIZONS must be subscribers at the time of publication of their articles. The content and points of view expressed in this journal are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the opinions of the HORIZONS Advisory Board.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Reading Research: Some Comments Richard D. Robinson, Univ. Missouri-Columbia	7
Long-Term Effects of Clinical Intervention: An In-Depth Study Barbara J. Rennie, Carl Braun, and Christine J. Gordon, University of Calgary, Alberta	12
Reading Teachers Are Asked "What is Relevant in the Classroom?" Donna Jamar and Leo W. Pauls, Emporia State University, Emporia, Kansas	19
Linguistic Development of Children and the Syntax of Basals David L. Brown and L. D. Briggs, East Texas State University, Commerce, Texas	26
Using Direct Instruction in a College Skills Course Audrey S. Heinrichs and Linda Lehnert, Widener University, Chester, Pennsylvania	32
Good Readers and Their Reading Strategies Mary Jane Gray, Loyola Univ. of Chicago Marion Henneberry, Flossmoor Elem., IL	38
Analysis of Able and Disabled Sixth-Grade Readers' Knowledge of Story Structure: A Comparison Evelyn L. Krein, North Ridgeville, Ohio Jane Ann Zaharias, Cleveland State Univ.	45
Teaching Young Remedial Readers to Generate Questions As They Read Victoria J. Risko and Naomi Feldman Peabody College of Vanderbilt Univ.	54
Using the Word Processor to Clarify Textual Phrasing Rona F. Flippo, Univ. of Wisconsin-Parkside	65

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Differing Perspectives on the Goals and Means
of Reading Instruction

69

Patrick Shannon, York Univ., Toronto

READING HORIZONS STAFF

Editor - Ken VanderMeulen
Managing Editor - Sue Standish, Reading Center
Design - Teri Douville, Faculty Graphics

EDITORIAL ADVISORS

L. D. Briggs
Elementary Education
East Texas State University
Commerce, Texas

Donald C. Cushenbery
Foundation Professor of Education
University of Nebraska
Omaha, Nebraska

Nicholas P. Criscuolo
Supervisor of Reading
New Haven Public Schools
New Haven, Connecticut

Rona F. Flippo
Reading Education
University of Wisc.-Parkside
Kenosha, Wisconsin

Carolyn Hedley
Dir. Reading Program
Fordham University
Lincoln Center, New York

Leo M. Schell
College of Education
Kansas State University
Manhattan, Kansas

Katherine D. Wiesendanger
Graduate Reading Program
Alfred University, New York

STAFF WRITERS

Richard Robinson
Professor of Education
University of Missouri
Columbia, MO 65211

Dr. Mark E. Thompson
Education
Department of Agriculture
Washington, D. C.

Linda Mixon Clary, Ph.D.
Reading Coordinator
Augusta College
Augusta, Georgia

Prof. William S. O'Bruba
College of Professional Studies
Bloomsburg University
Bloomsburg, Pennsylvania

JoAnne Vacca
Teacher Dev. & Curr. Studies
Kent State University

Richard T. Vacca
Reading & Writing Dev. Center
Kent State University
Kent, Ohio

Mary Jane Gray
Associate Professor
Loyola University
Chicago, Illinois



READING RESEARCH: SOME COMMENTS

Richard D. Robinson
University of Missouri-Columbia

"What is the most difficult of all?
That which seems easiest, to see
with one's eyes what is lying
before them."

Goethe

As early as the beginning of this century men such as Dearborn, Javal, and Judd were asking questions concerning the epistemology of reading. Huey described these efforts when he noted:

And so to completely analyze what we do when we read would almost be the acme of a psychologist's achievements, for it would describe very many of the most intricate workings of the human mind, as well as to unravel the tangled story of the most remarkable specific performance that civilization has learned in all its history (Huey, 1908, page 6).

Huey's challenge to reading research remains as relevant today as when he wrote it. His statement stands despite thousands of studies which have been completed on various aspects of reading using almost every conceivable avenue of investigation, whether associated with the reading process of the individual or the learning environment in which the reading instruction takes place. In fact, were one a cynic, it might be easy to believe that the majority of what is commonly referred to as reading research has in reality been nothing more than exercises developed to implement increasingly sophisticated research designs or, in the terminology of Farr and Weintraub (1974-1975), "methodological incarceration." They further note

...many of the (reading) studies published each year are both myopic and narrow in scope and fail to address themselves to the most important issues and concerns related to understanding the reading process--the teaching of reading, and the field of reading in general (p. 500).

Why is it, then, that after almost a century of concentrated effort in reading research by some of the most able persons in education, there still remains a seemingly impenetrable barrier beyond which we currently know so little? Perhaps Kolers (1968) summarized this dilemma best when he said, "Whether an element of a system can study itself successfully, whether man can describe his own mind in an intellectually useful way, is uncertain and complex...(p. xiii)"

In attempting to deal with this question it might be helpful to consider certain philosophical matters encountered in physics related to studies of cosmological determination of ultimate answers about the physical world. What with the development of atomic energy, space travel, and a multitude of other advances in almost every aspect of our daily lives, it seems reasonable to assume science, given adequate time and resources, would eventually understand all physical phenomena. Yet as surprising and as contradictory as it may seem, scientific research has within recent years reached what now may be frontiers of knowledge beyond which investigators have been unable to go.

How much can man really know about the universe? In the twentieth century, science has come up against fundamental limits. The most famous of these, the uncertainty principle in quantum theory, states that we cannot know precisely both the position and momentum of a particle at the same time. This is because the very act of observing interferes with the particle, causing an unpredictable change in its state.

(Overbye, 1977, p. 89)

Thus, because of the nature of the equipment needed to observe the minute world of the atom and ultimately because of the inherent limitations associated with the human senses, the scientist unwittingly becomes a part of and therefore significantly changes the problem being studied.

This concept of not being able to explain or to describe

the primary forces in the physical world, such as electricity, magnetism, and gravitation runs counter to much of the history of Western scientific thought. The discoveries of Galileo and Newton so aptly described the reality of what was encountered in most laboratory experimentation that a mechanical universe based solely on the interaction between elements within the same system "...and whose behavior was totally determinate as well as in principle independent of its being observed or known" (Bohn, 1977, p. 559) became a readily accepted model of the natural world.

It has only been in this century, though, that scientists have begun to seriously doubt their efforts in determining nature's ultimate secrets. As noted by Barnett (1974)

For all the promise of future revelations it is possible that certain terminal boundaries have already been reached in man's struggle to understand the manifold of nature in which he finds himself. In his descent into the microcosm he has encountered indeterminacy, duality, paradox--barriers that seem to admonish him he cannot pry to inquisitively into the heart of things without altering and vitiating the processes he seeks to observe.
(p. 115)

While it may be readily accepted that observation of the atom can easily be influenced by the measuring devices and physical senses of the investigating scientist, we are only now beginning to realize that disciplines besides physical sciences may be facing the same problem. A parallel might be drawn between the current situation in science and the problems noted earlier in relation to reading research. Just as science has increasingly detailed the many individual aspects of physical phenomena through laboratory experimentation, much of the research in reading, following a correspondent paradigm, has attempted to divide the complex process of reading into static skills and to measure these isolated elements in a setting which ignored the interplay of numerous closely related variables. As noted by Wolf and Tymitz (1976-77), "Whereas the reading field deserves holistic inquiry strategies, it is best characterized by focus oriented non-integrative research" (p. 6). In such a research plan, which attempts to separate and measure increasingly more specific aspects of the reading process, the influence of the observer on the results of experimentation could become a crucial question in much the same manner as the scientist

probing the universe of the atom has become a crucial factor in the physical sciences. In fact, does the use of a non-integrative research model serve only to accelerate the effect of the observer as division of the reading process becomes increasingly finer? Perhaps the problem of reading research in its quest for answers through dissecting the reading process into its component parts is that inadvertently these investigative procedures themselves have increased the effect of the physical and societal limitations and bias of the human researcher to a degree that we much sooner reach the ultimate barrier to knowledge beyond which we may not penetrate.

One possible answer may be forthcoming from promising new avenues of reading research planning such as ethnographic inquiry. Rather than treating the reading process as a static set of isolated skills, ethnographic research

involves sustained interaction between researcher and subjects within culture, environment, or milieu under investigation. It is comprised of a congerly of techniques generally classifiable as 1) interviews, both formal and informal, retrospective and introspective; 2) observation, both structured and unstructured; and 3) a range of obtrusive and unobtrusive measures. The ultimate aim of these procedures would be to provide accurate, detailed analysis of educational settings where reading occurs. Such analysis would scrutinize the full range of activities involving reading instruction, as well as all other activities comprising the totality of classroom life. It would not only account for children and teacher abilities, backgrounds, attitudes, expectations, and personality characteristics; but it would also study and document the many interactions inherent in the teaching and learning process within that environment. (Wolf and Tymitz, 1976-1977, p. 8.)

While it might be argued that observational bias would still be present, the fact remains that the ethnographic paradigm views reading in its totality and thus hopefully in a more accurate perspective.

Even with this most promising approach, reading research, as is true of all scientific inquiry, may in the end face the ultimate unknown. For as Barnett (1974) so eloquently noted,

In the evolution of scientific thought, one fact has become impressively clear; there is no mystery of the physical world which does not point to a mystery beyond itself. All highroads of the intellect, all byways of theory and conjecture lead ultimately to an abyss that human ingenuity can never span. For man is enchained by the very condition of his being, his finiteness and involvement in nature. The farther he extends his horizons the more vividly he recognizes the fact that, as the physicist Niels Bohr puts it, "we are both spectators and actors in the great drama of existence." Man is thus his own greatest mystery. He does not understand the vast veiled universe into which he has been cast for the reason that he does not understand himself. He comprehends but little of his organic processes and even less of his unique capacity to perceive the world about him, to reason and to dream. Least of all does he understand his noblest and most mysterious faculty; the ability to transcend himself and perceive himself in the act of perception.

REFERENCES

- Barnett, Lincoln. The Universe and Dr. Einstein. New York: Bantam Books, 1974.
- Bohm, David. Heisenberg's contribution to physics. In William C. Price and Seymour S. Chissick (Eds.) The uncertainty principle and foundations of quantum mechanics. London: John Wiley and Sons, 1977, pp. 559-563.
- Farr, R., and Weintraub, S. Editorial: methodological incarceration. Reading Research Quarterly, 10, 1974-75, #4, 550-553.
- Huey, Edmund B. The psychology and pedagogy of reading. New York: Macmillan, 1908.
- Kolers, Paul. Intro. The psychology and pedagogy of reading. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press, 1968, xiii-xxxix.
- Overbye, Dennis. Out from under the cosmic censor--Stephen Hawking's black holes. Sky and Telescope, August 1977, 54, 84-89, 108.
- Wolf, R. L. & Tymitz, B. Ethnography and reading: Matching inquiry mode to process. Reading Research Quarterly, 1976-1977, 12, 5-11.



LONG-TERM EFFECTS OF CLINICAL INTERVENTION: AN IN-DEPTH STUDY

Barbara J. Rennie, Carl Braun, and Christine J. Gordon

University of Calgary
Alberta, Canada

Numerous longitudinal studies attest to the concern regarding the long-term effectiveness of remedial programs (Balow, 1965; Balow & Blomquist, 1965; Buerger, 1968; Muehl & Forell, 1973; Robinson & Smith, 1962; Shearer, 1966). While short-term improvement has been demonstrated repeatedly, the majority of the reported studies fail to demonstrate maintenance of achievement gains (Spache, 1980). The fact that follow-up studies persist (Bessai & Cozac, 1980; Gottesman, 1979; Ito, 1981; Miles, Foreman & Irwine, 1978) demonstrates an intuitive belief that remedial treatment should have lasting beneficial effects.

The variables typically used to investigate the effectiveness of these programs include standardized reading tests (Balow, 1965; Buerger, 1968; Gottesman, 1979; Ito, 1981), teacher judgment (Buerger, 1968; Jackson et al, 1968), length of time clients remained in school (Preston & Yarrington, 1967; Robinson & Smith, 1962) and sometimes attitude (Cashden & Pumfrey, 1969). What is lacking in these studies is an analysis of the types of programs used in the first instance, and for the most part, information regarding clients' perceptions of problems and range of coping strategies. There is a need for intensive follow-up examination of individual clients with respect to current achievement status in relation to range of strategies for self-monitoring and "repair", perceptions of themselves as readers and writers and perceptions of instructional strategies that have been useful to them as learners. Further, there is a need to examine these variables in relation to the remedial program initially designed for the client in a search for instructional elements that may be identified as sources of

potential transfer and strategy maintenance. The present study was designed to investigate these problems.

Method

A case study format was used for an in-depth examination of the status of seven former clients from the University of Calgary Language Education Clinic program. Four subjects were ten years old, two were eleven, and one was sixteen. The subjects were randomly selected from the files from 1977 to 1983. (Considerable program changes have occurred since 1980 reflecting increased emphasis on language-based instruction, metacognitive development and writing processes.) Informal reading and writing measures were administered to all subjects. The purpose was to obtain information about text processing as well as general levels of performance to be used for comparative purposes. Structured interviews conducted with subjects were recorded and transcribed for analysis. An interview was structured to elicit information about current processing strategies, metacognitive abilities, recollections of what was most helpful from remedial instruction, present reading/writing problems and the way in which he copes with them, and his concept of himself as a reader and writer. Interview questions pertained primarily to reading or to writing. Every effort was made to parallel topics in the reading and the writing sections.

Qualitative analysis of the interview and achievement data was conducted. A further level of analysis involved examination of this information in relation to aspects of the original Clinic program.

Results

The data gathered from the administration of the Informal Reading Assessment (Burns & Roe, 1980) would suggest that six of the seven subjects are at or above the instructional level for their current grade placement. In all but one case written recall protocols demonstrated sensitivity to passage macro-structure. The one exception in each instance was the same subject. His instructional reading level was one grade below his grade placement, and he was able to produce only the first sentence (almost verbatim) of a six sentence passage.

