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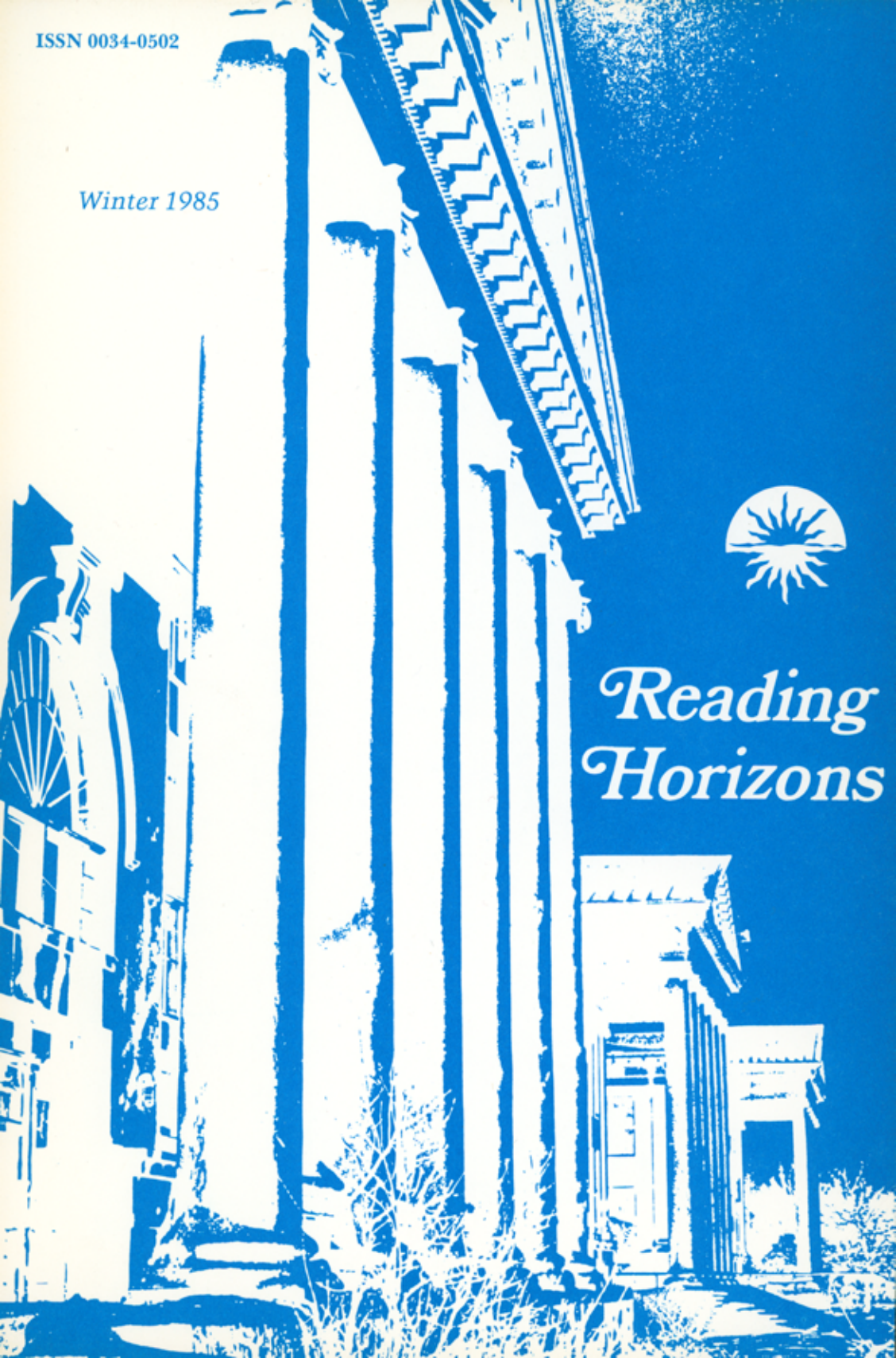


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A FUNCTIONAL APPROACH TO IN-SERVICE FOR SECONDARY CONTENT-AREA TEACHERS

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This report describes the development and implementation of an in-service program in reading instruction for practising secondary teachers. The program to date has been carried out in seven locations in the United States and Canada and has involved 247 teachers. Its development and implementation, and the evaluative data which have come from its use, provide valuable insights into secondary teachers' perceptions of reading instruction, and the needs of these teachers in an in-service setting.

