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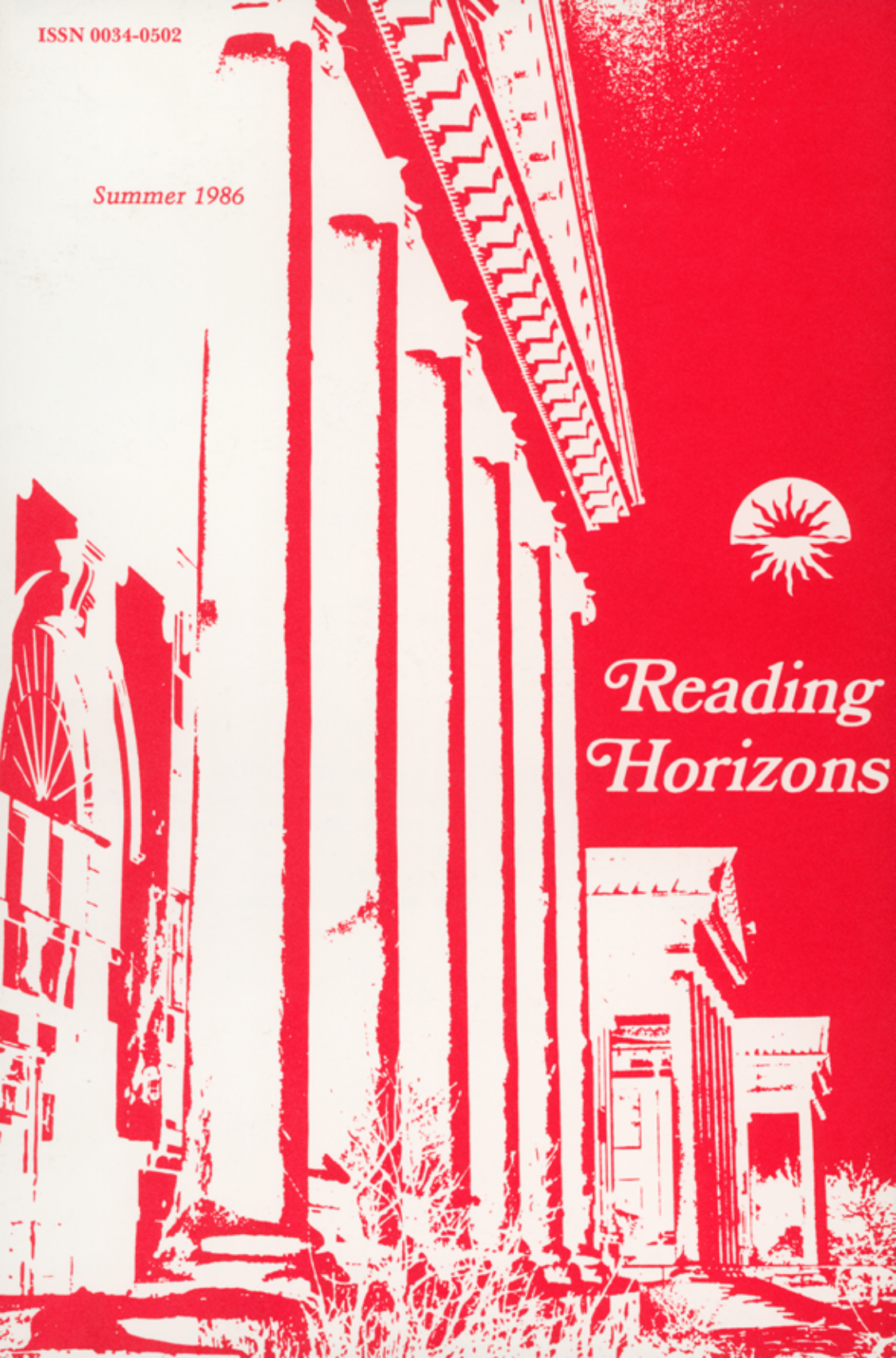


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READING HORIZONS has been published quarterly since 1960, on the campus of Western Michigan University in Kalamazoo. As a journal devoted to the teaching of reading at all levels, it seeks to bring concerned and interested professionals together through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

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READING HORIZONS is a unique publication which serves as a forum of ideas from many schools of thought. Although it began twenty-five years ago as a newsletter of a local IRA chapter, HORIZONS is now written by and for professionals in forty-eight states and nine Provinces of Canada. It is truly an eclectic venture in sharing reports and research on the teaching of reading at all levels.

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"There is no more crucial or basic skill in all of education than that of reading."



LEARNING TO READ BETTER: TRAINING DECODING, COMPREHENSION AND PERCEPTUAL SKILLS FOR POOR READERS

Elizabeth J. Short, Case Western Reserve Univ.
E. Marcia Sheridan, Indiana Univ./South Bend
Louise Anes, Brandywine Public Schools, Mich.

A host of causal agents have been suggested to account for the individual differences in reading performance that distinguish competent readers from disabled readers. Some important differences, too numerous to list in their entirety, have been observed between competent and disabled readers' knowledge and strategic use of word recognition skills, contextual cues, orthographic knowledge, and metacognitive knowledge. Despite the abundance of research implicating each of these domains as a source of the cause of reading failure, there exist results which strongly dispute each of these findings (see Singer, 1982). According to Singer, three problems have plagued reading disabilities research and appear to be responsible for the equivocal findings: the heterogeneity of disabled reading populations; the lack of task equivalence among studies and the abundance of specific good/poor reader differences that nevertheless fail to predict individual differences in reading ability. All three of these reasons for the equivocal findings suggest that the current approach to reading research must be altered.

This study was partially supported by an ESEA Title IV-C Demonstration, Project No. 4061-700. Preparation of the manuscript was supported by the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, Grant No. T32-HD-78-2. Requests for reprints should be sent to the first author at Case Western Reserve University, Dept. of Psychology, 10900 Euclid Avenue, Cleveland, Ohio 44106.

Despite the confusion and controversy surrounding the research in reading, useful information can be gained from research on competent and incompetent reading, providing educators carefully evaluate past research and decide which findings are meaningful. In a recent multicomponent model of reading ability (Carr, 1982), skillful performance in the following four groups of processes was assumed to be necessary for reading success: sight word recognition, decoding, syntactic and semantic context use, and comprehension. In addition Carr suggested that a fifth component--attention--apparently allocates processing capacity to each of the skills. The instructional implications offered by Carr's model (1982) are such that educators can clearly determine a reader's strengths and weaknesses within each domain, thereby capitalizing on strengths in an attempt to build weak areas.

The present study is a program evaluation designed to evaluate an elementary school remedial reading instructional program using Carr's model (1982) of reading ability. The "Learning to Read Better" program evolved from Anes' (1979a, 1979b, 1981) study and experience in teaching children with reading problems. The program is structured according to the components of the reading process, with time in the reading room and teaching responsibility allocated so that learning in each component occurs during every remedial session. Four key components of the reading process emphasized in this program are: visual-perceptual training, decoding, oral reading, and comprehension.

The important role attention or quality time on task plays in learning is incorporated into the methodology and classroom management techniques for each component. Reduction of information overload, repetition to mastery, immediate feedback, mutual feedback through questions and answers, and concurrent learning are all basic to the program. Children in this program receive highly structured training in all four components in addition to regular reading instruction. This program evaluation attempted not only to determine the effectiveness of a model Chapter One program for remediation of reading disabilities, but also to assess whether the achievement gains made by children participating in the "Learning to Read Better" program were better than the gains they would have otherwise made without remediation.

METHOD

Subject Selection

Longitudinal data were available for 126 children at Brandywine Elementary School for first through fifth grade. This study involved all children in the school, including those not requiring the program's assistance. Some children had incomplete data because they entered or left the school during data collection (n=23). In addition, some children graduated from the program during the five years (n=39) and therefore group membership (i.e., in vs. out of program) changed for each of the five years (see Table 1). In addition, six children were omitted from data analyses, five because of special education placement and one because of grade retention. Six percent of the participants were black, and less than one per cent of the children were Spanish surnamed.

Table 1 -Distribution of Children Participating in the Program

<u>Year</u>	<u>Participating</u>	
	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>
1	29	52
2	26	62
3	12	83
4	14	86
5	13	95

Of the sample population thirty-two percent lived in their suburban, residential community less than five years. Fifty-six percent of the parents were currently married, eleven percent had experienced some form of college education, and thirteen percent were pursuing professional careers. By and large, the children in this population would be characterized as coming from white, lower to middle socioeconomic class home.

Children were selected for participation in the Learning to Read Better Program on the basis of classroom teacher's recommendations, scores below the fiftieth percentile on

the reading subtest of the Stanford Achievement Test (1973), and an individually administered word recognition test specifically developed for the program (Anes, 1981). Children generally remained in the program until they achieved above the fiftieth percentile on the standardized reading test, usually from one to two years. In addition, children could have been reaccepted into the program at a later time if their reading score fell below the 50%ile.

Treatment Program

Once accepted into the Learning to Read Better program, children were assigned to small groups (approximately 4-8 children) according to their ability and special needs. Children accepted for the special reading program also participated in reading instruction with their classroom teacher. The supplementary reading program provided additional instruction one hour a day, four days a week.