These findings were supported by the subjects' expressions of self-concept. Most considered the reading and

writing they do in school as easy or just right for them, and all considered themselves average or good readers and writers. When asked about the ease or difficulty of material to be read in school, Ciara (age 10) said, "Well, I wouldn't say it's difficult and I wouldn't say it's easy, because it's just...it's perfect." She went on to say, "...sometimes I get a bit stuck, but like...if it's too difficult then you can't read it properly, you won't understand the words, and if it's too easy, well then you're not learning anything." All read for their own enjoyment with the majority of material being fiction. Over half wrote for their own purposes at home. Most seemed to have difficulty deciding what they would like to do better as readers, and the most frequently desired writer improvement seemed to focus on mechanics and form. Three subjects said they no longer have problems in reading, but only one said writing is problem-free.

All subjects do some independent reading and writing of fiction. Although only half are required to read independently in the content areas, most write reports. Teacher "help" for reading consists mainly of post-reading questions with discussions. Half, however, said that their teachers did nothing before assigning the reading. Writing assistance is much more prevalent but centered on correcting mechanics either by the teacher or a peer. Regarding getting teacher help with story writing, Cathy (age 11) said, "He just says he wants smooth, and to start the subject off in an interesting way, and that's all really. He doesn't say very much. He thinks we should know it now we're in grade six." Most subjects said they read their peer's writing, usually for editing, and this is perceived as most helpful.

In describing the "best reader" from their classes, most subjects included "reads a lot" as a predominant characteristic of their best readers. "Being read to or with" was the most pervasive suggestion for how a hypothetical "non-reader" could learn to read. Three or four subjects when asked to select the most helpful reading strategy from their Clinic program chose reading with the clinician. The fourth subject was in Clinic six years ago in the pre-schema era, at the start of the acceptance of the psycholinguistic framework. Considerably greater attention was given to "exercises" to facilitate reading as opposed to involvement in reading extended discourse.

With regard to reading strategies, subjects were asked to state their own strategies for various problems, those they thought their best reader would use, those useful with a beginning reader, and those they would suggest to peers who were having specified reading problems. A summary across tasks shows several trends. Lack of understanding was the overriding reason for rereading--both for themselves and a hypothetical "best reader". All subjects cited two or more common strategies that they used themselves and would advise a peer to use. The most frequent first-cited strategies for single word decoding were to ask the teacher, to use a dictionary, or to ask a peer, followed by reading ahead or back in the sentence. When asked if it was really important to know every word in content area reading, all said it was important because they needed to understand to get the work right. For fiction, most said it was not essential as long as the general idea was clear.

When asked how they remembered what they had read, most subjects gave two or more strategies. Reading over and memorizing were most common, followed by association strategies.

All subjects thought their best readers would reread, primarily when they had not understood the material. Most thought their best writers would revise, but revision was considered useful mainly to upgrade mechanics and form in a final copy. Although half the subjects did mention mechanics and form in their descriptions of their best writers, two of those also mentioned ease of expression.

The strategies cited for dealing with independent writing problems were fewer and commonalities between their own and recommended strategies were less frequent. These subjects were all tutored before the reading/writing interdependence came to the fore, so their awareness of writing strategies must come mainly from their school experiences. To solve writing problems for themselves and others, the most frequent aid was the dictionary. This is not surprising since the most commonly stated problem was spelling. When asked about the importance of spelling, all were aware of the importance of audience in that they would accept approximate spelling in rough copies but not in final draft.

Although subjects were not asked about any reciprocal

effects of reading and writing, several comments were offered. Four subjects gave "read more" as a writing help, and two were aware that their best writers were also their best readers. Ciara said in reference to her chosen best writer, "He knows how to read, and if you know how to read, and you understand words, you can probably write well." When asked what one could do to become a better writer, Cathy said, "I think if you read more you can figure out how the writers write and then it'll give you more good ideas. And if you read more, you can see more of the words, so you can know how to spell them if you see them more." This type of response is especially remarkable since none of the subjects had been given a Clinic program in which such an interdependence was fostered.

To obtain information about the subjects' interest in the meaning of what they read and wrote, they were given examples of reading miscues and writing samples and asked for their reactions. In the reading samples, all accepted the syntactically and semantically appropriate miscue as "making sense". With the writing samples, less than half were able to focus on the meaning and overlook the various mechanical/spelling errors. Both these responses reflect the subjects' desire for meaning when they read, and for correctness when they write as expressed earlier.

When asked to reflect on their clinical experiences, all were readily able to recall aspects of their tutoring. The most useful reading-related activities were "just practicing to read" and reading with someone. Most remember only writing stories, not surprising considering their programs. There was an obvious contrast between the subject tutored six years ago and those tutored more recently. He remembered flash cards, syllabication and the controlled reader, and had done no writing at all.

Discussion

It would seem, then, that all of these former Clinic clients have developed a variety of reading and writing strategies to enable them to succeed during their Clinic term, but which also have enabled them to maintain their processing, apparently (at least in some instances) in spite of questionable classroom practices. Even the one subject who seemed to show some lag on the informal assessment measures seems to use strategies which have gained success

in school endeavors. All read outside school, and several write for themselves.

It might be suggested then that consideration of the clients' perceptions of problems and coping strategies should be an important part of any attempt to monitor long-term effectiveness of remedial programs. Although most of these students were only ten and eleven years old and might not be expected to be metacognitively aware, they were able to make explicit many strategies they find useful.

In summary, it would seem, from this limited study, that the expectation of long-term maintenance of skill and strategy is much more realistic than expectations conveyed by earlier studies. It is reasonable to hypothesize that such maintenance can be attributed to the increased emphasis on reading and writing as broader, language-based processes, the emphasis on development of positive self-concept as a learner, and the general thrust to develop metacognitive skills of learners.

It is intended to extend this study to include more subjects from other Clinic years. An area for further research would be to explore further perceptions of students (and perhaps their teachers) of other strategies their teachers use to help them read and write independently. To obtain information about strategies considered most helpful by the students and their reasons for their choices might be especially useful, particularly to classroom teachers who want to help their students become literate.

REFERENCES

- Balow, B. (1965) The long term effect of remedial reading instruction. The Reading Teacher, 18, 581-86.
- Balow, B., & Blomquist, M. (1965). Young adults ten to fifteen years after severe reading disability. Elementary School Journal, 66, 44-48.
- Bessai, F., & Cozac, C. (1980). Gains of fifth and sixth grade readers from in-school tutoring. The Reading Teacher, 33, 567-570.
- Buerger, T.A. (1968). A follow-up of remedial reading instruction. The Reading Teacher, 21, 329-34.
- Burns, P.C., & Roe, B.D. (1980). Informal Reading Assessment: preprimer to twelfth grade. Boston: Houghton

Mifflin Company.

- Cashden, A., & Pumfrey, P.D. (1969). Some effects of the remedial teaching of reading. Educational Research, 11, 138-42.
- Gottesman, R.I. (1978). Follow-up of learning disabled children. Learning Disability Quarterly, 2(1), 60-69.
- Ito, H.R. (1981) After the resource room--then what? Academic Therapy, 16, 283-287.
- Jackson, R.M., Cleveland, J.C., & Merenda, P.F. (1968-69). The effects of early identification and counseling of under-achievers. Journal of School Psychology, 7, 42-49.
- Miles, J., Foreman, P.J., & Irwine, J. (1978). A comparison of the effectiveness of three remedial reading procedures Reading Education, 3, 27-36
- Muehl, S., & Forell, E.R. (1973-74). A follow-up study of disabled readers; variables related to high school reading performance. Reading Research Quarterly, 9, 110-123.
- Preston, R.C., & Yarrington, D.J. (1967). Status of fifty retarded readers eight years after reading clinic diagnosis. Journal of Reading, 11, 122-29.
- Robinson, H. M., & Smith, H. K. (1962). Reading clinic cases--ten years after. Elementary School Journal, 63, 22-27.
- Shearer, E. (1966). The long-term effects of remedial education. Educational Research, 9, 219-22.
- Spache, G.D. (1981). Diagnosing and correcting reading disabilities, (2nd ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc.

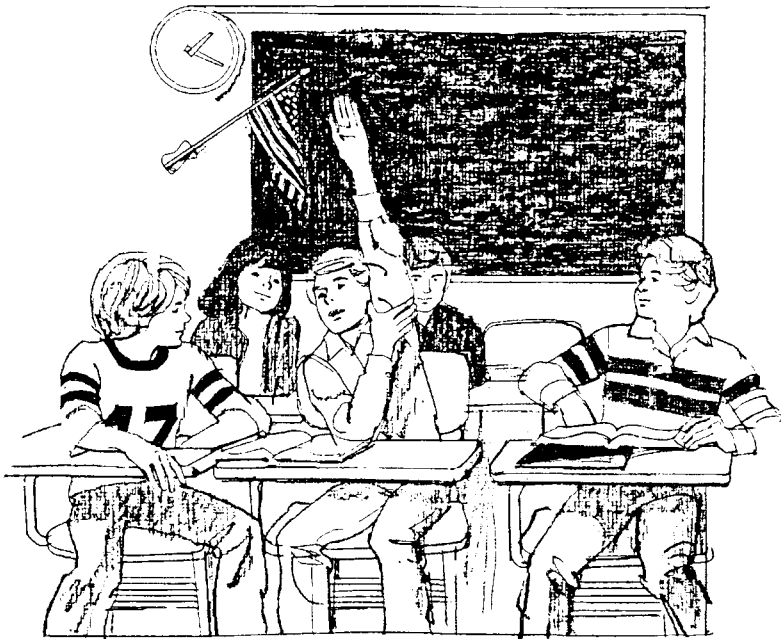


READING TEACHERS ARE ASKED "WHAT IS RELEVANT IN CLASSROOM?"

Donna Jamar and Leo W. Pauls

Emporia State University
Emporia, Kansas

One of the most crucial problems facing teacher education today is one of relevancy. This cry for relevance suggests that what we in higher education do as we prepare students to become teachers is not compatible with the real world of the classroom. Backman tells us that as teacher educators we are perceived as (1) delivering preparation programs which have little real influence on the way in which our graduates actually teach; and (2) being completely out of touch with the actual teaching conditions in contemporary schools (1984).



Considering this perception, and to better prepare our students, we undertook a survey to determine if the activities used in our reading methods classes to teach identified course competencies were compatible with the teaching/-learning activities of the elementary classroom. A questionnaire was developed listing twenty reading activities used to facilitate learning in methods classes. In considering teaching activities to enhance learning, Nelli (1981) indicates that teacher preparation programs should be designed around generic competencies based on what beginning teachers should know and be able to do and at what levels of proficiency. She identified two types of teacher competence to be considered: (1) functions and tasks of teaching and (2) behavior and action of the teacher.

For our study, one hundred teachers from each of the first, third, and fifth grades were surveyed from randomly selected elementary schools in Kansas. The teachers were to select and rate those activities they felt were most relevant and should be taught in reading methods classes (preservice) and those most practical for classroom teaching (inservice). The ratings for each of the twenty items were on a scale of one to ten, with one being the highest or most useful. The teachers were also asked to list any additional activities that they felt should be included to promote relevancy in teaching (both methods and classroom). The analyzed data are presented in Figures 1 and 2. Figure 3 summarizes the additional activities teachers suggested for inclusion.

Figure 1 indicates the overall average rating given by the first, third, and fifth grade teachers to each learning activity. The rating is based on the teachers' perceived importance of the activity for use in a reading methods class. After all of the ratings (1 to 10) given by the study population were tabulated, each of the twenty items was then given an average score to determine those considered most useful. An average score of one (1) would be considered the highest possible score while a twenty (20) would be the lowest.

The activity of "working on an individual basis with a child in a reading practicum involving diagnosis, analysis, and remediation" was considered the most important. "Knowing how to teach a lesson" was also rated very high.

Figure 1
Rank Ordered According to Average
Rating for Methods Class

- 3.0 Work on an individual basis with a child in a reading practicum involving diagnosis, analysis, and remediation
 - 3.3 Develop and teach a skills lesson
 - 3.4 Observe children being taught a reading lesson
 - 5.1 Administer a standardized reading test
 - 6.2 Administer informal reading assessment measures
 - 7.9 Develop goals for reading instruction
 - 8.9 Administer an Informal Reading Inventory
 - 9.5 Do a language-experience lesson with a group of children
 - 10.2 Administer an IQ Test
 - 10.3 Develop a week-long directed reading activity for a group of children
 - 10.6 Develop a Case Report on a child
 - 10.9 Administer a Cloze Test
 - 12.3 Develop a directed reading lesson for the content fields
 - 12.4 Group and schedule for reading instruction a hypothetical class of children
 - 12.9 Evaluate one or two basal reading series
 - 13.8 Construct materials to aid in teaching the basic skills of reading
 - 14.8 Write a philosophy of reading instruction
 - 15.0 Administer several reading expectancy (potential) formulas
 - 15.1 Administer several readability formulas
 - 17.1 Analyze basal series to determine the extent of multi-cultural elements and the extent of activities for exceptional children
-

A survey conducted by Cheek (1982) supports this data. Her survey determined reading teachers' opinions of reading courses taken at the undergraduate level. It reports that the most helpful topic covered in such courses was how to plan a reading lesson.

The activity considered the least important by teachers was to "analyze basal series to determine the extent of multicultural elements and the extent of activities for exceptional children."

The overall average rating received by each activity on the basis of its perceived importance in an elementary classroom is shown in Figure 2. It is noted that to "develop a case report on a child" is considered most important while "administering readability formulas" is considered least important of the twenty possible learning activities.

Figure 2

Rank Ordered According to Average
Rating in Classroom

- 4.3 Develop a Case Report on a child
- 4.6 Observe children being taught a reading lesson
- 4.7 Group and schedule for reading instruction a hypothetical class of children
- 5.6 Work on an individual basis with a child in a reading practicum involving diagnosis, analysis, and remediation
- 7.6 Write a philosophy of reading instruction
- 7.8 Administer a standardized reading test
- 8.6 Develop a week-long directed reading activity for a group of children
- 9.1 Administer several reading expectancy (potential) formulas
- 9.5 Analyze basal series to determine the extent of multicultural elements and the extent of activities for exceptional children
- 9.6 Evaluate one or two basal reading series
- 10.0 Administer an I Q Test
- 10.0 Develop goals for reading instruction
- 10.0 Develop and teach a skills lesson
- 10.7 Construct materials to aid in teaching the basic skills of reading
- 12.6 Develop a directed reading lesson for the content

fields

- 13.0 Administer informal reading assessment measures
 - 13.4 Do a language-experience lesson with a group of children
 - 15.3 Administer a Cloze Test
 - 15.5 Administer an Informal Reading Inventory
 - 16.0 Administer several readability formulas
-

The teachers were given the opportunity to suggest additional learning activities they felt should be included in the teaching of reading methods at the university level. Among others, "making a resource file and materials" was expressed as a very important activity by several teachers. This was an interesting finding as one of the teaching activities listed on the questionnaire, "Construct Materials to Aid in Teaching the Basic Skills of Reading," ranked 16th (with an average rating of 13.8) in importance as a methods class activity and 14th (with an average rating of 10.7) in importance as a classroom activity to enhance the teaching of reading. Figure 3 details additional suggested activities in order of perceived importance by the study population.

