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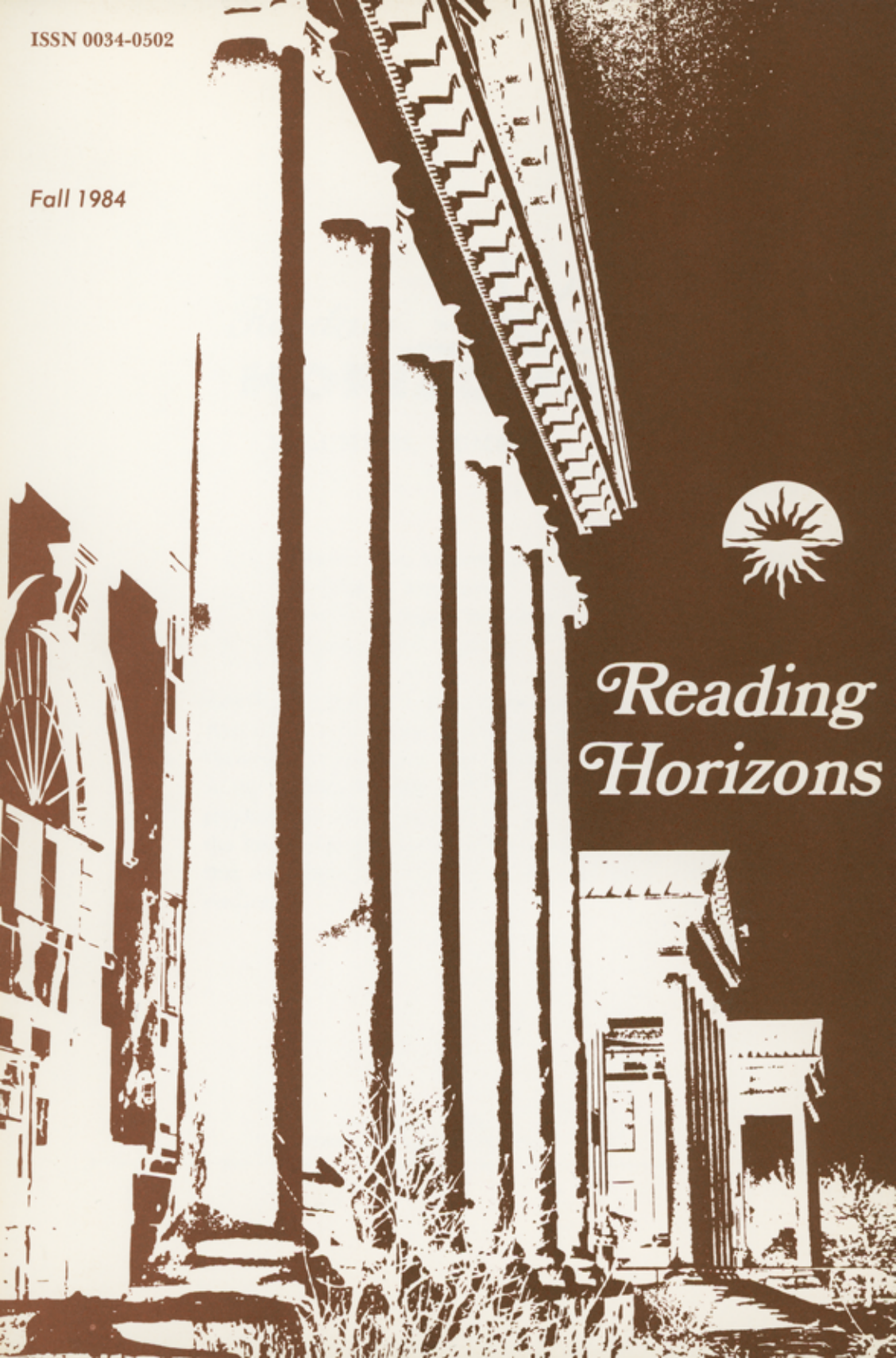

Reading Horizons

Reading HORIZONS

VOLUME 25, NUMBER 1

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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 provides all interested professionals with the ideas, reports, and important developments that constitute the ever widening horizons of reading.

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EDITORIAL COMMENT

Teachers of reading cannot have a successful teaching year during these days of bickering and quibbling over what will solve the "problem" of education in America. Any professional who takes the time to look at the situation would probably refer to the report (A Nation at Risk) as another study that averages high and low statistics, coming out at middle C. Just as no person can be average in all respects, no school is without some good components as well as poor.

To look more closely at the report, which we recognize as politically motivated, we feel the American people are being misled into thinking there is a center of control located in Washington. On the contrary, we have thousands of individual schools controlled by thousands of school board members and their administrators. And, just as we do not have a czar of education in Washington, we do not necessarily have board members and administrators who know how reading and love of reading are engendered. Guidance and encouragement and inspiration come from teachers, not from the authorities. The point is, children can't learn from teachers who are being constantly made to feel insecure.

Another thing elected officials should learn is a basic tenet in education: stress the positive. Whatever the basic purpose of the report on education was, it had a negative effect on everyone in educaton. Reading specialists are particularly aware of the damage done by discouraging statements, whether they are made to children or adults; teachers work continuously to emphasize progress, so that students see success from their endeavors. The results of blame, reproach, fault finding are an admission of failure and reluctance to try further. For our nation's leaders to tell the parents of the country that the teachers are a washout as educators is to create negative results that will injure chances for progress for a generation. It is a suggestion to the students they need have no respect for their teachers. The rash and false statement—that damning reference to "a rising tide of mediocrity" —has been repeated with disastrous effects in all quarters.

Elected "leaders" must learn that learning to read is basic to learning science, math, and other subjects. Before learning to read can take place, children have to acquire an attitude that reading is worth learning. They have to have the importance of books and magazines and newspapers demonstrated to them. That has to begin before children set foot in schoolrooms. From infancy, children are forming attitudes, observing the attitudes of those around them, and absorbing the atmosphere created by the attitudes of adults. A realization that the printed word is important comes from seeing one's parents read, or being read to by parents and other adults. There is no substitute. Parents can prepare their children to succeed in school. It is a simple but irrefutable

fact that needs repeating. Parents have that responsibility; their behavior toward printed communication prepares the child's attitude toward learning to read.

Reading is the basis for the acquired skills of analyzing, comparing and contrasting, drawing inferences, synthesizing, and evaluating. Reading is the basis for adequate communication, building vocabularies appropriate to one's pursuits in life. And it all must begin with parental modeling and demonstrating an appreciation for print.

It is our opinion that Dr. Bell has taken the wrong path on this issue. Instead of engaging in a nationwide campaign to let parents know where education really begins, thus helping all teachers as well as all parents, he was busy admonishing schools to stay in seesion longer and study harder. One would want to believe that a person who carries such a fine title would also have some finesse.

Let's hear about a new study being made, in which parents can participate. This study would measure the amount of time parents spend reading to or with the child at ages two and three. Later, the study would correlate the data gathered with measured success those same children experienced in school. If the results were well publicized, the study would help guide a new generation of parents into the right paths to prepare children for enjoyable education.

INTEGRATING LANGUAGE ACTIVITIES INTO READING INSTRUCTION

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Abstract

This study determines if second grade children, who have been identified as having possible listening comprehension problems and language deficiencies, demonstrate improved reading performance with an integrated reading-language treatment approach. A quasi-experimental design included sixteen children in the experimental group and nineteen subjects in the control group. Six operationally defined language behaviors were studied during eleven weeks of treatment. The date were interpreted to imply that certain aspects of an integrative reading-language approach were effective for reading instruction.

Factors basic to the process of learning to read are adequate linguistic skills, cognitive abilities, perceptual skills, supportive socio-cultural factors, and past experiences (Sawyer & Lipa, 1981). Increasingly, it is being reported that the process of becoming a proficient reader is related to an individual's competency in language skills—the rules governing phonology, morphology, semantics, and syntax. Research documents that major aspects of language development are integral components to a reading program (Anastasiow, 1970; Goodman, 1974; Magee & Newcomer, 1978; McDonnell 1975; Monroe & Rogers, 1964; Snyder, 1981; Vogel, 1977; Wiig & Semel, 1976). Children with deficient language abilities are likely to experience difficulty when presented with a printed code as in the case of reading print. Such children may be unable to build meaning from sound patterns; develop appropriate propositions, utilize given and new information, match the new information with the given information in long term memory storage, and subsequently store the new information in memory (Clark & Clark, 1977).

It was the purpose of this study to determine if second grade children who were low readers and who had been identified as having possible listening comprehension problems and possible language deficiencies demonstrated improved performance with an integrated reading-language approach. It was speculated that the experimentally treated children would show more gains in reading than the children in the control subgroups, because of the integrated reading-language approach, a procedure employed to incorporate morphological, syntactical and semantic language skills with reading instruction.

Review of Related Literature

Mattingly (1972) emphasized that reading is dependent upon language, and viewed reading as a deliberately acquired language-based skill. Errors produced during oral reading often conform to individually acquired linguistic rules (Weber, 1970), and readers employ their knowledge of linguistic structures in the identification of words. Frequently, beginning readers expect the orthography to conform to structural patterns similar to their acquired language system. Therefore, a major deterrent to becoming a proficient reader is a language system at variance with the syntactic configurations of the reading material (Wiener & Cromer, 1967). Ryan & Semel (1969) contend that the same linguistic competency used for listening and speaking is used for decoding printed material, and good readers generally correct errors that interfere with the grammatical structure of a sentence while ignoring those which conform to the context. As they synthesize the sentence, they derive the appropriate semantic representation and understand the message.

Illustrative of research on the relationship between language and reading is Berger's (1978) study on listening and reading comprehension. Berger's data were interpreted to suggest that poor readers also were poor listeners and likely to have a reduced ability for comprehending spoken language. Additionally, Semel & Wiig (1975) reported that poor reading skills were accompanied by quantitative delays in syntactic structures. To enhance reading instruction, teachers need to understand language development, integrate selected language-based activities into reading lessons, and help children understand the printed text (Anastasiow, 1970; Doehring, Trites, Patel, & Liedorowicz, 1981; Lundsteen, 1977; Monroe & Rogers, 1964; Semel & Wiig, 1975). The need for documented data on reading instruction is urgent and warrants consideration because of its influence upon academic, social, and vocational advancement.

Method

Subjects

The subjects were 35 middle-class Caucasian second graders who were identified as low readers by their classroom teachers according to criteria established in the school district during the semester preceding the study. Sixteen children were involved in the two experimental subgroups and nineteen in the control subgroups. Of these subjects, there were eighteen girls and seventeen boys, between 84 and 101 months of age. None of the subjects was identified as handicapped and, therefore, none received any special services. Second graders were chosen for this study because it was believed they would have progressed beyond the earliest stages of reading instruction. Furthermore, because there tends to be an increasing number of inflected forms in second-grade reading material (Brittian, cited in Vogel, 1977), it was hypothesized that if the subjects had not mastered the morphological rules of their language, they might have difficulty fully utilizing syntactic and semantic written contextual clues in their reading texts.

Procedures

This study was implemented with a quasi-experimental design involving intact experimental and control subgroups in two schools. Each school had an experimental and control group from two different second grade classes, and each group had a different teacher. For statistical purposes the experimental and control subgroups in the two schools were combined to form one main experimental and one main control group. Eleven weeks of treatment were implemented by the two experimental classroom teachers. A 90-minute workshop was conducted to train them on procedures and treatment, which consisted of the following six language activities integrated with the subjects' Houghton-Mifflin reading texts: following verbal directions (listening and following directions); understanding action in pictures (matching verbally described activity to the pictures); describing objects or pictures (provide descriptions); defining words (explain words with emphases on function, shape, size, color, composition, synonyms, part-whole, comparison, and categorization); using correct grammatical structures (use of correct forms and sentences); and retelling stories (listening and retelling stories).

Test Procedure. The two dependent measures used for pre- and posttesting the effectiveness of the experimental treatment included the Informal Reading-Language Test (Lange, Sanger & Stick, 1983) and the Test of Language Development (TOLD) (Newcomer & Hammill, 1977). The five principal subtests used from the TOLD were picture vocabulary, oral vocabulary, grammatic understanding, sentence imitation, and grammatic completion.

Observational Records. Observational data were collected in the form of a continuous event frequency count from both the experimental and control subgroups over an eleven-week period for twenty-minute reading sessions. The purpose for charting was to determine the presence or absence of the treatment specifications, to control for extraneous variables affecting the experiment, to control for the presence of a Hawthorne or John Henry effect, and to provide information to assist the experimental classroom teachers to plan individualized instruction. A master record form included color-coded observations and was given to the two experimental teachers throughout the treatment period to provide them with a visual means to readily interpret the behaviors charted. The information helped the experimental teachers to understand quickly and easily the observed behaviors from their students participating in the experiment.

It is important to note that charting occurred in the two control groups; however, these teachers were not given feedback on the results. The two teachers in the control subgroups were only provided positive verbal reinforcement for implementing their conventional reading instruction.

Results and Discussion

Observational research data and informal interviews conducted after the treatment was terminated supported the position that the training workshop was beneficial. The training workshop helped the experimental teachers understand the relationship of the lin-

guistic aspects of morphology, syntax and semantics to reading and how the two areas could be combined in an integrated manner to improve reading skills. The data in Table 1 shows that both experimental subgroup teachers initiated more integrated behaviors than did the control teachers. The primary activity the control teachers implemented, despite the fact they had not received the training, was following directions. However, the anecdotal records accompanying the charting revealed that teacher manuals for the children's texts were used as guides to develop the commands and yes-no questions, and the information contained lengthy and complex linguistic structures.

Table 1
Event Observation Recordings of the
Behavioral Language Responses of 39
Second Grade Subjects in 17 Sessions

Groups	Following Verbal Directions	Understanding Action in Pictures	Describe Objects or Pictures	Define Words	Use Correct Grammatical Structures	Retell Stories	Total
Combined Experimental (N = 18)*	1616	143	305	224	201	328	2817
Combined Control (N = 21)*	1466	13	36	43	23	110	1691

*There were two additional children in the experimental and control groups who were not included in the data analysis of the study because of selection criteria. An analysis of each of the four subjects' behavioral data did not reflect any unusual or unequal variance to spuriously alter the interpretation of the observational data.

Observational data, descriptive and inferential statistics were used to evaluate the effectiveness of the experiment. It was believed that the treatment and not extraneous variables accounted for the changes in scores noted between the pre- and posttesting. Threats to the study's internal validity controlled for included: history, maturation, testing, instrumentation, statistical regression, and experimental mortality. The major threat to the study's internal validity was differential assignment of subjects because intact groups were used. The major threats controlled for, that could have affected the study's internal validity were: pre- and posttest sensitization, novelty and disruption, the Hawthorne effect, the experimenter effect, interaction of history and treatment effect, and measurement of the dependent variable.

