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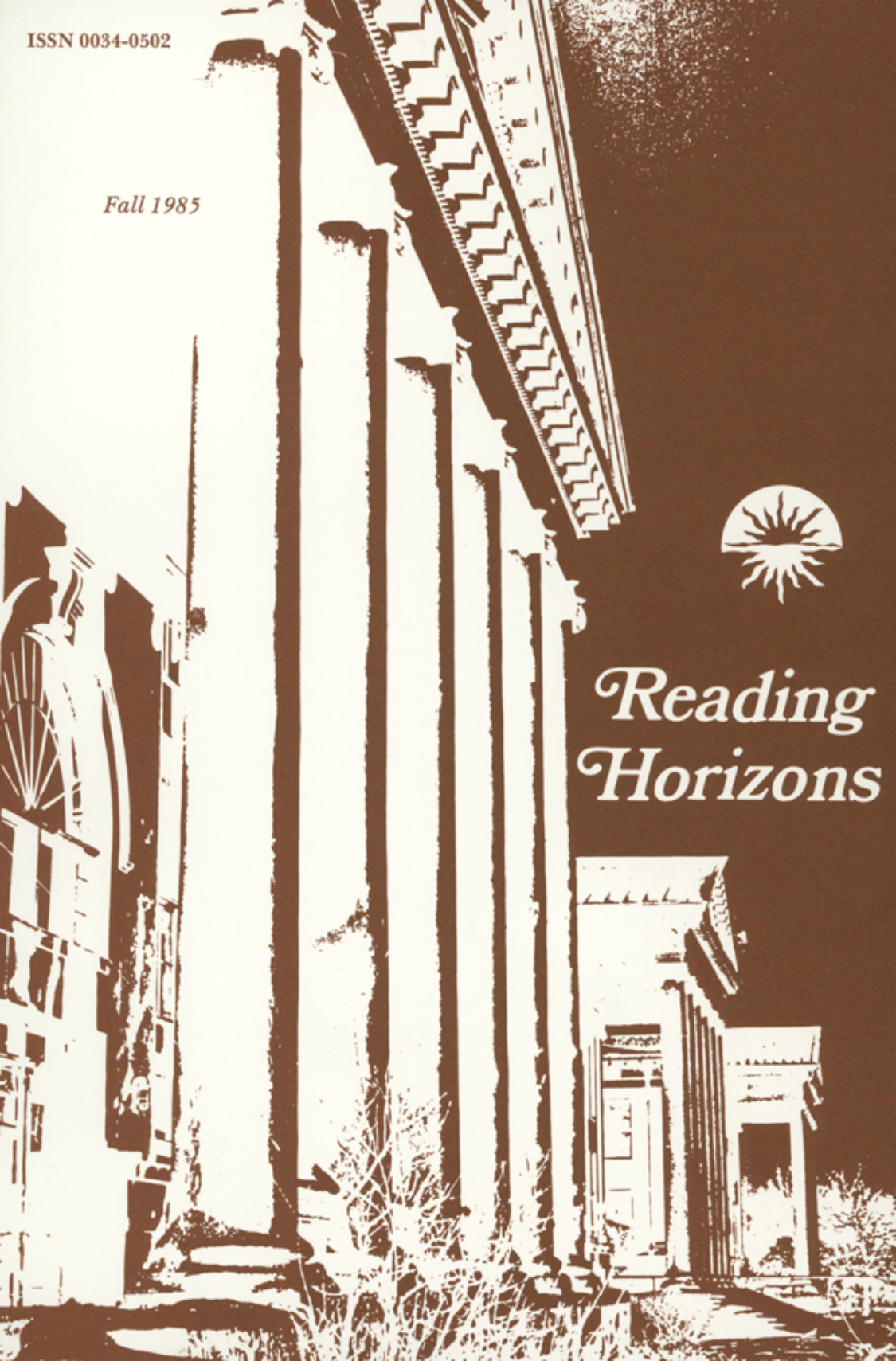


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# *Reading Horizons*





# READING HORIZONS

Volume 26, Number 1

Editor - Ken VanderMeulen  
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## A DISABLED STUDENT? IN MY CLASSROOM?

Carol Ann Moore  
Reading Specialist  
Greeley, Colorado

(Editor's Note--We asked Carol Ann for this article in the form of an editorial because it contains opinion based on her personal experience. More importantly, Carol Ann has the expertise to give advice on this crucial matter, the ability to write convincingly, and conviction to give an editorial feeling.)

A disabled student?  
In my classroom?

As the information that your fifth-grade room will become mainstreamed with the admission of Scott, you get apprehensive. How will your normal kids react to a cripple?

You've heard of paraplegics and quadriplegics but can't remember the difference. The principal described Scott as a quadriplegic with a spinal cord injury. You vaguely remember having seen something about such injuries on "60 Minutes."

But "quadriplegic"? "Quad-", that means four.

Suddenly, you realize; Scott has paralysis in all of his limbs. Your apprehension turns to panic, then anger--I am not a special education teacher!

\* \* \* \* \*

Variations of the above scenario have occurred thousands of times as regular teachers have found themselves confronted with the prospects of students with different disabilities being integrated into their classrooms. Most teachers experience mixed emotions; many have had little, if any, contact with the disabled. Such teachers are uncertain: What is expected of them? Do the teachers ignore the disabilities, emphasize them, or do they accept them?

The Act, P.L. 94-142, The Education of All Handicapped Children, calls for education of exceptional children in the least restrictive environment, often the regular class-

room. Integration of the disabled into the classroom ends the physical isolation, rejection, and segregation of the special classes era. But total integration of the non-disabled and the disabled cannot occur without increased educational attitudinal changes toward the disabled. These changes involve awareness by teachers and non-disabled peers of the unique needs and abilities of the disabled, acceptance of them, and abandonment of prejudicial ideas about the disabled.

However, awareness must be nurtured through positive growth experiences. Mere physical proximity of the disabled and the non-disabled in a classroom and information to effect change are insufficient providers of such growth experiences. Rather, adequate contact between the two groups must exist.

Teachers, as catalysts, can do much to normalize the classroom environment, thus assuring that the disabled do not receive degrading, devaluing messages. Yet, studies indicate that many teachers are no more accepting of the disabled than are other people but are more closely affected by integration of the disabled into the classroom. As a result, teachers must review their attitudes and create opportunities in which normalizing of relationships among all members of the class can occur.

Books help to effect the normalization processes in the mainstreamed classroom. In fact, the greatest potential for change in attitudes about the disabled lies in effective use of books and related resources dealing with disablement. In a concomitant way these same resources can assist disabled students to accept limitations imposed by their disabilities and to realize their potentials. In other words, books and available resources provide affective cognitive information about barriers, needs, emotions, and abilities of the disabled.

Some books reveal the various stages of emotional adjustment to disabilities experienced by the disabled--and often, family and/or friends. Awareness of these stages enables teachers to better understand disabled students (and significant others) in the mainstreamed classroom who have experienced or are undergoing such stages as they adjust to congenital or acquired disabilities.

The typical reaction pattern to the stages includes

the following:

1. Denial - refusal to acknowledge the existence of a disability.
2. Mourning - grieving for the lost self.
3. Anger - hostility toward the non-disabled.
4. Depression - withdrawal as a manifestation of the realization that the former self will not return.
5. Acceptance - adjustment to the new self and an attempt to begin life anew.

Some students with congenital disabilities also evince certain characteristics about which teachers should be familiar:

1. No experience with non-disablement.
2. Inability to explore (depending upon the disablement.)
3. Limited skills development (depending upon the disability.)
4. Social isolation from peers.
5. Distorted self-image and/or low self-esteem.
6. Difficulty in establishing personal relationships.

It should be noted here that not all students with disabilities encounter the above-mentioned stages or exhibit all--or even any--of the characteristics.

Many non-disabled students are fearful of disabilities --contact with disabled peers often creates anxiety or arouses intense discomfort so that these peers are avoided.

As noted above, books--both fiction and nonfiction--provide great potential for attitudinal changes and acquisition of information about disabilities in the classroom. Teachers, who have already read the books, can deal with disabilities in positive ways. Reading such books, these students can perceive that they are not the only ones with disabilities, identify with characters who succeed because of or despite disabilities, improve self-concepts, and solve personal problems and/or gain insights into them.

Non-disabled students, by reading books about disabilities, can develop a sensitivity to human relations, acquire better understanding about the problems often associated with disabilities, and learn about barriers, handicaps, that deter many disabled from leading more normal lives.

In addition to books, however, other resources provide

effective and affective information to students. Teachers must have awareness of such resources and utilize them in the classroom.

Plan and have students participate in units about various disabilities. BUDY Kits (see bibliography) can serve as the focus for such units.

After students have completed primary sections of the units, invite adults with different disabilities to talk to the students. Encourage them to ask the adults questions --but be prepared for unusual questions. Children of all ages exhibit great curiosity about certain disabilities. But children, through exposure to persons with disabilities and satisfactory responses to questions, become accepting of the disabled.

Nobody can resist puppets, especially "The Kids on the Block." These hand held puppets, each of which has a different disability (see bibliography), while entrancing children and adults of all ages, creates opportunities for positive interaction among audiences and the puppets. Children, too shy to ask questions of guest speakers, easily respond to these charming puppets.

Television oriented children readily acquire insights about disabilities from viewing class-length movies and watching other media forms.

Numerous other projects and resources are available to teachers as they build normalized classroom environments in which understanding and acceptance abound. Yet books function as the effective adjuvant in mainstreamed classrooms. Through books about the disabled, students may learn to understand themselves. They can become aware of and develop empathy for the needs of others. And teachers acquire knowledge about their students, be they disabled or non-disabled.

Books touch the life of each individual in integrated classrooms. Walt Whitman, in the poem, "So Long!" from Leaves of Grass, describes the impact of a book:

Camerado, this is no book,  
Who touches this book touches a man.

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

The contents of this bibliography serve only as a sampling of materials available for use by 5th grade teachers and students. It should be noted that selection of 5th grade was arbitrary. K-12 teachers can locate other materials that meet the diverse range of abilities as do those listed here on their own or with the help of librarians and media specialists.

The majority of books in the annotated bibliography have been published since 1980. Other previously published books dealing with disabilities appear in the following:

Baskin, Barbara and Karen H. Harris. Notes from a Different Drummer. New York, R.R.Bowker, 1977.

Dreyer, Sharon S. The Bookfinder, Vol. I. Circle Pines, Minn.: American Guidance Service, 1977.

----- The Bookfinder, Vol. II. Circle Pines, Minn.: American Guidance Service, 1981.

Journals such as Language Arts, School Library Journal, The Horn Book Magazine, and The Reading Teacher also contain annotations of books about disabilities.

Teachers, as they select books and other materials on disabilities, should use certain criteria as guidelines. Such a list, "Criteria for Selecting Literature," appears in the article, "Portrayals of the Disabled in Books and Basals," in READING HORIZONS, Vol 24, #4 (Moore, Carol Ann, pp. 274-279).

The following individuals contributed in part to the compilation of the bibliography: Cliff Baker, Ed.D., Associate Professor, Division of Special Education, University of Northern Colorado, Greeley; Pauline Odegard-Johnson, M.A., Handicapped Programs Coordinator, Cooperative Extension Service, Colorado State University, Fort Collins; and, Ann N. Smith, Ph.D., Director, School Nurse Achievement Program (SNAP), University of Colorado Health Sciences Center, Denver.

### Annotated Bibliography

Beckman, Delores. My Own Private Sky. New York: E.P.Dutton 1980.

Eleven year old Arthur, who has buckteeth, asthma, and a fear of swimming, and his sitter, 60 year old Jennie, learn different kinds of bravery from each other. Other characters in the sensitive, humorous book include: Norrie, and 11 year old girl who is 5' 11" tall; and Mr. Halverson, who, in his mid-thirties, has braces on his teeth.

Brown, Irene Bennett. Before the Lark. New York, Athenium, 1982.

In 1888 intelligent 12 year old Jocie Royal, unable to take more taunts and jeers because of her harelip, moves with her grandmother from Kansas City to a Kansas farm. There Jocie acquires friends, learns of surgery to correct the harelip, and, eventually, is reunited with her father.

Cohen, Miriam. See You Tomorrow, Charles. New York: Greenwillow Books, 1983.

After Charles, who is blind, gets himself and two other 1st-graders out of a dark room, the children, realizing that Charles does the same things as they, show their acceptance of his blindness by saying, "See you tomorrow, Charles." Readers learn correct ways in which to treat persons that are blind.

Danzinger, Paula. The Cat That Ate My Swimsuit. New York: Delacourt, 1974.