Figure 3

More experience with class or children	13
Gather resource file and materials	13
Know several approaches to phonics/reading	7
Be aware of available materials	6
Know criteria needed to group children	6
Have a complete foundation of phonics	6
Prepare seat activities to be used during reading	5
Know motivation techniques	5
Develop activities to provide for exc. reading, low reader, high reader, etc.	3
Get involved with children	2
Know management techniques	2

Know evaluation activities	2
Present a realistic picture of the situation	2
Construct story starters to use in creative writing	1
Make a poetry file	1
Visit and observe a remedial reading program	1
More emphasis on language experience	1
Professors need renewed classroom indoctrination	1
Transpose reading concepts to other subject areas	1
Learn to make reading an all day activity	1
Know ways to assess child for level of reading	1
Know about resource people	1
Learn how to ask good questions	1
Allow time for free reading	1
Develop learning centers	1
Have more communication with teachers	1
Develop speaking and listening skills	1
Teach selectivity of television viewing	1

It can be concluded that elementary teachers have definite opinions concerning what should be taught in college and university reading methods classes and what should be incorporated into reading instruction in the elementary grades. It is essential that instructors of methods classes and classroom teachers concern themselves with the results of this and similar studies and incorporate the more important activities into their instructional programs.

REFERENCES

- Backman, Carl A. "Moving Teacher Education Toward the Twenty-First Century: Reflections of a New Dean," Journal of Teacher Education, vol. 35 (Jan.-Febr. 1984) pp. 1-5.
- Cheek, Martha Collins. "Preservice Education in Reading: What Do the Teachers Say?" Reading Psychology, vol. 3 (Jan.-March 1982), pp. 25-35.
- Nelli, Elizabeth. "Program Redesign in Teacher Preparation," Journal of Teacher Education, vol. 32 (Nov.-Dec. 1981) pp. 39-42.



LINGUISTIC DEVELOPMENT OF CHILDREN AND THE SYNTAX OF BASALS

David L. Brown
L. D. Briggs
East Texas State University
Commerce, Texas

From an early age, children are aware of the various aspects of language. They are conscious of language before any formal teaching of grammar or usage, and this awareness comes from naturalistic experiences. Children spend their early years experimenting with language, practicing language, and expanding word meanings based on their personal experiences and interactions with others. Therefore, young children's vocabularies are replete with meaningful concepts developed during the preschool years.

When children enter the first grade, they are inducted into the world of the basal reader. They are taught phonics and other word analysis skills which are considered by some researchers (Guszk, 1978; Otto, 1977) to be prerequisites for producing effective readers. Children are expected to learn to read using stories which tend to be unrealistic and nonsensical; however, the preprimer and primer stories are not known for their literary quality. Nevertheless, the natural creative abilities of children tend to be secondary to the standard reading curriculum.

Although basal reader series, in general, have undergone a slow metamorphosis, it is still questionable whether children's natural language development and abilities were considered when making these changes. Sampson (1982) concluded that children exposed to preprimers and primers actually experienced vocabulary regression, rather than growth. Sampson's research raises many questions concerning the contributions of basal textbooks to the continued development of children's linguistic awareness. The purpose of this article is to contrast the syntactic complexity of children's language with the syntactic complexity of language

found in basal readers.

Early Language Development

Children learn to speak by acquiring general syntactical patterns from the language of adults, siblings, and peers. They gradually acquire a knowledge of the way words must be ordered to convey meaning. This knowledge is mastered through experimentation and assimilation without any direct teaching. For example, Clark stated that "children begin to reflect on certain properties of language at an early age" (Clark, 1978, p. 18). Furthermore, children make judgments about the form, complexity, and appropriateness of utterances in the language. They also gain an awareness of certain social, functional, and structural properties of language (Grieve, 1983). Empirical studies of language acquisition and development have uncovered significant findings which have become of interest to linguists, psychologists, and educators.

Children's ability to reflect upon language begins to appear about age two (Clark, 1978). During the early stages of language development, children correct their own pronunciations, question the appropriateness of speech styles, play with different linguistic units, and make judgments concerning language usage for varying situations (Clark, 1978). Children exhibit an increasing awareness of language with age and soon become aware of both the form and function of language. Their metacognitive skills become apparent as they progress from the simple to the more complex linguistic structures. Children's language acquisition and cognitive development continue to develop during the early years of school (Clark, 1978).

Reading and Language

Learning to read is a natural extension of learning to speak. Therefore many educators contend that language proficiency is essential if children are to achieve their optimal development in reading. However, during the primary grades, language is filtered through skill activities which result in mechanical reading. The linguistic structure of the reading materials does not match the children's advanced level of language development. Their oral language usage is far more complex than the language of the textbooks used in teaching reading (Corson, 1984).



In a monograph on the relationship of children's oral language to the language in basal readers, Strickland (1962) compared the sentence structure of basal readers to that of the oral language of kindergarten children. Her analysis revealed that there were two kinds of mismatch between the books and the speech samples. The "beginning first-grade basal reading books" were rigid, unnatural,

and contained sentence patterns which were not noted in the speech samples of the children. She attributed this mismatch to the fact that the linguistic structures found in textbooks were written patterns instead of spoken patterns.

The appropriateness and readability of basal reader series continue to be an issue. Most beginning reading programs emphasize regularity of grapheme-phoneme correspondence (McKinney, 1983). For example, Hiebert (1983) compared preschool children's chosen words to those words found in basal readers and found that children's self-selected words were more imagery loaded than those found in basal readers. Reid reported that "much of the language of the primer did not reflect the ways in which function or grammatical words, as opposed to content words, play their part in giving a sentence flow, coherence, and sense" (Reid, p. 2). There were adverbial phrases in positions which were unfamiliar to children. In many of the series, the children could not identify whether the speaker was one of the characters in or the author of the story.

Syntactic Complexity and Reading Materials

The importance of syntax can be seen implicitly in

Goodman's (1969) research on children's miscues. Goodman's study revealed that many of the errors that beginning readers make are actually "guesses." Obviously, children attempt to use linguistic knowledge as "cues" to aid in constructing ideas about meaning. Children tend to utilize their syntactical knowledge to guide their comprehension. Consequently, many researchers believe that information concerning the acquisition of syntactical patterns in children's language should be utilized in developing reading materials. Furthermore, these researchers assert that there is an important relationship between children's familiarity with syntactic patterns and their level of comprehension in reading. Morrow (1978) investigated the syntactic complexity of six-, seven-, and eight-year-old children's spoken language using the Botel, Dawkins, and Granowsky formula (1972). She concluded that the syntactic complexity of reading texts should not exceed that of the children's language.

The complexity of language can also be seen in children's creative writings. O'Donnell, Griffin, and Norris (1967) studied the oral language of school-age children through an analysis of the writings of kindergarten, first-, second-, third-, fifth-, and seventh-grade students. An increase in syntactic growth was noted between kindergarten and first-grade students and between fifth- and seventh-grade students. They concluded that although all sentence structure patterns could be found at the various grade levels, the frequency of occurrence differed as the children matured. Chomsky's (1972) investigation of the acquisition of linguistic forms revealed that elementary children continue to develop syntactic structure as they progress through the elementary grades.

The possible effects of reading on children's writing were explored by Eckhoff (1983). Reading texts and writing samples of second-grade students were analyzed. In addition, the research included an analysis of style, format, and frequency of occurrence of linguistic structures. Eckhoff found a strong similarity between the writing of children and the syntactic features of their basal reading texts.

Summary and Implications

Research emphasizing the relationship between children's reading instruction and their writing ability is limited. However, inasmuch as reading and writing are language processes, it can be assumed that a relationship does exist.

As the children progress to more difficult levels in the basal reading series, the syntactic structures of their writing tend to change along with that of their basal readers. Therefore, publishers must be constantly aware of young children's language development. Although many publishers may simplify the sentence structures in the basal readers in an effort to facilitate the process of learning to read, this practice tends to result in texts with stylistic features and text formats that are unnatural and uncharacteristic of written English or the language development level of the children (Eckoff, 1983).

Since children enter school with such an elaborate knowledge of language complexity, it would seem appropriate to plan reading instruction to reflect their existing language competencies. Children should be exposed to reading materials which contain familiar patterns of language. Research has revealed that concrete words are more easily learned than abstract words, and nouns are easier to learn than function words (Ollila & Chamberlain, 1979). Consequently, the language-experience approach should be used during initial encounters with reading. This approach to reading instruction would present written language in a more meaningful context, and the syntax of the materials would be analogous to that of the children. As a result, their creative writings would probably contain more complex sentence patterns, and they would not be limited syntactically by the basal reading texts. Menyuk (1969) suggests that by the age of five, children tend to have an extensive grasp of basic sentence structure. Therefore, children's knowledge of syntax and vocabulary should be utilized to extend their understanding of literacy.

REFERENCES

- Botel, M., Dawkins, J., and Granowsky, A. Syntactic Complexity: Analyzing It and Measuring It. Phila.: Univ. of Pennsylvania, 1972.
- Chomsky, C. "Stages in Language Development and Reading Exposure." Harvard Educational Review, 42,(Feb. 1972), pp. 1-33.
- Clark, E.V. "Awareness of Language: Some Evidence From What Children Say and Do." In Sinclair, Jarvella, & Levelt (Eds), The Child's Concept of Language, Berlin: Springer, 1978.

-
- Corson, D. "The Case for Oral Language in Schooling." The Elementary School Journal, 84(March, 1984) pp. 458-467.
- Eckoff, B. "How Reading Affects Children's Writing." Language Arts, 60(May, 1983), pp. 607-616.
- Goodman, K.S. "Analysis of Oral Reading Miscues: Applied Psycholinguistics." Reading Research Quarterly, 5(fall, 1969), pp. 9-30.
- Grieve, R. & Hoogenraad, R. "Using language if you don't have much." In R.J.Wales and E.Walker (Eds.), New Approaches to Language Mechanism, Amsterdam: North-Holland, 1976.
- Guszak, F.J. Diagnostic Reading Instruction in the Elementary School. New York: Harper & Row, 1978.
- Hiebert, E.H. "A Comparison of Young Children's Self-Selected Reading Words and Basal Reading Words." Reading Improvement, 20(spring, 1983) pp. 41-44.
- McKinney, E.W. "Readability Levels of the 1975 Third Grade Macmillan Basal Readers." Reading Improvement, 20(Spring, 1983) pp. 37-40.
- Menyuk, P. Sentences Children Use. Research Monograph No. 52, Cambridge, MA: MIT Press, 1969.
- Morrow, L.M. "Analysis of Syntax of Six-, Seven-, and Eight-Year-Old Children." Research in the Teaching of English, 12 (May, 1978) pp. 143-148.
- O'Donnell, R.C., W.J.Griffin & R.C.Norris. Syntax of Kindergarten and Elementary School Age Children: A Transformational Analysis. Champaign, IL: NCTE, 1967.
- Ollila, L. and L. Chamberlain. "The Learning and Retention of Two Classes of Graphic Words: High Frequency Nouns and Non-noun Words Among Kindergarten Children." Journal of Educational Research, 72 (May/June, 1979).
- Otto, W. "Design for Developing Comprehension Skills." In Guthrie (Ed), Cognition, Curriculum, and Comprehension. Newark, DE: IRA, 1977.
- Sampson, M.R. New Inquiries in Reading Research and Instruction. Rochester, NY: NRC, 1982.
- Strickland, R. The Language of Elementary School Children. Sch of Educ., Univ. of IN, 1962, Vol. 38, p. 2.



USING DIRECT INSTRUCTION IN A COLLEGE STUDY SKILLS COURSE

Audrey S. Heinrichs and Linda Lehnert

Widener University
Chester, Penn.

The lowest third of the freshman class, those predicted to have the most trouble in college, participated in the study skills course herein described. These students achieved at least a 2.0 grade point average (GPA) as frequently as students ranked in the upper two-thirds of the freshman class. This article describes the course and the means by which its effectiveness was assessed.

The Study Skills Course

The study skills course, taught at a small Eastern university with nine undergraduate and graduate colleges or schools, is offered through the College of Arts and Sciences. Few students enroll in the course by choice. At the time of admittance, approximately one-third of the freshman class is required by the Office of Admissions to take the course during the freshman year. These students may have SAT's in the 400's; they may have recommendations from their high school counselors to take a study skills course; or their grades may show weaknesses in areas addressed by the course. Study skills classes meet for fifty minutes--five times a week for six weeks during the summer session, or twice a week for one semester during the fall. The students, typically liberal arts, engineering, business, or nursing majors, receive a letter grade and two credits toward graduation for passing the course.

Assumptions

The course was designed on the following assumptions:

(1) The students will be relatively disorganized learners, lacking the habit of organizing their time and their learning

materials, and having little sense of the need for making a schedule and keeping to it. Instructor experience has indicated that this assumption was valid.

(2) The students will be unaware of college academic standards, of the amount of required reading, and the need to develop study strategies. Instructor experience has indicated that this assumption, also, was valid.

(3) The students will be uncertain of their goals and not internally motivated. Therefore, external motivation (e.g., receiving grades and credit toward graduation) would be necessary.

Experience suggested that this assumption was both right and wrong. Many of the students are very career oriented and expect to work hard to reach their career goals. Many others, however, are unfocused and are still defining their goals. In both types, nonetheless, a marked absence of internal motivation to study the content of the study skills course was found. The external motivators were necessary.

(4) The students will be unaware of their own study skill needs, will resent being assigned to the course, and will resent the time that studying for the study skills course will take away from their study time for other courses. This assumption was supported by experience.