The four key components of instruction were visual-perceptual training, decoding instruction, oral reading, and reading comprehension. Daily work was provided in all four areas. Two groups of children were in the reading room at the same time. While one group was working with the reading teacher on reading and comprehension exercises (approximately 22 minutes) and visual tracking skills (about 8 minutes), a teacher's aide trained in phonics and structural analysis skills involved the second group in decoding activities (30 minutes). At the end of each 30 minute period, the two groups switched and worked on the other component(s) of the program. Each component of training merited separate consideration.

Visual-Perceptual Training The materials used in the visual training exercises were a series of workbooks that required children to visually track symbols, letters and thought (i.e., simple phrases, sequential phrases, simple sentences, and questions and answers) throughout the task materials (Wehrli, 1976). These visual tracking exercises were assumed to provide practice in auditory and visual memory, spelling and sentence structure, as well as in directionality and discrimination training (Anes, 1981).

Decoding Training The decoding phase of the training program relied heavily on phonic skills and directionality training to enable children to break the language/symbol

code. However, except for initial consonant sounds and digraphs, no phonic sounds or rules were taught in isolation. To accomplish mastery of the code, word cards were used. Word cards were similar to flashcards, but their use differed in the teaching method employed (Anes, 1979a).

Oral Reading and Comprehension Training Children practiced reading and comprehending material below their decoding ability (Anes, 1979b) in order to maximize the opportunity for correct feedback and minimize interference in comprehension caused by an inability to decode. Instruction in oral reading occurred in a group situation because it allowed children increased opportunity to listen to formal language. If children misread a phrase or sentence so that it had no meaning, the teacher always asked, "Does that make sense?" Children were taught to use context and the meaning of language to compensate for their mistakes. Skills such as following directions, getting main ideas, and drawing conclusions were also stressed.

Unlike oral reading, all comprehension materials were individually leveled and paced. The physical arrangement of the reading room allowed and encouraged children with any problem to approach the teacher's desk and receive immediate assistance. Specific diagnosis of and teaching for a problem always occurred during comprehension sessions and comprised individual mini-lessons.

Criterion Variables

Stanford Achievement Tests were administered during the fall and spring of each year to all children in school (Madden, et al., 1972). When out-of-level testing was necessary, scores were converted using in-level norms. The comprehension subtest scores were available for children from first grade through fifth grade and served as the criterion variables in this study. Covariates employed in this study were 5th grade IQ from the Otis-Lennon Mental Ability Test (1967) and socioeconomic status.

Results

In an attempt to best answer whether the reading program facilitated competent reading performance, three different approaches to data analysis were employed. First, for each of the five years during which children participated

in the reading program, a 2 (Group, i.e., program vs. no program) by 2 (sex) by 2 (Time) repeated measures analysis of covariance was performed on the reading achievement percentile scores, using socioeconomic status and fifth grade IQ as covariates. A multivariate approach to repeated measures was used (McCall and Applebaum, 1975). With the exception of year 4, all other analyses revealed a similar pattern of findings (see Table 2). First, the expected main effect for group was obtained, indicating superior reading performance by children not requiring the program's services (all p 's $< .001$). Second, a significant group by time interaction was obtained, suggesting that those children participating in the program improved more from fall to spring in reading achievement than those children not participating in the reading program (all p 's $< .01$). These analyses, then, addressed the question of whether those children in the program showed greater growth in achievement than those children out of the program in any given year; the answer to the question is apparently yes.

Table 2--Achievement Growth as a Function of Program Participation

Year	Time	Participating		Not Participating		F (df) ^a
		<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	
1	Fall	30.72	20.47	70.33	26.00	15.76 (1,75) **
	Spring	65.48	18.00	81.80	14.75	
2	Fall	45.39	18.70	74.79	18.71	10.29 (1,82) **
	Spring	61.23	15.93	76.92	19.93	
3	Fall	32.83	12.66	69.02	18.62	7.81 (1,88) **
	Spring	46.50	17.54	70.01	19.82	
4.	Fall	32.86	11.22	66.09	17.38	.71 (1,94)
	Spring	40.93	19.51	72.58	20.10	
5	Fall	20.85	8.12	64.70	22.22	13.35 (1,102) *
	Spring	39.31	16.21	66.75	21.07	

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

^aF value for group x time interaction

Table 3--Discrepancy Between Obtained and Expected
Achievement Scores

Year	Expected Score	Obtained Score	<u>t</u> (df)
1	35.68	65.48	9.19 (28)***
2	35.45.	61.23	8.67 (25)***
3	20.97	46.50	4.96 (11)***
4	28.80	40.93	3.28 (13)**
5	7.63	39.31	7.12 (12)***

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

Both of the previous sets of analyses, however, are complicated by the fact that they contrasted children out of the program with children in the program. The third set of analyses, therefore, involved only those children who had been both in and out of the program, and compared their average change in achievement while in the program to their average change while out of the program. A 2 (sex) by 2 (participation, i.e., in vs. out) repeated measures analysis of variance revealed a mean effect for participation, $F(1,37) = 42.90$, $p < .001$. For those children who were both in and out of the program, average change between fall and spring achievement was superior while participating in the program.

Discussion

In general, these findings support the ability of the Learning to Read Better program to help poor readers improve their reading skills. Greater growth in reading was obtained for children participating in the Learning to Read Better program as compared to children not participating in the program. In addition, program participants' obtained reading achievement scores were vastly superior to their expected scores for any of the five years. And finally, these results clearly indicated that the average change in achievement from fall to spring while participating in the program was superior to the average change

in achievement while not participating. These findings are strengthened by the fact that reading performance was improved on a standardized measure of reading achievement; therefore, the program apparently developed not only unitary skills, which are situation and/or task specific, but also global processes, which are generalizable. Thus, the combination of four key ingredients--visual-perceptual skills, decoding, oral reading, and comprehension--appears to be a useful and effective multicomponent treatment approach to reading deficits.

Like the Carr model (1982) of reading ability, the Learning to Read Better program shows promise in that it demystifies reading ability for educators. Adopting a multicomponent treatment approach that acknowledges the importance of a variety of skills and learner characteristics offers promise for generalizable reading skills (Brown and Campione, 1980).

Despite the strength of these findings, the quasi-experimental, post-hoc nature of the design somewhat limits as comprehensive an evaluation of the program as would be desired. Cook and Campbell (1979) address common problems that plague quasi-experimental designs, such as program evaluations. But, the common problems faced in program evaluations should not negate the merits of the present study, as three appropriate sets of analyses apparently arrive at the same conclusion--the Learning to Read Better program does enable children to become better readers.

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THE CONSONANT GENERALIZATIONS REVISITED

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It has been over twenty years since Clymer published his pioneer phonic generalization study. In this study Clymer selected four widely used basal reader manuals from which he culled over 150 consonant and other word attack generalizations, including some that had been used without question from the time that phonic generalizations were first introduced by Noah Webster.

An examination of this large number of generalizations revealed a confusing situation. Clymer found, for example, "(1) statements (that were) to be taught to the pupils, (2) statements (that were) to be derived by the pupils after inductive teaching, and (3) statements (that were presented) with no clear indication as to what was to be done."

Clymer deleted the unclear and less useful generalizations which pared the number down to 45 which he studied in depth. The results of his study revealed that only 18 of the final 45 generalizations could be used to predict letter-sound relationships with at least 75% accuracy. However, many of these remaining generalizations were of limited usefulness because they represented at best a shotgun approach to describing the letter-sound relationship of the English language.

I recently scanned the manuals of several popular basal readers to see if the confusion that Clymer noted had been eliminated from the consonant generalizations. (The vowel generalizations were left unexamined because they have been examined elsewhere; moreover, most of the information is too new to have impacted the basal readers (Burmeister, 1968; Gates, 1983 & 1985). Surprisingly,

I found the number of consonant generalizations remains so large that they would be inefficient to use. Many of them continue to lack research to support their inclusion in reading programs. Consider, for example, the following generalization: "The letter b usually has the sound heard in big but it may be silent as in the word climb," While on occasion the second part of this "rule" holds true, an examination of the letter-sound relationships of b shows that it is silent so rarely that mention of the fact as a part of a generalization is questionable. As I more closely examined this and other suspect consonant generalizations it became evident that it might be useful to examine the letter-sound relationships of a relatively large word list and then to use the data gleaned from this to rewrite the consonant generalizations.

With this objective in mind, I used a computer to help analyze the consonants in 17,211 words from the Stanford Spelling Word List (Hanna and others, 1966). I first clustered the consonants into three general categories: (1) consonants that appear in specific letter combinations or phonograms such as tion in action; (2) consonant di/trigraphs such as sh in ship; and (3) single consonants. Next, I examined the first letter-sound relationships falling under each category for each word in the word list. Amazingly, as is shown in the table, I found only 681 unpredictable letter-sound relationships of the 60,781 individual ones that I examined! More importantly, the large number of "rules" noted above was reduced to three by generalizing the data found in the table as follows:

Either one of two sounds is usually heard for the phonogram sion while a single sound is usually heard for the phonograms cious, tion, and tious.

Either one of two sounds is usually heard for the digraphs ch, dg, and th while a single sound is usually heard for the other di/trigraphs which include ck, ght, -gn, knm ph, sh, tch, wh, and wr (except the unpredictable digraph gh, and the words who, whole, and their inflections).