Needs Assessment

Rather than remaining satisfied with preconceived notions of teachers' specific needs in reading, as a first step in developing the program, an assessment instrument was designed to determine teachers' own perceptions of their needs. As a result of using this instrument, the focus of the program has been sharpened and its credibility with teachers has been heightened through the initial determination and subsequent recognition of teachers' specific needs.

The Secondary Reading In-service Assessment form which was developed is shown below. It is normally completed by teachers about two weeks before the scheduling of the in-service program.

Secondary Reading In-Service Needs Assessment

As you know, in a few weeks you and your colleagues will be participating in an in-service program in secondary reading.

For this program to be as successful as possible, it would be helpful if you would indicate on the questionnaire below those topics which you particularly would like to be included.

Thank you for assisting in this way. We look forward to working with you soon.

(Answers, 1 = important, 2 = undecided, and 3 = not important)

1. Word-attack skills _____
2. Comprehension skills _____
3. Speed _____
4. Locating information _____
5. Organizing information _____
6. Retention skills _____
7. SQ3R _____
8. The nature of individual differences _____
9. Determining students' needs _____
10. Specific teaching techniques _____
11. Classroom organization strategies _____
12. Appropriate instructional materials _____

While our initial reaction to the distinction between teacher' expressed need for help with the process as opposed to the product of reading instruction was caution ("Do they really know what context clues, etc., are?"), subsequent experience has proven the accuracy of this finding. Two factors seem to contribute to it. The first is that the emphasis on teaching secondary reading in recent years, and the informal discussion among teachers which this emphasis has produced, has created a pool of shared information among practising teachers about reading skills—teachers know what these skills are, but they don't know exactly how to go about teaching them in their classrooms. A second related factor is the collegial education provided by those relatively few younger teachers who have entered the profession in recent years and who have had pre-service or in some cases post-graduate courses in secondary reading. The expertise of these better-informed teachers has to some extent rubbed off on their colleagues. The result is that most practising secondary teachers today do know what reading and study skills are, but they need help in the process of teaching these skills. Moreover, the pattern of response as revealed by Figure 1 was almost identical in each of the seven locations where the needs assessment has been administered.

Program Content

Space limitations prevent an extensive outline of the specific contents of the in-service program which was developed. However, the following provides a general overview:

1. Introduction: Teaching Reading in Content Areas
  - A. The range of reading abilities to be expected in the typical content area classroom
  - B. The specificity of reading abilities in the content areas
2. Assessing Reading Abilities
  - A. Standardized Tests
  - B. Informal Tests
3. Determining Instructional Strategies
  - A. Questioning Techniques
  - B. Study Guides
4. Organizing the Classroom for Instruction
5. Selecting Instructional Materials

It can be seen that the emphasis of the program is placed on the process dimension of reading instruction as opposed to the product, this being the required emphasis indicated by the needs assessment.

Program Features

We believe that equally important with the actual content of the program are some of the features we tried to build into it. These may be summarized as follows:

Responsive—The program has a functional emphasis in that it is based on teaching reading in content areas and not on teaching reading as a separate subject divorced from the learning of specific content-area material. In this way teachers are able to see that the in-service program responds directly to their

particular instructional needs. To reinforce this linkage, we encourage teachers to bring and to use during the program examples of the content-area instructional material they teach from in their classrooms.

Participatory—There is an emphasis on individual and group participation and the accommodation of teachers' individual differences as these are evidenced by the various content-areas and grade level teachers teach. In this way we try to model effective teaching as well as preach it.

Contributory—We encourage teachers to talk to one another, to compare and share teaching ideas and solutions to mutually encountered problems. Besides directing the learning of teachers, we interpret our role to be catalysts in encouraging the contributory group learning of participants.