(5) The students will benefit from the use of auto-instructional materials, that is, books with answer keys.

This assumption was refuted in actual experience. The students apparently felt that it was futile to do the work themselves when the answers were readily available. Research (Guthrie, 1984) is beginning to show that this response is predictable.

Selection of Instructional Procedures

The four guidelines which directed the selection of instructional procedures appear to have validity for this population.

(1) Use of Direct Instruction methods.

Instructional methods and procedures typically resemble Berliner and Rosenshine's definition of "direct instruction" (Berliner & Rosenshine, 1977). The instructors determine the course objectives and materials; students are made aware

of lesson objectives for each lesson; course objectives are stated in the syllabus and discussed frequently throughout the semester; the classroom environment is instructor-structured but not authoritarian; student performance is scrupulously monitored--instructors carefully listen to students' oral responses and comment generously on their written work; in-class feedback to students is immediate and task-oriented; homework is graded, returned, and reviewed in class promptly.

(2) Provision for in-class applications of study techniques to individually selected textbooks.

Students must bring to class a textbook from any other course in order to make immediate application of the study techniques taught in class. This procedure allows for transfer of learning, that is, students immediately apply the newly learned study techniques to outside materials. It also allows for individualization; each student chooses the text in which to apply the study techniques.

(3) Use of a common syllabus.

All instructors use the same syllabus, although individual instructor modifications are permitted if the need arises. Each semester the syllabus is updated, with input from all instructors, after which changes are seldom made, because if the curriculum which was agreed upon is a good one, all instructors should be using it; if not, it should be changed.

In addition, the students have in common many study needs because there are distribution requirements within the university which students in every major field must meet. There are also study techniques applicable to several disciplines; for instance, some methods of learning vocabulary (3 x 5 cards; audio tape recorder) are equally effective for learning formulas, sequences, or lists of essential facts. The common syllabus assures that each of these study areas is taught in all sections of the course.

(4) Use of several textbooks.

Approximately ten textbooks are used. During the 1983-84 sessions, the year for which the data analyses have been completed and the results of which are reported below, the students purchased Adams (1981) and Cohen et al. (1973). New texts are constantly being reviewed, however, and in current use are Sotiriou (1984) and Adams and Brody (1983), as well as a vocabulary text, as described below. In addition,

classroom-sized sets of other texts are provided for whole group use, or individual copies are used as resources for instructor presentations.

Content

The following topics are covered in the course:

- monitoring comprehension
- getting the main idea
- identifying major and minor details
- knowing the importance of and methods for studying vocabulary
- identifying organizational patterns in paragraphs, articles, lectures, and textbooks
- surveying before reading
- taking effective notes on textbooks and lectures
- using study skills systems
- gaining test-taking skills
- learning rapid reading techniques
- distinguishing fact from opinion
- recognizing author bias
- drawing inferences
- knowing and using memorization techniques

Also included are topics related to personal organization strategies. Students are taught the importance of organizing themselves, which includes keeping an appointment book, getting to appointments, and being on time.

Common word recognition errors among students are discussed, and students are advised to have their eyes checked by a vision specialist if they have not done so within the previous year. Some examples of word recognition errors, which may indicate lack of visual acuity are the following:

undulate	alimony	recalcitrant
inundate	parsimony	reconstitute

There are frequent reminders to get enough sleep. Emphasis is placed on students' rights (1) to a quiet time to sleep, and (2) to an adequate space and a quiet time to study. Students seem unsure of their rights in these matters, and needed reinforcement is provided by repeated reminders of these rights throughout the semester.

There are also frequent reminders to apply what is taught in the study skills course when studying for other

courses, because for most of these students transfer of learning does not happen automatically.

Finally, there is a strong emphasis upon vocabulary study. As with study skills texts, vocabulary text selection is continually updated. Nurnberg and Rosenblum (1983) are assigned during the fall and spring semesters and Rubin (1978) during the summer. The books differ in difficulty (the former being more taxing), as the students who enter the program during these sessions appear to differ in preparation. Some direct instruction of specific words is provided and methods of learning vocabulary are presented, but students are also expected to learn the vocabulary on their own, using methods suggested in the books themselves. The students are tested frequently; fifteen or sixteen vocabulary tests per term is not unusual. Tests are graded and returned as quickly as possible. The vocabulary study methods are techniques that also help students memorize many facts, formulas, names, theories, or sequences needed for other courses.

Judging Course Effectiveness

Since no valid measures exist to determine what skills and strategies students actually use when studying on their own, judging course effectiveness is difficult. Even with their limitations, two means of making such judgments are GPAs and questionnaires.

End-of-first-semester GPAs of freshmen enrolled in the study skills course are compared to end-of-first-semester GPAs of freshmen not enrolled in the course. Although this is comparing unlike groups, one course objective is to enable the apparently less advantaged study skills students the opportunity to achieve similarly to their more advantaged peers. Therefore, chi-square tests are conducted between end-of-first-semester GPAs of the two groups. Data for the 1983-84 college year have been analyzed. Of the 214 study skills students, 68% achieved end-of-first-semester GPAs at or above 2.0 ("C" or better). In contrast, of the 435 freshmen not enrolled in the course, 67% achieved end-of-first-semester GPAs at or above 2.0. A chi-square test revealed no significant difference ($p > .05$) between the two groups. Study skills students, then, who seemed less likely to be successful in their freshmen year, achieved

GPA's at or above 2.0 as frequently as did students who seemed more likely to be successful in their freshman year.

Students also respond to anonymous survey questionnaires. According to this measure, 1983-84 students felt they especially benefited from 1) the self-responsibility stressed in the course; 2) the variety of strategies taught for actively attacking text chapters, absorbing new vocabulary, and studying lecture notes; and 3) the instruction and practice in taking objective and essay tests.

The strengths of the course appear to be: use of direct instruction, provision for in-class applications of study techniques, stress of self-responsibility, and demonstration of several study strategies. Although curriculum and text change are still made as needs arise, the course appears to be effectively meeting many of the students' needs.

REFERENCES

- Adams, W.R. (1981). Developing Reading Versatility (3rd ed.). NY: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Adams, W.R., & Brody, J. (1983). Reading Beyond Words (2nd ed.) NY: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Berliner, D.C., and Rosenshine, B.V. (1977) The Acquisition of Knowledge in the Classroom. In R.C.Anderson, R. J. Spiro, & W. E. Montague (Eds.) Schooling and the Acquisition of Knowledge. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Cohen, R., King, W., Knudsvig, G., Markel, G.P., Patten, D., Shtogren, J., & Wilhelm, R.M. (1973). Quest: Academic Skills Program. NY: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.
- Guthrie, J.T. (1984). Research Views: Contexts for Testing. Reading Teacher, 38, 108-110.
- Nurnberg, M., & Rosenblum, M. (1938) How to Build a Better Vocabulary. NY: Prentice-Hall Warner Books Edition.
- Rubin, D. (1978). Vocabulary Expansion I. NY: Macmillan.
- Sotiriou, P.E. (1984). Integrating College Study Skills: Reasoning in Reading, Listening, and Writing. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.



GOOD READERS AND THEIR READING STRATEGIES

Mary Jane Gray
Loyola University
Chicago, Illinois

Marion Henneberry
Elementary Teacher
Flossmoor, Illinois



Those who are responsible for elementary reading programs should have as a major concern recognizing what children do as they engage in the act of reading. F. Smith (1973) makes this clear in his statement, "Find out what a child is trying to do and then help him do it." (p. 195)

In order to take a first step in gaining this information we need to have children provide answers to some pertinent questions. One of these would be what children consider as the criteria for good reading. A particularly relevant question, especially at the beginning stages, would be related to the word attack strategies employed when meeting an unknown word. Will those

who share the same criteria for good reading use similar word attack strategies when meeting an unknown word?

To secure this information, responses to the following questions (adapted from Southgate, Arnold, and Johnson, 1981) were obtained.

-
1. Do you think you are a good reader?
 2. Why do you think so?
 3. If you come to a word you don't know when you are reading alone, what do you do about it?

A group of students who were just completing their third grade year in a suburban parochial school supplied the responses. Third grade was selected since at this stage most children have sufficient experience in reading so that they have begun to experience success in independent reading efforts.

Twenty-four children, 15 girls and 9 boys from the same classroom, were questioned. The school was located in a suburban community outside a large Midwestern city. Most of the parents in the community were professional people, with a large number of the fathers being either doctors or lawyers. Many of the children had broad experiential backgrounds which would contribute to their success in reading. Eighteen of the 24 children considered themselves good readers. Two were not sure, three thought they were average, and one thought he was not a good reader.

It would seem likely that children who indicated the same criteria for good reading would have the same view of the reading process. It would also seem that they would use the same word attack strategies when attacking unknown words. This, then, was the hypothesis to be tested.

Children indicating the same criteria for good reading use the same word attack strategies when attacking unknown words.

Criteria for good readers fell into 7 categories which were subsumed by the authors into three major areas.

1. Enjoying reading and/or understanding what is read.
2. Accuracy in reading performance, or
3. Opinion of adult regarding reading performance.

Four word attack strategies were named by these students.

1. context clues,
2. phonics,
3. asking parents or teachers, or
4. using the dictionary.

Results

Eight children's responses fell into the category of enjoying reading and/or understanding what was read. On examining their word attack strategies as illustrated in Table 1, it can be noted that four of them made use of context clues, one of these in combination with the use of the dictionary; two made use of phonics; one asked an adult for assistance, and one did not specify his method.

If one considers reading a meaningful process, it might be expected that s/he would make use of context as a major word attack strategy. Of the four children recommending the use of context, three emphasized the meaningful aspect of what was read.

Five children's responses were related to accuracy in reading. An examination of their responses as shown in Table 2 makes apparent that most relied on phonics. This, too, would not be unexpected as their emphasis is on accuracy in word recognition. Four of the children recommended phonics; one of these would also consult his mother. A fifth child would consult his mother.

Five of the children relied on the opinion of parents or teachers or on report cards as the criterion for their success in reading. Only one of these children recommended the use of context as a word attack strategy and that in combination with asking an adult. Three others would also consult an adult for aid. This is not too surprising since these children rely on the opinions of others regarding their capacity in reading. The other student would look it up in the dictionary.

Table 1

Criteria for Good Readers - - - - - Word Attack Strategies	
Enjoyment and Understanding	
1. Because each time I finish a book, I read another one	I ask my parents or teacher.
2. I read all the time.	Try and learn it by spelling it out.
3. It's not that I can read good; it's because I enjoy books.	I look at the sentence again and try to figure out what it means.
4. I like to read.	Sound it out.
5. I can read hard books.	Keep on reading and it gives me clues.
6. I can read fast and still know what I am reading.	Go and finish the sentence.. see if it has any clues. Get the dictionary.
7. I can read and understand what I am reading.	Read the rest of the sentence and see if it has clue
8. I read 2 chapters out of a book every night	Strategies not specified

Accuracy in Reading Performance	
1. I can read fast	Try to pronounce it.
2. I understand big words and it's easy for me to read.	I sound it out. I ask my mom.
3. I think I know a lot of vocabulary.	Ask my mom.
4. I have practiced enough.	I sound it into syllables.
5. I don't make lots of mistakes.	Sound it out.

Opinion of Adult	
1. My teacher said so.	Look it up in a dictionary.
2. The teacher says, "Very good."	Ask my mom or dad.

3. People have told me and
on my report card.

I would read the rest
of the sentence and try to
figure it out.

I would ask someone
what the word is.

4. I get good grades.

Ask my mom, or
sister.

5. My mother said I am.

I would ask my mom
what the word is.

Two children were not sure if they were good readers, three considered themselves only average, and one felt she was not a good reader. Table 4 gives a more complete picture of their responses. Three of these children would consult the dictionary, two would ask others for assistance, and one did not specify the method of word attack. For these children who did not have such a positive view of their ability, reliance was heavy on someone else, or on the dictionary.

The hypothesis would have to be rejected as students with the same criteria for good reading did not always use the same word attack strategies.

Discussion

It is interesting to note, however, that the children in Categories 1 and 2 relied heavily on themselves for determining unknown words. Their views of successful readers did seem to have an influence on the word attack strategies they employed. Reliance on context was made by four of the eight students who viewed reading as a meaningful and/or enjoyable process. For those who viewed accuracy in reading as a major criterion of successful reading, phonics was the recommended method of word attack. Four of the five students in the category did mention phonics as their preference.

Those children in Category 3 relied on an outside adult to indicate whether or not they were good readers. In a similar vein their methods of word attack also centered on outside assistance. Four of the five children mentioned asking an adult for assistance.

Table 4

Criteria for Good Readers - - - - - Word Attack Strategies

Not Sure

- | | |
|---------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. Yes, I guess so. | I ask my mom. |
| 2. I'm not sure. | I look it up in the dictionary. |

Average Readers

- | | |
|---|---------------------------------|
| 1. I am an okay reader, nor fast, nor slow. | Strategies unspecified |
| 2. Sometimes I stutter. | I look it up in the dictionary. |
| 3. So-so, I don't know. | I look it up in the dictionary. |

Not a Good Reader.

- | | |
|-------|----------------------|
| 1. No | I go and ask my mom. |
|-------|----------------------|

For the final group of children who were not sure whether they were good readers, who felt that they were average readers, or who felt that they were poor readers, the reliance on the dictionary was predominant. This seems to be an unusual response, since less capable readers would likely be less competent than would good readers in selecting appropriate meanings for the particular context in which the word was found. It would also seem reasonable to assume that they would not be as competent in locating words in the dictionary as would more skilled readers. Surely for most children, as well as for adults, the use of the dictionary does not seem to be the preferred source for word attack.

Recommendations for Further Research

The sample of students in this study was very small in number, limited to one grade level, and to one school. It would be of value to obtain the same information from a greater number of students at various grade levels and in different settings to determine whether views of criteria for good reading vary, and along with those views a variation

in preferred word attack strategies.

If this is shown to be true on a broader scale than that demonstrated in this study, teachers would be well advised to examine children's criteria for good reading and preferred methods of word attack. This would give them some insight into what children are trying to do as they read. What they learn should serve as a firm base from which to launch effective reading programs leading to both success in word attack and reading for enjoyment and understanding.