Either one of two sounds or set of sounds is usually heard for the single consonants g, s, and x while a

single sound is usually heard for the remaining single consonants (except the special sounds of c or g followed by e, i, or y; c or t followed by a; and t followed by u).

Teachers and curriculum developers will find the three consonant generalizations much easier to manage than the numerous ones that they previously encountered. Moreover, these three can be used with confidence knowing that they predict the consonant situations with the almost unbelievable accuracy of 99 percent.

Table 1
Letter-sound Correspondence
for the Consonant Categories

Consonant Categories	Examples	Total Corpus Conformations/ Total Words with the Combination	Per- cent
Consonant Related Phonograms			
cious	precious	40/40	100
sion	pension/vision	136/136	100
tion	action	772/784	98
Consonant Di/Trigraphs			
CH	church/ache	528/568	93
CK	back	296/297	99
DG	judge	57/57	100
GHT	night	128/128	100
GH (exc. GHT)	unpredictable	50 words	--
-GN	sign	18/18	100
KN	knife	35/38	92
NG	along/strange	550/583	94
PH	phase	229/230	99
SH	ship	403/404	99
TCH	hatch	63/64	98
TH	both/although	552/561	98
WH (exc. who, whole, & exceptions)	which	91/93	98
WR	wrench	49/49	100

Single Consonants

B	bib	2246/2280	99
Cia	special	63/69	91
Ce, Ci, Cy (exc. cia)	city	1299/1311	99
C (hard)	cup	3344/3349	99
D	deed	3562/3636	98
F	find	1755/1758	99
Ge	age	373/422	88
Gi	magic	156/187	83
Gy	energy	82/82	100
G (hard)	go	1049/1056	99
H	hat	724/786	92
J	jug	233/233	100
K	kiss	621/621	100
L	lid	5791/5825	99
M	mit	1343/1343	100
N	not	6496/6503	99
P	pop	3267/3296	99
Qu	queen, liquor	258/258	100
R	roar	8323/8320	99
S	see, easy	5375/5453	99
Tia	initial	44/48	92
Tu	turn, nature	370/370	100
T (exc. tia and tu)	tot	6402/6458	99+
V	valve	1476/1476	100
W	with	529/540	98
X	tax, example	644/654	98
Y	yard	53/54	98
Z	zebra	255/267	96

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Editor's note:

The article that follows--"Our Daughter Learns to Read and Write: Looking Back"--was written in response to our request that Marcia Baghban reminisce for our readers. After having read her book Our Daughter Learns to Read and Write, we were not surprised to learn that it had been nominated for the Mina P. Shaughnessy Medal, awarded by the Modern Language Association. Were it not for the fact that our journal cannot engage in advertising, we would go to great lengths to persuade all elementary teachers and parents of infants to consider it required reading.

The book was published by the International Reading Association, 800 Barksdale Road, Newark, Delaware.



OUR DAUGHTER LEARNS TO READ AND WRITE: LOOKING BACK

Marcia Baghban
Queens College, Flushing, New York

I enjoy reminiscing about our earliest years with Giti and her language learning. My husband, Hafiz, and I were graduate students at Indiana University and interested in everything there was to know about life. When I found out I was pregnant, I never doubted that our child would read. I had spent entire days in my childhood whipping through piles of library books and swapping Nancy Drew and Judy Bolton books with cousins. My husband had taught himself to read under the most miserable of circumstances, and begged for paper and pen in a Central Asian village where neither could easily be found. Even as struggling students, we would always buy books before clothes, and treasure owning them. We remain infatuated with the special feel of libraries. How could we not share these emotions with the newest member of our family?

One night before Giti was born, we were washing dishes together and having a typical pre-parent conversation about how we would be as parents and how much this absolutely new person would have to learn. We wondered, as parents, how we could help him or her learn. I remember remarking how wonderful it would be to follow how a child becomes a reader. Even when Hafiz and I could agree on no name for a boy, we jumped at "Giti" as our name for a girl. We chose a Persian name meaning "universe, or world without borders" for we saw her as belonging to the world and reading as opening the world to her.

When Giti was born, we were overwhelmed with her maintenance, colic, and our classes. Yet somehow even in the distraught first year, we managed to work in rhymes,

games, songs, and picture books. I decided to study her reading and writing development as an academic topic.

Although I knew I was looking for outstanding achievements when I began the case study, what impresses me today is how much I underestimated her ability. During a trip when she was 24 months old, we stopped for a red light near the junction of several shopping malls. Giti shouted, "K-mart!" The stores were so numerous that the marquee was not immediately visible to us. Farther along she noted "Ayr-Way" and was also correct. At home, for example, she had been saying, "Sears" when we went into Sears but because of her age, I assumed the building rather than the print triggered an oral response. However, at our next rest stop, Hafiz printed K-mart on a napkin for Giti and she read it. Until Ayr-Way was written exactly as the logo, she could not read it. Once the "A" was printed typographically and the tail of the "y" swung to the left, she read it immediately and pointed to the space between the "Ayr" and "Way" and said, "Flower," directing us to put a flower rather than a hyphen between the words. She was reading, and I didn't even know how long this connection with print had been going on!

After our trip, Giti began to question, "That?", with rising intonation, and point from her car seat as she passed familiar places. I cut out some logos and glued them on cards held together with pieces of yarn. One night she went to the table to look at her homemade books and showed me the card for "Special K." Rather than reading the card, she put her finger on the K and said, "K-mart." I probably would have thought she had made a mistake if she had not then turned to the "K-mart" card, pointed to the "M", and said, "McDonald's." Giti was making associations not only with sounds and letters, but with letters across words she recognized. I was overwhelmed!

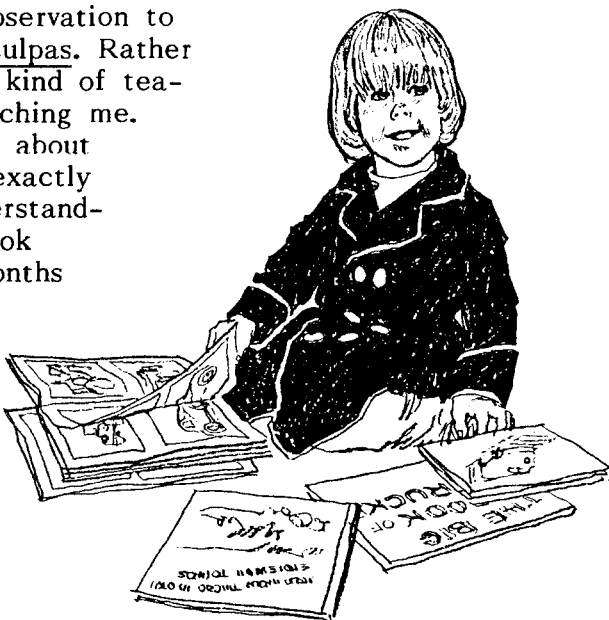
There were other highlights in Giti's journey to facile literacy with which I was pleased, but these landmarks produced a high above any teachable moment. They also produced some guilt. Why should I have been surprised? Why didn't I better anticipate what Giti could handle? I had been trying to be an aware adult in interaction with her own child. Shouldn't I have done better than other parents and teachers? Are we so enculturated to underesti-

mate children?

And another observation to bring on the mea culpas. Rather than my doing any kind of teaching, Giti was teaching me.

Giti taught me about reading. I learned exactly how much her understanding of the same book could grow over months of hearing it again and again.

Giti taught me about writing helping reading, and I learned that I better collect those scribblings she threw around the house.



Giti taught me about drawing and writing, and I learned that I better save her pictures and find out more about how children's art develops.

Giti taught me about stories and I learned to listen to and read her organizations.

I learned that I should not have been surprised at how much she knew.

I learned that I should have known her better.



THIS BOOK REMINDS ME OF YOU:
THE READER AS MENTOR

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Mendocino is a small town on the Northern California Coast. Established in the 1850's, it reminds many visitors of a New England fishing village. Its only library is a private one staffed by volunteers, with dues of \$2.00 per year. Books are purchased at the specific request of members, as well as for their appearance on sundry book lists. As with any library, borrowers put their names on waiting lists for popular books. But there is another feature which sets this library apart from many of its public counterparts. A librarian will place a member's name on a waiting list when a specific

book strikes him as matching an area of interest of that reader. Handing such a book to the browser, the volunteer may be heard to say "This book reminds me of you."

The feature which animates the Mendocino library in a casual way, is also one which can become an active strategy in the classroom in promoting the habit of reading and developing a variety of interests. This feature is being a mentor.

You, the teacher, are the reader's mentor, whether that reader is your student, your colleague or your friend. No, more accurately, readers are mentors to readers and to future readers; close, trusted, experienced counselors and guides in the development and promotion of a wide variety of reading interests.

Your self-image as a reader is communicated to your students, and affects their perceptions of books and reading.