The analysis of covariance procedure helped control for

possible initial differences between the (E) and (C) sample groups by adjusting for initial differences in the pretest means. The results were interpreted to mean that there was no statistically significant difference between the combined (E) and (C) groups on the total TOLD (E – Pretest $\bar{X}$ = 74.81, SD = 13.08; Posttest $\bar{X}$ = 82.63, SD = 12.76; and C = Pretest $\bar{X}$ = 80.26, SD = 10.09; Posttest = 85.26, SD = 9.36), or the total score of the informal measure (E = Pretest $\bar{X}$ = 34.75, SD = 12.10; Posttest $\bar{X}$ = 42.69, SD = 9.34 and C = Pretest $\bar{X}$ = 31.79, SD = 8.59; Posttest = 3742, SD = 8.38). Although the main (E) group showed greater raw score point gains than did the main (C) group, between the pre- and posttest scores on both the total TOLD scores and the informal measure, the mean differences were not large enough to warrant statistical significance (TOLD F = 0.17; df = 1,34; p.> .05 and informal measure F = 2.36; df = 1,34; p> .05).

Five possible reasons for the findings are: (a)the differences between the results obtained on pre- and posttesting for the experimental and control group might have been too small and the significance test not powerful enough to detect those small differences, (b) the size of the sample possibly was too small, (c) the duration of the treatment might have been too short to reveal the impact of the treatment, (d) the dependent measures might have been insensitive to measuring the effect of the integrative language-reading treatment, and (e) the language problems evidenced by the experimental subjects were not obvious; therefore, the effect of the treatment was characterized by small gains. Despite the point that statistically significant differences were not found between the combined experimental subgroups and combined control subgroups on the total scores of the two dependent measures, there were gains made by the combined experimental group when results were examined on specific subtests of the dependent measures. Descriptive statistics revealed positive trends for the main experimental group when compared to the main control group on the following subtests of the dependent measures: Story I, Recall and Sequencing of Verbal Material, the total score for the Informal Reading-Language Test, and TOLD subtests of Picture Vocabulary, Grammatic Understanding, Grammatic Completion, and the TOLD scores.

Also, it is important to note that when the data was analyzed according to each teacher in the four subgroups, there was a statistically significant difference (.05 level) in the scores of the four subgroups on the informal measure subtest Recall and Sequencing of Verbal Material. One experimental teacher accounted for the source of variation which resulted in significant gains between the pre- and posttest scores.

Table 1 illustrates marked differences in responses from the subjects within each group on retelling stories. Probably that was a direct reflection of the teacher.

At this point, the effectiveness of five of the six integrative language behaviors in teaching reading cannot be conclusively substantiated by this research data. Those language behaviors include following verbal directions, understanding action in pictures, describing objects or pictures, defining words, and using correct grammatical structures. However, the treatment

variable, retelling stories, was beneficial as demonstrated by the growth made by children in one of the experimental subgroups.

Informal interviews were conducted with the two teachers from the experimental classrooms to determine their reactions to the charting component of the experimental, and to gain their overall impressions of the treatment approach. They reported the following:

1) The treatment increased their awareness of the importance of linguistic skills in teaching reading;

2) The six integrated language activities realistically could be developed by teachers and incorporated into the children's reading lessons with minimal planning;

3) The activity of retelling stories was perceived as being the most beneficial language behavior for improving reading skills;

4) The treatment was considered beneficial and would be voluntarily continued;

5) The children in the (E) groups demonstrated the greatest improvement in their attending, listening, and verbal skills.

Based upon the results from this research, the author concludes the following:

1) Effective procedures were designed and used to train the experimental classroom teachers to implement the integrated approach, and the study increased the (E) teachers' awareness of the importance of linguistic skills in reading instruction;

2) The classroom teacher was an important variable for teaching the skill of recalling and sequencing verbal material, and retelling stories was considered to be the most beneficial treatment activity for improving reading skills;

3) The (E) teachers who were given special training provided considerably more opportunities for children in reading groups to use a variety of linguistic structures and learn vocabulary and concept development with their reading lessons;

4) Following verbal directions was the primary integrated language activity initiated by the control classroom teachers, even though they were not trained to implement the language behaviors which constituted the treatment.

Although more research is needed to document the effectiveness of an approach of this type, it is believed to be a promising procedure to use with children who have reading problems that presumably are language based.

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READ ALOUD TUTORING: A PROGRAM TO ENHANCE READING INTERESTS

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Meaningful reading, to a large extent, depends upon the interaction between the reader and the material read. In order to comprehend what is read and interact with the writer, the reader must bring prior knowledge to bear on the passage (Otto and Smith, 1980; Rumelhart, 1976; Smith, 1978).

An important goal of reading instruction is to bring students and books together through a variety of mediums. Ultimately, the goal is to have students use reading skills to learn and select reading as a recreational activity on a lifelong basis. Shanahan (1982) postulated that to direct children's curiosity toward books, and to demonstrate the importance of reading, classroom teachers must share their love of books in various ways. Reading aloud to children is one medium of sharing one's zeal and enthusiasm for books, as well as motivating children to want to read for pleasure. Many authorities (Neal and Anderson, 1979; Petty, Petty, and Becking, 1973; Reed, 1972; Tanyzer, 1972) have suggested that teacher must incorporate more literature into the reading program as a basic component of the overall instructional program.

A current trend which has fostered both cognitive and attitudinal gains for students involved is the use of tutorial programs in which tutoring in reading is conducted either by peers or paraprofessionals. Cohen and Kulik (1981) report on several experimental studies which indicate significant gains for tutors and tutees.

A Volunteer Tutorial Program

In early fall, a local elementary school principal called together a group of persons interested and committed to the improvement of performance in reading. She had conceived the idea of a read-aloud tutorial program. Among those invited were retired reading and basic skills specialists, a reading consultant from a nearby college, central office reading personnel, representatives from an adjacent high school, and parent volunteers. The purpose of the meeting was to design a volunteer reading program to enhance children's attitudes toward reading.

At the conclusion of the meeting, a volunteer tutorial program had been designed to involve seventy-five Advanced Placement and Honors students from the high school and parent volunteers to read-aloud to and/or listen to third and fourth grade children read aloud for approximately forty-five minutes per day during the spring semester. The program was coordinated by the school Language Arts Specialist who paired tutors and tutees to work

together. If problems developed (as in one situation) in initial pairing of volunteer and student, the Language Arts Specialist observed the situation and exchanged either the tutor or the tutee to make a more compatible match.

Volunteers, coordinated by a retired reading specialist, met regularly during the fall semester preparing for the program. A three hour training workshop for volunteer tutors was held at the beginning of the semester. The workship included an overview of the program, an explanation of the duties and responsibilities of the tutors, and demonstrations of how to read a book to a child and select books for several different purposes.

Third and fourth grade teachers used the available California Achievement Test (CAT) scores as criteria for selection of students to participate in the program. Seventy-five third and fourth grade students to participate in the program. Seventy-five third and fourth grade students performing at least six months below grade placement on the CAT were selected by the classroom teachers to participate.

Materials

Several sets of high interest books were donated by publishing companies and volunteers. Volunteer reading specialists determined the reading ability level, categorized, and annotated a wide variety of books for the program. A Record of Free Reading Form was provided for the tutees to record all books read with or by a tutor. All tutors received an annotated copy of all available materials which included readability level and approximate grade and interest levels.

Evaluation

Although no formal assessment was made, opportunities for constant dialogue were provided throughout the semester. In addition, a "suggestion box" was available for those who wanted to make anonymous suggestions.

At mid-semester, the tutors and tutees were asked to express their feelings orally about the program, during a school-provided breakfast meeting. The elementary students made such statements as "I don't want to miss school because I'll miss my tutor"; "I read more now since my tutor started reading to me," and "My tutor does some fun things with me." The student tutors likewise stated, "I have discovered things about myself that I was not aware of," "I have developed more patience than I had before," "I have established a buddy relationship and would like to continue it," "I read more now since I am preparing to read to someone."

As the semester ended, both tutors and tutees were saddened. Teachers and tutors reported evidence of more positive attitudes and higher interests in achievement in academic subjects as well as many more children migrating, unaided, to the Library Center. In addition, tutors reported many different and unanticipated successes as a result of the program.

Conclusion

Cohen and Kulik (1981) conducted a meta-analysis of 65 major

studies of student tutorial programs. They concluded that tutorial programs contribute to the academic growth of the children who are tutored and definitely benefit both tutors and tutees on both cognitive and attitudinal levels.

While no formal data were collected for the program described, basically because of the numerous compounding variables impacting on the lives of the tutees; the positive feedback, the smiles and obvious attitudinal changes provided an enormous amount of reinforcement for all persons involved.

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MONITORING PROGRESS TOWARD INDEPENDENT SILENT READING

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If fluent silent reading for meaning is the overall goal of learning to read, what are the major indicators of progress toward that goal for beginning readers? What further understanding of the process of moving from non-reading to independent silent reading is to be gained through naturalistic research of beginning readers? In considering questions such as these this study of beginning readers was conceived. Particular attention centered on (1) the reader's attainment of oral fluency, (2) the reader's ability to achieve meaning using a modified cloze procedure, and (3) the reader's ability to write a sentence independently. Each skill was viewed as a preliminary step toward becoming an independent silent reader.

There is considerable empirical evidence that oral fluency training improves overall reading ability. Chomsky (1978) for example, in a study of third grade nonreaders combined simultaneous reading while listening to taped selections and repeated reading of a familiar text either orally or silently as steps toward fluent silent reading. Martin and Meltzer (1976) reported similar findings in their study of visual rhythms as a method to facilitate the teaching of reading. Further support is evidenced in the research of Morgan and Lyon (1979) and Neville (1968).

Thus research suggests the need for providing training to develop oral fluency at least during the reading acquisition stage. However, Allington (1983) points out that in practice lack of oral fluency is frequently mistakenly viewed by teachers as simply symptomatic of poor reading, suggesting that the poor reader is inefficient in word recognition or word analysis skills. Such interpretations often lead to further instruction in letters, sounds, or words in isolation, in the mistaken belief that more attention in this area will result in improved reading. While limited instruction in word recognition skills through the use of sound symbol relationships and structural analysis was provided in this classroom setting, all teaching-learning procedures were carried out with a reading for meaning orientation. This included the procedures used in the study as well as all classroom reading support activities.

Thus, in an effort to gain a greater understanding of how children make the transition from reading word for word orally to becoming independent silent readers this study monitored the development of fluent oral reading of beginning readers, recorded progress related to the children's ability to use a modified cloze procedure as an indication of their perception of reading as a meaning gathering process, charted children's ability to write a complete sentence independently, and observed children as they made voluntary decisions to read a trade book silently.

Major questions considered were:

1. How many weeks of classroom instruction in reading are needed by first grade children placed in one of four reading groups before they can read orally with good phrasing a selection previously practiced through over-reading, giving evidence of comprehension by retelling the story in their own words?
2. How many weeks of classroom instruction in reading are needed by first grade children placed into one of four reading groups before they can recognize that a sentence can be changed in meaning by adding or deleting one or more words using a modified cloze procedure?
3. How many weeks after responding correctly to the modified cloze procedure are children from each of the four groups able to read a book independently?
4. How many weeks after showing evidence of good phrasing in oral reading of a selection previously practiced through over-reading with ability to retell the story in their own words are children from each of four groups able to read a book independently?

Method

Subjects

The eleven subjects of this study were randomly selected from an alphabetized class list of 22 children, members of a first grade class of beginning readers in a Northern New England industrial town. Upon entering first grade all the children involved in the study were non-readers, although one child repeating first grade could decode consonant, vowel, consonant words. Seven of the eleven children qualified for the free lunch program. Responding to an informal interview by the teacher, three indicated that an adult frequently read to them at home, four were read to occasionally, and four were never read to at home. Only three of the eleven ever visited the City library.

Definitions

(1) For the purposes of this study beginning oral fluency refers to reading which replaced word-by-word reading with some 2 and 3 word phrasing and at times included adequate stress in relation to syntax.

(2) Fluent oral reading refers to reading in phrases using terminal punctuation and intonation reflecting normal speech patterns.

(3) An independent silent reader is defined as a child who voluntarily chose a book from the classroom or school library, and was then able to read 90% of the words without assistance and who after reading the text silently was able to retell the story in his own words.

Design

The 11 children in this twenty-six week study were placed in one of four reading groups based on the teacher's judgment of readiness to read. (Top Group-I; Upper, Middle Group-II; Lower Middle Group-III; Bottom Group-IV.) Reading Instruction was given to each group on a daily basis using the Holt Basic Reading Series (1982). As children showed ability to read in the first preprimer over-reading was introduced and biweekly audiotaping sessions of oral reading were begun.

In the biweekly sessions samples of the oral reading of the 11 children in this study were taped and then analyzed for beginning fluency and later for fluent oral reading. Passages averaged 55 words and were selected from the Holt Basic Reading Series levels 3-6. Each passage was originally presented as part of a small group directed reading lesson.

While being taped for fluency in oral reading the children were asked to individually read the passage and retell the story orally. Approximately one to two instructional weeks passed between the initial directed reading lesson and the later taped rereading. During this interim the children were given several opportunities to over-read with an adult. They were also encouraged to reread the story silently independently. Taped passages were analyzed by three independent raters. Passages were recorded as indicating either beginning fluency or fluent silent reading only when at least two of the independent listeners were in agreement.

Weekly directed writing sessions were started during the third week of reading instruction. Children were asked to supply a word or words using a modified cloze procedure. At the beginning of the instructional period the incomplete sentence required the addition of a simple noun, verb, or adjective. Ten weeks into the instructional year the sentences were composed in a manner to suggest the addition of phrases, and the children were encouraged to add more than one word.

To gain further insight into the learner's ability to write, three times a week the children were asked to independently write a sentence using a teacher selected word. In all writing situations whenever a child asked for the spelling of a word it was written on a card for him. Weekly anecdotal records were kept for each child. A folder of each child's written work provided additional evidence of each one's progress.

Support Activities

Supportive classroom teaching-learning activities treated reading as part of the total instructional process. Activities were structured to provide for integration of speaking, listening, reading, and writing. During the first three weeks of instruction

Language Experience activities were used to introduce children to reading. Children kept word banks and were encouraged to write and draw about their thoughts. Word charts were displayed in the classroom to facilitate the writing process.

To encourage the enjoyment of books a daily 20 minute period was set aside by the teacher for reading to the children. A "look at books" time was also part of the children's daily routine.

New vocabulary from the basal series was introduced in context. At the same time children were encouraged to use their knowledge of letter/sound relationships to decode words whenever appropriate. Silent reading was encouraged both in directed reading sessions and in the independent rereading of basal stories. To aid fluency in oral reading children were given frequent opportunities to over-read with an adult reader.