A junior-high student, helped by her unconventional English teacher to acquire personal security positive emotions, campaigns for the teacher's reinstatement.

Dyer, T.A. A Way of His Own. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1980.

The boy, Shutok, left to die during the winter by his small band of people because of his paralyzed leg, survives with the help of Uita, a slave girl. The people, returning in the spring, give Shutok an honored place in the group.

Gersten, Irene Fandel. Ecidujerp, Prejudice: Either Way It Doesn't Make Sense. New York: Franklin Watts, Inc., 1974.

The book contains descriptions of different kinds of prejudices, their causes and effects.

Gold, Phyllis. Please Don't Say Hello. Palo Alto, CA: Behavioral Publications, Laders Professional Center, Box 577, 1974.

Infantile autism is explained through the story of 9-year old Eddie. This sensitive story makes a strong plea for acceptance of autistic and other exceptional children.

Grealish, Charles A. and Mary Jane Von Braunsberg Grealish. The Sneely-Mouthed Snerds and the Wonderoctopus. New York: Human Policy Press.

When incorrect first impressions and preconceived ideas are proved wrong, attitudes change.

Grealish, Mary Jane & Charles A. Grealish. Amy Mauro New York: Human Policy Press.

An excellent story that acquaints students with an orthopedic handicap.

Hayes, Marvell Lo. Tuned In-Turned on. San Rafael, Calif.: Academic Therapy, 1974.

A book for and about students with learning disabilities.

Howe, James. A Night Without Stars. New York: Athenium, 1983.

The story realistically portrays Maria's fears about her heart surgery and the rejection experienced by Donald, who has been badly disfigured by burns.

Jones, Ron. Say Ray. New York: Bantam Books, Inc., 1984.

Ray, who developmentally disabled, survives in Mexico and manages to get back to his San Francisco home and his many friends.

----- . The Acorn People. New York: Bantam Books, Inc., 1978.

Jones describes his adventures with, feelings toward, and ultimate admiration for a group of campers who are disabled in a sensitive, humorous way.

King-Smith, Dick. Pigs Can Fly. New York: The Viking Press, 1982.

Daggie Dogfoot, a runt piglet, who lives because of his determination despite unusually shaped front hooves, becomes a hero during a flood.

Knowles, Anne. Under the Shadow. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1983.

Cathy Marshall and Mark Anderson, paralyzed from muscular dystrophy, become good friends. Through Cathy and her father's efforts, Mark frequently rides a horse--his freedom. Fiona, the former horse's owner, overcomes her fear of riding with the help of Mark and Cathy.

Levine, Edna A. Lisa and her Soundless World. Palo Alto, CA: Behavioral Publications, Laders Professional Center, Box 577, 1974.

Non-deaf children learn about their deaf peers, and deaf children learn to participate successfully in social environments.

Phipson, Joan. A Tide Flowing. New York: Athenium, 1981.

Following his mother's death, young Mark refuses to cope with change. Then he meets Connie, a quadriplegic, whose life he saves and who helps Mark to adjust.



- Phipson, Joan. Polly's Tiger. New York: E. P. Dutton, 1974.  
Invisible to others, Polly's tiger gives her confidence to confront the problems of a new school.
- Rabe, Berniece. The Balancing Girl. New York: E.P.Dutton, 1981.  
Using a wheelchair or crutches, Margaret, a 1st grader, demonstrates her abilities and makes \$101 for the school carnival and finally gains respect and friendship from Tommy, a classmate.
- Riskind, Mary. Apple Is My Sign. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1981.  
Harry Berger, deaf like the rest of his family, is sent to a school by his father. Home during the holidays, Harry is saved from death by Freckles, a hearing-person, and they become friends. The book uniquely demonstrates the sign language with which deaf people communicate.
- Southall, Ivan. Let the Balloons Go. New York: St. Martin's Press, 1963.  
John, who has cerebral palsy and is a spastic, decides one day that he has enough of adults telling him he cannot do certain things because he might hurt himself.

#### Materials for Teachers

- Bosher, Dr. Louis D. Epilepsy School Alert. Washington, D.C.:Epilepsy Foundation of America, 1828 L Street, NW.  
The program--intended for teachers, school nurses, and other professionals--includes various informational and teaching materials.
- Cleary, Margaret E. Please Know Me As I Am. Sudbury, Mass.: The Jerry Cleary Co., 25 Ronald Rd.  
This guide that includes curriculum instruction, teacher application, and student reactions helps children understand peers with special needs. (Inquire about cost.)
- Odegard-Johnson, Pauline. "Handi Helps." Fort Collins, CO: Cooperative Extension Service, Colo. State Univ.  
These free monthly newsletters include descriptions of different disabilities, their symptoms, causes, and treatment as well as professional resources.
- What's It Like? Fort Collins, CO: Cooperative Extension Service, Colo. State Univ.  
This free 56-page manual of activities, resources, and a glossary is intended to increase student awareness and acceptance of persons with disabilities.

Materials for Understanding

BETTER UNDERSTANDING OF DISABLED YOUTH (BUDY).  
Greeley, CO: BUDY Baker, 2330 21st Ave.

This five-unit multimedia kit provides necessary information and activities to create appropriate interaction and successful integration in the classroom. (\$81.50 per kit)

AID: ACCEPTING INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES. Niles, IL:  
Developmental Learning Materials (DLM), 7440 Natchez.  
The AID kit helps students to understand, accept, and develop positive attitudes toward individuals with disabilities. (Inquire about cost.)

FEELING FREE: ACTIVITIES AND STORIES. Scholastic Book Services.

The program, designed to help non-disabled children understand those with disabilities, contains a series of activities and stories. (Consult distributor.)

WHAT IF YOU COULDN'T...?...A PROGRAM ABOUT HANDICAPS. Boston: Children's Museum of Boston with television station WGBH.

The 7-unit kit dealing with 6 disabling conditions creates awareness and sensitivity about persons with disabilities among the non-disabled. (Inquire about cost.)

Puppets

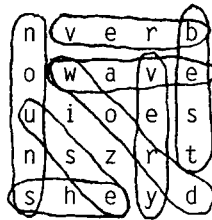
Aiello, Barbara. "The Kids on the Block." Washington, D.C. 1712 Eye St., Suite 1008. These hand-held puppets represent nearly 30 different disabilities and provide insights into problems and questions about individuals with disabilities as well as contemporary problems like child abuse. One puppet program might teach students about deafness, blindness, cerebral palsy, mental retardation, and learning disabilities. Children and adults alike interact with the puppets as they acquire knowledge about disabilities in a unique, enjoyable environment. "The Kids on the Block" is a must activity.

# WORD PUZZLES FOR VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT

Lee Mountain  
University of Houston

Suppose you were asked to name all the kinds of word puzzles you use in your classroom.

Probably the crossword puzzles would be the first kind you'd mention. Then perhaps you'd think of the word-search puzzle, a square of letters in which words are spelled vertically, horizontally, and diagonally.



Most teachers say it's easy to come up with two or three kinds of word puzzles for use with pupils, but it's hard to find a wide variety. It's handy, however, to be familiar with a number of different kinds, since word puzzles are useful for vocabulary development.

## Multiple Meaning Puzzles

Throughout the vocabulary development program, we work with students on the multiple meanings of words. Multiple-meaning puzzles can reinforce our teaching.

In this type of puzzle the root word is given at the top of the page. Then clues are given to help the pupil think of expressions, compound words, and phrases which point up the multiple meanings.

Manchester (1979) provides puzzles which point up twenty-five meanings each for such words as step, hand, pin, foot, round, skin, stone, table, show, and run.

The following example shows his treatment of  
RUN

Each definition below should suggest to you an expression which contains the word run. For example, "a person who finishes second" is called a runner-up.

1. A quarrel \_\_\_\_\_
2. Best hit in baseball \_\_\_\_\_
3. Ordinary or average \_\_\_\_\_
4. Rehearsal \_\_\_\_\_

If you came up with home run, run of the mill, and dry run for 2, 3, and 4, you've caught on to the approach of multiple-meaning puzzles. These puzzles can help your students with idioms and colloquialisms as well as multiple dictionary definitions.

### Content-Area Puzzles

The word puzzle approach can be used to develop content area vocabulary. The rebuses, scrambles, cryptograms that appear in the Quiz Book of the American Revolution (Banks, 1975), for example, can enrich the teaching of history. Wouldn't your students enjoy finding these hidden names? (p. 9)

In each sentence a patriot is hidden

We give his first name,

But you must find his last name

somewhere in the sentence.

Underline it when you do.

1. Thomas had radical ideas that sometimes caused pain even to his friends.
2. John knew that sometimes it was the pen, rather than cocked pistols, that can change a man's mind.
3. The cannons roared but Ethan and his boys ran to the fort wall, enjoying the battle.

Many middle-graders manage to locate Thomas Paine, John Hancock, and Ethan Allen in these three sentences.

### Anagrams

Anagrams help students with spelling as well as with vocabulary development. The simplest anagram puzzles involve unscrambling a group of letters and rearranging them to spell a word. The following anagram puzzle is a bit more difficult in that each set of scrambled letters can be rearranged to spell two different words (Edwards, 1977, p. 17).

1. THSO shot host
2. AREF \_\_\_\_\_

3. SYLA \_\_\_\_\_

4. ATEH \_\_\_\_\_

Did you get these sets of scrambled letters? Did you get at least one word? The answers are--2. fear, fare; 3. slay, lays; and 4. hate, heat.

Another form of anagram, called "Vocabagram" by Nurnberg and Rosenblum (1966, p. 51), involves taking the letters of a given word and rearranging them to form the word defined.

Examples: wary = twisted (answer = awry)

atom = a ditch around a castle  
(answer = moat)

1. rave = declare to be true over

2. tore = mechanical memory \_\_\_\_\_

3. sure = a trick \_\_\_\_\_

4. tome = a speck of dust \_\_\_\_\_

The definitions no doubt led you to the words rote, ruse, and mote. For ease of preparation, you might want to combine these two types of puzzles when designing a worksheet for your class. You can just scramble the letters of whatever words you want to teach, supply the definitions, and have your students enjoy solving puzzles.

### Graphic Puzzles

Solving a graphic puzzle gives a student the same kind of satisfaction a cryptologist feels about breaking a code. What pupils wouldn't enjoy translating stand  
I  
into "I understand"?

Magazines as well as workbooks are good sources of graphic puzzles. The following examples were chosen from among the contest winners of an airline magazine competition. (Kutina, 1981, p. 69)

HEAVEN - PENNIES _____	YYY MEN	N O T T U B	YOUR COAT	1 3 5 7 9 11 VS. U
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A skillful graphics puzzle reader will come up with "pennies from heaven," "three wise men," "button up your overcoat," and "the odds are against you."

Pupils enjoy creating graphics puzzles as much as solving them. Perhaps you would want to sponsor a classroom contest in which your pupils create graphics puzzles for each other to figure out.

### Palindrome Puzzles

Words which are spelled the same way backward and forward are called palindromes (pop, madam). Some complete sentences have this "same backward and forward" characteristic: Madam, I'm Adam; A man, a plan, a canal, Panama.

Students can be introduced to palindromes through the following type of puzzle (Orleans, 1977, p. 48).

For each clue write a word that is exactly the same spelled forward or backward.

1. midday noon
2. young dog \_\_\_\_\_
3. observes \_\_\_\_\_
4. mother \_\_\_\_\_

Orleans supplies twenty other words that share the "same backward and forward" characteristic of pup, sees, and mom.

More classroom mileage can be gained from the palindrome concept if you link it to reversals. Some children whose reversal tendencies last beyond their primary grades can be encouraged to pay close attention to order of letters via the following type of puzzle (Manchester, 1979, p. 37).

Here are some sets of definitions. If you get the correct answer for the first definition, simply reverse its spelling and you have the correct answer for the second definition. For example, suppose your two definitions were to spoil and a male sheep. The first answer would be MAR. Reverse the spelling and you have the second answer - RAM.

1. Cooking tools pots stop Cease
2. Apply gently \_\_\_\_\_ Not good
3. Reside \_\_\_\_\_ Wicked

## 4. Gratuity \_\_\_\_\_ Deep hole

This type of puzzle helps pupils focus on the differences between dab and bad, live and evil, tip and pit.

Palindrome puzzles can even include riddles, according to Willard Espy (1982, p. 72). He suggests that each of the couplets below defines two words, the first the reverse of the second in spelling but otherwise unrelated to it. Guess the words.

If I bore you by boasting and putting on airs,  
Turn me around, and I'm something one wears.