The Mikulecky Behavioral Reading Attitude Measure (Smith, et al., 1978) is a twenty item, five point Likert Scale which is most useful in tapping attitude through what the respondent does about reading, as opposed to what s/he says about reading. Given a number of hypothetical situations (e.g., doctor's office, shopping mall, gift giving, free time), the person decides if the example is "very unlike me" or "very like me." The results of this measure have been analyzed by Smith, Smith, and Mikulecky (p. 104, 1978) in terms of Krathwohl's taxonomy of attitude:

- Attending: generally aware and tolerant of reading
- Responding: under certain circumstances, willing to read; choose to read and occasionally enjoy it
- Valuing: accept worth of reading as a value to be preferred and extend to others
- Organization: reading--part of an organized value system; habitual, almost "instinctive"
- Characterization: reading is seen as crucial to the person

Your effective functioning as a reading mentor requires your attitudes toward reading to reflect, at the very least, the "value" level. Your aim as a teacher should be to move the child from attending along this continuum of

attitude toward characterization.

Readers As Mentors to Readers

Uses of Reading

Though your reading is a distinctly private and personal act, it must "go public" for you to function as mentor. Readers are mentors by passive example. Ask yourself these initial questions when deciding whether you function as a reading mentor. How well do you serve as a model of a reader? What about you declares "THIS PERSON IS A READER!"?

There are many behaviors which might contribute to that projected image of READER. One of the most obvious is how much you read--all forms and types of reading, not just recreational reading. (Reading Time or Newsweek while brushing your teeth is one litmus test.) Another common indicator of READER is the ability to name readily the last book you recommended to some one. Think about the reading experiences which fit these categories:

- a book that influenced or affected you personally or professionally,
- a book that you have read more than once, or would read again, and
- an author whom you have read comprehensively.

What made these books powerful and meaningful to you? What is special about the writer? Have you shared these titles and authors and reading experiences with other people? My choices include Freedom to Learn by Carl Rogers, Till We Have Faces by C. S. Lewis, Jane Austen, and Dick Francis.

Your environment speaks silent "volumes." Does your home, classroom, or office say, "This person is a reader!"? Indeed, where are your books; are they visible to your visitors and to your students? Does it cost more to move your books than it does to move you? When did you last look at some one else's bookshelf? ("Don't look too closely; I might not want to lend that one." Browse a bookshelf, know a reader, know a person.

Another of these public acts of "witness" are the uses to which you put reading. The pleasures of reading

are not just recreational ones, but also the pleasures of mastery, of answering a question, of learning, of accomplishing a task. One of your tasks as an active reading mentor thus becomes the expansion not only of reading interests, but also the expansion of the uses to which reading is put, and the awareness of when reading is occurring. Tovey (1976) questioned first graders about their perceptions of what constituted reading in the classroom and when it took place. Their awareness of "reading" was much narrower than that of an adult circumscribed by the "reading circle."

The variety of uses to which reading may be put needs your attention, valuing, and promotion. The greater the number of functions a youngster has for reading, the more likely s/he is to be an effective and enthusiastic reader. Additionally, you must take advantage of the uses for reading which a child brings from home. Heath (1980), investigating the functions of literacy in working class homes, found that it was inaccurate to say that a child came to school without uses for reading. Rather the child came with uses for reading which were not commonly emphasized or even acknowledged in the classroom. Begin with what the child brings in terms of the uses of literacy and build and expand from that point.

Peer Influences - Peer Mentors

The recommendations from book jackets, teachers, and peers, form the major bases for young readers' book selections. Gallo (1982) reminds us that peer recommendations are the most powerful ones for students. It is the enthusiasm of another student which will move an adolescent to a book rack when nothing else will. An English teacher at a residential facility for juvenile offenders took book requests from the wards when quarterly purchase of paperbacks was being planned. The youngster who ordered a specific title was the first person to read the book, and often that book was passed from hip pocket to hip pocket as the reader's friends borrowed it. One means of awakening the reading mentors in your classroom is to ask of your students: "What have you read lately that's good?" (p. 88) "What are you carrying in your bookbag?"

Teacher (and Other Adult) Influence

Your credibility in the role of teacher/reading mentor

Conclusions

The value of your recommendations builds your credibility as a reading mentor (Gallo, 1982). Being a mentor, then, is a role into which you grow with each reader or future reader whom you encounter. The consistently high quality of the suggested reading matter (as perceived by your student) leads to continued reader satisfaction and growth in reading maturity and sophistication. To quote Henry Bamman: "Discrimination is good taste practiced again and again."

Christenbury (1981) speaks of "reading epiphanies", when a book takes hold, and you must read it to its conclusion without pause. With such an experience, you become a changed person. Being a mentor to someone means that that person's self-definition as a reader may also be modified, and s/he in turn may become a reading mentor.

In the first chapter of Italo Calvino's If on a winter's night a traveler, the author defines himself as a reader.

Friendly reader, this book reminds me of you.

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is built more slowly than that of student peers as:

- 1) you talk about what you are reading,
- 2) recommend books with film or television adaptations,
- 3) read aloud riveting opening lines,
- 4) recommend brief books, rather than the "dreaded" long ones, and
- 5) develop exciting classroom libraries.

You entice your readers with enthusiasm, knowledge, interest, and concern with books and children. Woo them. Sell books to your readers in light of your own interests, as well as those of the youngsters. Your enthusiasm for your own reading will ring more true than "teacher-interest" in your students' reading. Imagine a seventeen year old student in a remedial reading lab devouring a box of Dr. Seuss! It happened when he saw his teacher reading them with much amusement. No suggestions were made to read And To Think That I Saw It on Mulberry Street, but curiosity drew him to that corner of the classroom.

Share book reviews. The reviewer becomes a surrogate mentor, and her enthusiasm and critical judgment function in lieu of your own, for your students. Take care not to select the sometimes pallid reviews of professional journals, but rather the opinionated, full-blooded reviews of the popular press. Use the mass media reviews from publications which your students would be likely to read, and post these reviews with their citations. Recurring reviewers may become the favored arbiters of taste for specific students. (Don't fail to include student reviews, positive and negative.)

Read to your children, selling the book by the author's use of the language. Introduce language which is meant to be read--well structured, image-laden, intriguing poetry and prose. The reluctant child will learn that he can prolong the joy by reading on his own.

Finally, you cannot be an effective mentor if you do not know your reader. Without knowledge of the reader and of the books, or with only a superficial knowledge, and without enthusiasm for the book and its possibilities for the reader, the recommendation is useless. Not knowing the child's interests, concerns, and history, how can you say, "I have a book that reminds me of you"?



INTERACTIVE CHILDREN'S LITERATURE: MOVING FROM PRINT TO ELECTRONIC LITERACY

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New computer software allows children to take ownership of a story they are reading. Students change the plot, participate in the action, choose a role as a major or minor character -- or simply step aside and change the direction of the action. The combination of print, computers, visual imagery and personalized action is a strong motivation for learning about all four. Motivation is one thing, effective instruction is another. To be effective as an instructional tool, computer controlled literature must pay careful attention to both technology and instructional theory. One thing is certain, the potential is there for powerful intellectual and emotional experiences.

Interacting with literature, by entering the story, helps students have more intimate contact with the transcendental values of literary concepts. Analogy and metaphor are just two examples of intellectual tools taught through literature -- both skills can be amplified through



interactive computer controlled reading. Participatory stories can be an important source of knowledge for all our students, but this technique is particularly critical for the increasing percentage of our population (now nearly one third) that doesn't respond well to traditional print media. The technology could allow us to do for all of our population what has already been done for the fortunate--provide a connection to a rich literary past, present, and future.

Revitalizing Reading with Interactive Literature

Computer-based technology gives the potential for enhancing print and going beyond the passive nature of the "Gutenberg revolution" (the printing press) to a new concept of literature. When using a simulation like "Oregon Trail", in conjunction with the award winning children's book of the same title, it is possible to gain fresh insight into both the story and the reality of the pioneers' struggles. (1) Connecting already available simulation software to related books can enhance both.

The best seller "Zork" takes a more direct approach. "Zork" is a piece of recreational reading software that gives a sense of realism to this interactive fiction. (2)

"Deadline" is another participatory computer-based novel that allows the viewer to play the role of a Sherlock Holmes type detective. The entire story is contained on one floppy disk that can be run on a variety of cheap microcomputers. (3) Some of these early efforts ("Deadline" and "Zork") used print almost exclusively. But as the medium advances graphics are being added to the mix. Computer programs are already available that give students sophisticated information more efficiently than books; graphically illustrating concepts that were in the past dealt with by print, musical notation, or mathematical equations. As programming and computer memory expand, "particip-stories" will become more sophisticated, and perhaps will constitute a literary type in and of themselves.

Mapping out Rules Governing a Story

In 1927 the Russian literary critic Vladimir Propp mapped out the rules governing the structure of fairy tales; in 1965 the rules were programmed into a mainframe computer, and in 1985 they were squeezed onto a microcomputer program. These rules can form the basis for an arti-

ficially intelligent expert system. Such expert systems absorb the knowledge from human experts, apply it in different situations, reach conclusions, and interact with the user. From literature to medicine, AI programs are becoming better at emulating human thought--they are now becoming available for microcomputers. In the near future, these artificial intelligence assisted stories will use a rule governed literary program to help students explore and create highly motivating microworlds. Even the inexpensive microcomputers found in schools today have the power to do some of this--allowing the child to play with the text, rearrange reading topics and directly influence the story. With expert systems growing more sophisticated at a rapid pace, the possibilities for various literary dialogues may move from a curiosity to something approaching a literary genre.