Results

As noted earlier, weekly anecdotal records were kept for each child. As this naturalistic study evolved interrelationships between learning to read and the ability to write connected discourse became evident. Ten of the eleven children in the study demonstrated the following progression of skill development:

1st The ability to complete a sentence using a modified cloze procedure by providing a meaningful noun, verb, adjective, or phrase.

2nd The ability to compose a sentence using a given noun.

3rd The ability to read preread passages orally with beginning fluency.

4th The ability to read preread passages orally with fluency.

5th The ability to read silently and independently self selected trade books.

Six of the seven children who began to read independently during the twenty-six weeks of this study needed four to nine weeks of additional instruction between the time they began to show fluency in their oral reading and their ability to read silently independently. The ability to read orally with fluency and the ability to read independently appeared to develop almost simultaneously, usually within one or two weeks of each other. The one child who chose a book to read independently before reading fluently, read Bill Martin's Brown Bear, Brown Bear What Do You See?, a very repetitive book not requiring the same skills as evidenced in book choices of the other six children.

It is of interest that the first four fluent oral readers all had one year more educational experience than the others. (One was a repeater, three had attended a prefirst class.) While all directed reading was done in the basal series at the Pre-Primer level, the material that the children were asked to read progressively increased in difficulty. Fluency began to develop in the second PP (Level 4) and improved markedly in Level 5 leading to fluency in Level 5 or Level 6.

Seven of the eleven children became independent silent readers during the twenty-six weeks of this study. Of the four remaining,

two attained fluent oral reading, one reached beginning fluency, one continued oral reading at the word-by-word level.

In response to the four major questions of this study, the following findings were evidenced:

1. How many weeks of instruction in reading are needed by first grade children placed into one of four reading groups before they can read orally with good phrasing?

   A. Group I needed 19 to 22 weeks.
   B. Group II needed 22 to 25 weeks.
   C. Group III needed 23 to 24 weeks.
   D. Group IV needed 26+ weeks.

2. How man weeks of classroom instruction in reading are needed by first grade children placed into one of four reading groups before they can recognize that a sentence can be changed in meaning by adding or deleting one or more words using a modified cloze procedure?

   A. Groups I and II needed 5 weeks.
   B. Group III needed 7 weeks.
   C. Group IV needed 14 to 16 weeks.

3. How many weeks after responding correctly to a modified cloze procedure are children from each group able to read a book independently?

   A. Group I needed 16 to 18 weeks.
   B. Group II needed 12 to 21+ weeks.
   C. Group III needed 17 to 21+ weeks.
   D. Group IV needed 21+ weeks.

4. How many weeks after showing evidence of good phrasing in oral reading are children able to read a book independently?

   A. Group I needed 1 to 2 weeks.
   B. Group II needed 0 to 2+ weeks.
   C. Group III needed 1 to 2+ weeks.
   D. Group IV NA.

As noted earlier, one of the support learning activities included the writing of sentences independently using a given word correctly in context. An additional question related to this activity emerged as significant in the monitoring of progress toward independent reading, namely: "How many weeks of classroom instruction in reading are needed by first grade children placed into one of four reading groups before they are able to write a complete sentence using a given word correctly in context in each of three consecutive trials, using a different word for each trial?

Findings in this area are as follows:

A. Group I needed 5 to 6 weeks.
B. Group II needed 6 to 11 weeks.
C. Group III needed 7 to 14 weeks
D. Group IV needed 15 to 16 weeks.

A summary of the findings is presented in the table found at the end of this article.

Discussion

Several implications for the teaching of reading are to be found in the results of this study.

1. Children who use the modified cloze procedure after only five weeks of classroom instruction in reading were also very successful in their first reading experiences using the preprimer in the basal series. As pointed out by Starr and Bruce (1983), researchers believe that comprehension techniques can be incorporated from the very beginning of a child's learning to read. Emphasis on meaning in reading appeared to help these children.

2. Children who were given an opportunity to express thoughts in writing were also given additional understanding of the purpose and process of reading. While similar procedures are often an integral part of the early Language Experience approach continued development of the writing strand appears to be a fruitful and necessary strategy in the early years.

3. It is essential to consider beginning reading instruction as a strand in the development of total communication skills presenting together reading, writing, speaking and listening skills with continued emphasis on the function and meaning of language.

4. Fluent oral reading is an important step toward reading for meaning and independent silent reading.

5. Silent reading should be encouraged from the very beginning of reading instruction starting with short periods set aside as a "look at books" time.

Number of Weeks of Instruction Related to Specific Skills

Name	Modified Cloze	Sentences	Begin. Fluency	Fluent Oral Reading	Independent Silent Read'g
I					
Vicki	5	5	17	19	21
Jared	5	5	14	22	23
John	5	6	14	21	22
II					
Stacy	5	11	17	23	25
Amy	5	8	19	25	Not Yet
Veronica	5	11	19	22	23
Susan	5	6	19	23	17
III					
Melissa	7	7	20	24	Not Yet
Scott	7	14	20	23	24
IV					
Angie	16	15	26	Not Yet	
George	14	16	Not Yet		

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TEACHING CONFUSED WORDS

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LaMont read, "The dogs where barking," Todd often confused baby and body, and Dana frequently used ever, every, and even interchangeably.

There are several reasons for this typical behavior of those children who are having difficulty learning to read. One, the confused words have a high degree of graphic similarity; they look very much alike. Two, usually they represent abstract concepts. Most of these words are what linguists call "structure" or "empty" words. They have no concrete referents and their meanings are acquired only from the context in which they appear. Of, there, as, and for are such words. Something in human memory makes such words far more difficult to remember than words such as shoe, arm, or bike. Three, they are emotionally neutral. Words which are either positively or negatively emotional are more quickly learned and retained than are neutral ones.

If a child confuses look-alike words, we can't remediate the situation by relying on "business as usual" methods. Methods used previously may have contributead to the problem in the first place. Therefore, even though confused words are a subset of common sight words, we can't use methodology typically used to teach children sight words; we need to use procedures especially appropriate for the situation. Fortunately, much recent attention has been paid indirectly to this problem.

If we combine the above explanations of why these words are frequently confused with some recent research and suggestions by reading experts in recently published articles, the following recommendations of what to do when children repeatedly confuse words emerge.

1. Don't jump to the conclusion that intensive instruction is needed.

Many children confuse a word or two yet their comprehension isn't hindered to any appreciable degree nor is their reading growth impeded. Only when confusion is a hindrance to understanding or to further achievement should the confused words be focused on.

2. Study one confused word at a time. Studying two confused words simultaneously won't de-confuse the child but will only tend to prolong the confusion. Psychologists say that one incompletely learned word interferes with mastering the learning of

a look-alike word. Think of being introduced to indentical twins: Joan and Jane. When you meet Joan the next day, do you say, "Hello, Joan" with certainty and confidence? Or do you hesitate, unsure of whether it's Joan or Jane? It's the same way with children and look-alike words. And occasionally the problem is more severe when there are triplets: Joan, Jane, and Jan (there, then, and them).

3. Study this one word first in isolation. Even though some reading specialists may not agree with this recommendation, the best research we have (Ehri and Wike; Singer, Samuels, and Spiroff) says that studying the word in isolation rather than context will focus the child's total attention on the graphic details of the word to be learned. To call the child's attention to the graphic details that distinguish one word from another, have the child:

a. Spell the word orally while looking at it.
b. Spell it orally from memory.
c. Copy the word while looking at it.
d. Write it from memory.

Children who repeatedly confuse visually similar words seem to be responding to the general shape of the word; they don't pay close attention to the significant details created by the letter. We need to use procedures such as those above to help the child to scrutinize the word and to establish an accurate image of it in the visual memory area of the brain.

4. Read the word in context. There are few commercial materials that focus on specific words. Therefore, teacher-constructed exercises are necessary. Two kinds are appropriate.

a. Traditional exercises in which the child must write the word, e.g.,

A cowboy rides a _____.
(horse) (homes)

b. Teacher- or teacher-pupil-written stories in which the word appears repeatedly, e.g.,

What time is it? What made me sleep so late? What am I going to do today? I know what I will do. I will do what makes me happy!

5. Review the word regularly. Most children with reading problems need numerous exposures to and practice with learning words; they seem not to learn them as the result of one or two activities. Several educationally sound procedures such as the following may be used to provide variety in practice: WORDO (a variation of Bingo), flash cards from a word bank, a card readerk such as the Language Master, or more activities such as 4a and 4b above. An excellent technique—although slow—is to have the word written from memory after it has been flashed.

6. Practice recognitions in a flash situation. After much practice, the word should be presented—along with others that have been studied—in a flash situation of about one-half second. Either a tachistoscope can be used or the teacher or aide can

use a blank card as a shutter in front of the word on a word card. This stage is very important as the child is learning to recognize the word instantly without time to study it. Psychologists call this "cue reduction."

7. Now—and only now—introduce the second confused word. It is probably advisable to wait at least a week after you feel the child has mastered the first word before you start teaching the look-alike word. Use steps 3-6 above and make sure it too is mastered to nearly 100 percent accuracy in both a study and a flashed situation.

8. Present the confused words together in context. Again, because there are few commercial materials that provide practice on specific words, teacher-constructed exercises may be necessary such as those illustrated in step 4. Enough practice should be provided so that the child quickly and accurately reads the words without stumbling or hesitating.

9. Review periodically. Children who confuse look-alike words typically suffer from "Monday morning amnesia" and even a whole week of perfect responses doesn't guarantee future perfection. Periodic review is essential for lifelong mastery.

10. During the time the words are being studied, whenever the child stumbles over one of them, hesitates, or miscalls one, merely tell the child the word. Because the child has not yet mastered the word, don't say, "Look at it carefully," "Sound it out," "What is that word?" etc. This level of independence will come later as the child more nearly masters the word.

Conclusion

Oftentimes past suggestions for helping children learn to distinguish between confused words didn't work with a high degree of assurance. But recent insights and research such as the articles listed below promise better, quicker, and more reliable results.

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ENLIVEN HISTORY WITH BOOKS

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Students often consider history to be dull and the textbooks difficult. Because of the many trade books available, however, history can be brought to life. These books create characters, both real and fictional, within settings of actual historical events. Not only are authentic details given, but the motivations underlying a chronology of causes and effects are presented in readable fashion that may be quite different from textbook material. Below are reviews of recent offerings that may supplement the social studies program.

Aliki. A Medieval Feast. New York: T.Y.Crowell, 1983. $9.95.

The king and his entourage was coming to visit the Camdenton Manor, and preparations for such an event took weeks. The highlight of his visit was the feast. The hunting for game, harvesting of fruits and vegetables, baking, and cooking were enormous undertakings. And what a feast it was! The guests ate course after course of exotic dishes from mid-morning to dark while jesters and minstrels entertained them. (An author's note indicated that Medieval feasting was an art.)

Vividly colored, highly detailed pictures recreate the sumptuous feast. Borders around some of the illustrations identify animals, fruits and vegetables, and spices used in preparation of the meal. Brief labels on the drawings define terms or describe settings apart from the text. Information about the architecture, dress, and customs of manor life in the Middle Ages is reflected in the illustrations as well. Aliki made use of Medieval tapestries and art to authenticate the detail. Possible follow-up activities might include making a mural, researching to prepare a feast menu, and writing dialogue of the table conversation at the feast.

Beatty, Patricia. Melinda Takes a Hand. New York: William Morrow & Co., 1983. $9.50.

Set in the 1890's, the story relates the adventures of Melinda (thirteen years old) and her older sister Sarah Jane as the two of them are "stranded" in a fledgling Colorado town. They had been traveling from Chicago to California for Sarah Jane's wedding. While visiting the groom's family in Colorado, Sarah Jane received a letter from her intended telling her that he was marrying her because she was so "lonely." (Poor fellow! He meant "lovely," but his handwriting was very poor.) An angry Sarah Jane immediately

cancelled the wedding, leaving her and Melinda without enough money to return home. In the rest of the story, Melinda "takes a hand" many times, by securing employment for her sister, by finding appropriate suitors for her sister, and by helping her friends.

The book is fiction supported with factual historical details. Its colorful cast of characters has one humorous escapade after another. Beatty's stories are characterized by spunky heroines. Fans of her previous books will enjoy Melinda just as much. This book would be great, read aloud!

Ernst, Lisa Campbell. Sam Johnson and the Blue Ribbon Quilt. New York: Lothrop, Lee and Shepard, 1983. $11.00.

While Sam Johnson is mending the torn awning from the pig's pen, he discovers that he has a flair for piecing scraps of cloth together into an interesting design. Proud of his efforts, Sam announces his intention to join the ladies' quilting club. After being laughed out of his first meeting (for, after all, how could a man do such delicate work?), Sam organizes all the men into their own quilting club. Both groups work hard on their entries for the county fair quilting contest. When a mishap befalls both quilts on the way to the fair, the clubs unite to create the unique prize winning design.

Delightful illustrations, including a cast of rather humorous animal on-lookers, accompany the text. The border designs on each page are actual quilt patterns and are identified by the author at the end of the book. In addition to its portrayal of one aspect of turn-of-the-century rural life, the book has value in its depiction of men in a non-stereotypic role. It might be used as an introduction to the art of quilting to students and as a stimulus for both boys and girls to design and make a group quilt.

Fritz, Jean. The Double Life of Pocahontas. Ill. by Ed Young. New York: Putnam, 1983. $9.95.

Fritz casts doubt on the familiar story of Pocahontas' saving John Smith's life in this account of the life of Pocahontas and the settling of the Jamestown Colony. In all likelihood, Pocahontas was John Smith's sponsor for his adoption into her family; she was playing a traditional role as his "sister" in the New World. The weakness, laziness, and ineptitude displayed by the settlers as they attempted to establish a colony is graphically described as well.

Throughout the book, Fritz considers the feelings of Pocahontas about the white settlers, the presumed death of John Smith, her kidnapping, her eventual marriage to John Rolfe, and her subsequent life in England. She poses questions in the text to encourage the reader to speculate along with her. The conflict of identity experienced by Pocahontas as she is caught between two worlds is reflected in the confusion of the Indians as they face the gradual destruction of their culture.

This book is a must in the study of the colonization of America. It is a tragic story, yet sympathetic. Fritz has drawn from written records and engravings to provide some of the dialogue and description. Historical notes and a bibliography are appended.

Goodall, John. Above and Below Stairs. New York: Atheneum, 1983. $9.95.

Goodall contrasts the lives of English masters and their servants from the Middle Ages to present day in this unusual wordless book. Each period of history is identified by the name of the English monarch and dates of his or her reign. The format of the book is unique in that full pages are alternated with half pages which change the setting and action as they are turned. Beautiful watercolor paintings are filled with period detail that lend authenticity to Goodall's commentary on the historical social class systems of England.