Structured—Since time is limited (usually to one day), we have found that a reasonably structured program is preferable to a loosely organized one which threatens to provide little more than an opportunity to share misinformation. While we encourage teachers to share, we also direct what is to be shared and how. Contrary to our initial misgivings about this approach based on our fear that teachers would resent this kind of directed activity, teachers generally seem quite accepting of this structuring.

Follow-Up—The structure for the program is provided by the booklet which we developed and which every teacher works through during the program. The booklet contains directions for activities in which participants engage and to which they contribute directly (e.g., determining appropriate reading, study skill instructional objectives, preparing a study guide, planning classroom organization, and individualizing instruction). The result is that at the conclusion of the program, each teacher takes away a mini-textbook which he or she has evolved from the program and which contains ideas and answers gained from directed activities and discussion with other teachers during the program. The philosophy here is that by providing something tangible to take away, teachers are encouraged to review and over time use the information they have gained rather than forget it or feel inhibited from applying it because of a sense of lost familiarity.

Evaluation

The final part of the program is its evaluation. Approximately two weeks after the program has been run, each participant is asked to complete the Secondary Reading In-service Evaluation which is shown below. A two-week interval has the effect of dampening any unrealistic euphoria generated by the program, and, more important, the interval also gives teachers time to apply and assess in their own classrooms some of the information and ideas which the program provides.

The results of the evaluation are summarized in Figure 2. As can be seen, teachers have determined most aspects of the program to be successful. The one really disappointing element is the apparent lack of follow-up in the schools. This is a perennial problem with in-service and one which seriously threatens its

Secondary Reading In-Service Evaluation

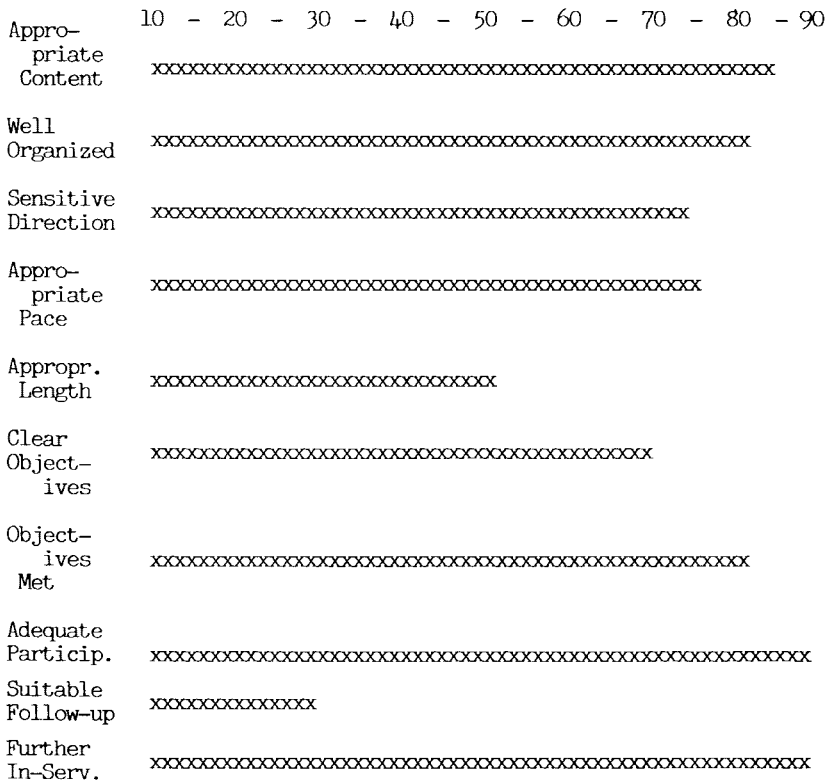
Approximately two weeks ago you participated in an in-service program in secondary reading.

It would be helpful if you could now indicate your response to the workshop as an aid in your teaching.