REFERENCES

- Smith, F. "Twelve Easy Ways to Make Reading Hard," in F. Smith (Ed.), Psycholinguistics and Reading. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1973.
- Southgate, V., H. Arnold, & S. Johnson. Extending Beginning Reading. London: Heinemann Educational Books Ltd., 1981, pp. 181-182.



ANALYSIS OF ABLE AND DISABLED SIXTH-GRADE READERS' KNOWLEDGE OF STORY STRUCTURE: A COMPARISON

Evelyn Leech Krein
Lake Ridge Academy
North Ridgeville, Ohio

Jane Ann Zaharias
Cleveland State University
Cleveland, Ohio

Current research indicates that reading is a transactive process, suggesting that the background knowledge a reader brings to a text is at least as important as the text itself in determining comprehension (Goodman, 1984). Of particular interest here is the reader's tacit knowledge of typical organizational patterns which govern the structure of narrative texts, or what has been termed story schemata (Rumelhart, 1975, 1980).

The findings of several studies suggest that the acquisition of story schemata is developmental (Applebee, 1978; Botvin & Sutton-Smith, 1977; Leondar, 1977; Mandler, 1982; McConaughy, 1982; Stein, 1982). As children listen to stories told and read aloud, they begin to acquire a sense of story structure. Later, they apply this knowledge in making predictions and generating hypotheses while reading. It is in this way that a knowledge of story structure



aids youngsters in the comprehension of narrative discourse. Children's story schemata also provide them with a framework for categorizing the events which occur in stories, thereby enhancing their ability to recall what they have read (Mandler & Johnson, 1977; Stein, 1978; Thorndyke, 1977; Whaley & Spiegel, 1982).

To date, the samples of most studies aimed at exploring children's sense of story have been limited to the average or above average reader. As a result, little is known about the extent to which able and disabled readers' understanding of story structure compare. Should significant differences exist between these two groups, they would have important implications for pedagogical practice. The primary purpose of the present investigation was, therefore, to examine more thoroughly able and disabled readers' knowledge of story structure. The three specific questions which served to guide this research effort follow:

1. Do able and disabled readers vary in their ability to predict story outcomes?
2. Are there differences between able and disabled readers' knowledge of story structure as evidenced by their ability to retell stories?
3. What, if any, differences exist between able and disabled readers' ability to tell stories?

By employing all three of the procedures which have in the past been used to assess students' knowledge of story structure--story tellings, story predictions, and story retellings--the researchers also sought to determine whether these assessment techniques were comparable.

Method

Sample

The sample for this study was comprised of 46 (30 male, 16 female) sixth-grade pupils enrolled in a public middle school located in a predominantly white, middle-class suburb of Cleveland, Ohio. Participation was voluntary and subject to parents' willingness to grant permission for their children to participate.

Students ranged in age from 11 years 5 months to 13 years 8 months. All students had previously been identified by the school system as able or disabled readers on the basis of their scores on the reading subtest of

the Iowa Test of Basic Skills. Students scoring at or below the 33rd percentile on this standardized test of reading achievement were designated as disabled readers; students scoring above the 33rd percentile were classified as able readers. The 23 disabled and 23 able readers were matched on sex. The researchers deemed it necessary to control for this variable since innumerable studies have shown that reading disabilities are "from three to ten times more common for boys, depending on how the disability is defined and what population is studied (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1966, p. 119).

Instrumentation and Procedures

Each student met with the principal investigator or a trained assistant for two 15 minute sessions. During the first session, students listened to "The Tiger's Whisker" and were then asked to retell this story. The text of the story is reproduced below. The 14 propositions into which the story was divided for scoring purposes are also designated.

1.) Once there was a woman who lived with her husband in the woods. 2.) One day, her husband became very sick. 3.) The woman was upset by her husband's illness (4.) and wanted him to get well. 5.) She tried everything she could think of (6) but nothing worked. 7.) At last she remembered that medicine made from a tiger's whisker would help him get well. 8.) So the woman set out to get a tiger's whisker. 9.) She went to a tiger's cave and put some food in front of the opening to the cave and sang soft music. 10.) The tiger came out, ate the food, and thanked the woman for the food and music. 11.) The woman quickly cut off one of his whiskers (12.) and ran home. (13.) The tiger was lonely and sad (14.) but the woman's husband became well.

After they completed their retellings of "The Tiger's Whisker," students were instructed to listen to the first half of another story. The entire text of "The Dog and His Shadow" follows:

Once there was a big brown dog named Sam. One day, Sam found a piece of meat and was carrying it home in his mouth to eat. Now on his way home, he had to cross a brook. He looked down and saw his own shadow reflected in the water beneath. He thought it was another dog with another piece

of meat, and he made up his mind to have that piece also. (Researcher stops reading here.) So he made a snap at the shadow, but as he opened his mouth, the piece of meat fell out. The meat dropped into the water and floated away. Sam never saw the meat again.

When they finished listening to the first half of "The Dog and His Shadow," the children were asked to predict how this story might end. This concluded the first session with each student.

The second session was devoted to story telling. At this time, children were asked to tell a story of their own invention. All tellings, retellings, and predictions were tape recorded and later transcribed for scoring.

Scoring and Data Analyses

Story retellings. Students' retellings of "The Tiger's Whisker" were scored according the number of propositions recalled. Resultant data were then subjected to formal test by means of a 2 x 2 fixed-effects analysis of variance, with sex and reading ability functioning as the variables of principal interest. The classical experimental design approach was employed to correct for the unequal but proportional number of observations per cell when performing this analysis (Kennedy, 1978, pp. 287-300).

Story predictions Students' story predictions were classified as being either congruent or incongruent with that portion of "The Dog and His Shadow" read aloud. To illustrate, an example of both an incongruent and a congruent response follow:

Incongruent prediction: The dog ate the meat and went home.

Congruent prediction: Sam jumped into the water and found he could not get the meat. Came back out. He could not get the meat because he was his shadow and he felt pretty stupid. He got all wet and made a fool of himself and he never did it again.

To determine if able and disabled readers' ability to predict story outcomes varied, a chi-square analysis was performed.

Story tellings. Children's stories were sorted into their component action sequences and scored according to the

level of structural complexity they exhibited. Two categories were devised for this purpose: (a) student failed to tell a story or story told was unelaborated, and (b) student told an elaborated story.

Stories which lacked structure or were comprised of one or more undeveloped episodes were categorized as unelaborated stories.

EXAMPLE: My story is about this man that always used to steal from people. If they'd tell him, he'd bring it back. He take it and fix it and then he'd steal it. He did this for a long time. Then once he tried to steal it from this other guy. This other guy caught him. Then that's the end.

Stories which were comprised of one or more well developed episodes were categorized as elaborated stories. Occasionally, these stories contained one or more subplots.

EXAMPLE: Once there was a little boy. He liked nature and he liked going on walks in the woods. One day he started out in the afternoon and by the time he wanted to turn back, it was dark. So he was lost. So he slept in the woods and the next day when he woke up, he saw that these little animals were surrounding him. The little animals told him to come to their homes and when he got there they gave him food and other presents that he could use. They also told him that they had a problem. There was this bad monster--big animal--that always bothers them. They always have problems with him. They asked the little boy, whose name was Sam, to help them--not kill, but turn the evil to good. So the little animals and Sam started out to find the beast. When they found him, he was sleeping. They put a blanket over him and by the time he woke up, he was in a bag. They took him back to their homes. They talked to him and tried to make him good. He said he'd think it over. The next day when he came back, he said he realized what he was doing and that he'd like to live with the little animals and help them. The little boy asked in return for their help, if any of the animals knew the way home--to his house. The beast knew the way home. So he took the little boy home. Everybody was happy.

To determine what, if any, differences existed between these able and disabled readers' story tellings, data were

subjected to test by means of a chi-square analysis. Yates' correction for continuity was employed to compensate for small expected cell frequencies.

Results

Story Retellings

Means and standard deviations based on students' retelling scores are contained in Table 1. Examination of this table suggested that the mean number of propositions recalled by girls was not markedly different than the mean number of propositions recalled by boys. Reading ability did, however, appear to have an effect on students' ability to retell "The Tiger's Whisker".

Table 1
Means and Standard Deviations
of Students' Story Retelling Scores
by Sex and Reading Ability

Ability	Male		Female	
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Able Readers	8.60	1.97	8.63	1.41
Disabled Readers	6.47	2.92	6.88	1.55

The 2 x 2 analysis of variance performed on story retelling data confirmed the observation that the main effect for reading ability was significant, $F(1, 42) = 9.74$, $p < .005$. While none of the other effects proved to be statistically significant, results of this analysis do support the hypothesis that disabled readers' sense of story structure is not as well-developed as that of able readers.

Story Predictions

The chi-square test performed on students' story prediction scores also achieved significance, $\chi^2 = 5.58$, $p < .005$. Specifically, the results of this analysis indicated that disabled readers were prone to give more incongruent responses than able readers. In fact, 47 percent of the disabled readers made predictions that were incongruent in some respect with the story, "The Dog and His Shadow." By comparison,

only 4.3 percent of the able readers gave an incongruent response.

Story Tellings

The chi-square test performed on students' story telling scores yielded significant results, $\chi^2 = 6.33$, $p = .01$. Again, able readers outperformed their disabled counterparts. Six of the disabled readers (26 percent) failed to tell a story, while all of the able readers were willing to do so. In addition, disabled readers were more inclined to tell unelaborated stories.

Discussion

The results here confirmed the hypothesis that able readers have a more well-rounded sense of story structure than disabled readers. Specifically, it was found that able readers demonstrated an ability to tell more elaborated stories than disabled readers. They were able to recall a significantly greater number of propositions when asked to retell a story; and their story predictions were prone to be more congruent with a text they heard read aloud, than were the predictions of their disabled counterparts. Assuming that instructional strategies aimed at enhancing disabled readers' knowledge of story structure will result in concomitant increases in comprehension, the findings of the present study have some important implications for pedagogical practice. For example, the results of this study suggest that disabled readers of all ages might benefit from hearing their teachers read stories aloud on a daily basis. Classroom read-aloud time is especially important for those students whose home reading experiences are limited. Highly predictable stories, books with refrains, and repetitive or cumulative tales should be given priority with selecting materials for this purpose.

Furthermore, teachers should encourage disabled students to retell stories they have heard and read. As Goodman (1982) points out, story retelling allows readers an additional opportunity to rehearse stories and to integrate and modify them. This enhances comprehension and promotes the development of story schemata. "Retellings can be done individually or in small groups, either orally or in written form" (Goodman, 1982, p. 306).

Whenever possible, teachers should employ predictive

questioning techniques when discussing stories. These techniques should help disabled readers develop a sense of story structure while at the same time contributing to their language development. Stauffer's (1980) directed listening-thinking activity and his directed reading-activity are two such predictive questioning procedures.

If, as Applebee (1980) speculates, the writing of stories can aid in the development of story schemata, disabled readers should frequently be asked to tell and write stories of their own invention. The language experience approach to beginning reading instruction might be employed for this purpose.

Finally, since the findings based on students' story tellings, story predictions, and story retellings were similar, it appears as though these three techniques for assessing students' tacit knowledge of story structure are comparable.

Continued study of disabled readers' knowledge of story structure will undoubtedly be of benefit in two ways. First, it promises to increase our understanding of the relationship which exists between sense of story structure and reading comprehension. Second, it will increase our understanding of how this relationship affects the learning and teaching of reading and, as a result, help us to improve both.

REFERENCES

- Applebee, A.N. (1978). The Child's Concept of Story: Ages 2 to 17. Chicago, IL: The Univ. of Chicago Press.
- (1980). Children's narratives: New directions. The Reading Teacher, 34, 137-142.
- Botvin, G.J., & Sutton-Smith, B. (1977). The development of structural complexity in children's fantasy narratives. Developmental Psychology, 13, 377-388.
- Goodman, K.S. (1984). Unity in reading. In A.C.Purves & O. Niles (Eds.), Becoming readers in a complex society: Part I Eighty-third yearbook of the Nat. Soc. for the Study of Educ. (pp. 79-114). Chicago, IL: Univ of Chicago Press.
- Kennedy, J.J. (1978). An introduction to the design and analysis of experiments in education and psychology. Washington, D. C.: University Press of America.

-
- Leondar, B. (1977). Hatching plots: Genesis of storymaking. In D. Perluns & Leondar (Eds.), The arts and cognition. Baltimore, MD: The Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Maccoby, E.E., & Jacklin, C. M. (1974). The psychology of sex differences. Stanford, CA: Stanford Univ. Press.
- Mandler, J. M. (1982). Some uses and abuses of a story grammar. Discourse Processes, 5, 305-318.
- Mandler, J.M., & Johnson, N.S. (1977). Remembrance of things passed: Story structure and recall. Cognitive Psychology, 9, 111-151.
- McConaughy, S. (1982). Developmental changes in story comprehension and levels of questioning. Language Arts, 59, 580-589.
- Rumelhart, D.E. (1975). Notes on a schema for stories. In D. G. Bobrow & A.M.Collins (Eds.), Representation and understanding: Studies in cognitive science (pp. 211-236). New York: Academic Press.
- Rumelhart, D.E. (1980). Schemata: The building blocks of cognition. In R.J.Spiro, B.C.Bruce, & W.F.Brewer (Eds.), Theoretical issues in reading comprehension (pp. 33-58). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Stauffer, R.G. (1980). The language experience approach to the teaching of reading (2nd ed.) NY: Harper & Row.
- Stein, N.L. (1978). How children understand stories (Technical Report #69) Urbana, IL: Univ of Ill., ERIC ED 153 205.
- (1982) What's in a story: Interpreting the interpretations of story grammar. Discourse Processes, 5, 319-335.
- Thorndyke, P.W. (1977). Cognitive structures in comprehension and memory of narrative discourse. Cognitive Psychology, 9, 77-110
- Whaley, J. & Spiegel, D. (1982). Improving children's reading comprehension through instruction in schematic aspects of narratives. Paper presented at the Amer. Educ. Research Assoc., New York City (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 215 333).