Along with Goodall's previous books about historical England, including The Story of an English Village, An Edwardian Holiday, and An Edwardian Season, among others, Above and Below Stairs would be an excellent supplement to a unit on English history. Students might provide dialogue concerning actual events of the time (or even castle gossip!) to accompany the paintings. The book might also serve as the basis for creative drama activities.

Lasky, Kathryn. Beyond the Divide. New York: Macmillan, 1983 $11.95.

Set in 1849, the story relates the westward journey of fourteen-year-old Meribah Simon and her father. Shunned by his austere Amish society, Simon is seeking opportunities in the Gold Rush in California. It is a diverse group of emigrants who accompany them on the wagon train, but friendships are formed and camaraderie develops. As the terrain roughens in treacherous mountainous regions, the people change and Meribah is bewildered by the cruelty and violence displayed by her fellow travelers. When the Simons are abandoned by the rest of the train, Meribah realizes that she must find the means for survival. Meribah undergoes a great deal of growth as she learns about human nature and makes a startling discovery; that she can do better than survive—she can live.

Beyond the Divide is not light reading. It is a compelling story with such vivid descriptions that the reader is consumed by the sights, sounds, and even smells of the arduous journey. It is far removed from the romanticized media versions of wagon trains. Superb characterizations make the book as valuable for a study of human character as it is for its insight into the history of the westward movement.

Provensen, Alice and Martin. The Glorious Flight. New York: Viking Press, 1983. $13.95. 1984 Caldecott Medal.

Subtitled "Across the Channel with Louis Bleriot, July 25, 1909," The Glorious Flight tells of Louis Bleriot's determination to fly. From the first moment he saw a flying machine on a Sunday outing with his family in 1901, Louis was obsessed. He built machine after machine, suffering numerous and often humorous pitfalls along the way. ("Papa" was not the most expert flier in history!) With "Bleriot XI," Louis finally had a real aeroplane and he became the first person to fly across the English Channel.

The illustrations are exquisite paintings filled with details of city life in France in the early 1900's and of the design of early airplanes. The use of color and light create perspectives

that convey to the reader a sense of watching the flying machines pass overhead, feeling the splashes from the river in unsuccessful attempts, and soaring with Bleriot on his flight. The book would be useful in a study of aviation history, comparing Bleriot's inventions with airplanes of the Wright Brothers and the emotion of his flight with that of Lindbergh's.

Speare, Elizabeth George. The Sign of the Beaver. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1983. 1984 Newbery Honor Book. 1984 Scott O'Dell Award for Historical Fiction.

Thirteen-year-old Matt and his father have claimed some land in the Maine territory and built a cabin on it. When his father goes away for what is supposed to be about two months to get the rest of the family, Matt is left to guard the cabin and care for the corn patch. When a stranger steals his gun and a bear ransacks the cabin for food, Matt realizes he must find a way to survive. Through a relationship with a proud young Indian boy, Matt learns to provide for himself as the months pass and it appears that his family may never return. The two boys develop what could be considered a friendship. What does occur is a growing respect for each other. Matt gradually begins to understand the cultural heritage of the Beaver clan and the "code" of the wilderness.

The Sign of the Beaver is an adventurous survival story filled with details about life in the wilderness in the 1700's. Students might compare it with other survival stories, such as Island of the Blue Dolphins, My Side of the Mountain, or Julie of the Wolves. Students might also respond to an underlying theme, that of the confusion of the Indians about the movement of white settlers to lands that are "owned" by no one.

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EFFECTS OF ADDING FOLKLORE TO BASAL READING PROGRAMS

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For the past several years reading in the elementary schools has been an area of special emphasis and has been reinforced as one of the basics of a good education. In response to this situation, educators are always searching for ways to improve reading instruction.

One aspect of reading that recently has been of particular interest is the inclusion of folklore in reading instruction. As a part of every culture's literature for a long time, many of the stories originated centuries ago. A resurgence of interest in folklore in the last few years has made it a logical source for supplementing basal reading programs. Often the terms "folklore" and "fairy tale" are used interchangeably. Thompson (1951), however, attempts to make a distinction between the two. He concludes that the term "folklore" is broadened to include "fairy tales" and "household tales," as well as all forms of prose narrative, written or oral, which have been handed down through the years.

Koeller's review of twenty-five years of The Reading Teacher (1981) reveals that advocating the use of children's literature in the elementary reading curriculum has been a common practice. Despite this strong endorsement, she cites studies showing that 95-99% of American elementary teachers adopt basal reading programs which contain only a small amount of children's literature, as the major source of instruction.

There seems to be ample evidence from the research literature to suggest the hypothesis that topic interest does affect reading comprehension of both good and poor readers. The results from research studies such as Belloni and Jongsma (1978), Estes and Vaughn (1973), Cook and White (1977) and Smith (1963) have clearly shown that folklore is one of the topics most interesting to students in the area of reading, though most basal reading programs contain a small amount of folklore.

With the challenge for educators to provide quality reading instruction, it is necessary to determine what materials/methods are most effective for use in the classroom. The focus of the present study is an investigation of the use of folklore in reading instruction.

It was hypothesized that the addition of folklore to basal reading instruction will significantly increase second graders' reading achievement.

METHOD

Subjects

The subjects for the study were 49 children randomly selected from a population of 90 second graders in an elementary school in a suburban/rural section of a large metropolitan city. Eleven of the 60 subjects originally selected had to be eliminated because they had moved during the course of the study. The subjects ranged in age from 6 years, 10 months, to 8 years, 2 months ($\bar{X}$ = 7.4). Their grade equivalents on reading achievement ranged from 0.6 to 5.2. All subjects were randomly assigned to either the control (Group I) or the experimental (Group II) groups.

Procedure

Both groups were pretested on Form A of the California Achievement Test in early September before the treatment was started. Thirty-one percent of the subjects scored in the first, 33% in the second, 20% in the third, and 16% in the fourth quartile of the CAT pretest. The groups were then posttested on Form B of the CAT six months later after the treatment was completed.

A week following the pretest an interest survey was conducted to determine the interests of the subjects. The children were given the opportunity to choose their favorite topic for reading from among six categories of topics. The results were as follows:

Fairy tales	12 students (20.34%)
Animals	12 students (20.34%)
Space	12 students (20.34%)
Wild West/Cowboys	11 students (18.64%)
Adventure/Mystery	10 students (16.95%)
Family	2 students (3.39%)

Treatment for the two groups commenced immediately following the completion of the interest survey. Since the focus of the study was on content (basal versus folklore), an attempt was made to keep the mode of instruction for the two treatment groups as similar as possible.

Treatment for Group 1. In addition to receiving their regular reading program, subjects in Group 1 were given thirty half-hour sessions of instruction in the basal reading program by this investigator. The particular basal reading series used in this study was Harper & Row Design for Reading at the Primary Levels, Levels 4-9 (1974). The instruction for the basal reading program was given according to the format provided by the Directed Reading Activity method, as discussed by Tierney, Readence, & Dishner (1980). This method included reading the stories, discussion, follow-up activities (such as vocabulary development), phonics lessons, and comprehension exercises. In an attempt to maintain the interest and involvement of the children and to avoid investigator bias, every effort was made to provide interesting and enriching activities in the basal reading program. These included reading related popular stories, poetry, some art work, and acting out short skits. In addition, remedial activities, as suggested

by the basal teaching guides, were also used.

Treatment for Group 2 . In addition to its regular reading program, this group was given thirty half-hour sessions of additional reading instruction using folklore. This treatment was given by the same investigator. The curriculum included fables, legends, myths, tall tales, fairy tales, and folktales. The instructor chose the selections of folklore used in this curriculum based on research by Rogers & Robinson (1963), Smith (1962) and Smith (1977).

Translations of Aesop's fables by Thomas and Townsend (1949) were used. Sometimes a movie of a fable, such as "The Hare and the Tortoise" was viewed.

Myths were difficult to adjust to second graders' level. However, Jason and the Golden Fleece (Gunther, 1963) was one the children studied. It seemed to fit their level and interests. Legends, especially ones about people in America's past, were used. "The Legend of Paul Bunyan" (Leach, 1958) and "The Legend of Sleepy Hollow" (Irving, 1956) are examples of one studied.

The supply of fairy tales was abundant. With an effort to provide a variety of tales, instruction in this section included fairy tales collected by several noted authors. Among the tales studied were Irish tales about leprechauns by Green (1968), German tales from the Brothers Grimm (Gag, 1936), and other stories from collections of Andrew Lang (1948) and Alice Dalglish (1947).

The tall tales used in this study were ones from the American West, such as Tall Tales from the High Hills (Credle,1957). Stories Stories told in the Appalachian Mountains and Deep South provided the sources for tales found in The Jack Tales (Chase, 1943) and Grandfather Tales (Chase, 1948). These stories were usually told rather than read, as was the tradition of such tales. The students were given opportunities to learn some of these tales and to tell them to others. Some instruction in the art of storytelling was obtained by the instructor from Storyteller (Ross, 1980) and Sawyer's The Way of the Storyteller (1962). These sources provided the instructor with techniques of storytelling.

The treatment period lasted six months after which both groups were posttested on Form B of the CAT.

RESULTS

In order to compare the amount of gain in reading achievement between groups, it was first necessary to determine if the two groups differed significantly on reading achievement. A t test comparing the independent pretest means indicated no significant difference between the two groups, $t = 1.940$, $p < .05$ (See Table 1, on following page.)

Within group changes in reading achievement were determined by computing a t test between non-independent (correlated) means derived from pre and posttest scores for both groups. The results revealed that there was a significant increase in reaching achievement for Group 1, $t = 11.659$, $p < .01$ (12.81% gain), and there was a significant increase in reading achievement for Group 2,

Table 1

Pretest Means, Standard Deviation, and *t*- value for Groups 1 and 2

Groups	Pretest $\bar{X}$	SD	*t*
Group 1 (Control)	78.08	16.6	1.940*
Group 2 (Experimental)	79.64	13.3	

t = 19.708, $p < .01$ (18.33% gain). While both groups increased in reading achievement over the period of six months, the gain for Group 2 was 5.52% greater. (See Table 2)

Table 2

Pre and Posttest Means, Standard Deviations, *t*-values, and % Improvement for Groups 1 & 2

Groups	Pretest $\bar{X}$	SD	Posttest $\bar{X}$	SD	*t*	Percent Improvement
Group 1 (Control)	78.08	16.6	88.08	18.72	11.659*	12.81
Group 2 (Experimental)	79.64	13.70	94.24	13.74	19.708*	18.33

A comparison of the posttest means showed that there was a significant difference, *t* = 7.569, $p < .01$, between the two groups, thus supporting the hypothesis that inclusion of folklore significantly improves reading achievement. (See Table 3)

Table 3

Posttest Means, Standard Deviation and *t*-value for Groups 1 & 2

Groups	Posttest X	SD	*t*
Group 1 (Control)	88.08	18.72	7.569*
Group 2 (Experimental)	94.24	13.74	

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Basal reading programs, in general, seem to focus predominantly on day-to-day family and neighbor situations (Smith, 1962).

For example, the basal program used in the present study, The Harper & Row Design for Reading at the Primary Levels (1974) contains less than one percent children's literature and over 86% family themes. The rationale provided by the publishers is that family and neighbor stories give the student "...an opportunity to empathize — to put themselves in the story characters' place and do what the characters do, feel what they feel" (Harper & Row Design, Level 7, p . T6).

The interest survey conducted with both groups immediately following the pretest revealed that fairy tales were among the top choices of the subjects for reading material. This finding seems to be in accordance with the information provided by Smith (1962) and Rogers and Robinson (1963). Smith found humor-fantasy and fairy tales to rank first and fifth, respectively. Children chose fairy tales more than any other topic when selecting their library books. Rogers and Robinson found similar results with first graders who preferred stories of make believe over seven other categories. The authors suggest even though students show an interest in a particular topic, interest alone might not be strong enough to encourage them to search for materials on that topic. Since students' reading habits may sometimes be limited by the availability of certain topics in books, further study is needed to determine the relationship between actual reading habits of the students and their interests. It would be interesting to observe what reading materials are chosen by subjects when they have an opportunity to choose freely their pleasure reading materials.

The present investigation strongly supports previous research (Cook & White, 1977; Estes & Vaughn, 1973) that the inclusion of folklore in reading instruction does significantly increase reading achievement. In light of such strong research evidence it is surprising that basal readers contain such a limited amount of children's literature especially if one assumes that a primary goal of early education is to develop reading interest and ability. It seems vital, therefore, that either the publishing companies incorporate more folklore into their basal reading series or encourage teachers to supplement their basal reading programs with folklore. With folklore readily available, this could be a plausible solution.

Further examination of the data revealed that in the group which received instruction using folklore, low-ability students made more gain in reading achievement than high-ability students. An average of 25.3% was gained in raw scores on the CAT by those students who scored below 2.0 at the beginning of the study. This is compared to an average gain of 14.28% experienced by those students who tested at grade level or above at the beginning of the study. These findings generally support Steven's study (1980) where it was found that higher-ability students made significant gains in reading achievement. However, these findings contradict that part of Steven's study where it was found that lower and middle ability readers' achievement was not affected to any degree by interest. Data from the present findings, rather, are more consistent with the study by Belloni and Jongsma (1978) who found

that low-achieving students had better comprehension of materials they considered highly interesting than of materials they considered to be on low interest.

This study included a variety of folklore, such as fables, myths, legends, tall tales, and oral tales, enabling the instructor to cover different themes in literature. Some of the themes discussed were death, good versus evil, jealousy, sibling rivaly, poverty, love, hate, and other aspects of human nature. The folklore also allowed the students to study different cultures, settings, and customs. Some of the oral tales were told using the dialect native to a particular area. This enabled the students to experience the sounds and structure of language not usually found in their everyday reading lessons. These activities further support Bettelheim's study (1977) in which he contends that folklore allows children, as well as adults, to experience richness of language, imagery, settings, and situations which help them to deal with reality.

This study focused on the use of folklore in the basal reading program during reading instruction. It would have been interesting to see the effect of the use of folklore in other areas of the curriculum, such as social studies, art and music. Further investigation aimed at measuring the effects of the use of folklore in other areas of instruction would provide useful information to see if folklore results in any gains in these areas. Based upon the evidence found in this and previous studies, it seems logical that folklore should be an integral part of second grade reading instruction. Publishers could give serious consideration to revising the content of basal reading texts and include materials more appealing to their consumers. Teachers also can periodically survey the interests of their students and have materials available in the classroom which reflect those interests.

The present study gives evidence that folklore does make a significant difference in reading achievement. However, only weekly half-hour sessions of instruction were arranged for the children for the six-month period of this study. To further confirm the results obtained in this study, additional research needs to be done with a larger cross-sectional population where subjects can become acquainted with a greater variety of folklore over a longer instructional period.