A Note of Caution

The passage from the print to the electronic era will have all sorts of unforeseen reverberations affecting our ways of seeing, hearing, reading and being. As we rapidly move into an increasingly literacy-intensive environment we must remember what's happened during other technological shifts. In the fifteenth century print was rapidly replacing handwritten manuscripts. In the rush, printers would make quick decisions as to what was worth saving, and burn the rest. Much of a thousand year old literary tradition was lost in that move from handwriting to print.

In the novel Fahrenheit 451 (4), things were taken one step further with books being outlawed and burned as a form of video took their place. George Orwell, in 1984, wrote about machines that destroyed books and rewrote parts of them for a human audience. Part of his prediction may come true a few years late, with intelligent video-print computer controlled interaction. The real concern here is whether or not we control the process, rather than letting the computer feed us its mode of the "world".

The Goal of Literature Remains the Same

Whatever approach we take in integrating the computer controlled technology into the reading curriculum, the goal of children's literature remains the same: Providing our students with a variety of literary and expository material

that helps them build intellectual tools. This technology can act as a source of meaningful knowledge acquisition and enjoyment--opening doors to a broader world.

The possibility of providing the reader with an enhanced literary experience is there. The interaction is provided by the integration of print, speech production/recognition, and visual images. Creative imagination, working closely with applied technology, can open up new ways of reading and interacting with literary concepts.

The technological elements that are needed to create a new genre of children's literature are in place today. Yet the advance of microcomputers, video disc technology, telecommunications, artificial intelligence, and video-print computer programming has been so rapid that we often fail to intelligently assimilate the possibilities that we create. As the computer allows us to interact with oral, pictorial, and print literature, literacy will take on a new form that fuses with a broader range of learning styles. Computer control of literature will allow stereo sound and print to be interspersed with static images (which can arrest time) and video. As is the tradition of literature and art, this new literary interaction will mirror the technological conditions of contemporary life.

The creative imagination can work closely with the technology and learning theory to open up new ways to come into contact with literature. For many of our children who refuse to connect with the traditional printed text, computer controlled literature has a vast illuminative power that can help make the connection to reading and a rich literary tradition. For the majority of the students this same participatory literature may help reading concepts fall into place more rapidly than when print is used alone--making the literature more vivid and experiential, opening doors to a larger, more informed life.

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"AND THIS LITTLE TEACHER WENT TO MARKET"

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Have you ever seen an unmotivated child in a supermarket? There's no such thing! From tempting displays of colorful, animated cereal boxes to appealing, eye-level candies at checkout, children (and adults) are bombarded with motivating messages from the friendly market manager. These master merchandisers could teach us something about motivation in the classroom.

Even in this day and age of "reluctant learners," marketing strategists and advertisers still obviously know the way to a youngster's heart (and billfold!). Considering consumer motivation techniques teachers could use to "sell" the products of the classroom, we should look at the possibilities of creating a kind of supermarket of learning.

Supermarket managers use Produce Spotters, Tie-ins, Holiday or Theme Specials, Sore Thumbs, Tumble-Jumble, and Shelving Rules to entice us to buy what we otherwise might not. The application of each of these techniques could take many forms.

Produce Spotters

These are the bright little signs or stick-on labels that shout "Special!" "Just Reduced," "New," or "You Won't Want to Miss" items. Such tags could be used by teachers to announce new books in the library, upcoming events, or special learning opportunities becoming available.

Tie-Ins

Tie-ins are products placed near others to cause a combination purchase by the consumer. For example, at Thanksgiving one may expect to find cranberry sauce, stuff-

ing mix, etc., near the frozen turkey for the shopper who otherwise might "forget" these crucial items. In the classroom a tie-in might be the placement of picture books about birds placed at a window where a bird feeder is located. Even a "reluctant reader" will be compelled to pick up the book when a strange warbler is sighted!

Holiday or Theme Specials

Breathes there a teacher who doesn't know about developing thematic bulletin boards at Christmas, Valentines, etc.? But supermarkets have taken the idea a step further--create a holiday or theme where one never existed before? Who among us can resist the display of cheeses during National Dairy Week or the thirty-ways-to-eat-a-spud during Idaho Potato Celebration? Teachers can invent thematic weeks to highlight particular classroom products (content, of course!). Use signs, displays, or whatever to promote a new unit or subject. End the special week with a field trip, art activity, party---anything new and unique.

Sore Thumbs

Clever market managers sell us no end of gadgets by placing them near items we use every day. Check out the long-handled jar scrapers placed conveniently near the peanut butter and jelly. Ice cream scoopers hang close over the half gallons. You could hook a browsing student with a pouch of bookmarks next to the shelf of free-reading volumes.

Tumble-Jumble

Everyone loves the grab-bag, bin of old tools, or box of records at a yard sale. Sometimes supermarket managers stimulate this get-a-bargain attitude by placing a pile of goods in a shopping cart and sticking a 30% off sign on the whole mess. Even if you don't like Paraguayan Pimentos, you may find your hand grasping such a treasure! In the classroom, the teaching of rocks and minerals might be stimulated by putting a group of different specimens in a grab-bag and having each child select one for individual identification and study.

Shelving Rules

Supermarkets are organized to direct shoppers' feet and eyes to high-profit goods. (Don't look for fifty pound

bags of flour at the check-out display stand!) The best shelf is the one at eye level and the prime locations are at the beginning and end of each aisle. If the class is studying Abraham Lincoln, put the books about him on the eye level shelves. Attract the eyes of students with bright book covers (generic product packages are so dull!).



These gimmicks and their classroom applications are only part of the study of wooing the student-customer. Most importantly, marketers use atmosphere to meet or create customers' needs. "Ambience" has become a popular word suggesting how an environment may be designed to create a mood or cause a behavior. When was the last time you were in a classroom that had "ambience"? Think about whether your classroom meets basic environmental standards that sense the needs of students or stimulate their interest.

Supermarket managers are keenly aware of the need for an appropriate physical environment for shoppers. They carefully regulate lighting, temperature, and cleanliness to meet the basic physical needs of their clientele. Teachers should make sure that classrooms are clean, well-lighted places for all, and they should take care to accommodate the needs of children with poor eyesight, hearing, or other physical problems. Needs for security are likewise met by establishing orderliness in the environment.

Store personnel are encouraged to know and recognize regular customers by name; this promotes identification with the store and meets customers' needs for belonging. Teachers can recognize children similarly, by announcing birthdays, giving them personal spaces in the classroom, and otherwise acknowledging them as individuals.

This idea is extended in supermarkets to the point of making customers feel esteemed. Courtesy, deference, and personalized services make customers feel like important people (the secret of all sales!). Classroom praise works toward the same effect, whether through a pat on the back, posting of successful work, or just a smile.

Whatever the technique used to attract students to learning, teachers today must realize, as have the master merchandizers of consumer good, that you have to "sell" a product, whether it's a new kind of spaghetti sauce or knowledge about the culture of Italy. Such selling almost always involves wooing the customer by making him or her more physically comfortable and secure, feeling more a member of the group, and being recognized as an important person.



IMPROVING STUDENTS' COMPREHENSION OF CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT IN PLAYS

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The direct teaching of thinking across the curriculum is a basic instructional mode that is currently receiving needed attention on a national scale. An obvious area in which to implement the process in reading education is the teaching of reading comprehension (Pearson 1985), and one area of instruction among many in which thinking may be taught directly is the reading comprehension related to plays.

This article is divided into three sections, each a development of theory or practices which relate to direct teaching of thinking in the reading or language arts classroom. These are: 1. the need for a reader to use inductive reasoning when reading a play; 2. the importance of understanding character development in a play; and, 3. the presentation of a method to teach inductive reasoning directly so that students can use the strategy when analyzing character development in plays.

Inductive Reasoning Needed to Read a Play

Several thinking skills are needed for comprehension of drama texts. Only inductive reasoning will be stressed here. The rationale for this choice is that plays demand by their very structure that readers inductively infer character development, plot schema, unstated stage movements, and other non-verbal behaviors. The implicit discourse provided to accomplish these thinking tasks by the author consists in the sum total of lines assigned each character. Secondly, the learning of inductive reasoning strategies relative to reading plays constitutes a set of skills easily transferred by students to those short stories, novels, and

narrative poems which employ the same kind of implicit discourse as the play form; that is to say, development primarily through dialogue.

Character Development and Reading Plays

Inductive reasoning strategies must be applied to several complex meanings structured by the play author through play dialogue. One of the meanings so structured is character development. This, then, is a major comprehension skill needed for reading a play and one that may be more difficult to attain than discovering plot structure or imaging settings. Experience in teaching elementary and secondary students shows that they are apt to offer their personal and subjective interpretations of characters based on tendencies to stereotype, on fulfillment of their own wishes, or solely on their own life experiences. They often fail to take into account the clues to character presented in the text by the author.

A Method for Teaching Character Development Through the Direct Instruction of Inductive Thinking Strategies

Reading a play, one learns about a character from two major sources. One is explicit discourse, offered by the author to introduce a scene or insert parenthetically into dialogue. These lines usually refer to costuming, movement, or reactions needed. They are usually short. The major source for comprehending character development lies in the play dialogue, and this is the implicit discourse.