(brag, garb)

A river will do this, though shallow, though deep;  
Turn it around, and it likes eating sheep.

If the riddle above led you to the words flow and wolf, you're good at palindrome puzzles.

Tom Swifties

Generations of students have enjoyed putting together Tom Swifties. A Tom Swiftie is a sentence in which the final adverb has a catchy relationship to certain other words in the sentence. Examples:

"Our hot dogs are good," the cook said frankly.

"Stop marching," the captain said haltingly.

Students who are just getting acquainted with Tom Swifties can handle this form of wordplay best in the following type of puzzle (Mountain, 1982, p. 2).

Choose the adverb that fits best in each blank.

half-heartedly, stiffly, testily, genially

"There's too much starch in my shirt," the man said

stiffly.

"I failed my exam," the student said \_\_\_\_\_.

"I think I'll rub my lamp," Aladdin said \_\_\_\_\_.

"I tore her valentine in two," the lover said \_\_\_\_\_.

Tom Swifties can focus your students' attention on adverbs, but verbs too can be exercised in much the same way. In a recent Readers Digest (Kinney, 1984, p. 93) these sentences offered interesting possibilities for classroom discussion on choice of final verbs.

"I wish I were back in the forest," she pined.

"So you think you're a big wheel," he spoke.

"The cattle must move faster," he prodded.

### Rhyming Riddles

Rhyming riddles, often called Hink-Pinks, provide word-puzzle activities for teaching synonyms and definitions as well as rhymes (Tyson & Mountain, 1981).

Here's an example of a lesson to get middle-graders started on composing rhyming riddles. Ask your pupils for three synonyms for an adjective--wonderful, for instance. Perhaps they'll respond with great, super, terrific. Then ask for three nouns that rhyme with the adjectives. Perhaps they'll say great bait, super trooper, terrific Pacific.

Tell them they have composed the answers to some rhyming riddles. Now all they have to do is come up with the questions, such as:

What do you call wonderful fishing tackle?

Great bait.

What do you call a wonderful police officer?

Super trooper.

What do you call a wonderful ocean? Terrific Pacific.

### Word Shapes

Word shapes range from very easy to very difficult. The square below (Fletcher, 1969, p. 8) is from a book of easy word puzzles.

1 S	2 L	3 O	4 W
2 L			
3 O			
4 W			

1. not fast

3. a place to bake things

2. what mothers feel for children

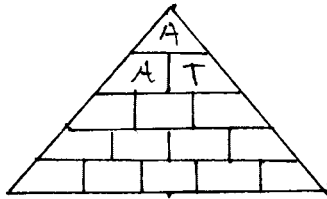
4. past tense of go



Another type of shape puzzle helps students learn to use context clues. To fill in the triangle below, a reader has to figure out what word belongs in each blank in the following paragraph. Each successive word must contain all the letters of the previous word plus one new letter. For example, a succession of words might be - I, it, sit, tips, strip.

Betty saw \_\_\_\_ man. He was \_\_\_\_ the  
corner with his Siamese \_\_\_\_.

He stepped on a sharp \_\_\_\_ and  
dropped his \_\_\_\_\_ of books.



A pupil who used context well will soon come up with: a, at, cat, tack, and stack. Your students may want to write triangle puzzles for each other.

### Puzzle Competitions

Youngsters who enjoy word-play should find out that they may be starting a lifetime hobby, since word-play contests abound in magazines. New York Magazine regularly carries word-play features, some of which are anthologized in such books as Thank You for the Giant Sea Tortoise (1971) and Maybe He's Dead (1981). Mary Ann Madden compiled both of these volumes from winning entries in the magazine competitions.

The literary limericks competition brought forth this version of Moby Dick, reprinted in the latter volume (p. 221).

Captain Ahab had queer mental flaws.  
Moby Dick (got his leg) was the cause.  
Harpooned in the flank,  
Dick and Ahab both sank  
I think it was better than Jaws.

This type of example might inspire some of your students to try to encapsulate the plot of a novel or play in a limerick.

The word-play feature, "National Challenge," is carried in many Sunday supplement magazines. Perhaps your students would enjoy responding to a challenge like this one (Newgate, 1981, p. 29):

National Challenge No. 218

Your challenge is to invent a humorous crossbreed.

Examples: Cross a tortoise with a hare,  
and you get an animal that is going  
nowhere fast.

Cross a crane with a skunk, and  
the result is an animal that can really  
raise a stink.

Cross a praying mantis with a  
moth, and you get a bug that says grace  
before it eats your suits.

Mailing in entries to "National Challenge" competition is certainly an advanced type of word-play, but maybe your students can grow to enjoy this type of fun if you begin by exposing them to a variety of word puzzles.

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# READING EDUCATION: A TWENTY-YEAR PERSPECTIVE

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Almost twenty years ago, Nila Banton Smith, in her book American Reading Instruction (1965), mused about the future developments in reading education:

Undoubtedly, brilliant new insights (in reading) will be revealed, ingenious new techniques of experimentation will be evolved, more effective methods and materials will be devised. Possibilities of such developments portend opportunities for unlimited achievement in the future (p. 426).

While it may be argued that this is an overly optimistic statement, especially in light of actual developments in reading education during this period, there is the belief by many that the field of reading has seen a number of significant issues addressed in the last twenty years. The question of what these concerns have been and the identification of those who have done significant work in these areas are the bases for this study.

## The Study

One hundred and seventeen national leaders in the field of reading education were selected at random from those listed in Graduate Programs and Faculty in Reading (19 81), to participate in this study, on the basis of their experience and accomplishments (prominent research, major publications, and holding of national office such as I. R. A. President or board of directors).

The questionnaire (Figure 1) was designed to collect information related to significant changes in reading education during the last twenty years and the identification of specific people who have been instrumental in these developments. Fifty responses were received, and it is on the basis of these that the following observations are made.

## FIGURE 1

- I. The following are some of the areas in reading education which have seen significant change or development in the last twenty years. Please select the five areas you feel have had the most impact and rank them, with #1 being

the most important.

- \_\_\_\_\_ A. Changes in the philosophy, content, and organization of basal readers.
- \_\_\_\_\_ B. Research and development in comprehension.
- \_\_\_\_\_ C. "Return to the basics" movement in reading education.
- \_\_\_\_\_ D. Psycholinguistics and the development of whole language.
- \_\_\_\_\_ E. New developments in the assessment of reading difficulties.
- \_\_\_\_\_ F. The study of the relationship between reading and the other language areas of listening, speaking, and writing.
- \_\_\_\_\_ G. Increased emphasis on the training of classroom teachers in reading education.
- \_\_\_\_\_ H. The development of special programs and instructional procedures in reading for children with various handicaps.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I. The importance of reading in the content areas at all levels.
- \_\_\_\_\_ J. Changes in the area of children's/adolescent literature.
- \_\_\_\_\_ K. Other.

II. Briefly indicate why you made these selections.

III. Many people have made and are making significant contributions in the field of reading education. Please list five people you consider who have made the most significant contributions to reading in the last twenty years. You might also include a brief statement as to why you selected these individuals.

## Results and Discussion

The results of the first question, which asked for a ranking of the areas in reading education that have seen significant change or development in the last twenty years, are shown in Table I on the following page.

Clearly item B, research and development in comprehension, with 21 responses (or almost 50% of the sample) indicating this as being their number one change or development in reading, shows the relative importance of this area. In addition, a total of 37 people placed this item in their top five choices.

Table I

Ranking of the Five Most Significant  
Changes in Reading Education

Statement	Selection					Total
	1	2	3	4	5	
B	21	8	3	4	1	37
D	8	11	5	2	4	32
F	7	4	9	7	1	26
A	7	4	5	2	3	21
I	6	5	5	9	10	35

Sample comments from those who made this selection include the following:

I have taught reading for 32 years and believe this is the single most important change I have seen and heeded. Previously, I thought I was "teaching" comprehension (in the classroom), but after perusing literature in this area, I realize I was simply assessing it.

The most important change of the last 20 years has been the interest in and improvement in the "how" of comprehension instruction in both reading and content classes.

Comprehension research deserves top billing. The work of Anderson and his colleagues at the Center for the Study of Reading, Univ of Ill, has had a major impact on how we comprehend comprehension.

Selection of comprehension is obvious. It's also the only thing being funded, too!

Areas D and F dealt with psycholinguistics and the integration of the components of language. A consensus related to these topics emphasized the influence of psycholinguistic research on current thinking in reading and the importance of reading as an integral aspect of language. Note several of the respondents' comments:

I believe the most important contributions to the pedagogy of reading come from the view that reading is a part of the total language process.

These two areas are clearly related to our increased understanding of the manner in which the reading process works and the psychological and sociological factors which impinge upon the development of literacy.

Reading cannot be separated from the other language arts--why teach reading if it is an end in itself?

The psycholinguistic movement, very simply, radically altered our perceptions of the reading process.

Our understanding of how language is acquired has led to major changes in our materials and strategies for beginning reading. Perhaps this thrust will eventually lead to improved knowledge of comprehension (which the present "comprehension research" probably won't).

Item A was concerned with changes in the basal reader; though not the first choice, this item did elicit a number of forthright comments:

Basals have changed and they remain the most economical pupil-appropriate form of mass instruction.

The most important negative change has been the devolution of basal readers into the terrible basals of the mid-1970's. Socially and politically, they may be better but pedagogically they are a disaster. Too hard, too soon; too many skills, many of which aren't even reading skills; selections requiring too much work/cultural prior knowledge.

Basals are used in 90% of classrooms and now reflect our multicultural society--also multi-age, multi-class composition. They are better in innumerable ways and will improve even more with recent attention being given to them.

Unfortunately, the changes in basals have reflected a skills orientation which has been slow to reach publishers and classroom teachers.

The fifth area selected was item I, which dealt with reading in the content areas. It was pointed out that it has been only in the most recent past that this part of reading has received attention:

Reading is an entry to content and the world of knowledge. However, active teaching must be done to insure transfer of skills from basals to content texts.

The emphasis on reading in the content area is positive--it encourages secondary teachers to develop and employ reading methodology.

Content area teachers need strategies and training in teaching basic skills and reading and at the same time not depart from content teaching. Areas such as vocational education, music, art, etc., are all neglected.

Change from "every teacher is a teacher of reading" to "every teacher has a responsibility to help his/her students read the text in class."

Worthy of note were several additional comments on other areas:

Subjects which were taboo in children's books twenty years ago are part of adolescent literature today (teenage pregnancy, drugs, divorce).

Great emphasis currently being given to writing and writing research. Relationship between reading and writing in the young child also being investigated.

Teacher-pupil interaction and the classroom learning environment of effective teachers is a major area of research in language and reading.

And from one respondent:

If you can find "significant" changes in reading instruction or research in the past 20 years, let me know! In your list from A to J, with diligent reading in the journals, I seem to find only repetitious trivia.

Opportunity was also given to indicate important developments which were not listed. While there was a wide variety of responses to this item, a number were mentioned by more than one respondent. They included these:



- Research on effective classroom instruction.
- Minimal competency testing in reading.
- Study of text differences (narrative vs. expository).
- Recognition of administrative leadership as being a key factor in reading improvement.
- Computers and reading.

The last portion of the survey requested the respondents to list five people considered to have made the most significant contributions to reading over the past twenty years. As previously noted, there were fifty responses to the questionnaire. Of these, thirty-one had data entered for this part of the survey. There were variations in the number of contributors listed--17 listed the 5 names requested, 8 listed fewer, 6 listed more than 5. The tallies have been converted to percentages. Since there are overlaps, the total will be more than 100%. Table 2 shows the rankings of the contributors mentioned most often.

Table II  
Ranking of the Eight Most Frequently  
Named Significant Contributor to Reading Education

Contributor	Percentage
Kenneth Goodman	58
Dolores Durkin	35
Richard Anderson	29
Jeanne Chall	29
P. David Pearson	29
Frank Smith	29
Harold Herber	26
Albert J. Harris	22

In all, 53 names were listed as having made significant contributions to reading. The Center for the Study of Reading at the University of Illinois and the Center for Research and Development in Reading at the University of Wisconsin also received recognition. There was a con-

siderable break following the eighth-ranked name (Albert J. Harris); below this point no name received more than twelve percent. In a number of instances a name was listed by only one respondent.

As the table indicates, Kenneth Goodman's name was listed by more than half the persons completing this part of the survey. Justifications for listing his name included research and writing on the "wholeness of language" for his work on miscue analysis, and for "redefining the reading process."