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DEVELOPING A PHILOSOPHY OF READING: PIAGET AND CHOMSKY

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Since I have recently in this journal attempted to develop a specific Piagetian framework for the understanding of and teaching of reading (1), I would like to take a further step and combine current research on linguistics and reading with this Piagetian perspective (2). As Piaget consistently acknowledges, all learning is an active process. Reading, then, is an activity, a process of confrontation between an individual and a text (3). There is a sense in which reading is a confrontation in a similar way in which humans confront all reality. Reading constitutes an interaction with a text in the same way that human existence constitutes a confrontation with various environments, both physical and cultural.

Reading, then, consists of basically two processes, one perceptual, the other cognitive. This means, among other things, that for a theory of reading to be consistent, it must attempt to synthesize theories of cognition, language and perception. Contemporary linguistics and cognitive-developmental psychology supply such a synthesis. Noam Chomsky considers this issue when he writes:

> Knowledge of a language involves the ability to assign deep and surface structures to an infinite range of sentences, to relate these structures appropriately, and to assign a semantic interpretation and a phonetic interpretation to the paired deep and surface structure. (4)

For both Piaget and Chomsky, language is highly structured. In Chomsky's terms, there is a linguistic relationship between the surface structure and the phonological aspects of language. But, at the level of written langugae, the surface structure is represented by ordinary alphabetic letters. The deep structure of language is quite different. The deep structure (what I shall later term, depth structure) represent the semantical, as opposed to the syntactical, component of language—spoken or written. This necessitates, obviously, a bridge between the phonological component and the semantical. This is bridged by the syntactical. The syntax of a language, for Chomsky, creates a transformation of the deep and surface structures.

When discussing the nature of language, then, Chomsky consistently refers to its "structure." At the surface level language has a phonological aspect. But, how does Chomsky's insight relate to written language? Except for oral reading in elementary school,

it appears that the schools (reading teachers in particular) neglect to notice much connection. Chomsky assures us that in written communication the phonological component of spoken language is best depicted by letters, what he refers to as graphemes. Let us note the implications of Chomsky's insights for the teaching of reading.

As any reading teacher knows, reading involves much more than merely seeing and pronouncing words, much more than phonological and semantic aspects, to put the matter more technically. For instance, consider the sentence, "John loves Mary." One point to note is the importance of the positioning of the two proper names. But, even though their semantical positioning has importance, at least in regard to answering "who-type" questions, there is more than this surface aspect which supplies one with information even about "who-type" questions.

What is occurring here is a transformation from the surface structure, written components merely representing the position of words on the printed page, to depth structure—or to the transformation to "meaning identification," as I have discussed elsewhere (5). Chomsky's theory of language will be considered in more detail shortly, but let us move to a theory of cognition in an initial attempt to develop this wholistic account of a theory of reading, and at this point the work of Piaget is useful.

Piaget analyzes perception and cognition as separate processes. According to Piaget, the perceptual and the conceptual processes differ fundamentally. In fact, he often finds them to be contrasting processes. Take the example of two individuals attending a nuclear freeze rally. The perceived properties of stimuli may differ for each person, perhaps due to the context or situation they find themselves in. For instance, one person may have a history of involvement in peace demonstrations, and thus perceives the various stimuli with this history in mind. This context of perception Piaget refers to as a conception, or, more technically, as "field-effects"(6).

Perception, then, involves a centering process. One pays attention to this rather than that. At the organic level, for example, the eye focuses on particulars or on specific aspects of complex configurations. For Piaget, this perceptual process or centering occurs within a specific context—thus separating perception from conceptualization.

As theoretical as Piaget's views may sound, there are direct implications for reading. It is obvious that reading ability is a developmental process. During one's early childhood, the centering process may inhibit reading, for the child may pay strict attention to the upper half of a letter, for instance. The perceptual activities include the centering; and the "field effects" (conceptualization processes) include the letters on a particular sort of page, with specific colors, letter configurations, etc.

As is well known, Piaget's theory of cognitive development is stage specific. Piaget terms the four stages sensorimotor, preoperational, concrete operational and formal operational. And, for Piaget, this cognitive development is best understood in rela-

tion to the concepts of content and structure. This is important in developing both a theory and practice of reading instruction.

According to Piaget, the content of any intellectual activity, including reading, suggests observable criteria of assessment. This is necessary, or the teacher would not be able to assess "progress" in reading. But, there is also a structural aspect to any intellectual development. These include mental constructs--"within the mind" as it were--that is, they cannot be observed. The development of the structural aspects of intellectual growth demands an understanding of the present structure of one's intellectual progress—a knowledge of the particular stage of cognitive growth the individual has acquired. It is obvious, then, that reading ability incorporates such a developmental process.

Put in more general terms, Piaget is insisting that cognitive ability demands two processes, that of adaptation and that of organization. As Piaget stresses, the tremendous amount of stimuli presented to the individual is organized through the cognitive processes of assimilation and accommodation. It is through these basic processes that we process stimuli—make sense of it. This is done in a quantifiable manner through assimilation and in a qualitative way through accommodation. This means that we take in stimuli through assimilation and we adjust the stimuli, put it into categories, develop schemata for understanding it, etc., through accommodation. Through assimilation we adapt to a world of stimuli; through accommodation we organize the stimuli.

What specifically does all of this cognitive psychology have to do with language learning and reading? The relationship(s) between our perceptual processes and reading is almost too obvious to belabor. Even though reading involves perception, perception is entirely relatedto the surface of the printed page. This was referred to as the surface structure of reading, as distinct from the depth structure, which is related to the cognitive processes —conceptualization, and so on.

Reading any sentence, then, involves much more than a familiarity with the surface structure. For instance, reading "Go home," involves the recognition that a pronoun is being referred to, namely, "You, go home." This type of recognition is involved in the depth structure of reading (7).

Piaget's cognitive developmental psychology, likewise, has other implications for reading, for Piaget suggests that humans have a reading schemata—similar to the depth structures of cognition Chomsky discusses. There is an innateness about the reading schemata—one knows more about language than s/he can enumerate (depth structure). Also, similar to Chomsky's analysis of language and cognition, Piaget informs us that reading schemata (and their development) have both a surface and a depth structure. Sound-letter relationships (phonemes-graphemes) are an example of surface structure; units of meaning (morphemes) are depth structure.

Finally, for Piaget, there are cognitive structures. These various stages of intellectual growth allow one to bring intelligence to language, and thus initiate the process of reading. It is through the cognitive structures that one translates printed

matter into meaning-structures.

There are four factors which aid in the development of one's cognitive structures, for Piaget. Translated into the development of one's reading schemata, this development is influenced by the level of one's maturation, the person's physical development, his/her social interaction and the growth in cognitive equilibrium through assimilation and accommodation.

How, though, can a teacher know that the reading schemata of a particular student is sufficiently developed to allow for variations and developments within the process of reading? Practically, how do the ideas we have been discussing translate into application? The teacher does not necessarily have to give the student a test to know that s/he has made progress in reading. There are two different, but related, factors from which a teacher can infer that the student's reading schemata are developed well enough to initiate a program of systematic reading instruction.

They are: 1) That the schemata go beyond the student's ability to grasp the surface structure of language. This occurs as soon as the individual begins to read with any consistency at all. And, 2) as the student is exposed to varied types of reading experiences, the reading schemata are further developed—within the processes of assimilation and accommodation. What is interesting about Piaget's and Chomsky's insights from the point of view of instruction is that reading is a highly personal, individual act; to be able to read, and to progress in reading, means that the student needs to develop his/her personal reading schemata on an individual basis. The schemata are not developed through group instruction—reading instruction must be individualized.

As we know, growth in reading ability cannot be accounted for simply by the development of cognitive structures. There is also an affective component to all human behavior. In regard to the development of and use of one's affective ability, Piaget stresses motivation, which is heightened through curiosity and exploration on the individual's part. As adaptation is important for the growth of the cognitive structures, so it is also essential for the positive development of the affective life. Both cognitive and affective abilities develop because the individual has an innate tendency (Chomsky) to adapt and to organize, be it the elements of one's cognitive or one's affective experience.

It is not being suggested that affect is strictly separate from cognition. Neither Piaget nor Chomsky said nor implied this. Rather, they develop hand in hand. One cannot read (the development of the cognitive schemata) without having some "feeling for" the material. Reading can never be a mindless activity, nor devoid of an affective component (the affective schemata). Teachers who get students "excited about reading" know the necessity of affect in the student's growth in reading ability. Reading obviously is not an abstract, objective, intellectual process; it also involves commitment, interest and emotional interaction with the material. Without this, the cognitive structures remain static--indeed they can't develop at all.

In summaray, then, we have attempted to develop a wholistic theory of reading. The space given to "how to", therefore, has

been minimal, although some practical implications for reading instruction have been suggested. The main point is that (following Piaget and Chomsky) reading is a form of adaptive behavior, but adaptation (the confrontation with a text) can only be understood in terms of the student as a whole person—in all his/her cognitive /affective complexity.

Regarding the above, Grant writes "...reading is a whole phenomena, performed by an active, intelligent human being, entire and complete."(8) With such a theory in mind, reading keeps its practical, adaptive aspects, while retaining (or illuminating) something of the mysterious. Perhaps noticing the "mysterious" aspects of the process of reading, those aspects which cannot be quantified, may not be of immense help to teachers of reading. Yet, noticing this element affords a great deal of optimism—for the ability to read is never completed; it is an ongoing activity.

NOTES

1) Robert P. Craig, "Piaget's Theory of Conceptual Development As It Applies to the Teaching of Reading." READING HORIZONS, Vol. 23, No. 2, (Winter 1983), pp. 119-124.

2) Numerous articles in Piagetian Theory and the Helping Professions, Univ. of So. Calif., are directly related to this issue. See Vol.II, 7th Interdisciplinary Conference, and the Proceedings of the Sixth Interdisciplinary Conference, 1977.

3) It is obvious that I am indebted to the work of Professor Grant. Cf., F. A. Grant, "Set Theory, Psycholinguistics and Second Grade", in Reading for a Changing World. (Iowa Council, IRA 1974) Also, "Reading: From Function to Schemata—A Theory of Reading Based on Linguistics and Piaget's Theory of Cognitive Development", in The Proceedings of the Seventh Interdisciplinary Conference: Piagetian Theory and Its Implications for the Helping Professions, Vol. II. (Los Angeles: Univ. of S. CA, 1978, 318).

4) N. Chomsky, Language and Mind. (New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1968, p. 30.

5) Rob't P. Craig, "The Child's Construction of Space and Time," in Science and Children, Vol. 19, No. 3, (Nov/Dec 1981) pp. 36-37.

6) Piaget discusses this concept in many places. See, Jean Piaget, The Origins of Intelligence in Children. NY: W. W. Norton and Co., 1952, especially chapter two.

7. Chomsky, for instance, often uses the terms surface/deep when distinguishing between perception and cognition; cognition being related to deep structures. Following Wittgenstein, though, I am using the adjective depth, which makes more grammatical sense, while not doing injustice to Chomsky's insights. Wittgenstein discusses his views of language in, Ludwig Wittgenstein, Philosophical Investigations, trans. by G. E. M. Anscombe, New York: The Macmillan Co., 1965.

8) Grant, "Reading: From Function to Schemata," page 327.

IN DEFENSE OF A K-12 READING PERSPECTIVE

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Teaching students to read is a very important goal in the public schools. This objective has been established because professionals believe that "being able to read" facilitates students' chances for future success and happiness. Yet, when definitions of literacy are reviewed and the reading ability of the adult population in the United States is considered, data indicate that millions of Americans are illiterate. It has been very difficult to ascertain the number of illiterates, but various authorities have estimated that anywhere from one to twenty percent of the American adult population is illiterate (Kirsch & Guthrie, 1977). Could it be that the unwritten philosophy and prevailing practice that elementary grades are for learning to read and secondary experiences involve reading to learn is the primary cause of the problem? Are children not learning to read in the early grades and receiving inappropriate instruction in the junior or high school? Or, is the etiology a question of reinforcement or practice? As Early (1973) so poignantly noted: "What goes wrong? Is it we take youngsters from elementary grade schools who are able readers, and allow them to pass through the secondary years without even learning how to use books?" (p. 366). Regardless, it appears that educators must consider the possibility that they have failed to meet the reading needs of America's youth. In order to reverse this downward spiral, the skill of reading must be viewed as a continuing process. Such a supposition would be adopting and implementing a K-12 perspective.

K-12 Reading Perspective

The basic premise of a K-12 reading perspective is—reading is a continuous, complex, developmental process, requiring the sequential refinement of skills at various levels. As Karlin put it, "...it begins in the primary grades and is pursued through the upper grades as the needs of the student dictates" (p. 21). Early (1964) sought to explain the need for the integration of direct reading instruction and the application of basic reading skills in the content area at all levels by means of cone-shaped spirals overlapping each other. According to this researcher:

> This, I say, "is the line of direct instruction in basic reading skills. Here at the base, in the elementary grades, the spiral is tight to represent heavy emphasis. This program of direct instruction tapers off gradually, but it never disappears, as it spirals up and into senior high school and college ... "This line," I continue, "represents only part of the program, the part which becomes less important in high school. The more important phase is the application of reading skills to the learning of content...and other subjects. To visualize the whole meaning of 'teaching reading in secondary school,' we must overlay this spiral with another one that begins narrow in the primary grades and becomes broader as it reaches the upper grades" (p. 35).

Early also proposed that secondary teachers can contribute a lot to a K-12 reading program but they do not have to be reading specialists to assume their responsibilities. Vacca (1981) and others have supported the adoption of a spiral concept for teaching reading.

In essence, a K-12 reading perspective is all encompassing. It would involve the following principles:

1. The K-12 reading perspective coordinates reading with the student's other communicative experiences.
2. The K-12 reading perspective develops a continuous sequential program extending through elementary and secondary.
3. The K-12 reading perspective provides instruction and guidance in the basic reading skills, in content area reading, in study skills, and personal reading.
4. The K-12 reading perspective is a flexible program that is adapted at each level of advancement to the wide variations in pupil attributes, abilities, and reading needs.
5. The K-12 reading perspective provides differentiated instruction to meet the needs of each child keeping attuned to the commonality of needs, abilities, and interests.
6. The K-12 reading perspective perceives reading as a perceptual process rather than a subject.
7. The K-12 reading perspective stresses reading for thinking, understanding, and learning; and endeavors to develop critical skills and flexibility in comprehension.
8. The K-12 reading perspective strives to develop reading maturity.

Dechant and Smith (1977) have an excellent delineation and discussion of these and other principles important to a K-12 concept.