An analysis of the inductive inference skills needed to handle this dialogue suggests that the reader gathers clues to the personality of each character as the play progresses. Meanings are generally built on the reader's acquisition of answers to his/her questions, such as 1. What does the character frequently say? 2. What does s/he frequently do? 3. What does s/he frequently think (as revealed in asides, soliloquies, or conversation with a confidant)? 4. What do others say to the character? 5. What do others do to the character? 6. What do others think about the character (as revealed in conversations when the character is not present)?

While or after gathering data through this questioning

mode, readers of plays form impressions of the character's patterns of acting, feeling, and thinking, coupled with understandings of the character's related motivations for acting, feeling and thinking. Finally, while or after reading the play, readers tend to "add up" their remembered impressions to arrive at an overall generalization concerning the complexities of the character that has been created.

Students may or may not know the strategies above for inferring the total personality of any character in a play. They may be imposing their prejudices or stereotyped responses on the characters. They may not be monitoring their data gathering strategies for analyzing characters. Or they may be neglecting to see the whole picture because they fixate on only some qualities or negative behaviors of the character in question.

Because of student needs for thinking strategies, the following set of suggestions is offered as a means of direct teaching of inductive reasoning in relation to character development in a play which is read in class:

1. Tell the class directly that the author is limited to presentation of external behaviors through which the reader (and later the viewer) learns about the internal personality of each character. Explain that while reading a play, the reader comes upon clues to character personality in a sequence determined by the author. Thus, each reader must gather clues to each character gradually until the final curtain. This fact means that readers must store clues to each character as they proceed through the text, and finally, they must sum up these clues in order to interpret their meaning.

2. To help students go through this inductive reasoning process, the teacher will offer a grid, and model its use. The grid serves the following purposes: a. The grid fill-ins graphically show the students their personal reasoning processes as they read; b. The filled-in grid is an external manifestation of all the clues which must be considered when the reader tries to summarize the character's personality. c. Because the grid is an externalized revelation of student thinking, the grid may be examined during and after its use for its appropriateness by the student who uses it, peers who review it in a small group, and the

teacher who evaluates it.

The grid may be set up in several ways. The following is presented as a sample:

(.....)

Name of Character to be Studied

External clues to character	My interpretation of clues
-----------------------------	----------------------------

I. Frequent kinds of statements made by this character

A. _____	A. _____
B. _____	B. _____
C. _____	C. _____

My summary of these: _____ Interpretation of statements

II. Frequent actions of the character

A. _____	A. _____
B. _____	B. _____
C. _____	C. _____

My summary of these interpretations of action:

III. Frequent ways of thinking by this character:

A. _____	A. _____
B. _____	B. _____
C. _____	C. _____

My summary of these interpretations of thought:

External clues to character	My interpretation of clues
-----------------------------	----------------------------

IV. What do others frequently say to the character:

A. _____	A. _____
B. _____	B. _____
C. _____	C. _____

Summary of my interpretations of these statements:

V. What do others do to this character:

A. _____	A. _____
B. _____	B. _____
C. _____	C. _____

VI. What do others say about the character:

A. _____	A. _____
B. _____	B. _____
C. _____	C. _____

My final generalization concerning the personality of (---)

The grid should be carefully introduced to the class and used in large group sessions in which the teacher models the use of the grid. It is helpful to point out that the author may not give clues for each section of the grid and that the clues may come in any order, not the order established by the grid. While the students are reading and filling in the grid with the teacher, they will note that their reading is slowed down as they write. The teacher should point out that the use of a grid is temporary. Its purpose is to focus student attention on their thinking processes as they read. As inductive reasoning is improved, need for an external grid diminishes. The automatic and easy use of an "internal grid" replaces the external help.

3. A final summary of the lesson or series of lessons, emphasizing the inductive reasoning strategies used should be elicited by the teacher. This summary may be recorded on the chalkboard, and students should copy the summary into a special section of their notebooks which may be titled, as a suggestion: I KNOW HOW TO. The subsection on reading plays may be headed: Understand Characters in a Play. A sample summary follows: "Authors of plays use implicit discourse in dialogue to reveal the personalities of the characters. As I read or reread the dialogue, I shall look for special clues to the personalities of the characters, record them mentally, and add them together to summarize the general personality of each character. My interpretations of these clues will be influenced also by my knowledge of real life characters, my own experiences in dealing with life, and my knowledge of other characters in history or literature. I have inserted here a grid filled in during class as a guide to my thinking. When I feel ready, I'll analyze characters in a play without the grid, but using what I have learned from the grid."

Conclusion

Recently, the effects of using direct instruction in thinking about text structure coupled with the use of a related grid by students has been researched by Slater, Graves and Piché (1985). While the content of their study is relevant to reading expository prose texts rather than plays, the process of instruction in the experimental mode is similar to the one described in this paper. The important

conclusion from their research is that the groups, which were given direct instruction in the organization of text along with a related grid to be filled in while reading, improved significantly in comprehension and recall of text when compared with similar groups who were exposed to other methods. It is important to note that these results occurred for students in all three competency levels--high, middle, and low levels of reading competency.

The rationale for the success of the instructional method cited in this paper is that it enables students to "own" the instruction; that is, it is metacognitive in nature. Through the use of the grid, students not only monitor what they know but also how and when they know.

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PARENTS, SCHOOLS AND HSSR

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Many educators have become very enthusiastic about parental involvement. The reasons are numerous, but the first years of the eighties have provided much attention to the schools in the form of commission reports and media publicity. There seems to be a growing interest across the nation to involve the community and parents in school programs.

Because of the varied levels of skills that parents possess and the changing family structures in this country, the schools must develop parent involvement programs that take these factors into consideration (Institute for Parent Involvement, 1980).

As parents become more involved in the schools and as schools strive to involve parents in meaningful ways and extend the work that is done in schools, educators should look at promising educational practices that can be reinforced in the home environment.

One of these reinforcing, supportive activities that are feasible for all parents and children, yet do not require instructional technology, is Sustained Silent Reading, which has been effectively utilized in schools.

Sustained Silent Reading

Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) sometimes referred to as Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Reading or USSR (Hunt, 1967) has been incorporated into school reading programs across the nation since the 1970's. Teachers, students, custodians, secretaries and principals have picked up books and read for twenty to thirty minutes daily.

Moore, Jones and Miller (1980) summarized the research over a decade and reported both positive effects on student attitudes toward reading and positive effects on reading ability when SSR was combined with regular classroom reading instruction. Adding further support to this school practice, Allington (1975) encouraged teachers to allow remedial readers the opportunity for reading increased amounts of contextual material rather than supporting the practice of heavier doses of skill instruction for those students. He rationalized that remedial or corrective readers seldom have the opportunity to apply the reading skills they learn and will never become fluent readers if not given the time to engage themselves with stories and books.

Smith (1980) contends that children enter school with both a desire and eagerness to learn to read, but the skill development focus of many reading programs detracts from promoting a love for reading.

Home Sustained Silent Reading

SSR can be easily implemented by parents in their homes. The new version, Home Sustained Silent Reading, can be used to promote a love for reading that involves parents and extends into the home to provide additional support for children and a common goal for home and school.

A number of reasons can be cited for concentrating upon this type of program. First, because students do not read outside the school setting, HSSR is viewed as an effective program for extending reading opportunities. Second, this additional practice and application opportunity is supportive to the efforts of the schools. Third, this concept can help promote lifelong learning, interest and enjoyment in reading, and lastly this procedure can involve most parents.

To begin this program, several activities should occur toward implementation. A general orientation should be held for parents. The PTA and school could jointly host such a meeting. A letter detailing the purposes and procedures should be sent to parents who cannot attend that session.

Realizing that all homes may not be equipped with sufficient reading materials, every effort should be made to include the public library in any initial effort. A second implementing step for this program could be to ensure that every family obtain a library card.

Thirdly, parents must be encouraged to set aside a fixed period of time for the silent reading that will occur. Possibly twenty minutes before night time television viewing or right after homework is completed--whatever works best for everyone. During HSSR, tell parents to take the phone off the hook. This will provide for fewer outside interruptions.

Fourth, just as teachers serve as models in school SSR programs, parents must also serve as models in HSSR. They should be reading right along with their children. It's a great time for parents to get into those novels they have been wanting to read or to get caught up in their professional reading.

Fifth, everyone must read. Strongly encourage parents to invite all members to participate in this activity. Because of increasingly busy schedules, this may be the only time that everyone in the family can be assembled in one place at one time.

Sixth, advise parents not to require their children to report on what they've read. We don't want to make this another homework assignment, but a period to enjoy what is being read.

Encourage parents to call the school with any questions they might have about HSSR.

Summary

This effort can be utilized to involve parents in a school wide reading project that can serve to reinforce



children's application of the skills they have learned in school.

Just as most students, teachers and administrators seem enthusiastic about SSR, HSSR may have the same positive effects. The quieting effect of HSSR may give some families the only relaxation and quiet they have during the day. But if HSSR can support the development of attitudes and habits conducive to lifelong learning and reading for enjoyment, it will have added much to students, parents and schools.