TEACHING YOUNG REMEDIAL READERS TO GENERATE QUESTIONS AS THEY READ

Victoria J. Risko and Naomi Feldman

Peabody College of Vanderbilt University
Nashville, Tennessee

Poor readers are often characterized as passive learners who fail to select and apply strategies that will aid their comprehension. Activities designed to develop student use of strategies and self-monitoring may be especially helpful for students who are experiencing reading difficulty in school (Brown, Bransford, Ferrara, and Campione, 1983; Palincsar & Brown, 1984; Pearson & Gallagher, 1983).

One activity for enhancing reading comprehension is reciprocal questioning. Teaching students to reflect upon what they have read and to formulate questions about literal and implied meanings of the author can improve comprehension and encourage active monitoring. Previous investigations of reciprocal questioning in different instructional settings and with different populations suggest that this technique is appropriate for remedial readers.

Various forms of the reciprocal questioning strategy have evolved from the ReQuest procedure developed by Manzo (1968). With ReQuest, the instructor and student(s) take turns asking each other questions on a story or text. In a study with a group of remedial readers whose ages ranged from 7 to 25 years, Manzo (1970) compared the comprehension scores of students who received the ReQuest instruction and students who were taught by teacher-posed questions in a directed reading activity format. The students using ReQuest performed significantly better on two standardized comprehension tests than did the other students.

Other studies have supported the use of reciprocal questioning. Frase and Schwartz (1975) reported that college students who asked each other questions while studying

received higher scores on recall tests than students who studied alone. Also, these students performed better on text pages for which they formulated their own questions than on alternate pages which they only read. Using reciprocal questioning with groups of fifth graders, Helfeldt and Lalik (1976) found that the students who participated in the questioning activity performed significantly better on a standardized comprehension test than did those students who received only teacher posed questions. Andre and Anderson (1978-79) found that high school students with low verbal ability benefited from a program in which they were taught to generate questions about their reading.

Palincsar and Brown (1984) have completed a series of studies which investigated the effects of self-questioning when it is used in conjunction with other strategies designed to foster reading comprehension and monitoring. In their work with seventh graders, who were described as having average decoding but low comprehension abilities, they developed an interactive program in which students and teachers took turns asking questions, summarizing, clarifying, and making predictions. They reported that students increased in ability to perform on independent comprehension measures. That is, the combined treatment aided the students' ability to apply the instructed strategies to materials other than those used in the instructional program.

While previous studies have supported the use of this technique with older students, the purpose of the present study was to assess the effects of a reciprocal questioning procedure on reading comprehension for a group of young



remedial readers. It was hypothesized that the students' comprehension performance would improve after participating in a program that required them to produce questions as they read.

Method

Design

For this study, a single subject multiple baseline across subjects design was used to evaluate effects of the reciprocal questioning procedure on the reading comprehension of three students. This design was chosen to provide: (1) precise information about each student's change in ability to answer literal and inferential questions before and during the use of reciprocal questioning, and (2) information on the types of questions generated by each student during reading.

Subjects

The subjects for the study were three second grade students who were enrolled in an after-school remedial reading tutorial program of the Family and Child Study Center at George Peabody College of Vanderbilt University. The ages of the two boys and one girl were 7.11 (student I), 7.10 (student II), and 7.8 (student III). On the Gilmore Oral Reading Test, Form C (1968), students I, II, and III had a comprehension grade equivalent of 1.7, 2.0, and 1.7, respectively.

The three tutors for the program were elementary and special education majors at the university who completed an undergraduate remedial reading course. The tutors were randomly assigned to their students. Each was assigned to one student for the entire remedial program.

Materials

The materials were basal reader stories and questions written by the investigators to correspond to each story. Eleven stories were selected at random from the Ginn Reading Program (1983), level 7, which was designed for students who are in the first part of second grade. The stories were photocopied, with the accompanying illustrations, and were presented in random order to the students. Ten of the stories were divided into three relatively equivalent parts and were used for the baseline and teaching phases of the study. The stories had a mean of 451 words (S.D. =

144) and a range of 261 to 733 words across stories.

For each story two sets of questions were written independently by the investigators. Reciprocal questions, to be asked by the tutors during the reading, and post reading questions, to be asked after the reading was completed, were developed also. The questions were classified independently by each author as literal, inferential, or predictive. Literal and inferential questions were defined according to Pearson and Johnson's text explicit and text implicit classification (1978). The prediction questions were defined as those questions that, to be answered, required information found in later sections of the text. There was little deviation between the classification of questions between the two investigators. Minor discrepancies were resolved and a final list of reciprocal and post reading questions was developed for each story.

Procedure

According to the design for this study, the students were placed in baseline first to assess their literal and inferential comprehension of stories. After the baseline phase was completed for each student, the reciprocal questioning or intervention phase was initiated and daily performance on literal and inferential questions was recorded again. Changes in performance during the two phases were evaluated to determine whether improvement occurred consistently once the intervention was implemented.

A script for the sessions of both phases was provided for each tutor. In addition to describing the procedure to be followed for both phases, the script provided examples of literal, inferential, and predictive questions. Prior to the study, the tutors were taught how to follow the script to conduct reciprocal questioning during two group training sessions and individual follow-up meetings. The tutors were instructed to tape-record their teaching sessions and were told that they would be observed through one-way mirrors. All tutoring sessions were conducted twice a week for five weeks and were held under the same conditions (e.g., number and time of sessions, size of tutoring rooms, amount of observation time, and amount of conference time with supervisors). The procedure required about forty-five minutes of the one-hour tutoring time.

Reliability of procedure and scoring was evaluated in two ways. First, the authors independently observed the sessions. A comparison of the observation data revealed that there was little or no deviation from the scripts. The tutors followed the directions on the scripts 98% of the time. Also, each author scored transcripts of student responses to post reading questions taken from both phases of the study. A high inter-rater agreement, with a reliability coefficient of .98, was established. Minor discrepancies in scoring were resolved through discussion.

Specific procedures

Baseline. During baseline the tutors introduced each story by briefly discussing predictions based on the title of the story. Students read the stories orally. Tutors corrected only those miscues that seriously affected the meaning of the story and supplied words when the students hesitated during oral reading. At each of the three divisions within the story the students were asked to stop and think about what they were reading. After the students read the stories the tutors asked the post-reading questions and tape recorded the students' responses. Percent correct scores were obtained for each student on each story for the literal and inferential questions.

The number of baseline sessions increased for each student consecutively, so that change could be attributed more reliably to the intervention rather than to other factors in the students' development or environment. Student one participated in three baseline sessions, student two participated in five baseline sessions, and student three participated in six baseline sessions.

Intervention. During each session in which reciprocal questioning was used, a common procedure was followed by all three tutors. Each day before reading, the tutors explained that the student and teacher would read stories and take turns asking questions about what they read. The students were told that the questioning could help them understand the ideas of the stories. Except for the first day of this procedure, tutors then showed the students graphs of their previous performance on the post reading questions. As in baseline, the tutors then led the students in a brief pre-reading discussion and during oral reading

corrected substitutions that affected meaning or supplied words that students failed to pronounce.

When the students stopped at the division points of each story, the tutor and student alternated in asking each other a question about the material that was just read. The tutor was instructed to ask one literal, two inferential, and one predictive question for each section of the story and to record the four questions that the student asked. Tutors accepted all student questions but helped the students to rephrase statements that were not questions or supplied questions for the students if they were unable to form them. All questions asked reciprocally were answered. If the student or tutor had difficulty in answering any question, they referred to the story for the answer.

Questioning, however, rather than question answering, was emphasized. After reading, as in the baseline phase, each student was asked to answer ten comprehension questions, four at the literal level and six at the inferential level.

Generalization Passage. In order to determine whether students' comprehension improvement generalized to another story that was read independently, students were given a story selected from the same book in the Ginn series. The students read this story orally without pausing. After reading, the students were asked ten post reading literal and inferential questions.

Results and Discussion

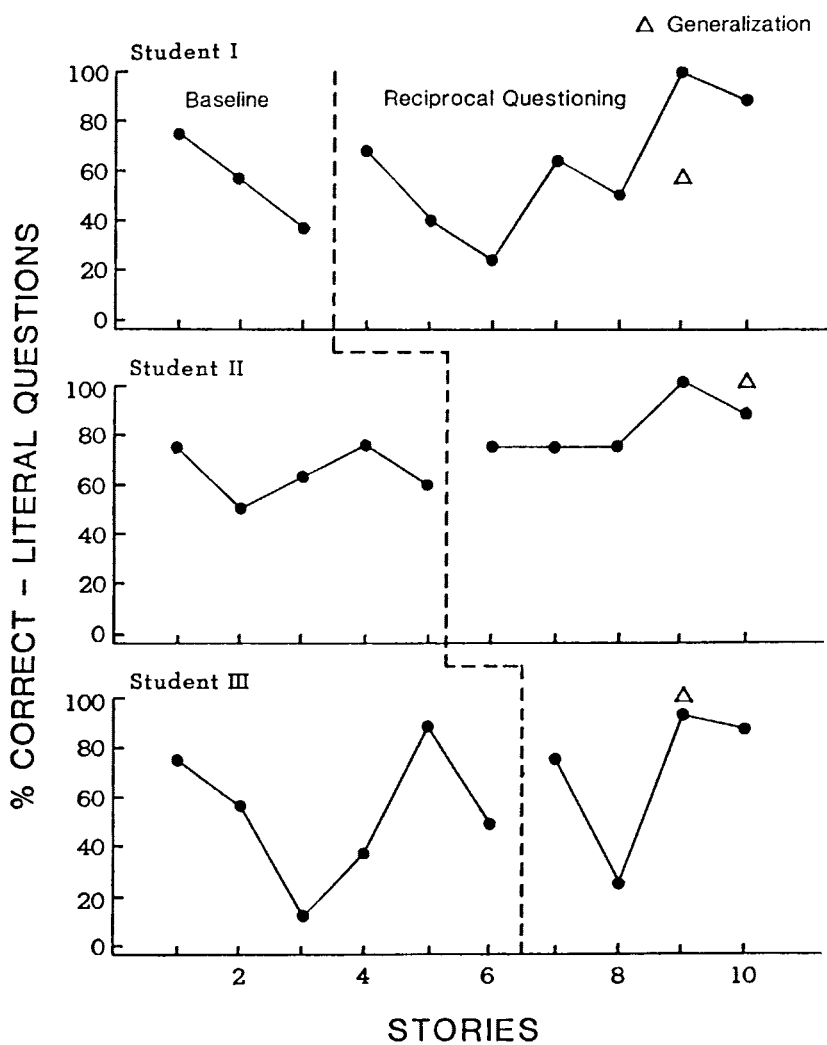
A visual inspection of the graphs reveals that the students performed differently from each other across the two phases on both the literal and inferential comprehension questions (see Figures 1 and 2). A statistical analysis using the Mann-Whitney U test, a non-parametric test for small samples, was conducted to analyze the difference between performance on post-reading questions asked during the baseline and intervention questions across the two phases (Figure 1), there was no significant difference for student I ($p < .417$), but there was a significant difference for student II ($p < .004$) and student III ($p < .033$). The analysis of performance on the inferential questions (see Figure 2) indicated a significant difference between baseline and intervention for all three students. The level of significance

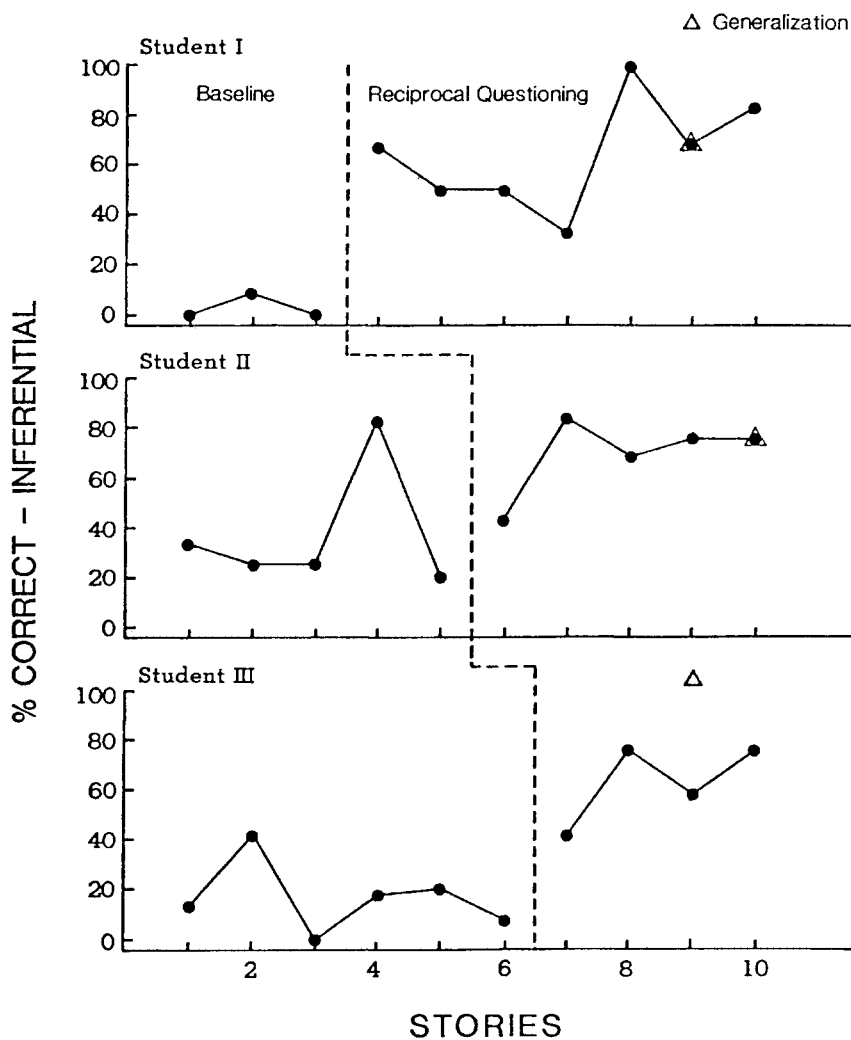
was $p = .008$ for student I, $p = .048$ for student II, and $p = .005$ for student III.

On the generalization passage, an inspection of the scores indicated variable results. On the literal questions, performance on the generalization passage for students I was similar to baseline performance, but higher than baseline for students II and III. On the inferential questions, students I and III scored substantially higher on the generalization passage than on the passages read during baseline. Student II's performance was similar to the highest score collected during baseline.