(Answers, 1 = Agree, 2 = undecided, and 3 = disagree)

1. The content was appropriate _____
2. The program was well organized _____
3. The program director was sensitive to my needs _____
4. The pace was appropriate _____
5. The program was about the right length _____
6. The objectives were made clear _____
7. The content met the objectives _____
8. I had adequate opportunity to participate _____
9. There has been suitable follow-up in my school _____
10. Further in-service is needed _____

Figure 2
Accumulated In-Service Evaluation
Percent Agree (N = 247)



effectiveness. It is also a problem area we plan to address in future administrations of the program by requiring school officials to guarantee a follow-up series of opportunities for teachers to meet and discuss their progress, and to continue to learn from one another as they gain more expertise in the teaching of secondary reading.

THE VERBAL LANGUAGE OF PUBLIC TELEVISION

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Television is a phenomenon that touches the life of almost every American child. Indeed, the average eighteen year old in the United States has watched 18,000 hours of television (Liberman, 1983). The effects of such a concentrated block of time on the child's development have to be considerable. These effects influence many areas of the child's life - psychological, sociological, perhaps even physiological. It is the area of television's language modeling that is of interest in this article.

A recent article in the Journal of Reading examined the language used in eight of the most popular commercial television shows (Liberman, 1983). Liberman analyzed the language of eight scripts for the total number of words used, average sentence length, variety of sentence structure, and the use of figurative language. He found that the shows he analyzed "are by and large not good models of syntactic or semantic complexity." For instance, the average sentence length ranged from 5.64 ("Happy Days") to 8.46 ("Dukes of Hazzard"). Percent of sentences with under ten words ranged from 75.3% ("White Shadow") to 90.5% ("Happy Days").

Appalled by Liberman's figures, I was curious if any television shows offered a good language model for children. In cooperation with several units of the Public Broadcasting System, I gathered sample scripts of what the Washington office of P.B.S. told me were among the most popular shows on Public Broadcasting. For analysis, I chose to consider the following sample scripts (sent randomly as to specific show by the producing units):

1. Sesame Street
2. Mister Rogers' Neighborhood
3. 3-2-1 Contact
4. The National Geographic Special: Save the Panda
5. Nova: Fat Chance in a Thin World

These programs range from those aimed at a preschool audience (Sesame Street, and Mister Rogers' Neighborhood), through those suitable for elementary school children (3-2-1 Contact and the National Geographic Special), to those aimed at teenagers and adults (Nova). These particular scripts of the National Geographic Special and Nova were sent because they were among the most popular ever aired by P.B.S., with the "National Geographic Special: Save the Panda" being one of the most widely viewed P.B.S. shows of

Table 1
Analysis of Language Counts of
Five Selected Public Television Programs

	Length of Show	Total number: Words	Total number: Sentences	Average Sentence Length	Words per Minute	Number Sentences Under 10 Words	Percent Sentences Under 10 Words
Sesame Street	58 min.	5814	947	6.14	98.5	861	90.9
Mister Rogers	21 min	2512	305	8.24	119.6	195	63.9
3-2-1 Contact	21 min	3261	273	11.95	155.3	141	51.6
National Geographic Special	55 min	4507	313	14.4	81.9	95	30.3
Nova: Fat Chance in a Thin World	58 min	6903	410	16.8	119.02	76	18.5

all time. The Nova broadcast (which was about dieting) was also very popular, marshalling a larger-than-usual teenage audience, according to the P.B.S. office.

Script Analysis

Lacking computer assistance for this project, manual counts were made of some of the same elements analyzed by Liberman. Table 1 lists these elements.

Thus, the average sentence length ranged from 6.14 (Sesame Street) to 16.84 (Nova). Percent of sentences under ten words ranged from 18.5% (Nova) to 90.9% (Sesame Street). It is interesting to compare the figures from "3-2-1 Contact" (a show aimed at nine and ten year olds) with those from "Happy Days" (a show aimed at teenagers). Both shows fill a thirty minute time segment.