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TEACHING/LEARNING: THE STUDENT VIEWPOINT

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Learning is a vital aspect in the life of every individual. To some it comes easily, but to others it does not. Why this happens depends on several inter-related factors. Among them are home environment and parental support, individual capabilities/potential including mental maturity and personal drive, and school/educational classroom methodology or procedures. The latter point is the focus of this paper.

While conducting a research project in Antwerp, Belgium, we were fortunate to have time to chat with a small number of high school students. During these informal meetings in which they talked about their goals and their concerns, we asked them for their ideas as to

how their teachers could improve classroom procedures. That is, we posed the question, "How can your teachers better teach you?" Then we asked, "What would you like to have your teachers do in the classroom so that you could learn with more enthusiasm?"

After some discussion to clarify our meaning, the students requested time to consider their responses. When we met again the following week, this is what they told us:

1. Teachers should use a positive approach in evaluating students' work and should not stress errors made.

The students went on to explain that teachers usually emphasize that which is wrong or incorrect about their work rather than what is correct or good. Moreover, they suggested that teachers praise students for work well done.

2. Teachers should provide for a pleasant learning atmosphere in the classroom. (6)

This included having a visually attractive classroom setting that fits the subject being taught and the age of the students. It also included the idea that lessons should be made interesting. Interest is generated more easily if students can be taught to understand how the knowledge they gather can be applied to their lives.

3. Teachers should show that they enjoy teaching. Students are quick to sense the non-verbal messages that teachers transmit. (4) If teachers really enjoy their work, they show it in many ways and students soon pick up on this.

4. Whenever possible, bring some humor into the lesson or activity. (2)

Although education is a serious undertaking, teachers should not leave humor at the door. A joke from time-to-time, as it fits the lesson, adds much to the joy of learning. Moreover, a slang expression now and then is also beneficial.

5. When teachers make mistakes they should not try to cover up.

Everyone makes a mistake now and then. Some

more so than others. That is part of being human. Teachers are no different. Some of them err and try to hide it or, what is worse, blame or punish their students. When a mistake is made, take it in stride.

6. Give homework.

We found this to be an interesting point and, rather unexpected. The students said that they wanted homework, but not too much in each subject because it can become overwhelming. They wanted just enough to cover the topic and help them learn.

7. Let students talk. (5)

Learning has many sources. Students learn from their teachers, parents, and from each other. It was suggested that teachers should allow at least a little time for student give-and-take appropriate to a given lesson.

8. Really teach.

This was the most difficult suggestion to interpret. They were vague and somewhat ill at ease in discussing this. We believe that the students were concerned with meaning. That is to say, all too frequently what students learn has little or no meaning for them in the immediacy of their lives. This is probably because they lack experience and background and the ability to synthesize information.

Because of this, students seem to be asking that teachers be patient, tell them what to do, and also tell them why they are doing it. (3) Explain how the factors of the discipline fit together to form the major concepts. This should take place in each subject area. Teachers should show, tell, demonstrate, and have students actively participate in lessons of every sort.

This is the way to teach for effective learning. Certainly there is more, but there can be no less according to these students. Moreover, it needs to be noted that these individuals seemed eager to learn and they wanted so much to understand now only what they are learning, but why they are learning it, whatever the subject.

During these informal conversations with the

students (N = 12) we were impressed with their sincerity, yet there seemed to be a lack of enthusiasm or drive. We concluded they really want to learn, but may not know how to do so efficiently. This is where teachers can help. (5) That is, show them how to learn and use their suggestions as noted.

Their ideas, incorporated into teacher practices, could bring about more effective education and learning for the betterment of all. Moreover, we may be able to fulfill Toffler's (7) premise that a small change in procedure now can have monumental and far-reaching results for the future.

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DO PICTURES MAKE A DIFFERENCE IN COLLEGE TEXTBOOKS?

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When we compare college social science textbooks popular in the 1960's with those used in the 1980's, the first change that strikes us is the proliferation of pictures. The number of pictures has not merely doubled or tripled in twenty years; in many cases pictures have increased exponentially.

The data in Table 1 illustrate this dramatic shift. Six history texts, published by major companies and selected because of their popularity and availability, were compared. For each text, the number of pages, number of maps, and number of pictures are listed. The pictures in these counts are generally pictures of people, landscapes, buildings, and artifacts; the counts do not include charts, graphs, and diagrams of processes. The number of pages and the number of maps have not changed significantly, but the number of pictures has increased, in the first example in each column, from one every 59.1 pages to one every 1.3 pages.

Table 1
Number of Pictures
per History Textbook, 1960's vs 1980's

Popular in the 1960's <u>History of the Modern World</u> Knopf, 1959 Pages = 945 Maps = 41 Pictures = 16 Pages/Picture = 59.1	Popular in the 1980's <u>Western Civilization</u> Norton, 1980 (9th Ed.) Pages = 956 Maps = 46 Pictures = 753 Pages/Picture = 1.3
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Europe in Our TimeD. C. Heath, 1958

Pages = 913

Maps = 30

Pictures = 18

Pages/Picture = 50.7

Civilization Past and PresentScott, Foresman, 1978 (5th Edition)

Pages = 900

Maps = 75

Pictures = 387

Pages/Picture = 2.3

The National ExperienceHarcourt, 1963

Pages = 809

Maps = 119

Pictures = 157

Pages/Picture = 5.15

American History: A SurveyKnopf, 1983 (6th Edition)

Pages = 976

Maps = 70

Pictures = 238

Pages/Picture = 4.1

The logical questions which emerge from such comparisons are "What purposes do the pictures serve?" and "Do the pictures contribute to reading comprehension and vocabulary development?" The reasons for the proliferation of this narrowly defined type of illustration need analysis; in order for reading specialists and college instructors to determine the best pedagogy to utilize the pictures which accompany social science text, they must understand what impact they have on the college reader.

Review of Relevant Literature

The literature on the relationship between pictures and reading comprehension points in two directions. Most of the research conducted prior to 1975 seems to indicate that pictures have a negative effect on reading comprehension (Baker & Madell, 1965; Braun, 1969; Concannon, 1975; Harris, 1967; Samuels, 1967, 1970; Silverman, Davids, & Andres, 1963), whereas research after 1975 points to a positive relationship (Lesgold, DeGood, & Levin, 1977; Lesgold, Levin, Shimron, & Guttermann, 1975; Levin, Bender & Lesgold, 1976). To judge the relevance of this research to the relationship of college textbook pictures and reading comprehension, it is important to note that most of these studies were conducted with first graders learning sight vocabulary rather than upper level readers. It would thus seem inappropriate to apply conclusions from these classic

studies to college textbook reading.

Two studies conducted with college students confirm a relationship between pictures and comprehension, but the illustrations are of a technical nature rather than the kind that have proliferated in college texts. Rigney and Lutz (1976) asked college students to learn the concepts of electrochemistry involved in a simple primary cell. For half the students, definitions were elaborated in a graphic display, whereas the other students read a description of what the illustrations represented. The picture group showed superior comprehension on this task for which the information in the picture was critical to the text. In another study, Royer and Cable (1976) concluded that a beginning passage with a line drawing about the structural relationships of objects helped college students better understand a second passage written in abstract terms.

Both studies involving college students used technical illustrations essential to the understanding of the passage. In a study with seventh graders, Hayes and Readence (1983) found that "illustrations enhance transfer of learning from text to the extent that the text depends on the illustration." After analyzing a study by Rohwer and Harris (1975) of fourth graders in a 1980 review of the literature, Schallert concludes that "pictures can facilitate comprehension if they depict information that is central to the text and that is tapped in the comprehension measures."

The majority of the pictures that are used in college history books are neither technical illustrations nor are they referred to directly in text; therefore, the text is not picture dependent. Maps, often an integral part of text, have not tended to increase in number. The comparison of the 1960's and 1980's textbooks does show that pictures of people, places, and things, all of which are rarely an integral part of text, have increased dramatically. Do these pictures actually make a difference?

Research Study

The purpose of the study is to examine the effects on reading comprehension that pictures in college textbooks may bring about. Do pictures of people, artifacts, landscapes, and buildings--the types of pictures which are typical of college social science textbooks, really improve

a student's understanding of the material? To answer the question, a passage from a history book was chosen. The 1108-word passage discusses the changing role of women in society in the 1800's. The contributions of three women are initially highlighted, followed by a general discussion of the increased responsibility assumed by women during the Civil War. In keeping with the trend in United States history textbooks of depicting people, the investigators selected three pictures of women to illustrate the passage. The first picture, a drawing of a bloomer girl on a bicycle, was placed at the beginning of the passage. The second, a picture of Sojourner Truth appeared in the middle of the passage, and a picture of a woman working in the fields was placed at the end. The pictures specifically supported the text to the extent that pictures of people can. The contributions of Amelia Bloomer and Sojourner Truth are specifically discussed and serve as illustrations of two trends which the passage describes. The third picture also directly supports the text in that it portrays a woman taking part in a task previously left to men, also a concept discussed in the text.

Following the reading of the passage, students were asked to complete fifteen multiple-choice comprehension questions that tested both literal and implied meanings. The passage and questions, but not the pictures, also appear on pages 133-135 of Bridging the Gap: College Reading, 2nd edition.

The subjects for the study were students in developmental reading classes at Georgia State University. A total of 140 students in eight different classes took the test. By random selection, four of the classes were given the history passage with pictures, while the other four received the history passage without pictures. Students were allowed fifty minutes to read the passage and answer the questions.