The Elementary Component

There can be no question that the elementary component of a K-12 reading perspective is "in place" and provides students with a comprehensive and sequential program of learning. Basal series are available that provide teachers with the varied methods and materials needed to teach reading to the vast majority of

their students (Cheek & Cheek, 1979). Additionally, pedagogical techniques and materials are available to provide supplementary experiences (e.g., Barnell-Loft Specific Skill Builders), to instruct disabled readers (e.g., Distar), and to challenge gifted readers (e.g., SRA Think Labs). Research has been conducted and reported that supports the refinement and development of elementary reading practices. Yes, the elementary component in K-12 is there.

Many factors have contributed to the prosperity of the elementary component. However, pre-service teacher training may be the most important factor. Elementary teachers receive instruction in the theoretical and practical aspects of reading approaches, techniques, and materials. They are trained to diagnose reading problems, abilities, and potentials of students. In addition they learn to utilize group and individualized instructional procedures. All of this culminates in practical or classroom experiences. Elementary teachers are taught to believe that reading is the hub of the curriculum around which all else revolves. This concept involves the theory that reading is a tool which facilitates the acquisition of knowledge.

Teacher attitude is another element which as embellished the success of the elementary component. The grade school teacher believes in the importance of reading instruction. This attitude is demonstrated in the amount of time and effort s/he allocates to the teaching of reading. In fact, at the primary level most teachers are involved in reading instruction in some form or other throughout the entire school day.

The elementary curriculum also enhances and promotes the teaching of reading. The underlying reason is - "teaching reading is the primary mission of the elementary school" (Smith, Otto, & Hansen, 1978, p. 126). In addition, the teacher has opportunities to integrate reading instruction and reinforcement into all elements of the curriculum (e.g.,math, social sciences, etc.).

Another indication that the elementary component is in place is the recent findings of the National Assessment on Educational Progress which reported that nine year olds have improved 3.9% in reading since 1971, while seventeen year olds declined slightly in inferential ability (Mickols, 1982). These findings appear to support the premise that the elementary reading component is well established. These data can also be interpreted to imply that the secondary component of the K-12 perspective is not in place. However, one could hypothesize that the elementary component has really fallen short in meeting the rigid test of a good reading program in that "transferability of learnings it provides to content areas" has not occurred (Dechant & Smith, 1977).

The Secondary Component

Unfortunately, the regular or special education component in a K-12 perspective is in its infancy (Lindsey, 1983; Palmer, 1978.) Many factors have been advanced to account for this dilemma. It has been suggested that content teachers have been responsible for some of the shortcomings. Roe, Stoodt, and Burns (1978) have enumerated several faulty assumptions these professionals hold that have precluded their participation in the implementation

of a secondary reading program. These assumptions include: (a) teaching reading is separate and distinct from teaching subject matter; (b) teaching reading problems in the secondary school can be solved through remedial work alone; (c) reading specialists or English teaachers should be responsible for the teaching of reading; and (d) teaching reading and teaching literature are one and the same. Smith et al. (1978) noted that a contributing factor to these attitudes is the lack of preservice training in reading principles and techniques. It has also been stated that content teachers' attitudes towards teaching reading can be promoted (O'Rourke, 1980). Furthermore, Vacca (1981) has provided an excellent discussion of the role(s) content teachers should assume in reading instruction. He stated that teachers in secondary schools should become "process helpers" and learn what reading entails. They do not have to become "reading teachers."

A second factor contributing to the limited development of junior and high school reading programs is the lack of appropriate and empirically validated methods and materials (cf. Lindsey & Kerlin, 1979). Today, few specialized methods are available to teachers which are applicable and successful for the abilities and ages of these students. With respect to materials, there is a general void of effective "teaching" materials. Those materials that are available are elementary oriented, and not appropriate. Yet, when using available materials teachers should be aware of their unique attributes. According to Cheek & Cheek (1983) the multiplicity of text characteristics that must be considered include: (a) various levels; (b) reading load; (c) technical and specialized vocabulary; (d) application of all reading skills; (e) higher level comprehension and study skills; (f) compact presentation of all information; (g) concept load; (h) different organizational patterns; (i) interrelated skills and concepts among subject areas; and (j) variety of reading sources.

In addition, the reading curriculum at the junior and senior high school levels, if it exists at all, is often isolated from the other curriculum areas. In fact, reading instruction is usually viewed as the responsibility of the remedial teacher(s). It is "often treated as a subject to be moved through in a linear fashion" (Smith et al., 1978, p. 139) which is in contrast to the spiral concept advocated by Early (1973). Junior and high school teachers do not perceive reading as a processing tool to be taught or practiced under a variety of situations.

Finally, the secondary students themselves have contributed to the secondary "reading dilemma." In this context, Vaughan, Estes, and Curtis (1975) noted that "suddenly students are confronted in history...outside the familiar surroundings of basals... and they have only begun to develop the analytical skills which are required in content reading" (p. 1143). Additionally, many pupils have not acquired the necessary word attack skills (Dupuis and Snyder, 1983) and comprehension abilities (Lindsey, 1980).

Developing a K-12 Perspective

It should be obvious that teachers who do not advocate a K-12 reading perspective leave the reading process more or less to chance. Problem readers are apt to be termed "lazy," "indiffer-

ent," or, as the authors have heard some students say, "out of it." There is less likelihood that the factors causing the problems will be identified or that the student will be helped to meet the teacher's objectives. Today there appears to be a K-6 reading perspective. It is encumbent on all involved in teaching children to read to develop a K-12 perspective by joining together to design and to integrate a secondary reading component.

The role of the content teacher in this component, mentioned earlier, should be that of a "process helper," not a diagnostician or materials developer. The content teacher would be concerned primarily with teaching content and providing a comprehensive reading program as it affects his/her subject matter. Content instruction should be based on (1) the abilities and interests of pupils, (2) materials and activities feasible for the teacher to arrange, and (3) the domain of study. What is taught should be determined by the appropriate interaction of the students' needs, the teacher's goals, and the curricular demands (Estes and Vaughan, 1978). Dechant & Smith (1977) have stated that in order "to teach content effectively, we must teach reading effectively" (p. 328). Therefore, the secondary reading program should encompass a broad range of reading and study skills specific to the particular content area. Provision should be made for teaching new skills as well as reviewing and reinforcing previously learned abilities. The content teacher needs to envision reading processes from a K-12 perspective.

Research data (e.g., Bond, 1958) show that any increase in reading ability is reflected in an increase in scholastic achievement. Thus, educators need to make every effort to enhance a student's reading ability. It must be noted that though a student is able to read well in the lower grades, it does not guarantee that s/he will be able to transfer those skills to content material effectively. While some skills overlap in the different disciplines, each subject area makes special reading demands on the student. For many students it will be the first time they are analyzing, synthesizing, making predictions, and identifying organizational patterns in specific content—all of which require the assistance of a "process helper." There can be no doubt that the content teacher would be the logical person for this role. Yet, the sole responsibility for developing these reading skills must not fall on the content teacher. Grade school teachers need to accept some responsibility for initiating the integration of reading strategies into the content areas. The teaching of these skills would be continued and refined at the junior and high school levels.

In this context, it may also be stated that all students, at some time or other, need a "process helper." The notion that only problem readers need reading instruction deprives the better student of much needed help. According to Karlin (1977):

> It would be erroneous to conclude that poor students and those with reading disabilities are the only ones who could profit from reading assistance. It might surprise teachers to learn that a considerable number of gifted students are weak in specified aspects of reading. (p. 4)

The implication of all of this is that the requirements of students are more likely to be met if all teachers accept some responsibility for teaching reading to all those who can benefit from it.

Conclusion

The number of adult illiterates increases instead of decreases each year. One reason that may contribute to this problem is the lack of a K-12 reading perspective in the public school. Teaching reading is an important and integral part of the elementary system. Unfortunately, "teaching reading" in the secondary program has not been pursued. This may be due to an attitude position on the part of content teachers as well as a lack of knowledge about the reading process by teachers within the secondary component. It is imperative that all educators realize that the difference in reading at six and sixty is the refinement of reading skills over the years (Henry, 1974). Elementary, junior, and high school students must be given a chance to refine the reading skills which are established in the elementary component. In order to provide these students with this opportunity a joint effort must be made to design and implement a K-12 reading program.

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READING IS FUN: A SCHOOL READING MOTIVATION PROJECT

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In a world filled with television, video games and computerized toys, little time remains for children to read. The time spent on reading in schools is some children's only contact with books and those experiences are often confined to assigned material related to school work. At the elementary level, much time is spent teaching children how to read, but few opportunities are provided them to practice reading and discover the benefits of such an activity.

Elementary children need exposure to good books. They need to be aware that reading is more than the ability to decode written symbols and the completion of seemingly endless workbook pages. Furthermore, they need to be exposed to the reasons for reading: to dream, to laugh, to enjoy the familiar and wander into the unknown.

As Smith and Johnson (1976) state "we believe that only a small percentage of children cannot be taught to value reading if they are taught with that objective in mind" (p. 225). Without a conscious effort, nothing will occur, however.

Charlotte Huck (1974) states if we teach a child to read, yet don't develop a taste for reading, our teaching has been in vain. The major purpose for teaching reading is to help children become readers who turn to books for enjoyment and information. If schools don't do this "...we shall have produced a nation of illiterate literates—those who know how to read, but do not read."

Realizing that elementary teachers are in a good position to arrange experiences in valuing reading, and that students must be exposed to reading to develop a value for reading, this project was developed.

PROBLEM

How then, might we, as teachers, parents, and administrators, begin to develop those attitudes and habits conducive to a lifetime of reading for enjoyment and learning? And how might we stimulate more independent reading on the part of the children? The answers to those questions are important in view of the following:

a. Most children spend less than 30 minutes per day in reading activities other than those assigned by teachers.

b. Students reading at or above grade level have, at their disposal, a greater variety of reading material at home.

c. A greater percentage of children reading on or above level read to someone every day.

d. The majority of children depended on the school library for their leisure reading books. Students reading below level brought a larger percentage of books home from the school library.

e. The majority of parents are willing to spend some time to improve their children's reading levels or abilities.
(Carden, et al,1983)

To address these concerns, elementary teachers and university personnel combined efforts to develop a motivation system that could be implemented within a classroom or school building.

The teachers involved in this project were from an elementary school characterized by large populations of minority students, low socioeconomic levels, and little parental involvement. The teachers were enrolled in a university course that focused upon reading instruction and motivating children to read. Development and implementation of the project lasted for one semester and was used to attain specific goals.

Presented below is an overview of the components and the functions occurring within each of the four components, the university, the school, the community and the students.

READING MOTIVATION SYSTEM: COMPONENTS & FUNCTIONS

UNIVERSITY

1. Project Goals
2. Planning
3. Technical Support
4. Dissemination

SCHOOL

1. Principal Support
2. Faculty Communication

COMMUNITY

1. Pamphlet
2. Parent Meeting

STUDENTS

1. Book Club
2. Storytellers
3. Newspaper

Several goals were established for this project by the University. First, the project was to increase the amount of time devoted to pleasure reading. Second, all students, in a classroom, were to be involved in the project, regardless of their reading level. Third, parents and/or the community were to be involved. Finally, teachers were encouraged to collaborate on their projects.

The results of this effort provided a unique university/school /community/student based project that was both enjoyable and worthwhile.

UNIVERSITY COMPONENT

Texas Christian University as one of the participants in a Teacher Corps project presented a graduate practicum to teachers of minority students. The emphasis of the practicum was upon reading, motivation and the community. One the practicum goals were established, three students collaborated to develop Reading Is Fun: A School Reading Motivation Project. University personnel served as resources to the participants by providing technical assistance, resources, and agreed to help the participants develop and disseminate results of the project.

Results of a survey and the goal of stimulating greater interest in reading, thus provided the framework for the development of the following components.

SCHOOL COMPONENT

The three students informed faculty of the project through a written communication. The faculty and the principal provided much support for the project, even though they were not directly involved with many of the activities. In the future the students agreed it would be advisable to hold a meeting with faculty, to explain the rationale and research for such a project, and try to enlist more teachers in the project, thus creating a more cohesive and unified school-wide effort.

COMMUNITY COMPONENT

This part of the project included two steps. First, there was the preparation of a pamphlet for parents entitled "Parents in Reading: How You Can Help Your Child." A Spanish version was also prepared as the area has a high concentration of other ethnic groups. Second, there was the organization of a parent-teacher meeting to present and explain the contents of the pamphlet.

The pamphlet was presented at an evening meeting that was attended by about 150 parents and teachers and included an English and Spanish explanation of the purpose for the pamphlet and an exploration of the suggestions. Applications for children's library cards were also distributed. Following the meeting, the Parent Teacher Organization displayed books in English and Spanish.

STUDENT COMPONENT

For students, a school newspaper was published during the reading motivation project. The newspaper had a built-in purpose for reading since most students are interested in reading about themselves and each other. The newspaper became an opportunity to integrate the language arts program with actual, purposeful experiences in reading.

A book club was also organized to provide enjoyable experience with literature, to provide opportunities for students to get to know a variety of good books and to offer activities through which students might respond to literature by verbal and physical self-expression.

CONCLUSION

Throughout the year, faculty and principal gave much support to the project. Students wanted to join the book club and work on the school newspaper. Parents also inquired about how their children might participate in the reading activities. Though no formal evaluation instrument was used to determine the success of the project, positive and supportive responses have indicated an increase in reading activity among these elementary students. The enthusiastic response of the children called attention to the fact that it was necessary to win the child to reading at an early age and to involve parents in the reading activities. Many children discovered the fun and adventures in reading, as a result of this school/community project.

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READING COMPREHENSION, VISUAL LITERACY AND PICTURE BOOK ILLUSTRATIONS

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Usually we think of teaching reading comprehension in terms of the printed word. However, it is just as important to teach many of the same skills to insure a child's level of visual literacy. Illustrations in picture books contribute to a child's sense of story and the visual clues add to the information in the text. Readers need to be aware that there is more to an illustration than meets the eye.

Where the Wild Things Are (Sendak, 1963) is a romp into the world of make-believe. What many readers fail to note is the size and impact of the illustrations. In the beginning, a small picture shows Max in a reality situation. As the fantasy develops, the illustrations take up more page space. During the "wild rumpus" scenes, double page pictures unfold and heighten the frenzy of the moment. Slowly, as reality returns, the pictures again become smaller.

Adults around the world found themselves scrutinizing the minute details in Kit Williams' Masquerade (1980). The story is about a hare attempting to deliver a jewel of the moon maiden to the sun. Intricately hidden in the text and illustrations are clues to a buried treasure. Readers were mesmerized by the art work and were wrapped up in the suspense of locating the prize which was actually claimed.