The script of "3-2-1 Contact" which was sent to me has 3261 words, with 273 sentences, and an average sentence length of 11.95 words. Fifty-one point six percent of the sentences have ten words or less. The script of "Happy Days" analyzed by Liberman has 2918 words, with 517 sentences, and an average sentence length of 5.64

words, with 90.5% of the sentences being fewer than ten words long (Liberman, 1983). While such mechanical counts do not tell all about language complexity, they do provide a proxy measure of such. Clearly, "3-2-1 Contact" presents a better language model than "Happy Days". (There is no reason to suspect that the two scripts analyzed are not representative of the shows as a whole.)

Television's Potential for Language Modeling

Successful encounters with reading and/or writing depend upon the learner having a solid oral language base (Halliday, 1975). To process written words, children must be familiar with oral language patterns, word meanings, and syntactic structures. Traditionally, interaction with the language of adults has provided a language model for children. Since so many of their hours are now spent watching television, children may be receiving a large part of their language model from the television shows that they view. While interaction with the TV set is impossible, can children at least be exposed to good language elements? This exposure is particularly important as children are asked to deal with more complicated language patterns in the upper grade years. Liberman's data indicate that commercial television does not provide a language model suitable for the demands placed on children's language abilities. My data indicate that public television shows offer more hope.

An examination of one of the analyzed shows, "National Geographic Special: Save the Panda", illustrates the language model presented. Because of the full and immediate context offered by the films of China, the show can start with the following complicated sentence and difficult vocabulary, without being incomprehensible to a younger viewer:

In the remote wilderness of central China, an
American scientist tracks an elusive animal in
its last refuge - the icy mountain ramparts
near the border of Tibet.

(Birch, 1983, p. 1; with
permission of WQED/Pittsburgh)

As the viewer sees the scientist searching for panda tracks, with the Himalayas in the background, s/he receives visual context for such words as "remote," "elusive," "refuge" and "ramparts." This learning experience is repeated innumerable times throughout the show, as viewers are exposed to words (all in meaningful context) such as "intrepid," "marauding," and "primitive" (as well as many scientific terms) embedded in complicated sentence patterns.

The language modeling offered by the five public television shows chosen for analysis is comparable to that of "National Geographic Special: Save the Panda". In "3-2-1 Contact", children learn words from the space program; in "Sesame Street", words such as "bizarre" and "composing" are in its lexicon; "Mister Rogers' Neighborhood" focuses on a trip to a watchmaker's, and

"Nova: Fat Chance in a Thin World" offers an exposure to semantic terms, coupled with an explanation, which must surely expand the vocabulary of any viewer. This vocabulary expansion is coupled with an attention to conceptual development—certainly television at its most powerful educational level. The average sentence length in "National Geographic Special: Save the Panda" and "Nova: Fat Chance in a Thin World" approach the average sentence length of 19.27 words for adult written material, and exceed the average sentence length for detective fiction of 12.76 (Kucera & Francis, 1967). Even the show aimed primarily at elementary school children, "3-2-1 Contact", approaches the verbal complexity of written language. Children must be exposed to this complex language before they are expected to read and process this language from print alone. Thus, these shows offer a language model comparable to the language required for processing print.

Implications

Since children spend more hours in front of the television than in school, television appears to be a powerful influence in their lives. Much educational research tends to ignore the effects of television; educators often seem to be wishing that television would just "go away". Unfortunately, television will not "go away", and educators must plan for its most efficacious use.

This article does not suggest that the best language model can be provided by television. The interactive component of language learning is totally missing from the television experience, for instance. Liberman's data indicate that commercial television shows offer a poor language model. If public television shows offer a better language model (as my data indicate), then hours spent watching "3-2-1 Contact", for example, may be more beneficial to a child's language growth than hours spent watching "Happy Days". Of course, hours spent engaged in language activities with an adult model would be most beneficial; however, this is often not the choice. Thus, if children are to spend considerable amounts of time watching television, adults should entice, cajole and urge them to spend time watching the television that provides the most in terms of language modeling. My data suggest that the five public television shows analyzed provide a superior language model than that provided by commercial television.