Findings

Student comprehension scores were derived and mean scores for each group were calculated. A T-test was used to test for significance (see Table 2). The alpha level was set at .05.

There is no significant difference in the performance

Table 2

Mean Scores for the Picture and the Non-Picture Groups
on Measures of Reading Comprehension and Vocabulary

Variable	No. of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Degrees Freedom	T-Value
Compre- hension					
Pictures	72	7.44	1.87		
No Pictures	68	7.12	1.74		
				138	1.07

of the two groups on the measures of reading comprehension, depending on whether the passage which the student read included pictures or did not include pictures.

Follow-up Study

Following the completion of the research described above, one of the instructors who had conducted part of the experiment used the passage for instructional purposes with a class which had not participated in the study. She did not have enough copies of the passage with pictures for everyone in the class, and so she completed a class set with copies of the passage without pictures. She instructed students informally to pick up a copy of the passage and read it for further discussion. She noticed that students chose the passage with pictures until they ran out, and only then did students pick up copies without pictures. She reported this phenomenon to the researchers.

The following quarter, a second study was conducted to formally test student preference for passages with pictures: Do students prefer reading textbook material with or without pictures? Students in developmental reading classes at Georgia State University were used for the study; classes, however, were chosen for this study only if they did not include students who had been involved in the study the previous quarter. For this study, 145 students in seven different reading classes were tested. The same two forms of the history passage on the changing role of women were used; one including three pictures, the other no pictures.

Students were asked to read the passage for a class discussion. Instructors told the class that they had brought two sets of the passage because they were not certain whether there were enough of either set for everyone in the class. Students were also told that the sets were alike in information and number of words, the only difference being that one had pictures and one did not. The passages were placed side by side near the instructor's desk. After instructions were given, students were asked to complete an intervening assignment before selecting a copy of the passage. Thus, students came to the stacks of passages at different times, which allowed each student to make an independent choice rather than being influenced by the selection of someone else.

Student preference proved to be overwhelmingly in favor of pictures. Of the 145 students, 119 chose the passage with pictures, while only 26 chose the passage without pictures. The passage with pictures was preferred by 82% of the students.

A random group of students was later asked to explain their passage preference. Students who preferred the pictures typically said, "Pictures seem more interesting," "I was interested in seeing what the article was describing," and "I like pictures." For the non-picture group, most said, "It seemed shorter," or "It was closer to me." One student said, "Pictures can be distracting;" and another said he preferred to use his "mind's picture" rather than rely on the picture in the text.

Conclusions

Two conclusions can be drawn from this research:

1. Including pictures, such as those of people, buildings, artifacts and landscapes in college history text material does not seem to increase a college student's comprehension of the material, even when the pictures have been selected because they support the main ideas of the text.

2. College students prefer material which includes pictures.

Summary and Implications

The answer to the question, "Do pictures make a difference?" is both "No" and "Yes."

As demonstrated by the study, pictures do not seem to increase a student's understanding of the text. Thus, there seems to be no cognitive benefit for the student which would warrant publishers' dramatically increasing the use of pictures. On the other hand, pictures seem to have an affective impact on students, as evidenced in their overwhelming choice of illustrated text. Given this strong student preference, pictures do indeed seem to make an affective difference to the reader although the nature of that difference was not determined by this research.

Instructors who wish to make use of pictures to aid students' reading comprehension tend to help students make connections between pictures and text. Such instruction can foster positive affective responses to a text by drawing further attention to the pictures but does not guarantee improved reading comprehension.

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WAYS TO FOSTER A HOME-SCHOOL PARTNERSHIP IN READING

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Polls consistently show that the public gives literacy a high rating. Although many children are receiving high quality reading instruction at school, parents have a role as reinforcers. At one time, the belief was prevalent that parents should keep "hands off" any aspect of instruction. Teaching took place in the classroom and the place for parents was in the home. No more. It is now recognized that parents can do a great deal to support and buttress reading/language arts skills at home.



This partnership of home and school makes sense because it benefits children. Parental involvement makes sense because it helps reach children in order to sharpen reading skills and nurture a love of reading. The New Haven, Connecticut public school system has made parental involvement in reading one of its highest priorities and this article offers

surefire ways that have worked well in New Haven.

1. Home-School Book Project--Usually there is a supply of old basal readers no longer being used in classrooms. Many of these basal reader stories appeal to youngsters. Teachers have been encouraged to use them by cutting out the stories from these "thick" books and make "thin" books for the students to take to and from home. An attractive cover is made for each book. A card attached to the book for the parent to sign indicates that the child has read the book.

These books work especially well with reluctant readers who don't want to read a thick book--preferring to read something they can finish rather quickly. This project costs nothing and opens the channels of communication between the home and school in an effective manner.

2. Parent Activity Sheets-- In New Haven, performance objectives have been developed for reading, language arts and math. A local foundation provided funds for a grant that allowed the hiring of a committee of teachers, aides and parents to work for six weeks during the summer to develop Parent Activity Sheets to reinforce most of the performance objectives. A total of 414 activities were produced. Questions accompanying activities form the basis for evaluation and encourages parent-child interaction. A sample follows:

Subject: Reading

Parent Activity Sheet

Level: 11- #31

Performance Objective: Can distinguish between fact and opinion.

Materials: Storybooks, newspaper, magazines, etc.

Procedure: Tell your child that a statement of fact can be tested. A statement of opinion cannot be tested. Example--Say, "Mary is the prettiest girl in the room. Is this a fact or opinion?" When you think your child understands the difference, provide the following sentences and ask him/her to tell you if the sentence states a fact or an opinion.

1. Cakes are more difficult to bake than pies.
2. We have lunch at 12:15 at our school.
3. June has thirty days.

-
4. The weather is better in France than in England.
 5. The football team should win the championship.

(Choose other sentences from newspapers, magazines, or books. Ask your child whether the sentences state facts or opinions.)

How Well Did You Perform on This Activity?

3. School to Home Communications--An effective way to reach parents is through the publication and distribution of bulletins and newsletters. The New Haven System has just begun publishing THE LINK, a four page tabloid designed to inform parents and members of the community about school programs and activities. Every teacher, administrator and parent receives a copy. Copies are also placed in local libraries, banks, supermarkets, and other locations.

THE LINK provides a good opportunity for reading personnel to reach parents in the school district. In one issue we included an article entitled "Ten Tips on How Parents Can Help Children Want to Read." Written to appeal to the practical side of parents, the article helps build the love of reading in all children through parent help.

Another approach being used is a reading-oriented calendar for the months of July and August. Summer is a good time to maintain reading skills through practice. There is an activity for each day of the week, and is published in the last issue before vacation. Examples:

-Suggest to your child that s/he either draw a picture or write in order all the activities planned for this day.

-Ask your child to make a list of all family members and relatives and then put them in alphabetical order.

-If you are planning a summer trip, bring your child to the travel agency with you. Secure maps, pamphlets, brochures, posters and other materials to read together as you decide the exact itinerary for your trip.

4. Saturday Morning Tutoring Program--Children who require remedial reading assistance are often involved in a "pull out" program. Reading teachers coordinate their schedules carefully so as to minimize or eliminate the

possibility that children will miss important classroom work. This is especially true when the classroom reading program is in operation since they supplement, not supplant, classroom reading instruction.

In some cases, however, taking children out of the classroom may create problems. These problems can be solved by working with parents to organize a Saturday morning tutorial program. With a small stipend for tutors and/or trained parents, an adequate program can be worked out to supplement the work of the schools.

5. Family Night--In order to communicate with parents about the reading program, the first step is to get them to come to school. A school-sponsored fun activity for the entire family or a program that involves children are effective ways to increase parent attendance. Some schools have traditional "Ice Cream Socials" or "Penny Bazaars"--activities which draw parents to the school, where they become acquainted with teachers and administrators.

Enterprising teachers have capitalized on the idea to bring parents to programs, after which there may be brief parent-teacher conferences in the classrooms. Parents may see exhibits of creative projects emanating from the children's reading, as well as displays of trade books, kits and media equipment and materials used in the reading program. As taxpayers, parents want to see that money is well-spent for materials to enrich reading skills. Exhibits of these types also counteract the notion some parents have that reading is taught by using only a textbook and workbook.

6. Newspaper Activities--Many children like to read the newspaper. In some classes, children (grades 3, 5, & 7) receive a local newspaper once a week. Since each child receives a newspaper to keep, s/he then takes it home. Children should be encouraged to discuss the newspaper with their parents. A sheet in the form of a letter to parents will help build cooperation in this effort. The sheet might contain standard questions of information children/parents could seek in the daily or weekly newspaper.

7. Be My Guest--An elementary teacher may be

aware that some parents cannot attend evening meetings, and might ask parents to visit the school during the day. The principal and guidance counselor could assist to answer questions and share observations over coffee.

Concluding Remarks

All parents have in common their desire to have their youngsters receive quality reading instruction. Communication and involvement are the key ingredients for an effective home-school partnership. The activities and programs described here are tested and successful ways to reach parents who subsequently become supportive and responsive to the reading needs of the schools.

The ultimate beneficiaries, of course, are the children and that fact alone makes the effort both rewarding and worthwhile.



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