Interestingly, Table I lists comprehension as the most significant change in reading; psycholinguistics and whole language is next. However, as is noted on Table II, Dr. Goodman's name was listed on nearly 60% of the responses to Part III of the survey. Comments regarding his contributions referred to his work with miscue analysis and whole language. Statements related to Dr. Durkin's selection recognized her work with early readers, though more frequent were comments related to her work in comprehension. Thus the first two items on Table II seem to be the reverse of the first two items on Table I. But it should be remembered that tabulations for Table II are based upon fewer responses than was the case for Table I.

Of note were comments made by respondents providing a rationale for naming a "significant" contributor. For example:

Each is constantly seeking new ideas and each pushes the profession into thinking differently (re: Kenneth & Yetta Goodman, Dolores Durkin, Frank Smith, & P. David Pearson).

Her book produced two decades of discussion. The great synthesizer of knowledge. For her...insight and heuristics... (re: Jeanne Chall).

Documented what many suspected about instruction; ...continues to contribute--the number of years and the coverage of her research have made her contributions important (re: Dolores Durkin).

The definitiveness. Common sense approach of How to Increase Reading Ability in his work in remediation (re: Albert J. Harris).

Also of note were statements regarding those "...who worked every day in the trenches," the "...instructor who has taught undergraduates and ...graduates, inspiring them

...leading them to seek, to find, discover and develop knowledge that has helped children learn..." And an important reminder "...I do believe that a great deal of what we think today reflects the sound foundation that was laid down 25 to 35 years ago..."

From their investigations, Page and Moore (1982) settled upon six areas of significant research: Miscue Analysis, Cognitive Research, Reading Readiness, Reading in the Content Areas, The Great Debate about Beginning Reading Instruction, and Teacher Effectiveness. Our data closely parallels the findings of Page and Moore.

As a final point, Moore (1984) makes a trenchant observation for all: "Again, I emphasize the distinction between what goes on in academia and what goes on in classrooms. The fruits of all the attention generated by research and researchers deemed significant may or may not have been transferred to actual schooling effects."

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## READING: WHY?

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The question in the title is open to some variety in interpretation. Among the options are the following: "Why should we read?" "Why do we read?" It is to this latter question that this article is addressed.

The first exposure that most of us have to reading is reading for enjoyment. Listening to nursery rhymes, fairy tales, and stories read by parents, brothers and sisters, grandparents, baby sitters, or other adults provides this introduction. Almost all children, without exception, respond very favorably to this experience.

The next experience with reading comes when a child enters school and begins to learn more about reading and to be able to read independently. While the child is learning the pleasurable aspects of reading are still evident at this stage. Teachers who read to children for a short time each day continue to provide for them the pleasures that come from listening to good literature.

It seems difficult to reconcile the fact that reading should be a pleasurable activity for both children and adults with the fact that reading does not seem to be a favorite leisure time activity for the majority of adults. A simple check of the television viewing habits of adults and their reading habits would, I suspect, indicate that in most instances much more time is spent by those individuals in television viewing than is spent in reading.

There may be a number of reasons for this. Just who is the adult reader? Although listed as a single group, adults may range in age from 18 or 21 years of age to 90 years of age or older. Thus, it would not be surprising to expect that the reading habits and interests of these people would be quite diverse.

Besides the wide age range, there may be a wide range in educational background. This may extend from adult illiterates to those who are mature readers. In between these two extremes are many readers of varying capabilities. Thus, the types and amount of reading engaged in by adults is sure to be different. Regardless of how avid a reader anyone may be, however, it is highly unlikely that s/he would be inclined to spend three or four or even more

hours a day in reading, although this much time might be spent in viewing television.

Because the early years in a child's life are those in which s/he is introduced to reading, that experience should have a significant effect on the way s/he views reading and its purposes. In order to determine more specifically how children view reading, a survey was taken of the views of a class of children just completing third grade. The questions these children were asked included:

1. Why should children learn to read?
2. Why do adults need to read?

The third grade was chosen as a great deal of the requisite learning for success in reading takes place by the end of the child's primary school years. The bulk of the material children read up to this point in school is narrative in type. After this period, although narrative type material is still included in the child's program, a shift to informational type material takes place.

The children who were surveyed were from a suburban elementary school. Most of the parents of these children had attended college and were professional people. The experience of these children was probably not typical of that in most elementary classrooms as they were given time each day to read for pleasure, and their teacher took time each day to read to them. Thus, their most recent experience in reading included the pleasurable aspects of reading. We might hypothesize then that their responses to the questions posed would give most weight to the pleasurable aspects of reading. Let us see if this is true.

The tables on the following pages summarize the reasons for reading supplied by the third grade students. A written summary of their views will accompany the tables.

#### Why should children learn to read?

The largest number of responses was categorized under utilitarian purposes. Seven children indicated that it would be important for them to read when they were grown up because they will have to read a lot in their lives, including reading for such duties as filling out forms.

Six responses were related to learning from reading. One student stated, "It is a neat way of learning." Another commented that it was essential for passing to

Table 1 - Why Should Children Learn to Read

Job Related

1. When they grow up they will have a better chance of finding a job.
2. Because they need to read when they get a job.

Utilitarian

1. When they grow up they will need to.
2. Because they will fill out forms when they drive.
3. Because they have to read a lot in their lives.
4. So they know how to read when they grow up.
5. So they can read when they grow up.
6. Because they should be able to.
7. Because when they go to fill out a form they have to read it.

Pleasure

1. Because it's fun and interesting.
2. Because it's fun, and you can learn a lot.
3. So they can read books.
4. So they'll have something to do.
5. So they can read to their children.
6. Because it's fun.

Knowledge

1. Because you can hardly do anything by yourself.
2. Because it's a neat way of learning.
3. So they can pass to another grade.
4. Because it can help you learn.
5. To learn new things.
6. So they know something.

-----  
another grade. "So you can learn new things," rather succinctly sums up most of the comments in this category.

Another six responses reflected the pleasures to come from reading. Under this heading students stated that reading was fun. One child stated that it was fun and interesting; another that it was fun and you could learn a lot. These comments really cross over into a second category, that of knowledge to be gained from reading. One child thought that learning to read would make it possible to read books. Another indicated that it would give children something to do. A final child said it would make it possible for them to read to their own children in the future.

Why do adults need to read?

Fourteen responses for this question were related to obtaining a job. Eight mentioned it was necessary to get a job. Another child went beyond getting the job and stated one must be able to read in order to keep the job. Reading contracts, filling out forms, and reading directions were other reasons supplied here. One child thought the adult needed to learn to read because s/he might become a teacher.

The next largest number, five, was related to utilitarian purposes such as obtaining a driver's license, reading labels on food, reading directions on a computer, or reading bills. Only one response included reading for pleasure, and that was for the reading of letters.

### Discussion

A comparison of the need for reading by adults and by children illustrates that there is quite a difference represented for these divergent ages. (See Table 3)

The children in this study saw reading for obtaining a job as the most important use of reading by adults. Sixty-six per cent of the children responded that job-related reading was most important. In contrast only 9% of the children indicated that reading would be necessary for them to obtain jobs in the future.

Utilitarian purposes were listed as important for both groups. Twenty-four per cent of the children indicated this was an important purpose for adult reading, and 33% indicated it was important for children.

A marked difference occurred in the pleasure category. Only five per cent of the children thought that adults read for pleasure, while twenty-nine per cent of the children stated that they read for pleasure.

A second difference almost equal in size was that for the knowledge category. None of the children thought adults read for this purpose, but twenty-nine per cent of the children stated that children read to gain knowledge. Apparently they might think adults have already gained as much knowledge as they will in life.

It is encouraging to note that children place almost equal weight on the importance of reading for utilitarian purposes, pleasure, and knowledge for themselves. Not quite as encouraging, however, is the fact that job-related purposes and utilitarian purposes account for ninety

Table 2 - Why Adults Need to Read

## Job Related

1. So they can get a job. (8 responses)
2. They couldn't work properly.
3. Because they have to read to get a job, go to school, read contracts & a lot of other things.
4. Because if they want to get a job they have to know how to read.
5. Because they might be teachers.
6. So if they get a job and they go to do something and not be able to because they can't read what it says.
7. Fill out forms, get information, and read directions.

## Utilitarian

1. To read directions on a computer.
2. So they can read bills.
3. So they can read labels on food.
4. They can't get credit cards, jobs, or car driver's licenses, and if they have children, they cannot help them with reading or homework.
5. To drive.

## Pleasure

1. To read letters

## Other

1. Yes

Table 3 - Reasons for Reading

	Job-Related	Util.	Pleasure	Knowl.	Other
Adults	66%	24%	5%	---	5%
Children	9%	33%	29%	29%	---

per cent of the reading done by adults with only five percent of their time spent in pleasurable reading and no time spent in reading to increase knowledge.

Summary

The above rankings make apparent the fact that the hypothesis must be rejected. These children do not see reading for pleasure as the most important reason for reading by either adults or children.

Although there may be a number of reasons for this view of reading, two seem paramount for this particular group of students.



1. These are children of professional people. It is highly likely that they do much work associated with their profession that involves reading.
2. These parents are undoubtedly interested in their children's education. Thus they might stress the reading to learn aspects.

Although we cannot be sure these children did not observe their parents reading for pleasure, it is most important that they are able to do this. If they observe parents reading during their leisure moments, as well as reading for job related purposes, it would help to ensure that the balance in reading patterns observed in these children would carry over into the adult lives. That, after all, is one of the goals of our educational program, the development of interested and avid readers not only now, but throughout their entire adult lives.

# USING READING JOURNALS TO IMPROVE READING INSTRUCTION

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Current reading research is a strong stimulus for improving reading instruction. When procedures and techniques based on sound research are used in classroom or clinic, instruction improves. Basically, there are two types of research: (1) research emanating from colleges and universities and (2) action research launched at the school district level. University research is often conducted by professors and graduate students pursuing graduate degrees. Results of their research are often published in a professional journal.

Action research conducted by school personnel is often based on a specific question or problem that needs to be solved. The research design used by reading teachers and clinicians is often not as rigorous or as replicable as university-based research, but the premise on which the research is based is sound and frequently does result in an upgraded reading curriculum.

Both types of research have value. The problem is that while university-based research is often published in respected journals, it only occasionally reaches the classroom where it can make a difference. School-based research is usually reported in a newsletter distributed locally, rather than being disseminated widely. Obviously, there needs to be a better channel through which research flows. University professors must be aware of current school-based research which they can share with students in their undergraduate and graduate classes, and university based research must reach the practitioner working on a school district level.

The dissemination process needs to be improved. How can this be accomplished? Such journals as Early Years and Instructor serve a need for reading personnel and classroom teachers and one will find these two journals in the schools. Equally important are such journals as Reading World, Journal of Reading, Reading Teacher, Reading Research Quarterly, Reading Horizons, and Reading Psychology. Although college libraries subscribe to these journals, it

is rarer that these journals will be found in school libraries or teachers' rooms. This is unfortunate, because all these journals are instrumental in improving reading instruction.

The key issue here is to get these journals into the hands of principals and classroom teachers--many of whom are unfamiliar with them. The reading teacher, college instructor and reading clinician can utilize the following eight strategies to maximize the practical value of these journals.

1. College and school personnel can draw up a list of seven or eight of the reading journals that blend theory with practice and distribute this list to the schools with subscription blanks. A short review of an article in one of these journals can be published in the Superintendent's Bulletin. In my school district, a Reading Exposition is held each year. Sales representatives exhibit the latest reading/language arts materials for all school personnel to examine firsthand. This avoids the practice of ordering material only from the descriptions contained in catalogues. A space can be provided at this event to display reading journals of all types titled "Professional Development." This will give school personnel an opportunity to see the wealth and diversity of professional reading journals available to them.

2. If schools are not able to subscribe to all available journals, a list should be distributed systemwide to determine which journals are available at each school. Administrators, classroom teachers and reading personnel can then draw upon those journals to which their school does not subscribe. When ordering journals, it is very helpful for reading personnel and librarians to work together to see that as many different journals as possible are ordered within the school district.

3. A sample article from each journal can be distributed to school district personnel. It's a good idea to post an article selected by the reading teacher from one of these diverse journals each month in the teacher's lounge labeled "Article of the Month."

4. All the journals mentioned can be used equally and profitably by asking a teacher to select a journal and summarize one article for a discussion lead-in at a faculty meeting. This not only exposes teachers to the variety of journals but helps teachers keep abreast of the latest developments in the reading field. It can also be done by professors in college classes, with similar and valuable results.

the latest developments in the reading field. It can also be done by professors in college classes, with similar and valuable results.

5. One staff meeting at the beginning of the year should be devoted to a display and discussion of reading journals in terms of their diversity and content. This discussion can be led by the reading teacher or librarian.