In the examples mentioned, the illustrations required readers to be alert. The pictures made a visual statement that could catch viewers unaware if they were only concerned with the surface meaning of the illustrations. Elements of importance might be overlooked if visual literacy skills of a reader are not up to par.

The books selected for this article demand close inspection of the pictures by readers of varied ages. Children and adults alike will be challenged in the investigations that will lead toward a more comprehensive understanding of illustrations and their value.

Influence of Color in Illustrations

When authors want to emphasize a word, it can be set in bold type, underlined, or put in italics. Certain ideas might be highlighted with descriptive or loaded adjectives. The color used in illustrations may be thought of in the same way. Of particular

note is the use of grey in The Grey Lady and the Strawberry Snatcher (Bang, 1980). A grey lady is being followed home by a thief. She avoids him by magically disappearing into the grey background. The merging and blending of the main character into the setting creates a fantastic visual treat.

Hyman's black and white drawings in Jane Wishing (Tobias, 1977) alternating the reality of Jane's everyday life with dreamy and colorful pictures of her fantasy world. In The Funny Little Woman (Mosel, 1972), the foreground is pictured in color while the background is in black and white; color changes emphasize the immediate setting of the action.

As the environment in The Mountain (Parnall, 1971) is being ruined, colorful illustrations give way to black and white drawings. The shift in color makes a stark statement about what humans are doing to their world. In contrast, is the addition of color to the drawings in The Seeing Stick (Yolen, 1977). A young blind girl discovers the brightness in her world through the power of communications and this is reflected in the illustrations.

Clues in Photographs

Children often select contextual clues from a passage to define a word or concept. The same idea can be reinforced by using books which contain photos that require a listing and evaluation of visual clues before readers can identify the objects shown. On an early primary level, Guess What? (Bester, 1980) contains obvious textual clues that go with the pictures. Photos of an egg and a feather are accompanied by "What has soft fluffy feathers, lays eggs that we eat and lives in a coop?" The illustration of the next page is of a hen in front of a coop.

The top half pages in Zoo City (Lewis, 1976) depict city objects that can be matched up with similar looking animals on the bottom half pages. Answers are reinforced with the names of animals printed on both left half pages. Overlay pages with circle cut-outs in Take Another Look (Hoban, 1981) cover photos of objects and animals. Readers see a portion of a tabby cat's forehead. After listing the details, a flip of the page reveals a full page photo of a kitten. Look Again (Hoban, 1971) is of the same style with square cut-outs. In What Is It? (Loss, 1974), everyday objects are shown enlarged 10 to 30 times in the photos. The blow-ups contain enough details, yet identification of some items is quite challenging.

Detecting and Selecting Details

Reading for details requires paying attention to facts, some literally stated aspects, and some inferred information. Details in illustrations are presented in a number of ways just as they are in a text. Young readers are encouraged to hone their detail detection skills in Each Peach Pear Plum (Ahlberg, 1978). On each page, viewers are told which story character is hidden in the illustration. For example, the text reads "Wicked Witch over the wood, I spy Robin Hood." (unpaged). He can be found in miniature in the top of a tree.

Children will be fascinated with how easily a basic shape

can be molded into other forms in Mari's The Magic Balloon (1967). A boy blows a bubble, it becomes a balloon, an apple, a butterfly, a flower, and finally an umbrella. While all the shapes have curves, each has its own distinctive features and details that make it a separate entity. The Turn About, Think About, Look About Book is an adventure in visual experimentation. Each design has four interpretations given by the author. One blue and green page can be viewed as a Christmas tree, a shark's bite, between two Christmas trees, and an arrow head. Children will have a great time coming up with other versions.

Truck (Crews, 1980) may seem to be a wordless book because there is no text per se but inspection of details leads readers to note traffic, destination and information signs necessary for travelers. One first grader surmised that trucks, not cars, caused pollution because they were the only ones shown spewing exhaust.

Some artists include factors that have nothing to do with the story but they heighten a reader's reaction. Yellow, Yellow (Asch, 1971) contains thousands of hilarious minute details. While a boy walks down the street, the designs on his tee shirt change constantly. A paint can has a label which reads "I want to make something beautiful. But, of course, I am only a can of paint in a storybook." (unpaged).

Reading Beyond Surface Meaning

Children giggle when they consider the two possibilities in "Is the chicken ready to eat?" (Will the chicken eat or will we eat the chicken?) Learning to comprehend beyond the literal level requires readers to make judgments and to piece together relevant information. We can explore surface and underlying meaning by examining books that contain two or more concepts being presented at the same time.

Literal and Figurative Information

Some compound words may make no sense if they are broken into literal components. Toad + stool hardly explains "toadstool". Puniddles (McMillan, 1980) provides a series of photographs that encourage children to think about words. For example, photos of a hen and a ball are used with the target words "foul ball". Photos of an ear of corn and a knee are pictured for "corny".

The literal and abstract application of figures of speech and homonyms are comically illustrated in Gwynne's The King Who Rained (1970). The text reads "Sometimes Mommy says she has a frog in her throat." The illustrations show mom with her mouth open and frog is peering out. Gwynne's Chocolate Moose for Breakfast (1976) and The Sixteen Hand Horse (1980) may also be used to explore language usage and how it influences communication. Older children will enjoy Slanguage (Carothers & Lacey, 1979) where origins of figures of speech are explained. Illustrations are literal interpretations of the text. For example, pictured for "flying colors" are five crayolas shooting through the air.

Double Details in Illustrations

In the wordless Anno's Counting Book (1977), children can

count objects pictured as well as blocks that run up the left page. Further inspection leads the viewers to note the seasons of the year, twelve calendar months, and holidays. A more sophisticated approach is contained in Anno's Britain (1982), Anno's Italy (1980), and Anno's Journey (1978). All three are wordless travel books covering parts of Europe. Anno included famous works of art, historical buildings, cities and characters such as Rapunzel, Big Bird, and Marilyn Monroe. In Anno's Italy, references are made to individuals, situations, and places in the Old and New Testaments.

Readers need some background information for the above books before they can easily detect the intricate details couched within the illustrations. For younger readers, more obvious underlying information is found in Rain (Kalan, 1978). While the surface intent is to describe weather conditions for rain, colors and objects are also included. The Grouchy Ladybug (Carle, 1977) is a bit more complicated. The surface story is about an irritable insect, but readers also learn about defense mechanisms of animals, size relationships, and the position of the sun in regard to time. Of a similar nature is The Very Hungry Caterpillar (Carle, 1969). The tale is about a caterpillar with a voracious appetite but counting, days of the week, and the life cycle of a butterfly are also presented.

Two-level Stories

The artist's interpretation of the text appears to be so great that a separate, unspoken story is visible; one story is presented in the text and another in the illustrations. In John Burningham's Come Away from the Water, Shirley (1977), Shirley becomes involved in a series of escapades that are not dealt with in the text. While mom warns her about obeying rules at the beach (text), Shirley is off on an adventure with pirates (illustrations only). Thus there is a comparison between down-to-earth reality and exciting fantasy. Further fun with this character may be found in Time to Get Out of the Bath, Shirley (Burningham, 1978).

The Comic Adventures of Old Mother Hubbard and Her Dog (de-Paola, 1981) is a fanciful picture book about the nursery rhyme. The large illustrations that parallel the text are about the woman and her pet. However, what appear to be oval designs in the margins are actually wordless versions of nursery rhymes including Little Boy Blue, Robin Red Breast, and Simple Simon.

Predicting Action and Outcomes

Event and story projection involves putting together information and being able to come up with a logical outcome. Learning to anticipate action requires a sense of story (plot sequence), understanding of characterization, and a grasp of basic details. There are many picture books which are useful when teaching prediction of story events or endings from the illustrations.

For young children 1 Hunter (Hutchings, 1982) is a lot of fun. When a myopic hunter stalks his prey, he overlooks two elephants while he is walking under eight spotted legs. With the turn of the page, readers see him waltz away, oblivious to the

two giraffes. Later he misses six tigers and walks on lumpy green "rocks" which are really seven crocodiles.

In Do You Want to Be My Friend? (Carle, 1971), a mouse wanders around, first meeting the tails of animals. Children can predict what the animal will be—then turn the page to see if they are correct. A bit more complicated is Have You Seen My Cat? (Carle, 1973). A little boy goes looking for his cat and me meets a cowboy —turn the page—and he finds a bobcat. Later he comes across two women from rural Africa—turn the page—and he spies a panther. Children need to key in on setting to be able to match up the cats that are pictured in the first two pages of the book.

The die-cut wordless books by John Goodall are an excellent source for story projection. In The Adventures of Paddy Pork (1968), full page illustrations show Paddy in the store looking at the door. Flip the half page and Paddy leaves the shop. The half page hides the action that sets up the scene for the next full page.

Children should also be on the look-out for foreshadowing in the illustrations. In The Chicken's Child (Hartelius, 1975) a wordless story, an alligator is tossed off the farm while his adopted hen mother wrings her wings in despair. Lurking in the trees is a fox. Later there are two alligator eyes seen in the woods as the hen is being grabbed by the fox. Children will be able to anticipate action and predict the outcome of the story if they pick up on these clues.

Conclusion

Because we live in such a visually oriented world, comprehension beyond the printed word is becoming increasingly more important. As with the text of a story, pictures carry surface and underlying meaning. Children will delight in the books that provide an experience in literature, art, and graphic detail, leading to the understanding of and use of critical reading of illustrations. A picture may be worth a thousand words, but readers need to know what to look for and how to process the details into useful information before full comprehension and visual literacy can be attained.

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APPROACHES AND METHODS FOR READING SPECIALISTS: A CONTINUING DEBATE

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Science or the scientific approach has traditionally stressed organization and measurement whereby individuals observe, measure, and classify. This application of scientific knowledge has resulted in the development of technology, an applied science. The word "technology" is from the Greek technologia, and it means a systematic treatment. Technology embodies physically what science has already done.

Our new science is in its essence technological (1). Jose Ortega y Gasset said, "...technology in the fullness of its maturity begins around 1600, when man in the course of his theoretical thinking about the world comes to regard it as a machine." As this was happening, humanistic concerns regarding individual worth, independence, creative initiatives, individual potential, and human control with technology became most significant topics for discussion. While technology became extremely powerful there was reflection and fear that unique human characteristics might be suppressed or denegated.

The power of technology is a challenge to humanistic concerns is a challenge to humanistic concerns and forms the basis of the continuing debate, i.e., how should we use our educational technology and how do we keep it under control? There are many examples of raw technical power going haywire. For educators at all levels, technology must be under human control and carefully applied.

It is not difficult to demonstrate that modern technology is quite dangerous and at times exceeds the ability of humans to control it. On January 13, 1982, at 3:45 PM in a blinding snow storm, a Boeing 737 Air Florida, Flight 90 lifted off from National Airport in Washington, D.C. bound for Tampa. After clearing the runway, Flight 90 crashed into the 14th Street Bridge during rush hour traffic and plunged into the Potomac River (78 people were killed). About a half hour later and one mile east, Washington's Metro subway system had the first fatal accident in its six years of operation. Three persons were killed and 18 seriously injured in an underground derailment. Five days later on January 18, 1982 at 10:00 AM, four Air Force precision pilots flying T-38 jets flew into the ground near Nellis Air Force Base, Nevada, while practicing a loop maneuver. They were some of the best pilots the Air Force had and were part of the Thunderbirds demonstration

team. Five days later on January 23, 1982 a World Airways DC-10 with 190 passengers aboard skidded off the runway at Logan International Airport and slid into the shallow water of Boston Harbor. Three days later two missing passengers were finally declared unaccounted for and ultimately declared dead by drowning. Twenty-two days later on February 15, 1982, the world's largest semi-submersible oil rig, the Ocean Ranger, thought to be unsinkable, sank off the coast of Newfoundland in a storm (84 men were killed).

These tragic events occurring within 33 days were due in most part to human error. It demonstrates that a slight error with high technology can have disastrous consequences. Our technical efficiency can be a powerful opiate, disarming us of some natural concerns. It has been said that our extraordinary progress with technology has taught us how to become gods before we learned to be human (3).

Within the specific area of reading and the more general area of developmental study skills, human error by teachers is critical but not immediately obvious. Indeed, teachers may never know if they have made an error or not. They frequently must follow their instincts while in a particular remedial situation rather than acknowledge and accept what the test data predicts or prescribes.

Reading as a skill to be taught came along with behavioral science techniques of psychology that flourished in the first 40 years of the twentieth century. Numbers and various systematic approaches were used to help represent abstract human characteristics and organize data findings. With regard to reading ability, intricate concepts such as comprehension and flexibility were developed, analyzed, and studied. In an organized manner, educators attempted to use scientific methods by developing theories and testing their ideas on students.

Curriculum research on the process of reading was conducted along with theory-based research looking for outcomes from a particular method. The word "efficient" frequently appeared in the early reading literature along with suggestions for increasing reading rate. There seemed to be an infatuation with the term "efficient reader." Designated efficient readers had mastered certain reading techniques, but this did not make them wiser, more perceptive or more insightful than less efficient readers. Devices for measuring reading efficiency were developed--the tachistoscope, the reading accelerator, the shadowscope, and the metronoscope. Organized efforts to improve reading skills were started. One of the first college reading centers was established at Dartmouth in 1928 (4). Into the 1940s and 50s considerable effort was made to study eye movements, improve and develop testing procedures, and develop methods or approaches for college level study, such as Francis P. Robinson's SQ3R method.

As a result of the Russians having launched the first orbiting space vehicle on October 4, 1957, there was considerable activity within high education to become more scientific and efficient. In the 1960s it was quite popular to adopt notions of systems theory for educational activity. Systems theory was first used

during World War II with such new high technology devices as radar. Donald E. P. Smith has made reference to instructional system technology (IST) with reading and said it refers to behavioral engineering, that is, to arranging environmental events in order to produce reliable, given behaviors (5). Using something called High Intensity Learning Systems, S. Alan Cohen said confidently, "Designing curriculum is an engineering problem"(6).

There is considerable controversy regarding the use of behavioral engineering; even mentioning the term can generate controversy in some quarters. Humanistic misgivings with behavioral engineering have to do with control and manipulation in the hands of imperfect beings. If a skilled jet pilot can make a slight mistake with high technology and kill many people, it is reasonable to assume that a serious mistake can be made by a well-intentioned, experienced educator using methods of behavioral engineering. B. F. Skinner has been acknowledged as a popular and aggressive spokesman for behavioral engineering, but he has many critics. William Barrett said Skinner "...is particularly persuasive for the simple-minded and half-educated whose members constantly increase in our society" (7). These general perspectives (scientific versus humanistic) dominate educational approaches within reading and study skills environments.