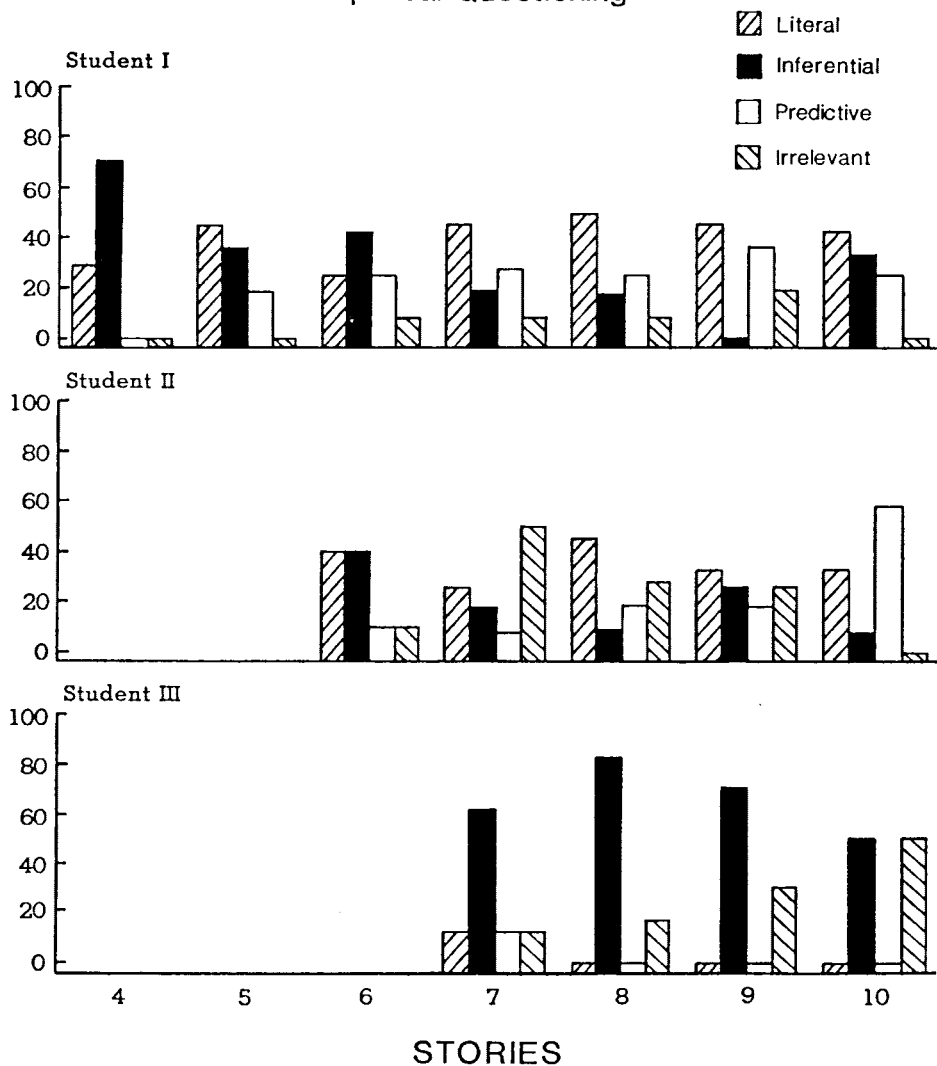
Next, the kind of questions that students asked during reading was assessed. Questions asked by the students during the reciprocal questioning procedure were transcribed and the authors judged whether they were literal, inferential, predictive or irrelevant. The irrelevant category included all questions that were unrelated to the story ideas. Inter-rater agreement was established at .92. Discrepancies were resolved through discussion. As can be noted in Figure 3, no discernible pattern of question selection was found within or across students or materials. Students varied in their selection of question and the differing content of stories did not seem to influence question selection. Student I showed an increase in the use of predictive questions across time but maintained the use of literal and inferential questions with few irrelevancies. The use of irrelevant questions was somewhat high for student III, yet this student also relied heavily on inferential questions. Student II varied the use of the four question types across stories. A correlational analysis revealed that there was no significant relationship ($p = .05$) between the type of questions asked and type of questions answered correctly by the students. As can be noted, none of the students adopted the same questioning ratio (i.e., use of one literal, two inferential, and one predictive question) as was modeled by the tutors.

These analyses indicate that the students made gains across either one or both measures of comprehension. Use of the single subject design provided the expected finding that disabled readers are heterogeneous; therefore, will respond differently to materials and questions. The findings provide support for the use of a reciprocal questioning strategy with young remedial readers. While previous studies





Reciprocal Questioning



have indicated that older readers can use this strategy to aid reading comprehension, the findings of this study suggest that reciprocal questioning can influence second graders' ability to answer literal and inferential comprehension questions. Even though the students did not adopt the same questioning strategies as their tutors, they were able to generate their own questions about the stories that they read and this seemed to contribute to their increased comprehension scores. The results of this study suggest that providing direct instruction on a selected strategy may result in students' active use of this strategy to enhance their learning. To be investigated further is whether intervention conducted over a longer period of time would contribute to independent generalization of this strategy to other written materials.

REFERENCES

- Andre, M.E., and Anderson, J.H. (1978-79). The development and evaluation of a self-questioning technique. Reading Research Quarterly, 14, 606-623
- Brown, A.L., J.D.Bransford, R.A.Ferrara, & J.C.Campione, (1983). Learning, remembering, and understanding. In Flavell & Markham's Handbook of Child Psychology, (4th ed.). Cognitive Development (Vol. 3) NY: Wiley.
- Frase, L.T. & B.J.Schwartz. (1975). Effect of question and production and answering on prose recall. Journal of Educ. Psch., 67, 628-635.
- Gilmore,J.V. & E. C. Gilmore. (1968). Gilmore Oral Reading Test (Form D). New York: Harcourt, Brace & World.
- Clymer, T., & Venezky, R.L. (1982). Glad to Meet You. Lexington, MA: Ginn and Co.
- Helfeldt,J.P., and R. Lalik, (1976). Reciprocal student-teacher questioning. The Reading Teacher, 30, 283-286.
- Manzo, A.V. (1969). The request procedure. Journal of Reading, 13, 123-126;163.
- (1970). The request procedure. Reading Improvement.
- Palincsar,A.S. & Brown, A.L. (1984). Reciprocal teaching of comprehension fostering, Cognition and Instruction, 1.



USING THE WORD PROCESSOR TO CLARIFY TEXTUAL PHRASING

Rona F. Flippo

University of Wisconsin-Parkside
Kenosha

This article briefly reviews the literature relevant to investigating the effects of textual phrasing on the efforts of children to comprehend, and then addresses the question, "Is there evidence in the reviewed literature that the use of word processors could have an impact on helping children improve their comprehension?" Some suggestions for use of word processors, based on the reviewed literature, are made.

The Literature Implications

The literature has shown that dealing with syntax, which includes the phrase groupings in text, to be a developmental learned process. Miscues can be caused because the reader anticipates the phrasing, or, because the reader is unfamiliar with the author's phrasing, punctuation, or other structure. An initial miscue caused by confusion over phrasing, punctuation, or structure will frequently cause surrounding text items to change their grammatical function. Phrasing which is unexpected can change grammatical structure, and therefore change the meaning of a passage.

The literature relevant to phrasing of text indicates that text should be printed in meaningful units to facilitate school children's reading comprehension (Weiss, 1983; Raban, 1982; O'Shea & Sindelar, 1983; Cromer, 1970; Stevens, 1981; Carver, 1970). Chunked text should not be broken due to lack of space at right margins, and punctuation should be used to determine the boundaries between chunks of texts (Carver, 1970). Modified terminal punctuation should be used for less proficient developing readers who tend to benefit from terminal punctuation cues at the ends of lines of text, rather than appearing randomly in the text (Gutknecht,

Apol, & Morton, 1982). Line breaks should be made between phrases, if at all possible, or toward the ends of sentences (Raban, 1982). Finally, sentences causing confused intonation should be eliminated from textual materials for young children (Coady & Baldwin, 1977). Since young developing readers are affected by confusion over intonation, some information should be given in manuals accompanying children's readers, for dealing with intonation of text (Coady & Baldwin, 1977). It appears that text should be presented with special attention to keeping natural phrasing together, and only breaking sentences at the most appropriate places in lines of text.

Research information on how children are affected by text phrasing, such as the information summarized in this article, coupled with factors of intellect, language background and ability, and physical and emotional stability, allow children to make the most of the events and situations that enhance the transfer of learning. Goodman and Burke's miscue analysis (1972) gives insight into how children regress and look back to clear up inconsistencies produced while reading, and highlights children's use of syntactic and semantic features. Teachers should make themselves aware of the relationship of phrasing of text and children's reading comprehension. If phrasing is related to improvement in developing children's reading comprehension, it might be worthwhile to redesign some material for children. It might also be worth the time it takes teachers to redesign instructional strategies to work with children who are still unsophisticated readers, to help them develop strategies to deal more effectively with phrasing.

Word Processors

The reviewed literature indicates that comprehension of unsophisticated and low ability readers is often affected by the phrasing boundaries of text. It is possible that the use of word processors could have an impact on assisting these readers with comprehension efforts. For instance, use of language experience techniques with a word processor could make children more aware of sentence structure, word groupings, phrase boundaries, and terminal punctuation. Additionally, of course, the process of inserting, deleting, and rearranging, are all part of the process that students should go through as they develop control over written language. This revising process is most easily done with use of a word processor (Barber, 1982). The word processor frees the stu-

dent and the teacher to easily move phrasing about and to pay attention to the visual presentation of the text.

Most of the summarized literature findings indicated could be addressed by use of a word processor. Word processing can be structured to attend to the Gutknecht et al (1982) findings. Beginning readers could be shown the "word wrap" capability of computer programs. Materials could be more easily rewritten and programmed so that the ending punctuation could be placed at the end of the line of text (Gutknecht et al, 1982; Flippo, 1980, 1982) and line breaks and phrasing could be put in appropriate chunks and locations (Carver, 1970; Raban, 1982; and others). Additionally, the word processor could be used to prepare materials for miscue analysis (Goodman & Burke, 1972). This would facilitate easier use of miscue analysis in teacher and reading education. The study of miscue analysis could enhance teachers' understanding of punctuation, intonation, and other textual cues and miscues that affect cognition. Finally, investigation into this area, summarizing what we know about the effect of phrasing on comprehension, and experimentation with the word processor as a means of dealing with phrasing and resulting comprehension confusion, could have a positive impact on elementary children's comprehension of text.

Reference Note--This article is from a paper "Evidence of the Cognitive and Metacognitive Effects of Punctuation and Intonation: Can the New Technologies Help?" presented at the Annual United Kingdom Reading Association Conference, 1984. For a complete and current review of the literature and research, please refer to Punctuation and Intonation: The Effects on Young Readers' Comprehension and Perception



of Text (1984), Rona Flippo, under review. This 1984 review is an update of earlier reviews (Flippo 1980, 1982). The update was made possible by the work of Hazel Campbell (1984), one of my graduate students, who carried out the update under my guidance and direction.

REFERENCES

- Barber, B (1982) Create BYTES of language. Language Arts, May, 472-475.
- Campbell, H. (1984) Prosodic, structural and technological influences in reading comprehension. Unpubl. paper.
- Carver, R.P. (1970). Effect of 'chunked' typography on reading rate and comprehension. Journal of Applied Psychology, 54, (3), 288-296.
- Coady, J., & Baldwin, S. (1977). Intonation and syntax in primers. Reading Improvement, 14, (3), 160-164.
- Cromer, W. (1970). The difference model: A new explanation for some reading difficulties. Journal of Educational Psychology, 61, (6), 471-483.
- Goodman, Y.M. & Burke, C.L. (1972). Reading Miscue Inventory manual: Procedure for Diagnosis and Evaluation. N.Y.: Macmillan.
- Gutknecht, B., Apol, M., & Morton, W. (1982). Is What You See, What You Get? Paper presented at Florida State Reading Conference, Miami Beach, FL.
- Marsh, M. (1983). Computer assisted instruction in reading. Journal of Reading, 26, (8), 697-701.
- O'Shea, L.J. & Sindelar, P.T. (1983). The effects of segmenting written discourse...Reading Research Quarterly, 18
- Raban, B. (1982). Text display effects of the fluency of young readers. Journal of Research in Reading, 5, (1), 7-27.
- Stevens, K. C. (1981). Chunking materials as an aid to reading comprehension. Journal of Reading, 25, (2), 126-129.
- Weise, D. S. (1983). The effects of text segmentation on children's reading comprehension. Discourse Processes, 6, (1), 77-89.



DIFFERING PERSPECTIVES ON THE GOALS AND MEANS OF READING INSTRUCTION

Patrick Shannon

York University, Toronto, Canada

The recent suggestions in reading journals that school and teacher effectiveness research should affect reading instruction in public schools imply that all levels of school personnel agree upon the goals and means of reading instruction (Baumann, 1984; Blair, 1984). Indeed, many reading programs which have recently reorganized according to this literature share this implied assumption (Cuban, 1984; Wise, 1979). That is, the programs are organized upon the assumption that administrators, reading teachers, and classroom teachers agree that high achievement test scores are the important goal for reading programs and that reading instruction should be rearranged in order to promote the greatest student gains on these tests. This study investigated this assumption of consensus within an "effective" school district.

Most research on effective schools and teachers define effectiveness in terms of standardized achievement scores (Brophy and Good, in press). Moreover, state legislators, the media, and the public subscribe to the notion that these scores are the most objective index of graduates' ability to read and write sufficiently well to fulfill roles in the nation's economy (Postman, 1979). With high test scores set as the goal, the findings of teacher effectiveness research point toward the utility of academic lessons which are tightly sequenced and closely monitored (see Otto, Wolf and Elridge, 1984 and Rosenshine and Stevens, 1984 for reviews of this research). Faced with these facts, it seems only reasonable to conclude that school personnel must agree on these issues.