6. Another productive idea is to devote one entire staff meeting to reading professional reading journals. A wide array of journals are made available and staff members encouraged to select pertinent articles to read without interruptions. At a follow-up faculty meeting or staff development session, the ideas contained in these articles can be shared.

7. Reading teachers and classroom teachers can team up, select a few articles from such journals as Reading World, Reading Horizons, and Reading Research Quarterly and list the pertinent points discussed in these articles in chart form. These ideas can then be presented at a citywide in-service session titled "Current Reading Research" with an emphasis on the practical aspects in terms of classroom or clinical application.

8. A few years ago, our State Department of Education awarded \$1000 "mini-grants" on a competitive basis to reading personnel and classroom teachers. Grants were awarded for innovative reading programs and projects to be implemented in the schools, based on short proposals submitted. This type of activity is a viable way for college instructors and school personnel, utilizing research journals, to work together in formulating creative proposals resulting in class room change. Awards of this type have merit because they encourage the use of professional journals and research at the "grass roots" level.

#### Concluding Remarks

If reading instruction is to improve, ideas must flow freely between colleges and school districts. These ideas are contained in reading journals published by various organization and associations. Some journals are research-oriented and have particular appeal for college personnel while others are aimed at the practitioner. My contention is that their use should not be restricted to one group because all of them have ideas which can translate into improved instruction.

## THE ABE / GED CLASSROOM: THE CRUCIAL FIRST NIGHT

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It is a commonplace to observe that adult students who have made the decision--however waveringly--to return to the classroom to learn basic literacy skills or pursue the GED do so with a network of fears, frustrations, anxieties, expectations, and motivations that can both enhance and frustrate the educational process. The teacher, aware of this complex intermingling of frequently conflicting motives and feelings, should attempt to build on those motives which might enhance success, and mitigate those fears which tend to retard or even destroy it. This is especially true on the crucial first night.

Although the student has already made a major decision by showing up on the first night, it is, in many cases, a highly tentative one, subject to immediate reversal. This was graphically portrayed by Jesse in the TV movie The Pride of Jesse Hallem. Jesse takes little time in reversing his decision to attend an ABE night class, when he sees, immediately and with emotion, that he is being treated as an over-sized child. It is not wide of the mark to assert that the teacher whose students return for the second night has already achieved a noteworthy level of success. The teacher's first night objectives for the class should be primarily affective rather than cognitive--establishing some degree of rapport in a positive, adult-oriented ambience. Considering the potency of the barriers (institutional, situational, and especially dispositional, in Cross's terminology), the first night's challenge is a considerable one.

So the practitioner asks: "OK, if the first night is that important, what can I do to insure that there will be a second and a third?" The following suggestions will not insure the student's return, but they should encourage it. Here, then, is a sampling of first-night ideas:

1. Where possible, meet them at the door, shake hands, and try to learn their names. This initial contact on the first night could set the tone for the whole learning experience. It will also be, almost certainly, a radical

departure from their last school experience--one that will probably be welcomed. To a limited extent it individualizes the relationship and helps convey the notion that both instructor and student are adults.

2. If not at the door, memorize their names when they have taken their seats. This may sound difficult but it really is not; it is mostly a matter of registering the name and mentally repeating it as they tell you (or raise a hand as you call it). Our failure to register and repeat is the real reason we "forget" names; in reality, we did not learn them to begin with. The initial learning of names reinforces the personal, individualized approach and can reduce the anxiety about or even hostility toward the seemingly cold and impersonal institution which the teacher represents. Learning names the first night also facilitates matters for you--you do not have to fumble over names or call on someone by pointing. Of course, be sure to learn the name the student wants to be called; often a preferred nickname does not appear on an enrollment form, while other students may prefer to be called Mr., Miss, Mrs., or Ms. Finally, make the effort to call them by name frequently.

3. A particularly good icebreaker and probable anxiety-reducer is to allow the class some structured socializing time. Structure it by dividing them into groups of two or three and providing them with the objective of learning some things about each other, especially name, residence, occupation, and reason for coming. This last may be particularly helpful to the student who sees that his motivations--and fears--are not unique. A variation here, if the instructor feels it is appropriate, is to have students interact and then introduce each other. However, this could prove embarrassing to some students and potentially confusing. Some students, on the other hand, who might be somewhat embarrassed about introducing themselves may enjoy the "game" of introducing someone else. But whether you have them introduce themselves, each other, or you simply call their names, the structured socializing time helps alleviate the immediate anxiety of the first night, and it reinforces the distinctions between this adult learning environment and their previous schooling.

Be certain, of course, to introduce yourself, even if you don't have student introductions. Mention

some of your own interests and activities, and in general "humanize" yourself--i.e., indicate that you are not just a teacher. Smiles, cordiality, and a sense of genuineness are important here and throughout the course; but don't fake it. It is an axiom of ABF teachers that though their students might not be able to read well, they can read the attitudes of others toward them as well as anyone. Atmosphere is fundamentally important, and the instructor, more than any other single factor, determines that atmosphere.

4. Either during the introductions, or during a separate segment of time, you might wish to inquire of them what they hope to get out of their learning experience. Many ABE students will say they want their GED. Many GED-preparatory students will, of course, mention broader job opportunities or growth in their current job. Here the teacher's job is to be encouraging without being unrealistic. One might emphasize that on average, the high school graduate makes a substantially larger income than the non-high school graduate, but completion of a GED does not guarantee a higher income. Individual characteristics--such as motivation--as well as economic factors play critical roles in the job outlook.

5. A frequent dilemma for teachers as well as administrators is the need to assess student abilities on the one hand and the initial turn-off such testing produces on the other. The dilemma is real, but in general early testing should not be extensive, and ideally it should be avoided altogether on the first night (although it rarely is). The time invested the first night in laying the foundation for a good working relationship with your class is well spent, especially when one considers the high rate of attrition likely to result from an entire night or even two nights of testing. Such extensive testing reinforces the fears and negative attitudes so frequently associated with past schooling--precisely those fears and attitudes which the first night should attempt to mitigate.

6. If it is a GED class, an alternative to first night testing is to distribute a sheet of paper or some 4"X 6" cards, and ask them for their name, address job, or one or two other bits of basic information not requiring a sentence or narrative response. Then emphasize that if they wish to, they can tell you something about their interests or hobbies, family, reasons for

enrolling in the class, favorite TV shows, or other such information that should have high interest for them. Making the second part optional precludes forcing the weakest writers into an immediate and overt display of that weakness, while providing the instructor useful personal data (especially useful where individualized teaching and materials are possible) and, of course, giving the instructor a ballpark look at the student's capabilities in writing and reading. If more accurate placement testing is required, it should be reserved for a later night when anxieties have had a chance to diminish.

7. To the extent possible, avoid all the other vestiges of the adolescent school experience. If the classes must be held in a public school classroom, make whatever modifications are possible, such as seating, for instance. Malcolm Knowles discusses at some length the possible desk or table configurations which contribute to a warmer learning climate (but be sure to leave the room as you found it, thus maintaining good relations with the day teacher). Circular or semi-circular arrangements are good for full group activities, while small groups might utilize three or four desks grouped together and facing each other. Try not to be too insistent on such things as raising hands before speaking (especially if the class is small), addressing you formally (invite them to call you by your first name), or classroom "rules" in general.

8. Remembering that success is the best motivator, try to insure that they learn something useful the first night. This is not always easy with all of the atmosphere-setting, testing, and introducing which are also part of the first night. But if they can learn something useful--an upcoming event, a local news item, how to do some minor task, or some service available to them, perhaps even a word or interesting historical fact they did not previously know ("on this day in 1787..."), the likelihood of their returning is enhanced.

9. Be prepared for any logistical or informational questions which might arise--registration, questions about the GED test, where the bathrooms are, when the breaks will be, any changes of class or teacher, etc. Additionally, make it clear that you encourage ques-



tions at any time and be certain to ask for questions at the end of the class.

Of course there are no magic formulas, and tips such as these will not transform a poor teacher into a good one. But they could help a teacher at any level by making students more comfortable in what to them is a relatively alien environment. To the extent that the teacher does make students more comfortable on that crucial first night, a significant investment in the teacher's--and ultimately the student's--success has been made.

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# INDIVIDUALIZED VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION

## IN DEVELOPMENTAL READING

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Planned, individualized vocabulary instruction is an essential ingredient of developmental reading classes. The importance of the knowledge acquired through such instruction is underscored by re-examining just what it means to know a word. Although it is still not clear "if Ludwig Wittgenstein and Bertrand Russell were left in a room for three hours, they could decide that they really knew the meaning of 'dog'" (Anderson and Freebody, 1981), it is certain that words symbolize concepts and that conceptual knowledge is a requisite for reading comprehension. As Roe, Stoodt and Burns (1983) explain, "Words are labels for thoughts, ideas, concepts, and for the relationships among them; thus, words permit the manipulation of ideas."

Vocabulary instruction deserves special attention in developmental reading classes since expanding word knowledge is the one area related to reading comprehension in which daily or weekly increments of student progress can be directly observed and measured by the learner. Unlike assessing the development of skill in inferencing or critical reading, indicators of progress in vocabulary acquisition--such as the number of words learned per week --is easily monitored and graphically illustrated. Such immediate and concrete feedback about learning can make a critical contribution toward improving the attitudes and performances of academically deficient students who may be experiencing considerable frustration and self-doubt.

Methods for teaching vocabulary in developmental reading, or any classes, should be based on research findings and sound educational theory. Although there has not been an abundance of recent research on effective methods of vocabulary instruction, key studies and the experiences of teachers strongly indicates two factors which appear to exert the most positive influence upon vocabulary acquisition. The first of these is the utilization of each student's personal experience and existing knowledge base to aid with the integration of new, unfamiliar words into that individual's vocabulary bank. In their review

of research on vocabulary instruction, Manzo and Sherk (1971-72) concluded that "teaching vocabulary may be a relatively simple matter of exploiting experiences, and exploiting or using vocabulary as a means of getting the most from experiences." Successful use of such strategies for using student experiences has been reported by Manzo (1983) and Spiegel (1984).

The second factor is the use of context, or how a word's meaning is determined by other words which surround it in text. Such use of context in vocabulary instruction is supported by the recent research of Gipe (1978-79, 1980) and Duffelmeyer (1984), as well as by experiences of Sinatra (1977) and Mateja (1982).

### A Teaching Strategy

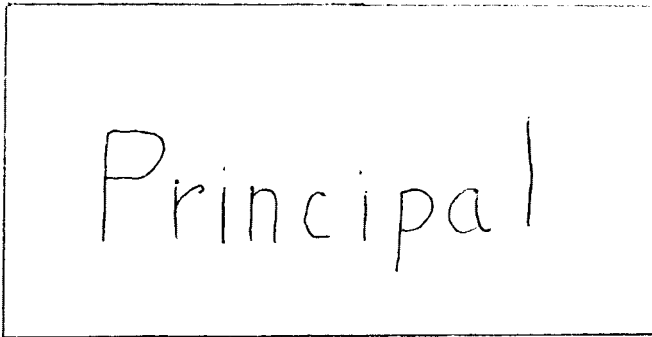
Our strategy for teaching vocabulary integrates the utilization of individual students' needs and experiences with the use of sentence context in determining specific situational word meaning. The activity is designed to provide practice with the dictionary and to refine the vocabulary acquisition process through carefully structured, active individual involvement. Specific instructional goals are: (1) to improve the learner's reading vocabulary level on a highly individualized basis; (2) to facilitate the learner's understanding of, and ability to successfully use the dictionary as an interactive tool in conjunction with other approaches to determining word meaning and (3) to develop expertise with a vocabulary expansion system which may be used in academic, as well as personal, reading pursuits.

Activity procedures are as follows: Each week students are required to identify ten previously unknown (or partially known) words from within the printed materials they encounter. Words may, at the instructor's prerogative, be drawn from as broad or narrowly focused an area of reading material as is deemed appropriate. (For example, word choices might well be limited to a specific class textbook where knowledge of subject-specific vocabulary is the predominant need, or expanded to include such supplemental readings as related journal articles.) Word choices may also be left unrestricted, even to the extent that access to any sort of printed materials is permitted--novels, newspapers, or popular periodicals.

In addition to making choices regarding the type and range of materials from which vocabulary may be drawn,

the instructor must also decide upon the word categories which best meet learner needs. The procedure might be designed to facilitate practice with the identification and assimilation of "key" or pivotal vocabulary items, i.e., words which render central conceptions within the discipline or reading assignments more accessible to readers. No matter what choices are made to delimit word categories targeted for study, each student must have the freedom within those limits to select words he or she chooses to learn. Student interests and personal experiences must be allowed to guide such subjective decisions.