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COMPARING ACHIEVEMENT, ABILITY, WITH VISUAL MEMORY AND VISUAL ASSOCIATION

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship of achievement in reading, spelling and arithmetic with a variety of other measures, particularly tests of visual memory and visual-motor association. Eighty-seven boys and girls who were learning disabled and who were enrolled in grades two through six in a large urban school system participated in the study. All subjects were individually administered the following tests: Schonell's Graded Word Reading and Word Spelling Test, Form A; the Monroe-Sherman Arithmetic Computation Test, the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children—Revised; the Basic Visual-Motor Association Test; and the visual-memory subtest of Visual Perceptual Skills.

Results revealed that reading achievement is significantly and highly related to visual memory and moderately to all other measures (e.g., WISC-R Verbal, Performance, Full Scale I.Q. and coding). Moderate correlations were observed between reading achievement and visual memory. Spelling achievement was significantly correlated with visual association but only moderate correlations were observed between spelling and the remaining criterion variables. Arithmetic achievement was significantly but moderately related to visual association. No significant correlations were noted between arithmetic computations and the remaining variables. To sum up, the findings reported suggest that visual association is more closely related to achievement in reading, spelling and arithmetic than is visual memory.

Introduction

It is often difficult, if not impossible, to accurately determine the relationship between achievement in school related tasks and variables which ostensibly reflect processes underlying achievement. Nevertheless, studies which attempt to demonstrate such relationships are important in that they provide the basis for elucidating some of the important features underlying the role that memory and perception play in achievement in reading, spelling and arithmetic.

Perception can be seen as the process of extracting information from stimulation emanating from the objects, places and events

in the world around us. Processes involved in perceptual learning include abstraction of relations, ignoring irrelevant information, adaptive use of peripheral sense-organ adjustments, and reinforcement by discovery of structure and reduction of uncertainty (Gibson and Levin, 1975, p. 45).

It has often been asserted that inadequate perceptual-motor coordination is one of the factors that prevents children from learning to read successfully. However, the relationship between lack of achievement in reading and poor perceptual-motor coordination has not been established (Nielsen and Ringe, 1969).

Memory, on the other hand, can be characterized in terms of three components: encoding, storage and retrieval. In the case of visual memory, and individual must: (1) properly attend to and interpret the visual event; (2) store (or hold) effectively what he has encoded; and (3) be able to identify what has been originally encoded when that item or design is presented, or be able to gain access to what has been stored previously.

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship of achievement in reading, spelling and arithmetic with a variety of other measures, including tests of visual memory and visual-motor association.

Method

Eighty-seven boys and girls enrolled in grades two through six in a large metropolitan school system and who were referred to the school psychologist for assessment participated in the study. Ninety percent of the subjects in the study were experiencing problems in learning, with the remaining ten percent made up of referrals on the basis of emotional and behavioral problems. Sixty-five percent of the subjects were boys. All subjects were individually administered Schonell's Graded Word Reading Test, Form A, and Schonell's Graded Word Spelling Test, Form A (Schonell, 1942-55). In addition, all subjects were given the Monroe-Sherman Arithmetic Computation Test (1966), the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children—Revised 1974, the Basic Visual-Motor Association Test (1982), and the visual-memory subtest of the Test of Visual Perceptual Skills.

Schonell's Graded Word Reading Test and Graded Word Spelling Test, along with the Monroe-Sherman Arithmetic Computation Test, are commonly known as tests of achievement used to measure reading, spelling, and arithmetic ability respectively. The Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children—Revised is the most widely used standardized test of intelligence for children and youth aged six through sixteen years. This individual test of intelligence is used to measure verbal and performance abilities.

The Basic Visual-Motor Association test is a non-verbal visual association test which measures: (1) recall of visual symbols; (2) visual-association skills; (3) visual sequencing ability; (4) visual motor ability; (5) visual integrative ability, and (6) symbol integration. Form A has sixty upper case or capital

letters while Form B has sixty lower case or small letters. Both forms incorporate the same 10 stimulus symbols associated with the first ten letters of the alphabet. The testee is required to associate the appropriate symbol with the correct letter under specific time constraints.