Scientific Approaches

The scientific approach with humans is usually subject to many variables (human and environmental characteristics) that are difficult to control. Reading behavior and reading disability are two of the most researched topics in education and psychology, yet reading research continues to abound with contradictions and controversies (8). It is known that standardized reading tests are rather vulnerable to the effects of interest and previous experience when attempting to measure comprehension (9). Results of standardized and informal assessment could well be influenced by students' interest in the passages that are used (10). The lack of agreement as to what functional literacy is (or what should be measured) has resulted in illiteracy estimates ranging from one to twenty percent of the population (11).

Scientists often have difficulty getting a consensus regarding their methodology and results. Walter Lippmann in a half joking way said, "Science is the occupation of absent-minded professors, of difficult and unsociable persons, wise enough, no doubt, but not altogether in their right minds" (12). William Carlos Williams once referred to science and philosophy as little more than fetishes of unspeakable abhorrence (13). However, with the help of scientists many fraudulent practices within reading programs are exposed. Exaggerated claims for speed reading is a good example. Eleanor J. Gibson and Harry Levin identify research that indicates very rapid reading does lead to a loss of factual details, and as a result, a loss of ability to draw inferences from them (14).

Walter Pauk is quite specific and adamant when discussing students and their reading rate: "At 600 words per minute, they were not reading; rather, they were skipping and skimming and moving their eyeballs, but not their minds, over the lines of

print"(15). Bright students are sometimes taught to speed read so that they may keep up with the pack like jackals devouring words. Speed reading techniques seem to have lost considerable support from reading professionals. A recent International Reading Association's program listed 400-500 presentations with about 2000 presenters, and no one championed speed reading (16).

New high technology devices such as word processors, programmed television, and microcomputers are now being proclaimed as innovations for reading specialists and other developmental programs. Reading programs on many campuses are using these devices or investigating the possibility of using them. Computer assisted instruction (CAI) modules have been developed to improve reading comprehension at the post-secondary level (17). These types of modules are used to supplement classroom experience.

George E. Mason and Jay S. Blanchard have an excellent monograph titled "Computer Applications in Reading"(18). They review the history and use of computers and describe some applications for reading instructors (comprehension, critical reading, drill and practice). With a dependence on visual effects, Mason and Blanchard wonder if computers are helping or hindering.

Many uses have been found for computers beyond a supplement for instructional technique. Microcomputers are used to crank out readability formulas (19). Word processors and computers have been programmed to handle great quantities of test data and provide suggestions for remedial work. These techniques may be helpful to busy instructors, but they subtly imply that machines may be more knowledgeable or more in control than a classroom teacher. William Barrett warns that "If we try to flee from our human condition into the computer, we only meet ourselves there. Inevitably, the game of 'choice and consequences' is still to be played out, though on a different level"(20).

Martha Maxwell has said that students must be taught how to think critically about complex problems, to weigh evidence, to use logical processes, and to solve problems (21). With the inertia of technical efficiency there is the hidden danger that process or technique can overtake purpose. Learning a reading technique may be more important for a technologist than understanding what is read. A slavish application to technical exercises can be limiting and debilitating. The technical dimension must always play a supporting role to the classroom teacher and the dynamics of critical discourse. Humans produce the facts to be handled by machines, but the facts themselves are changed by conceptual revolutions (22).

Humanistic Approaches

During the first 40 years of this century, education's eloquent but controversial voice for a humanistic approach was John Dewey. He consistently emphasized that the classroom teacher must be sensitive to individual differences and human potential. With a philosophical bent, Dewey said, "Education is a mode of life, of action. As an act it is wider than science."(23) At times he was rather vague but also compelling:

> The sources of educational science are any

> portions of ascertained knowledge that enter into the heart, head and hands of educators, and which by entering in, render the performance of the education function more enlightened, more humane, more truly educational than it was before. But there is no way to discover what is "more truly educational" except by the continuation of the educational act itself. The discovery is never made, it is always making. (24)

The influence of John Dewey was waning in the 1960s and into the 70s when educators followed their political instincts and accepted government money to advance science. Many humanistic educational researchers specializing in reading were influenced by the psychoanalytic approach that required an analyst or teacher to be able to see the world through the eyes of his patient or student. Bruno Bettelheim and Karen Zelan have attempted to explain the psychoanalytic process with emphasis on the intricate student-teacher relationship. When working with children, they said, "What matters is that the child be given the conviction that he will learn to read..."(25) This has to do with the important concept of self-confidence being transmitted and reinforced by the teacher.

Knowing how to read in a technical sense does not prevent reading problems (e.g., problems relating to anxiety or lack of self-confidence).(26) A reading problem, when identified through testing, is only seen; there is no explanation as to <u>why</u> the problem occurred or what should be done about it. Representing the human element, teachers must solve those problems; they are the key to a successful remedial program.(27)

Experienced reading teachers understand that it is most helpful to take students into a sort of partnership and gain their trust in order to determine what the problem is and how to correct it (28). Reading skills can be improved and self-confidence enhanced. Those who cannot read at a minimal level are usually hindered by physiological and psychological handicaps (29). Correcting these problems can be a painfully slow process requiring a lot of student-teacher interaction.

The humanist places considerable emphasis on human dignity and is usually willing to make a genuine effort for students to overcome severe handicaps. When Anna Mansfield Sullivan took the responsibility of teaching Helen Keller, who was deprived of sight and hearing, she had no way of knowing what potential Helen Keller had. Teaching was done out of love, dedication, and compassion. The remarkable Helen Keller story is repeated in different ways and on different scales by classroom teachers who are able to beat the prediction formula cranked out by machines.

Humans are needed to take on the difficult tasks of overcoming educational handicaps and developing qualities of understanding and reasoning. This job may be aided by technology, but there is no indication that technology can control itself. Technical achievements always bring with them many undesirable side effects.

In the Soviet Union there is less emphasis placed on human

worth and dignity than in this country. Educational and industrial training efforts in Russia are highly advanced in the area of technology. It has been reported that Russia is further advanced than any other western country in the use of educational technology (30). This may be an indication that Russia does not want to develop critical thinkers. Machine smart technologists (who are "programmed") are easier to control and less likely to question the state's authority. People who think may disregard machines.

Summary

Contrasts between a scientific or technical approach and a humanistic approach are vivid. Electromechanical devices and other technical equipment are efficient, fast, capable of handling large amounts of data, but somewhat limited. Human characteristics stem from the soul or spirit, and they are embodied in specific traits, such as compassion, self-denial, insightful behavior, creative impulses, flexibility, a sense of moral value, and ability to set expectations for others. Technology tends to fragment or compartmentalize knowledge and skills while stressing a depth of knowledge. Humanistic approaches usually cut through technical barriers, when it is possible, and seek to achieve a broad integrated perspective for the individual.

We must be extremely careful with the technical knowledge we have developed. "To be an engineer and nothing but an engineer means to be potentially everything and actually nothing" (31). As an example, Vannevar Bush, the initial Chairman of the National Defense Research Committee during World War II published a book in 1946 titled Endless Horizons, giving an extremely optimistic view of atomic power. He said, "The atom should be at useful constructive work for us within ten years"(32). Twenty-one years later Bush published another book titled Science Is Not Enough, and he emphasized that humans must be concerned with the welfare of others (33). This shift from "endless horizons" with science to "science is not enough" represents to some degree caution and concern by an eminent scientist. It has been said that "The aim of life is to structure an architecture within the soul" (34). For many technologists, the aim of life is to structure an architecture around the soul.

Reading specialists must be humanistic in approach with a scientific understanding and indoctrination to research and applied clinical methods. It is only through an intense study and examination of technical methods that we come to understand their uses and limitations. In a somewhat balanced and harmonious way, scientific and humanistic concerns must come together in the reading laboratory to promote reason, understanding, and self-respect.

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USING OBSERVATION TO ASSESS YOUNG CHILDREN'S READING ATTITUDES

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Teachers of beginning readers often ask themselves, "Will Lydia read?" "When will Saul begin to read?" or even more elusive questions: "How successful a reader will Janie become?" "Will Michael continue to want to read?" The concern is not just competence — children's attitudes toward reading also determine success. How children feel about reading may be as important as whether or not they develop reading skills.

A review of the literature on children's reading attitudes clearly shows that concern for attitudes has been neglected. There is particularly little literature concerning attitudes of young children. Yet attitudes developed during children's early reading instruction appear to relate to reading ability in their later years (Heilman, 1972). If the children's attitudes toward reading is basic to reading success, then an important goal in beginning reading instruction should be to develop positive attitudes toward reading. This is especially important since the value of reading ability depends on its use instead of its possession (Estes, 1971). The children's behavior can provide noticeable differences in the role they assign to reading in their lives and in society. The purpose of this paper is to describe a checklist assessment strategy for identifying attitudes toward reading of young children. Both the development an practical use of this strategy will be discussed, highlighting the special value for classroom teachers.

The checklist presented was derived from a study based on Rowell's (1972) conclusions: (1) the children's behavior indicates their attitudes; (2) an observer can objectively record this behavior with the appropriate instrument; and (3) the format of the instrument should provide the observer with the opportunity to assess the children's reactions to their reading experiences. Based on these conclusions, the Preschool Reading Attitudes Observation Checklist (PRAOC) was constructed to assess young children's observable behaviors in reading. (PRAOC reliability and validity estimates are available upon request.)

Observation Methods

Observation methods can be used to systematically observe, record and assess some type of behaviors which occur in a variety of circumstances. Valid and reliable observation techniques have been developed over the years. One method used extensively in education is the checklist, which consists of a predetermined set of items. The observer marks (with a circle, check or cross) each item to indicate its presence or absence. This procedure

easily records the observations to systematically identify typical behaviors (Saracho, 1983). The items which are present may be added up to provide an overall score or items may be examined separately.

Heathington and Alexander (1978) developed an observation checklist to assess reading attitudes of elementary school children (grades first through sixth). This checklist can be used to examine behaviors which reflect the children's attitudes toward reading. Therefore, such a checklist became the basis for the checklist used in the present study.

Developing the Checklist

In developing the PRAOC, the children's perceptions of reading were examined using an open-ended interview. The interview indicated which behaviors the children perceived as positive / negative attitudes toward reading. The checklist only includes behaviors indicating positive attitudes.

Eighty children, whose ages ranged from three to six, were individually interviewed. Based on the Heathington and Alexanger (1978) observation checklist, the children were asked two open-ended questions and their responses were categorized into four environmental areas. The questions consisted of: (1) What do children your age say and do when they like reading? and (2) What do children your age say and do when they do not like reading? Categories for environmental areas included (1) school reading activities, (2) nonschool reading activities, (3) library reading activities, and (4) general reading activities. Young children with positive attitudes toward reading indicated the following:

SCHOOL READING ACTIVITIES (SRA)
- —likes to read a book at school
- —likes to take care of books at school
- —likes to put words together in the classroom
- —likes to be first to read at the reading group
- —likes to read words from the book
- —likes to pay attention to the teacher
- —likes to have someone read to them at school
- —likes to have someone read to them in their classroom
- —likes to have someone ask teacher to read to them
- —likes to have the teacher read a story
- —likes to have lots of books in the classroom
- —likes to go to the library area in the classroom
- —likes to pick out a book by oneself in the classroom
- —likes to take care of books in the classroom
- —likes for the teacher to show them some pictures

NONSCHOOL READING ACTIVITIES (NRA)
- —likes to have someone read a story before going to sleep
- —likes to buy a book
- —likes to look at books in the doctor's office
- —likes to look at pictures
- —likes to listen to a story
- —likes to look at books
- —likes to have someone read to them at home

—likes to have someone read to them in their bedroom
—likes to read with everybody
—likes to read a book and sit down outside
—likes to take a book on a trip
—likes to have someone read to them in a quiet place

LIBRARY READING ACTIVITIES (LRA)
—likes to go to the library for books
—likes to see movies at the library
—likes to check out books from the library
—likes to share books at the library
—likes to look at books at the library
—likes to go to the library
—likes to listen to records at the library
—likes to have the librarian read a story
—likes to share books with friends at the library
—likes it when it is time to go to the library
—likes to pick out a book by oneself at the library

GENERAL READING ACTIVITIES (GRA)
—likes to look at books
—likes to listen to stories
—likes to take a book in the car
—likes stories
—likes to look at a lot of books
—likes to read with others
—likes to have someone read books to them
—likes to take care of books
—likes to buy books
—likes to look at pictures
—likes to tell a story to a friend
—likes to talk about books

Discussion

The children's responses to these individual interviews guided the development of the PRAOC (See Appendix) for teachers to assess young children's reading attitudes. The children's responses provided many observable behaviors. However, the most observable behaviors and the behaviors which children mentioned the most were included in the observation instrument.

Teachers can easily administer the PRAOC to assess young children's reading attitudes. The teacher can observe during a two-week period to record most of the behaviors which indicate the young children's reading attitudes. Reading teachers can use the PRAOC with ease and can obtain important reading information to plan reading experiences because (a) it is brief enough for the classroom teacher to use; (b) it is easy to administer which facilitates its use with different children and several times during the school year; (c) it identifies reading behaviors which children view as positive and negative behaviors; (d) it serves to diagnose several areas of a child's reading environment (Heathington & Alexander, 1978); and (e) it assesses the young children's reading behaviors at different times and circumstances. A recording in the "No" column cautions the teacher of a child's negative reading attitude in a specific area. The teacher can further ex-

plore the child's reading behavior and plan successful reading experiences which will ultimately develop positive attitudes in the area which needs to be improved. It is essential that reading attitudes as well as reading skills be assessed. A prerequisite in modifying or reinforcing positive attitudes toward reading is to assess reading attitudes. The PRAOC can provide helpful information to assist teachers and reading specialists in planning and evaluating a success-based reading program for young children. If the PRAOC is employed to assess the children's reading attitudes early in the year, changes in attitudes can be examined by using the PRAOC later in the year and comparing the results with the earlier assessment. Reading experience can be planned accordingly to develop and maintain positive reading attitudes.

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Appendix

PRESCHOOL READING ATTITUDES OBSERVATION CHECKLIST

Name _____ Age _____

Date _____ Score: _____ "Yes" Items _____ "No" Items

Directions: Next to each item place a check mark under the column "Yes" to indicate its presence or under the column "No" to indicate its absence. Add both columns to obtain a total score. A high score under the "Yes" column indicates a positive reading attitude while a high score in the "No" column indicates a negative reading attitude.

Yes	No	
___	___	1. Talks about looking at books (bus, school, home, etc.)
___	___	2. Talks about one or more specific books.
___	___	3. Reads pictures.
___	___	4. Repeats stories which someone has told or read.
___	___	5. Reads charts, cards, books, etc.
___	___	6. Gets books to look at or to read.
___	___	7. Asks to be told or read a story.
___	___	8. Takes care of books.
___	___	9. Looks at books.
___	___	10. Requests to go to the library.
___	___	11. Shares books with friends.

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