Once initial instructional decisions regarding print sources and word selection parameters have been resolved, the following procedures must be explained to students. During reading activities where unfamiliar words are likely to be encountered, a small stack of 3 x 5 library cards--blank on one side and lined on the other--must be kept at hand. When a word is encountered that the learner wishes to incorporate into existing vocabulary schema, the new word must be clearly printed upon the card's blank side.



Next, the card is turned over and the sentence in which the word was found is written upon the bottom three or four lines (lengthy sentences may be excerpted so long as the segments are large enough to provide sufficient context). The word itself should always be underlined within the sentence.

The principal sum was
left in trust for numerous
heirs.

A second item should also be kept on hand during reading--a dictionary of collegiate size--from which two additional pieces of information are to be drawn. These will be placed, along with the sentence, on the lined side of the card, completing its contents. The top line will contain the pronunciation guide. The second is the specific definition or word meaning which fulfills the semantic demands of the sentence.

prin'sō-pəl
wealth (money or prop-
erty) which brings interest.
The principal sum was left in
trust for numerous heirs.

This definition should be as brief and succinct as possible (ideally, an accurate synonym), and must be phrased in the student's own words. Active learning requires that the student read and consider all definitions, cognitively process each in light of sentence context, identify and condense the appropriate meaning, and then write it on the card. (Mere copying loses the major element of this activity.) Semantic appropriateness or inappropriateness will be easily detectable to

the teacher when cards are checked; either the definition fulfills the sentence's meaning or it does not. Examples of semantically inappropriate definitions, drawn from actual student cards, follow:

Card--"In perfect hindsight, perhaps it should not come as such a shock."

Definition--"a rear sight on a firearm"

Card--"Hussein is not sanguine about his country's prospects of winning its war with Iran."

Definition--"anything blood red"

Such errors offer the instructor a unique opportunity to interact with individual students by examining the examples, explaining semantic inaccuracies, and modeling how to process multiple dictionary definitions before determining which is most appropriate. Whether done one-to-one or via an overhead projector for class instruction, directly-elicited student responses coupled with instructor feedback will provide insight into successful approaches to context-specific vocabulary learning.

It must be pointed out that although this activity bears a surface resemblance to many time-honored "flash card" drill activities which use 3x5 cards, it is designed to provide a great deal more instructional scope and flexibility. Here, since cards enhance individual student/instructor relations rather than use solely by students. This opportunity for direct teacher and student contact establishes a unique framework for one-to-one--a teaching method much lauded but seldom actually encountered.

### Evaluation

Truly individualized instruction must be evaluated on individual student basis. Although individualization often demands much extra time and effort of the instructor, evaluating students' progress in vocabulary acquisition does not need to be significantly time- or energy-consuming. The following guidelines can simplify the process:

1. Cards should be checked individually with each student, while the rest of the class is engaged in a reading or writing activity from which individuals are taken for some 3 to 6 minutes.

2. Card checking should be conducted on two levels:

1) initially only for correct form and definitional choices, and then 2) periodically for objective evaluation of student knowledge of word meaning. Initial evaluation can occur twice or three times during the early part of the school term, to clarify instructor expectations and eliminate procedural misunderstandings. Objective evaluation is carried on throughout the entire term, or for the duration of the procedure's implementation.

3. During the objective evaluation of newly gained word knowledge, students give their deck to the instructor, who then selects cards and holds each up. The student should be able to pronounce the word and give in his own words, a simple, accurate definition. If an uncued definition is not forthcoming, the sentence upon the card may be read aloud so as to provide contextual clues. It is always appropriate to explain meaning more carefully if the student is close enough to evidence previous study. (Assigning grade values are a matter for the individual instructor.)

Week by week, as each student's card deck enlarges, the individual's confidence in his or her own ability grows with it. As repetitive study aids in retention of word meanings, it is advisable to require that all previous cards be brought to each evaluation session to be randomly sampled as a part of the evaluation. There is little point to students being able to retain word meanings just long enough for a single evaluation, thereby failing to have permanently incorporated these meanings into existing cognitive schema for long term use.

Vocabulary instruction of the type described is both practical and essential for students in developmental reading classes. The strategy works by eliciting active student involvement in an area of learning where progress is quickly made and easily observed by the learner. Knowledge and confidence gained by students can help them understand and enjoy more of what they read.

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# A RE-EXAMINATION OF THE IRI : WORD RECOGNITION CRITERIA

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A persistent yet unresolved question about the informal reading inventory (IRI) is, "What word recognition criterion and comprehension criterion are appropriate for identifying instructional reading levels of elementary students?" The fact that identification of appropriate recognition of words and comprehension criteria have not received wide attention by researchers is surprising, in view of its importance for the placement of students in reading material that will insure optimum progress in reading.

Killgallon's study in 1942 seems to have been the first to assign specific criteria for defining the instructional reading level: 95% word recognition accuracy and 75% comprehension accuracy (cited in Beldin, 1970). These criteria were probably identified by Betts (cited in Pikulski & Shanahan, 1982).

In 1952, Cooper studied the Betts criteria by measuring the progress of students. He concluded that the word recognition level for primary level students should be 98% and the comprehension level should 70%. However, for intermediate level, he found that word recognition should be 96% and comprehension 60%. He indicated that with more stringent criteria children progress more rapidly in reading.

Powell (1970) reported that younger children in grades 1 and 2 could tolerate a 15% error rate in word recognition and still maintain a comprehension level of 70%, while students at the intermediate level could tolerate only a 5% word recognition error rate to maintain a 70% comprehension level.

Hays (1975) used second and fifth grade students to determine word recognition criteria. He reported that students at these levels need to achieve a word recognition performance of at least 98% or 99% in order to have a comprehension score of at least 70%.

Both Powell (1970) and Cooper (1952) suggested that the word recognition criteria should be differentiated between primary and intermediate level students. However, Hays and Betts did not suggest such a differentiation. Jongsma and Jongsma (1981) examined 11 different IRI's (all but one were published after 1977) and found that only three inventories had varied the criteria with different grade levels.

Since there was no agreement among researchers about what are appropriate word recognition and comprehension criteria and because there was a lack of agreement as to whether the criteria should be the same for all elementary levels, additional research was apparently needed to resolve the issue of what constitutes appropriate criteria for IRI's:

1. 85% word recognition for grades 1 and 2 (Powell, 1970).
2. 98% word recognition for grades 1 through 3 (Cooper 1952).
- 3.. 96% word recognition for grades 3 through 6 (Powell 1970).
4. 96% word recognition for grades 4 through 6 (Powell 1952).
5. 95% word recognition for all elementary levels (1 through 6) (Betts as cited in Beldin, 1970).
6. 98% or 99% word recognition for all elementary levels (Hays, 1975).

#### Procedure

One hundred and fifty students in Hillsborough County, Florida, were participants in the study. Three schools were selected because they had students who represented a variety of socioeconomic levels and intellectual abilities. At each school 50 students, 10 at each grade level from 1 through 5, were randomly selected for involvement in the study. If a student did not obtain a comprehension score of 70% on any passage, another student was selected as a replacement. However, of this number, some subjects were eliminated because final evaluation of the comprehension questions placed them below a 70% comprehension level.

The two researchers and a grad student administered the Analytical Reading Inventory (ARI)(Woods & Moe, 1981) to all participants in the study. Furthermore, 50 of the original subjects were randomly selected, 10 at each grade level, and given the Diagnostic Reading Scales (DRS) (Spache, 1981). Miscues, including substitutions, omissions

additions, teacher aid, and reversals, were coded as each student read. Consistent with Powell's (1970) procedure, repetitions were not included. In addition, oral reading and comprehension responses were taped for later verification.

The oral reading coding of miscues and the comprehension scoring of the grad assistant were checked by the researchers. Transcribed comprehension responses facilitated independent scoring by the researchers to determine agreement. Disagreement about the accuracy of a response was resolved through discussion.

### Results

The percentage of agreement was used to determine the interscorer reliability of the researchers' scoring of the comprehension questions. Strong interscorer reliability, 97% to 98%, was found for the DRS and for Forms A and B of the ARI. However, on Form C of the ARI the interscorer reliability declined to 88%, which may indicate a lack of parallel form reliability.

To determine the number of word recognition errors students could tolerate and still maintain 70% comprehension, each student's protocol was scanned. Word recognition scores corresponding to a comprehension level of 70% or better were used for analysis. If a student had more than one comprehension score at the 70% or above level, the word recognition score for each of the acceptable comprehension levels was used. Subsequently, comprehension was held constant at 60% to determine the amount of change in error rate when a more lenient comprehension criterion was used.

The data in Table 1 show the mean percent of word recognition performance attained while comprehension was held constant at 70%. The word recognition performances for grades 1-6 on all three ARI forms are reported. The percentage of allowable word recognition errors ranged from 94% to 97%. While grade level differences in word recognition errors were apparent, a steady or consistent increase or decrease by grade level was not found. On the average, at no grade level could students tolerate less than 94% word recognition performance and still maintain 70% comprehension.

When comprehension was held constant at 60%, the anticipated lower error rate did not occur. There was little or no change in the acceptable word recognition

Table 1  
The Analytical Reading Inventory  
Means by Passage Level

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WWP	Passage	N	Mean	Ratio	Percent Word Recog.
50	P	27	2.4	(1/21)	95.23%
77	1	21	4.3	(1/18)	94.44%
115	2	25	7.1	(1/16)	93.75%
143	3	18	7.3	(1/20)	95.00%
144	4	24	5.2	(1/28)	96.42%
186	5	27	9.4	(1/20)	95.00%
189	6	13	7.0	(1/27)	96.29%

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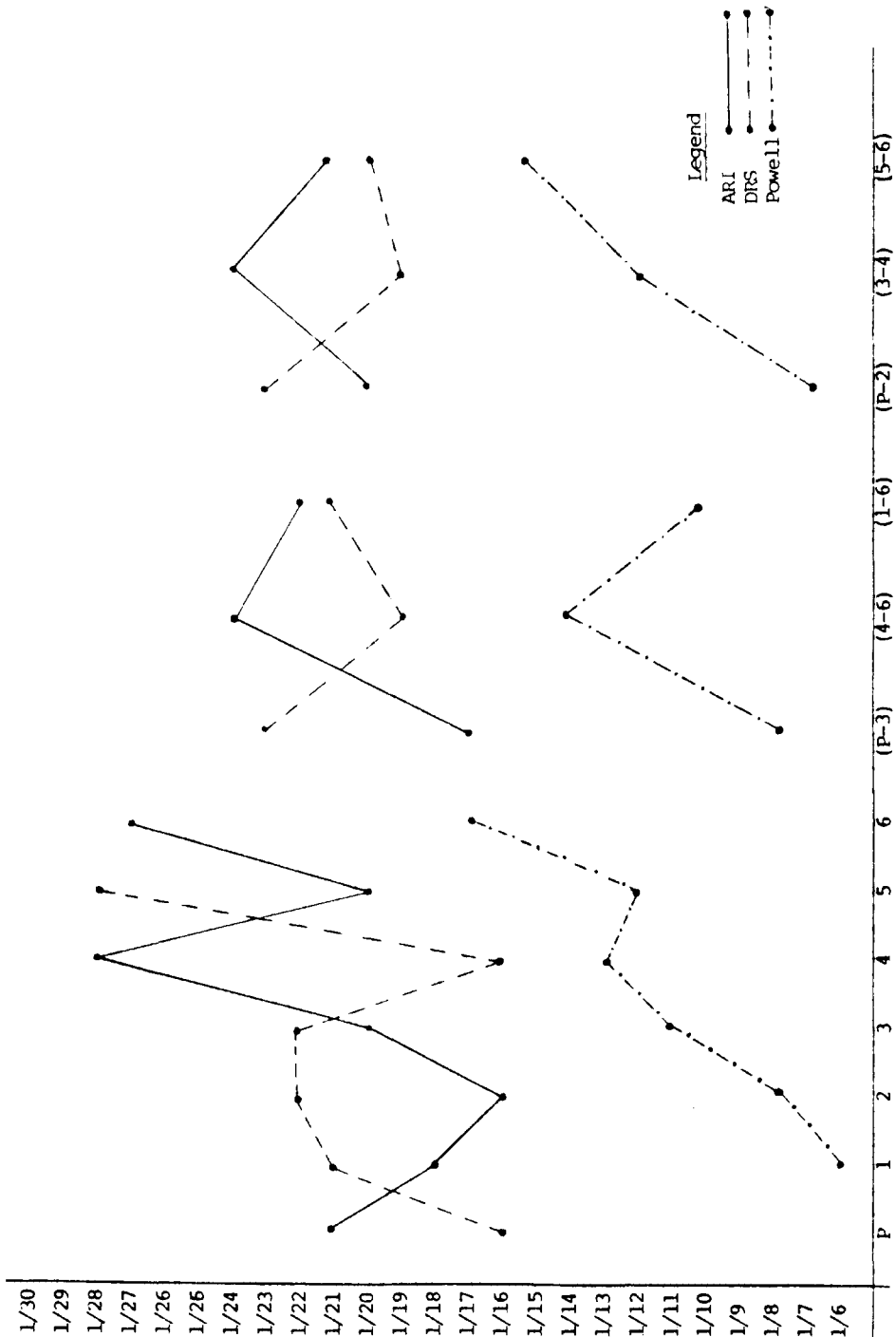
WWP=Words per passage.