The tests of visual-perceptual skills are non-verbal visual memory tests which measure: (1) visual discrimination; (2) visual memory; (3) visual spatial relationships; (4) visual form constancy (5) visual sequential memory; (6) visual figure-ground relationships; and (7) visual closure. The visual memory subtest of the tests of visual perceptual skills requires the testee to identify a geometric design which was previously presented independently from a group of figures comprised of four unlike designs of varying degrees of similarity.

Results

Table 1 (following page) presents the means and standard deviations of six criterion measures. Pearsonian correlations and significance associated with the means for the total group of subjects, males and females, on the six criterion measures are presented in Tables 2, 3, and 4 respectively.

The results show that reading achievement is significantly and highly related to visual association as measured by the Basic Visual-Association Test (Form A; $r = .70$; Form B; $r = .73$), moderately to the WISC-R Verbal I.Q. ($r = .46$); Performance I.Q. ($r = .39$); Full Scale I.Q. ($r = .49$), and coding ($r = .31$).

Moderate correlations were noted between reading achievement and visual memory as measured by the test of visual perceptual skills ($r = .45$). Spelling achievement was significantly and highly correlated to visual association (Form A; $r = .72$; Form B; $r = .74$), moderately to WISC-R Verbal I.Q. ($r = .46$), Performance I.Q. ($r = .46$), Full Scale I.Q. ($r = .51$), and coding ($r = .35$). Moderate correlation was noted with visual memory ($r = .41$).

Arithmetic achievement was significantly but moderately related to visual association (Form A; $r = .37$; Form B; $r = .42$), and weakly related to WISC-R Verbal I.Q. ($r = .32$), Full Scale I.Q. ($r = .25$), and coding ($r = .35$). No relationship was noted between arithmetic achievement and visual memory ($r = .06$).

Discussion

Results revealing that visual association correlated more highly with reading, spelling and arithmetic achievement suggest that visual association plays at least as important a role as I.Q. and visual memory in the achievement process. There is, however, another way of looking at the differences which exist between the test for visual association and the test for visual memory.

The test for visual memory is a test involving visual recognition of symbols whereas the test for visual association entails processes involving both recognition and recall. According to one hypothesis (Crowder, 1976), recognition is basically the same

TABLE 1
Means and Standard Deviations for All Groups of Subjects (N = 87)

Group	N	Schonell Reading	Monroe-Sherman		Verbal	WISC-R Performance	Full Scale	Visual Association		Visual Memory TVPS	
			Spelling	Arithmetic				A	B		
Total											
M	87	35.72	33.41	34.54	98.49	106.40	102.19	9.56	44.31	41.41	9.15
S.D.		20.29	20.52	27.26	16.71	15.32	15.21	3.22	14.63	15.12	2.69
Males											
M	57	37.44	36.00	32.23	100.16	108.69	104.35	9.30	43.08	40.73	9.71
S.D.		19.69	20.10	25.21	12.31	14.67	13.36	3.06	14.70	15.16	2.65
Females											
M	30	31.81	28.78	38.87	95.32	102.07	98.10	9.70	46.63	42.70	8.06
S.D.		21.64	21.01	31.13	19.99	15.85	17.75	3.58	14.45	15.21	2.47

Relationships Among Variables

TABLE 2
Correlations and Significance for All Subjects (N = 87)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Achievement										
1. Reading		.93 ^x	.26 ^t	.46 ^x	.39 ^x	.49 ^x	.31 ^x	.70 ^x	.73 ^x	.45 ^x
2. Spelling	.93 ^x		.25 ^t	.46 ^x	.45 ^x	.51 ^x	.35 ^x	.72 ^x	.74 ^x	.41 ^x
3. Arithmetic	.26 ^x	.25 ^t		.32 ^x	.12	.25 ^t	.35 ^x	.37 ^x	.42 ^x	.06
WISC-R IQ										
4. Verbal	.46 ^x	.46 ^x	.32 ^x		.60 ^x	.90 ^x	.48 ^x	.21 ^t	.28 ^x	.26 ^x
5. Performance	.39 ^x	.46 ^x	.12	.60 ^x		.87 ^x	.58 ^x	.31 ^x	.35 ^x	.56 ^x
6. Full Scale	.49 ^x	.51 ^x	.25 ^t	.90 ^x	.87 ^x		.58 ^x	.28 ^x	.34 ^x	.44 ^x
7. Coding	.31 ^x	.35 ^x	.35 ^x	.48 ^x	.58 ^x	.58 ^x		.29 ^x	.32 ^x	.38 ^x
Visual-Association										
8. A	.70 ^x	.72 ^x	.37 ^x	.21 ^t	.31 ^x	.28 ^x	.29 ^x		.95 ^x	.38 ^x
9. B	.77 ^x	.74 ^x	.42 ^x	.28 ^x	.35 ^x	.34 ^x	.32 ^x	.95 ^x		.41 ^x
Visual Memory										
10. tvps	.45 ^x	.41 ^x	.06	.26 ^x	.56 ^x	.44 ^x	.38 ^x	.38 ^x	.41 ^x	