However, recent articles written by teachers from reorganized districts suggest that some teachers do not share this new focus with their administrators (Phipps, 1984; Schmitt,

1982). These teachers object to administrative intervention into their reading lessons, and they suggest that the resulting reading instruction is less humane for teachers and students. My search of recent educational journals for studies comparing teachers' and administrators' views on reading goals and means yielded a few essays, but no research articles. For this reason and because school districts are implementing the findings for effectiveness of research rapidly (Ralph & Fennessy, 1983), a study of the school personnel's views was conducted within a school district which reorganized its reading program a decade prior to the investigation and which served as a model program for its state.

Method

Questionnaires, interviews, and the school district's printed descriptions were used to gather information from school personnel employed in a large suburban-rural school district in the midwestern United States. I adapted 10 items from Ignatovich, Cusick and Ray's (1979) survey of "value/belief patterns" on curriculum and instruction (see Table 1 for items). Five items were rewritten to reflect a "rational monitoring" perspective for reading programs, which closely resembles the findings of effectiveness research--verifiable competence, tightly sequenced and controlled skills lessons, closely monitored student progress and a standard curriculum. Five items were altered to suggest an "affective-communal" reading program, a program which centers on helping students to learn about their personalities and emotions through the use of literature and which recognizes each classroom as a distinct social unit in which the teacher and students negotiate the curriculum, methods, materials, and progress. To check school personnel's ideas concerning decision-making, an 11th item asked respondents to select the most appropriate level at which important decisions about reading instruction should be made at the individual teacher, grade, school, or district level. These questionnaires, including a biographical information sheet requesting numbers of reading courses completed, age, and years of experience, were distributed to 421 classroom teachers, 20 reading specialist teachers and 20 administrators who were asked to rank order the ten items as goals and means for an ideal school reading program.

Table 1

Affective-Communal Perspective

- * 1. Postive relations between teacher and student are more important in reading instruction that achievement on standardized tests.
- * 2. Teachers who concern themselves with humanistic approaches to reading instruction are more effective than those who concern themselves with measured outcomes.
- 3. Good teaching is an art and will remain an art.
- 4. There is too much emphasis placed on the cognitive aspects of reading and not enough on the affective aspects.
- 5. Teachers ought to have autonomy over reading instruction activities.

Rational-Monitoring Perspective

- * 1. District-wide coordination of reading instruction is important to teacher success.
 - * 2. Teachers need to clearly explain the intended outcomes of the reading instruction.
 - 3. A system wherein reading goals and objectives are clearly stated and the relations between them clearly defined is essential to good teaching.
 - 4. Those educators outside the classroom are in a better position to learn about innovations in reading instruction than are teachers.
 - 5. Adminstrators are to have a strong voice in the methods and materials of reading instruction in the classroom.
- * Items used during interviews.

Follow-up interviews were held with 20 classroom teachers, 3 reading teachers, and 3 administrators in order to gather information concerning the validity and reliability of the questionnaire responses and to give these respondents the opportunity to elaborate upon their questionnaire responses. Respondents were asked to sketch and discuss the steps they would take if they wanted to change an important part of the reading program, to rank order and discuss 4 items from the questionnaire, and to define their goals for reading instruction and appropriate means to

reach those goals.

Finally, the many district pamphlets discussing various parts of its reading program were examined to determine the central administration's conception of the program's organization and its goals, means, and effectiveness. Because these pamphlets were published for public as well as school use, I thought the printed statements would supply an official context in which to interpret personnel's remarks.

Results

The district's pamphlets suggested that the central administration organized the reading program according to a rational-monitoring perspective. Among the goals for the reading program were listed many which correspond to those usually mentioned in summaries of effectiveness research--central coordination of reading program, a commitment to a single scope and sequence, a positive attitude toward student learning, a regiment of direction instruction, and an objective monitoring system. Formal evaluations of the program were conducted in five year cycles, when new reading textbooks were adopted. Evaluation committee members--central administrators, principals, reading teachers classroom teachers and parents--were appointed administratively. The scope and sequence of skills listed in the textbook adopted became the reading curriculum for the five years that followed.

Eighty-nine percent of the questionnaires were completed and returned (378 classroom teachers, 18 reading teachers, and 15 principals.) Classroom teachers could be characterized as relatively young and inexperienced; few had taken more than 3 reading courses, and many had not enrolled in any. In sharp contrast, reading teachers averaged over 5 reading courses each, and they were slightly older and more experienced than the classroom teacher. As might be expected, principals were predominantly male, more experienced, but somewhat surprisingly, they averaged more graduate reading classes than the classroom teachers.

The 5 top-ranked items from the questionnaire (of 10) were examined to determine each group's perspective on goals and means for reading instruction. Principals were more likely than the other groups to rank the rational-monitoring items as most important. In fact, principals never ranked an affective-communal item higher than

fourth. Items 1 and 5 from the rational-monitoring perspective appeared listed in the first and second ranks on 12 of 15 principals' questionnaires. When examined as a group, reading teachers appeared to value both perspectives equally. I found it difficult to determine a pattern among their rankings as a group. Classroom teachers averaged three affective-communal and two rational-monitoring items in the top five ranks. As a group, classroom teachers favored items 2, 4, and 5 from the affective-communal perspective and item 2 among the rational-monitoring items (see Table 1). However, only 5 classroom teachers ranked 2 rational-monitoring items that highly.

The groups differed in their opinions about the levels for decision-making. Forty-seven percent of the principals selected the district as the most appropriate level for important decisions on reading instruction and an additional 16% selected the school as the appropriate level. That is, 63% of the principals thought decisions should be made at these administrative levels. Reading teachers split evenly again with 50% selecting the administrative level and 50% suggesting that teachers should be involved (individual teacher or grade levels). Sixty-one percent of the classroom teachers thought that teachers should be involved (36% selected the teacher level and 25% the grade level).

During the interviews, each respondent drew essentially the same linear organization for decision-making with the board of education and superintendent at the top and teachers at the bottom. Most respondents placed the principal and reading teacher at the same level of authority; however, eight teachers placed principals above reading teachers. The administrators (two principals and the reading coordinator) stated that change could be initiated at any level of authority, although none offered an example of a fundamental change in the reading program which teachers started. However, only 3 of 20 classroom teachers agreed with this assessment. The other 17 teachers and the 3 reading teachers characterized the reading program as a top-down process which usually began with the elementary curriculum supervisor and the reading coordinator and then was implemented by principals and reading teachers.

The results of the item ranking during interviews yielded results similar to those from the questionnaire. The administrators ranked the rational-monitoring items

highest (as did 1 reading teacher and 4 classroom teachers). They supported their rankings with discussion concerning the need for central coordination of instruction and for an emphasis upon the outcomes for their student population. The other 2 reading teachers and 7 classroom teachers split the first 2 ranks between perspectives and the remaining 9 classroom teachers ranked the 2 affective communal items as the most important. These 9 teachers stated that the present organization of the reading program with its emphasis on testing worked against the positive relations between students and themselves.

Three statements symbolize each group's definition of goals and means for an ideal reading program. Although these quotations do not capture the flavor of the individuals' remarks, they do summarize the opinions of the majority in each group.

The Reading Coordinator (expressing the sentiment of the administrators) ...reading programs should be designed so that you can keep track of the development of students as they move from grade to grade, or school to school as in our district. Research shows that students need continuity in their reading program, if they are to successfully learn the basic skills. Our program, while not ideal by any means, is the closest we can come, given our circumstances. It is the work of many fine people. Our recent success is due to the careful selection of a curriculum and the materials and the hard work of our faculty. Our students learn to read! Of course we expect teachers to follow the curriculum and to use the materials we supply, but that doesn't mean that's all they should do.

A Reading Teacher (expressing the position of 2 of 3 reading teachers) Not every teacher is happy with the end of unit tests or the recording system. You probably will hear some grumblings about them. But they don't understand mastery learning. Students must master one skill before they go on to the next; otherwise we perpetuate failure. To determine mastery you must test...it's as simple as that.

A Classroom Teacher (expressing the opinion of 16 to 20 classroom teachers) There is too much outside interference. The curriculum is set, the testing is set,

the materials are set, the groups are set, everything is set for the teacher and students...They say that teachers should adapt to students' needs, but how can we, we only have time to go over the basics...on Fridays, I try to work in a little free time reading, but it's like pulling teeth to get them to read on their own. I used to joke that we teach students to read but not what to do with books. Now I'm not sure that's funny, but you know what I mean... I have to yell at them to get them to stop working in their math books, but they have their books away before I even open my mouth after reading period. I don't really blame them; there aren't many fun things to do in reading in this district.

Discussion

The assumption concerning consensus on goals and means for reading instruction appears unfounded in this district. Each indicator--item ranking, selected level for decision making, and definitions of goals and means for an ideal program--suggests that administrators adhere strongly to a rational-monitoring perspective. On the other hand, most classroom teachers support an affective-communal perspective on reading instruction, and the indicators appear mixed for reading teachers. Clearly there was not a simple consensus among personnel.

One explanation for these differences is to examine each group proximity to daily reading instruction. Administrators participate rarely in actual reading instruction, and they must consider the reading program in terms of large aggregates of students and teachers. Administrators are responsible for the articulation of the various parts of the reading program into a coherent whole while remaining within a fiscal budget. More management and standardization become their answers to problems that arise because they must simplify the number of variables they confront in order to make sense of the reading program. For example, for the problem of a mobile student population in their district, administrators imposed a standard curriculum with the expectation that every teacher would follow it closely to make classrooms throughout the district roughly interchangeable. Although this is not the only possible solution, from the distant vantage point of the administrative office, this rational solution and its rational-monitoring perspective seem to be the only way to run a reading program.

Classroom teachers work with the same students every day during reading instruction, and they soon learn that student cooperation is a key to students' academic success and teachers' psychic well-being (Doyle, 1983). This cooperation must be negotiated between teachers and students; it cannot be declared by administrative fiat (Mehan, 1979). Consequently, classroom teachers attempt to initiate a feeling of community among themselves and their students generally and during reading instruction specifically because this subject holds a prominent position within the daily events in elementary classrooms. Teachers often consider administrative overtures toward change as intrusions into the classroom community because at times they work against this cooperative and communal spirit.

Consider the administrative solution for the mobile student problem from a teacher's viewpoint. In order to pinpoint students' positions within the standard curriculum in case they will move, a monitoring system was established which required teachers to use criterion referenced tests periodically and to submit the results to reading teachers and principals. Although the system may make sense abstractly, most teachers considered it undue pressure to push their students along the curriculum regardless of a student's skill development. Teachers stated that this pressure created anxiety among students, caused teachers to neglect reading skills that they deemed important but that were not tested, undermined cooperation between teachers and students, and disrupted the communal environment teachers sought to achieve.

Reading teachers occupied a unique position in the reading program--they were both teachers and administrators. They met daily with students experiencing difficulty learning to read, yet they were also responsible for the school's reading program. Accordingly, reading teachers should understand the perspectives of both groups, and as a group, reading teachers did appear to take a balanced position. However, individual reading teachers did not simply split their rankings of items between the two perspectives when completing the questionnaires. Rather, the 11 reading teachers who had completed 4 or more reading courses listed at least 4 affective-communal items in the top 5 ranks, and the 7 reading teachers who took fewer than 3 reading courses ranked at least 4 rational-monitoring items in the

top 5 spots. Perhaps reading teachers' perspectives on goals and means for reading instruction depended on whether they saw themselves as teachers or administrators.

Conclusion

With a lack of consensus on goals and means for reading instruction, it may be premature to suggest that the findings of school and teacher effectiveness research should direct the organization of reading programs, since these findings are based solely on the notion that high achievement test scores are the goal of reading instruction. If these findings are implemented, it would appear to be an imposition of administrative will on the majority of school personnel. I do not think this is what advocates of effectiveness research have in mind when they suggest that "the most pervasive characteristic is the presence of a strong instructional leader (Baumann, 1984, p. 110). Effectiveness research suggests only what can be done, it does not necessarily follow logically that is what should be done. In other words, effectiveness research begins the debate over who and what should direct reading curricula and instruction; it should not conclude that debate.

Although consensus on goals and means may not be possible due to the different orientations toward reading instruction among the various levels of school personnel, it is certainly worth the effort expended to attempt to reach one. To pursue consensus, the respective positions must be made explicit, then discussed completely. Since many school districts are too large for a purely democratic discussion, the faculty of school or even grade levels in very large schools should meet to discuss their perspectives and then elect a representative of the majority position for a district council. Administrators should do the same, and then meet the teacher representative in an open forum to discuss the reading program entirely. In this way, a reading program based on shared assumptions on goals and means might evolve, or at the very least, the differing groups will come to understand each other's perspective. And after all, aren't reading programs supposed to promote understanding?

REFERENCES

- Baumann, James (1984). "Implications for Reading Instruction from the Research on Teacher and School Effectiveness" Journal of Reading, 22, pp. 109-115.
- Blair, I. (1984). "Teacher Effectiveness: The Know-How to Improve Student Learning." The Reading Teacher, 38, pp. 138-142.
- Brophy, J. & T. Good "Teacher Behavior and Student Achievement." Third Handbook of Research in Teaching. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Cuban, Larry (1984). "Effective Schools Research, Policy and Practice at the District Level." Harvard Educational Review, 54, pp. 237-260.
- Doyle, Walter (1983). "Academic Work." Review of Educational Research, 53 pp. 159-200.
- Ignotovich, F., P. Cusick & J. Ray (1979). Value/Belief Patterns of Teachers and Those Administrators Engaged in Attempts to Influence Teaching, Research Series #43. E. Lansing: Institute for Research on Teaching.
- Mehan, H. (1979) Learning Lessons. Cambridge, Harvard U.
- Otto, W., A. Wolf, & R. Eldridge (1984). "Managing Instruction." In Handbook on Reading Research, NY: Longman.
- Phipps, N.J. (1984) "Autonomy or Uniformity" Phi Delta Kappan, 65, pp 416-418.
- Postman, N. (1979) Teaching As a Conservative Activity, New York, NY: Deta Publishing.
- Ralph, J. & J. Fennessey (1983). "Science or Reform: Some Questions About the Effective School Model." Phi Delta Kappan, 64, pp. 689-699.
- Schmitt, G. (1982). "Chicago Mastery Reading: A Case Against a Skill-Based Reading Curriculum." Learning, Vol. II, pp. 36-40.
- Wise, Arthur (1979). Legislative Learning. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