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error rate. Furthermore, the direction of the change was not always consistent.

Figure 1 depicts the average word recognition error rates for 70% comprehension at each grade level and for various grade level combinations for all three forms of the ARI and the DRS. In addition, the dotted lines represent the results of Powell's (1970) criteria study also presented for comparison. The lack of any consistent word recognition error pattern between instructional levels for different IRI's is apparent. The need for a more stringent word recognition criterion as children progress at the elementary level is strongly indicated in Powell's study. However, the results of the present study using the ARI and DRS indicate that there is some question about whether more stringent word recognition criteria are needed at the intermediate levels. In addition, the results of this study indicate the need for a more stringent word recognition criterion for grades 1 and 2 than Powell found. In other words, the Betts formula seems appropriate for all levels.

Due to the lack of consistency between the word recognition error rate within each IRI, as well as unexpected large differences in results between IRI's, the investigators reexamined the passage level results in each form of the ARI and DRS. The analysis by passage raised further questions. One would expect to derive a word recognition



error rate that hovers around 5% for all passages as was found by Betts and supported by mean word recognition errors in the present study. The researchers were surprised by the wide range of error rate for different passages at any given grade level. This range seemed unrelated to the particular IRI used.

Table 2  
Word Recognition Error Ratios by Passage Level

	P	1.6	1.8	2.2	2.4	2.8	3.5	4.5	5.5	6
Form A	1/50	1/20			1/24		1/32	1/28	1/15	1/18
Form B	1/19	1/28			1/21		1/9	1/35	1/30	1/47
Form C	0	1/16			1/11		1/34	1/27	1/38	1/29
ARI	1/21	1/18			1/16		1/20	1/28	1/20	1/27
r	-	-	1/32	1/54	1/49	1/40	1/25	1/18	1/21	-
s	1/16	1/35	1/13	1/14	1/11	1/29	1/20	1/13	1/83	-
DRS	1/16	1/21			1/22		1/22	1/16	1/28	-

Table 2 depicts the word recognition error ratio for each passage of the three forms of the ARI as well as the two forms of the DRS. While the mean word recognition criterion consistently was around the 5% error range, the disparity of word recognition error ratio used to derive that mean indicated a much greater passage-to-passage variation than anticipated. For example, at the 3.5 passage level, the ratio of word recognition errors which could be tolerated while maintaining 70% comprehension ranged from a low of 1 error for every 9 words (typically considered frustration level by the Betts and Powell criterion) to a high of 1 mistake in every 34 words (typically considered independent level for both the Betts and Powell criterion).

### Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to resolve the question of which word recognition criterion is most appropriate for determining the instructional reading level for elementary students. The researchers utilized a method similar to that used by Powell (1970) to study this issue. However, the following changes were made:

1. Students representing a range of reading and

ability levels were included in the study rather than only average children.

2. Word recognition data from all instructional levels (70% comprehension) of a student were included in the analysis rather than only the level of highest word recognition performance.

3. All forms of two different IRI's were used to determine the effect of the inventory rather than using only one form of a single inventory.

The initial results of this study confirm previous research findings by Killgallon (cited in Beldin, 1970) strongly indicating that the word recognition criterion for instructional reading level should be set at about 95% for students reading at grade levels 1 through 6. However, a more in-depth analysis of the data revealed that word recognition criteria may be variable, depending upon any number of factors which could include readability, concept density, type and wording of comprehension questions, subjects' familiarity with topic, sentence syntax, concept abstractness, etc. While the previously mentioned factors would affect student performance, the degree to which they cause variation has not been controlled in the construction of an IRI. Criteria variability strongly indicates the need for standardization of informal reading inventories so that the criteria can be set to coincide with each particular passage, thus attempting to control the many different variables affecting student performance.

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# AN INSTRUMENT FOR THE EVALUATION OF SECONDARY READING PROGRAMS

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In recent years public interest in and concern over the effectiveness of secondary reading programs has grown steadily. According to recent findings by the National Assessment of Educational Progress (Micklos, 1981) high school students have failed to measure a significant gain in total reading scores in the past ten years and have actually declined in the area of inferential comprehension. With the recent review of American education by a select bipartisan commission has come a renewed interest in quality reading programs for our schools.

During the 1982-83 academic year, a study (Cooter, 1983) sought to determine what the characteristics of a theoretically sound secondary reading program are, according to experts in the field, and to develop an instrument which may be used to begin an evaluation of existing secondary reading programs. This article will briefly discuss the procedure involved and present the Secondary Reading Program Inventory (SRPI).

## Methods and Procedures

The first phase of the investigation was a review of books, journal articles, and doctoral dissertations pertaining to secondary reading. This process was completed in order to determine which characteristics had been previously identified as being important to the success of secondary programs in reading. Because of a lack of consistency and cohesion in the secondary reading literature, it was difficult for the researcher to develop a set of definitive characteristics for a theoretically sound program. However, eight categories were logically derived from the literature search which were either directly or indirectly the subject of extensive research. They were: goals, curriculum, materials, instructional strategies, evaluation, teacher competencies, physical facilities, and personnel. The categories were used as a starting point for the Delphi probe in the second part of the study.

Nine secondary reading experts were nominated by the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, College of Education

faculty to serve on a panel whose purpose was to arrive at a consensus of opinion as to the essential characteristics of a theoretically sound secondary reading program. All identified persons were asked to participate in a three-round Delphi probe during the 1982-83 academic year. Each accepted this responsibility.

The Delphi procedure was selected because of its unique facility for establishing a consensus. In this process respondents were interrogated, and the initial series of responses were used to form subsequent questionnaires. The first probe was entirely open-ended with the panelists responding to eight categories identified as characteristics from the literature search. Responses were then collated and rank-ordered according to preference by the panel. In the second and third probes the respondents were asked to decide whether they were in low, moderate, or high agreement with the revised lists of characteristics. This phase of the study resulted in a list of some forty-four characteristics being identified by the panel as essential to the success of a theoretically sound secondary reading program.

The data collected from this phase of the study were then utilized in the construction of the Secondary Reading Program Inventory (SRPI), a checklist which may help in determining areas of congruence or discrepancy in existing secondary reading programs as compared to a theoretically sound program. It is intended to serve as an instrument which may help begin a more thorough evaluation of existing reading programs.

The SRPI was initially field-tested in Knox County, Tennessee, and was found to be useful at both building and system-wide levels in developing an initial status description (Bellon & Handler, 1982) of existing secondary reading programs. The Secondary Reading Program Inventory (SRPI) is presented in Figure 1.

### Concluding Statement

In most instances evaluation has a positive effect on the reading program (Rauch, 1970, p. 250). Of course, it is important that the evaluator consider the special needs and funds of the population being served in preparing any recommendations for change. It has long been held by educators that no one program is best for all learning situations. Likewise, the SRPI should be used judiciously and evaluators should be allowed to view the data with the particular needs of the school system in mind.

Figure 1

## SECONDARY READING PROGRAM INVENTORY (SRPI)

The SRPI is an instrument designed to help Reading Consultants begin a status description (Bellon & Handler, 1982) of an existing secondary reading program. The characteristics for a theoretically sound program which comprise this list were determined in a Delphi probe (Cooter, 1983) of expert opinion and are listed from most important to least important in each section. The SRPI is not intended to take the place of a thorough evaluation of an existing secondary reading program, but simply to provide a valid means of beginning the process. Descriptions of each category are briefly discussed below.

1. Goals--This section is intended to help compare existing goals with those which may not have been included. If no written goals exist, this section will need to be temporarily omitted until direct study and observations can determine the intended goals of the program.
2. Curriculum--These program components were suggested by experts as being essential to a theoretically sound program in secondary reading.
3. Materials--This suggests the specific types of materials that should be available in any secondary reading program.
4. Instructional Strategies--These strategies are appropriate in both content classes and special reading classes.
5. Evaluation--This section pertains not only to the classroom, but also to the school and district level.
6. Teacher Competencies--These competencies apply to both content area and special reading teachers.
7. Physical facilities--Those listed should be available to all teachers.
8. Personnel--It will be necessary here to simply check whether or not these specific positions exist in the school. Specific qualities, skills, and abilities of each staff member will be examined more closely by the evaluator(s) during the course of the program evaluation.
9. Special Considerations--Many times secondary reading programs are modified to fit the special needs of the community it serves. This section is intended to help note special program components, or other considerations which may affect the reading program either positively or negatively.

### Definitions

Environmental print - newspapers and other periodicals.

Holistic - relates to the integration of all learning modes, especially reading and writing skills.

IRI - Informal Reading Inventory

Literary genre - modern novels, classics, mysteries, etc.

Metacognitive strategies - comprised of two clusters of activities relating to (1) the knowledge that learners have about various aspects of the learning situation, and (2) the self-regulatory mechanisms used by active learners during an ongoing attempt to read (Brown, 1982, p. 28).

Trade books - library books

### Directions

Check each characteristic on the SRPI which exists in the reading class, content-area classes, or is available in all classrooms. If the characteristic is not currently available, it should be duly noted. From this process, one should develop a list of program areas of Congruence and/or Discrepancies in section 10 and 11, respectively.

	Reading Class Only	Subject Area Only	School- wide	Not in Evidence
1. GOALS				
1) To develop the ability to read effectively for different purposes.	_____	_____	_____	_____
2) To help students understand content texts by providing for content-area reading in the regular classroom.	_____	_____	_____	_____
3) To foster recreational reading and help students appreciate and derive pleasure from reading.	_____	_____	_____	_____
4) To be able to use textbooks as a primary source of learning.	_____	_____	_____	_____
5) To adjust reading assignments to individual capabilities (individual instruction).	_____	_____	_____	_____

## GOALS (cont'd)

	Read Class Only	Subj Area Only	School -wide	Not in Evi- dence
6) To attain functional literacy as a minimum competency.	_____	_____	_____	_____
7) To provide an opportunity for developing basic reading skills during adolescence.	_____	_____	_____	_____
8) To provide remedial/disabled readers appropriate reading instruction by a reading specialist.	_____	_____	_____	_____
9) To develop metacognitive strategies for processing discourse.	_____	_____	_____	_____

## 2.CURRICULUM

1) The reading program develops comprehension skills (literal, interpretive, critical, creative).	_____	_____	_____	_____
2) The reading program develops reading/study skills.	_____	_____	_____	_____
3) Reading is taught as a tool, tied to the content of each subject course.	_____	_____	_____	_____
4) The reading program develops an appreciation and motivation to read for enjoyment.	_____	_____	_____	_____
5) A complete program provides remedial reading instruction for those students who need special help which cannot be provided in the regular content-area classroom.	_____	_____	_____	_____

## 3. MATERIALS

	Read Class Only	Subj Area Only	School wide	Not in Evi- dence
1) A variety of trade books are available.	_____	_____	_____	_____
2) Environmental print (news-papers, etc.) are available for reading instruction and recreational reading purposes.	_____	_____	_____	_____
3) Reference sources are available.	_____	_____	_____	_____
4) A variety of literary genre are available for instructional and recreational purposes in both reading and content classes.	_____	_____	_____	_____
5) Content texts (at various reading levels) including supplemental readings for each course.	_____	_____	_____	_____
6) A variety of laboratory aids (programmed materials, skill practice materials, etc.) are available.	_____	_____	_____	_____
7) Published textbooks for teaching reading and study skills are available.	_____	_____	_____	_____

## 4. INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES

1) Text study strategies are taught (SQ3R, outlining, mapping, etc.).	_____	_____	_____	_____
2) Reading strategies are integrated across the curriculum (including the Directed Reading Approach, vocabulary improvement exercises, organization skills, etc.).	_____	_____	_____	_____
3) Teachers prepare students for most learning experiences.	_____	_____	_____	_____

## INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES (con'd)

	Read Class Only	Subj Area Only	School wide	Not in Evidence
4) Teachers use a broad range of read/writing (Holistic) strategies.	_____	_____	_____	_____
5) Thinking skills (comprehension centered instructional strategies) are stressed.	_____	_____	_____	_____
6) Study guides are used in content classes.	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. EVALUATION				
1) Informal testing/evaluation (essay answers, free response, unaided recall, teacher-made tests, IRI, observational techniques, etc.) are an integral evaluation component	_____	_____	_____	_____
2) Student assessment (reactions, discussion, student-devised tests, self-monitoring, etc.) is part of assessing the secondary reading program	_____	_____	_____	_____
3) The affective mode of learning is assessed through the use of such instruments as interest and attitude inventories.	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. Standardized tests (criterion and norm-referenced, group, etc.) are used to help assess the reading program.	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. TEACHER COMPETENCIES				
1) Teachers are aware of content reading demands in their individual subject specialty(ies).	_____	_____	_____	_____

TEACHER COMPETENCIES (continued)	Read Class Only	Subj Area Only	School wide	Not in Evi- dence
2) Teachers are knowledgeable in techniques for teaching reading skills.	_____	_____	_____	_____
3) Teachers have a basic understanding of the reading skills appropriate for secondary learners.	_____	_____	_____	_____
4) Teachers are aware of the various materials available (including supplemental aids).	_____	_____	_____	_____
5) Teachers have a knowledge of diagnostic/testing procedures so as to help make instruction appropriate to the needs of the students.	_____	_____	_____	_____
7. PHYSICAL FACILITIES				
1) A display area for books, magazines, etc.	_____	_____	_____	_____
2) An area for small group instruction.	_____	_____	_____	_____
3) An audio-visual area with a well stocked media center.	_____	_____	_____	_____
4) A reading lab for independent student work, which is coordinated with the content area classroom.	_____	_____	_____	_____
8. PERSONNEL				
1) A reading consultant for grades 7-12 who can serve as a resource person for classroom teachers, is a reading/language specialist, and is qualified by demonstration.	_____	_____	_____	_____
2) Administrative leadership and support is evident (principals, coordinators, etc.).	_____	_____	_____	_____



PERSONNEL (Cont'd)	Read Class Only	Subj Area Only	School wide	Not in Evi- dence
3) Content-area teachers are considered to be integral and active parts of the reading staff.	_____	_____	_____	_____
4) Support staff is essential				
--librarian	_____	_____	_____	_____
--guidance staff	_____	_____	_____	_____
--school psychologist	_____	_____	_____	_____
--media specialist	_____	_____	_____	_____
--medical input	_____	_____	_____	_____

## 9. SPECIAL CONSIDERATIONS NOT MENTIONED ABOVE

## 10. AREAS OF CONGRUENCE (according to SRPI)

## 11. DISCREPANCIES (items marked "not in evidence")

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# OBSERVATIONS OF A READING RESOURCE SPECIALIST

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In 1983 the Florida legislature made a critical decision concerning the improvement of reading in the secondary schools. It provided funds for the creation of a new position, the reading resource specialist. Each high school was allowed one, whose specific areas of responsibility included the following: a) contributing the expertise needed to prepare the school's total reading program, b) working with the school's curriculum person in planning and implementing the basic skills remediation program as determined by the Florida State Assessment Accountability Act of 1976, c) providing individual diagnostic testing to enable better prescriptive approaches for classroom instruction, d) assisting the school staff in organizing and managing reading skills as an integral part of all subject areas, e) providing inservice training for school staff in the area of reading, f) participating in a team teaching effort with classroom teachers, and g) interpreting the reading program for both parents and the community. In August 1983 I was hired as a reading resource specialist at Coral Spring's High School. With the generous help of the administration and teaching staff I attempted to fulfill these ambitious objectives. I set out to prove that the legislature had indeed made a wise decision and that the services of a resource specialist were essential to a well coordinated school program. I intended to make the Coral Spring's program a model that other schools could follow.

## I. Getting out the Word

My immediate task was to make as many teachers as possible aware of my presence. I introduced myself to department heads, explained my role as a resource specialist, and gave each a list of general areas of assistance I could offer--reading a text, skimming, vocabulary study, test-taking strategies, reference skills, and so on. The department heads then circulated it and told those teachers who were interested to see me. Before I knew it I had a full calendar.

## II. The SQ3R Method of Reading a Text

My first goal was to teach students how to read their textbooks effectively (with the greatest degree of understanding) and efficiently (in the least amount of time required to achieve that understanding). From the many study formulas devised to fulfill this purpose I chose the original, Robinson's SQ3R (1961), because I felt it embodied sound learning principles and was simple for students to apply.

For several classes I gave a one period lecture-discussion on "How to Read a Text." I began each session with the question, "How man textbooks do you think you will be required to read during the course of your lives?" Answers ranged from twenty-five to one hundred. I observed that students would probably be required to read their texts at least twice, and that if they were shown how to read effectively they would probably do better on tests, find their courses more enjoyable, and earn extra time for leisure and recreation.

While teaching the SQ3R I also introduced learning concepts and study skill strategies. For example, I recommended that after they surveyed a chapter, students should then decide on the number of pages they would study before they take a break. This procedure motivates them to read specific content with a clearly defined goal, a much better strategy than deciding merely to "study" for forty-five minutes. I further indicated that key terms that appear in italics and at the end of a chapter are often present in a section usually entitled, "Identify the following," or, "Define these terms." Students could list these words and their definitions on separate sheets and review each carefully before the exam.

The "recite" step, I noted, could be performed by silent or oral repetition, notetaking, or underlining. (A follow-up lecture is probably required to teach students the important skills of notetaking and underlining.) This critical step, properly performed, helps students retain more information because they are reinforcing their understanding of ideas they have just encountered. As Pauk observes: "Recitation strengthens the original memory trace, because your mind must actively think about the new material" (p. 95). I told students that if they were fortunate enough to have a few free minutes before the end of a class, they should spend

this valuable time reciting the major concepts they had just been taught. If this time were unavailable, they could silently repeat the main ideas as they walked to their next class. However, they should watch their step or they might bump into other similarly motivated students.

When teaching SQ3R to students, I selected two passages from the textbook they were using. They read the first with no assistance and the other with prequestions based on the heading that they and I suggested. Often the difference in performance on the two passages was quite impressive; thus students discovered for themselves the potential benefits they could derive by actively applying this method.

## II. Vocabulary Study

Since vocabulary study forms an integral part of all content area courses, I gave as many classes as possible an introductory lecture on the role of vocabulary in reading and learning. I began by describing the two kinds of vocabularies we all possess: receptive and expressive (Burmeister, 1978). Our receptive vocabulary includes those words whose meanings we learn through listening and reading. Our expressive involves those words we use in our speech and writing. Generally, a word must become part of our receptive vocabulary before we can use it with confidence and accuracy. And the only means of enlarging our receptive vocabulary is by hearing new words spoken by others or by seeing them in print. Therefore, I warned that students who refuse to read, or who read infrequently, are severely restricting their vocabulary development process. Moreover, acquiring new words by reading is superior to listening because one can see how the word is spelled, can examine it in context, and has the time to study the sentence in which it appears.

I also cautioned students to avoid the insidious process of memorizing a list of words for a test and inevitably forgetting most of them too soon afterwards. Better strategies that require a careful examination of words and thereby engender a greater depth of information processing include looking for familiar roots and affixes, examining the content in which the target word appears, and creating a sentence that clarifies the meaning of the target word. An additional strategy involves "visual-

izing" a person, event or situation that students could relate to the word under study. Thus, to remember the word "loquacious" students could visualize a talkative person with his/her mouth wide open. For further reinforcement, they could draw a picture. Finally, when studying long lists of words they could group many under categories, such as aspects of communication, personality traits, emotions, physical characteristics, geographical features, and so on.

In some classes I had time to discuss the concept of connotation and to encourage students to be sensitive to the subtle shades of meaning of different words. Follow-up exercises could involve an examination of the connotations of various names for products--for example, Brute connotes savage masculinity; LeBaron suggests elegance and sophistication; and Joy signifies exhilaration. Students could be given a list of products and asked to create names for each that would have rich, positive connotations, thereby making the product more appealing to potential consumers.

### III. The Language-Experience Approach

The language-experience approach (see Dechant, pp. 231-232, and Harris and Sipay, p. 67) proved very successful with students whose reading skills were well below average, students who had been forced throughout their school years to read materials that they usually found to be difficult, uninteresting and remote from their experiences. I met with two English teachers whose students had reading levels that were approximately five to two years below grade level. Together we devised the following strategy.

1. We divided each class of 14-16 students into two groups of seven. I directed one group and the classroom teacher directed the other.
2. We provided six or seven topics for each group, and students brainstormed additional ones. Members of the group voted on each topic and the one that received the most votes was selected. My groups chose "A Trip to New York," and "How I Plan to Spend My Christmas Vacation." If a teacher wishes, s/he might offer pictures of interesting scenes and situations, and students could suggest topics that relate to each picture.
3. Each group formed a close circle. One student volunteered the first sentence and moving clockwise and in

turn each student added another to the developing story. Students were allowed to pass their turn; however, as often as possible we encouraged reticent students to contribute. When necessary, we prompted.

4. Students wrote down each sentence as it was given so that they could have a personal copy after the story was finished.

5. Since the experience was designed to be positive and non-threatening, we made no corrections in grammar or style. If students asked how a particular word was spelled, we did give them the correct spelling.

6. Since some time remained before the end of the period, students also created questions based on their story. I recommended that questions concern its main idea, supporting details, sequence of events and key words.

7. The teacher collected the stories and typed them with the names of all students involved appearing at the top.

Next class, students of both groups exchanged stories and discussed their contents. Teachers may want to structure the discussion by having each group answer questions that the other created.

This activity could be scheduled regularly, once a month, or every two weeks. Near the end of the year, the teacher could compile a booklet of all the stories written. Art and journalism departments could contribute an attractive cover page and lively illustrations. The authors, students who daily experience frustration and failure, would derive a sense of recognition and self-esteem when they see their names in print.

#### IV. Television Programs

For another activity I showed students an episode of the sitcom "Happy Days" and required them to analyze it as a short story. I began with a brief review of the major elements of a short story, emphasizing conflict, since it was an essential component of the taped show. My prequestion for each class was to identify the internal and external conflicts and to examine reasons for their occurrence. Discussion of the program began with a close examination of the previous question. Students then worked on a study guide which contained questions concerning characterization and theme. After they shared their answers, we began to compare different aspects of

the show with other stories they had read.

The use of television in schools is not restricted to the showing of sitcoms, movies, and plays. Teachers of history, geography, psychology, science and other disciplines are making frequent yet judicious use of this potentially powerful teaching aid. The resource specialist can offer considerable assistance to these teachers. Working together, both educators could create a series of questions: prequestions to stimulate student interest and guide their viewing, adjunct questions to help them follow the logical development of concepts and further direct their subsequent viewing, and postquestions to enable them to synthesize the information presented. Advance organizers (see Ausubel, 1960, 1963) and structured overviews (see Estes, Mills & Barron, 1969) might also be used.

#### V. The School Newspaper

The school newspaper is a natural source for reading skill development. Since this paper deals with many aspects of student involvement, students are likely to be interested in its content. Additionally, the paper is written by peers in familiar and comprehensible language.

I suggested to the newspaper advisor the creation of a column called "Dear Teach." Students could write letters describing school related problems and a selected panel of teachers could offer solutions.

The reading resource specialist might also write a column containing important hints regarding reading and study skills. This column need not be written for each publication, perhaps only when the content is relevant or timely. For example, an article about test-taking skills could precede mid-term exams. When several classes have research papers assigned, a column could describe how to extract salient information from reading materials.

The resource specialist can also help classroom teachers use the newspaper as a means of improving reading skills. Using selected articles, teachers could pose questions on main ideas, supporting details and organizational patterns. Further analysis might focus on author's tone, intent, unstated assumptions and use of language.

## Concluding Remarks

This list of suggested activities for the reading resource specialist could be expanded endlessly. In fact, with the myriad services that specialists can provide, it is not naive to expect that after a single year of their presence in the schools, administrators, staff, and students will ask the question, already articulated by Becky Williams, reading coordinator of Broward County: "How did we ever get along without them?"

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(Author's note--For a more comprehensive description of the duties and responsibilities of the reading resource specialist, see Florida Statute 233 057.)

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