xp = .10 Tp = .15

TABLE 3
Correlations and Significance for Males (n = 57)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Achievement										
1. Reading		.91	.13	.45 ^x	.43 ^x	.51 ^x	.32 ^x	.68 ^x	.71 ^x	.43 ^x
2. Spelling	.91 ^x		.15	.42 ^x	.50 ^x	.51 ^x	.38 ^x	.71 ^x	.74 ^x	.42 ^x
3. Arithmetic	.13	.15		.29 ^t	.17	.27	.39 ^x	.21	.26	.16
WTSC-R I.Q.										
4. Verbal	.45 ^x	.42	.29 ^t		.53 ^x	.88 ^x	.35 ^x	.25 ^t	.24 ^t	.24 ^t
5. Performance	.46 ^x	.50	.17	.53 ^x		.87 ^x	.49 ^x	.47 ^x	.44 ^x	.60 ^x
6. Full Scale	.51 ^x	.51	.27	.88 ^x	.87 ^x		.48 ^x	.40 ^x	.38 ^x	.47 ^x
7. Code	.32 ^t	.38 ^x	.39 ^x	.35 ^x	.49 ^x	.48 ^x		.31 ^x	.26 ^t	.40 ^x
Visual-Association										
8. A	.68 ^x	.71 ^x	.21	.25 ^t	.47 ^x	.40 ^x	.31 ^x		.95 ^x	.43 ^x
9. B	.71 ^x	.74 ^x	.26	.24 ^t	.44 ^x	.38 ^x	.26 ^t	.95 ^x		.45 ^x
Visual-Memory										
10. TVPS	.43 ^x	.42 ^x	.16	.24 ^t	.60 ^x	.47 ^x	.40 ^x	.43 ^x	.45 ^x	

xp = .10   tp = .05

TABLE 4
Correlations and Significance for Females (n = 30)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Achievement										
1. Reading		.95 ^x	.50 ^x	.49	.22	.44 ^x	.33	.77 ^x	.80 ^x	.45 ^x
2. Spelling	.95 ^x		.46 ^t	.53 ^x	.29	.48 ^t	.35	.77 ^x	.77 ^x	.31
3. Arithmetic	.50 ^t	.46 ^t		.40	.10	.29	.26	.58 ^x	.63 ^x	.06
WISC-R I.Q.										
4. Verbal	.49 ^t	.52 ^x	.40		.67 ^x	.93 ^x	.67 ^x	.26	.42 ^x	.24
5. Performance	.22	.29	.10	.67 ^x		.88 ^x	.77 ^x	.15	.30 ^t	.42 ^x
6. Full Scale	.44 ^t	.48 ^t	.29	.93 ^x	.88 ^x		.77 ^x	.23	.40 ^x	.35 ^t
7. Code	.33	.35	.25	.67 ^x	.77 ^x	.77 ^x		.26	.44 ^x	.38 ^t
Visual Association										
8. A	.77 ^x	.77 ^x	.58 ^x	.26	.15	.23	.26		.94 ^x	.44 ^x
9. B	.80 ^x	.77 ^x	.63 ^x	.42 ^x	.30 ^x	.40 ^x	.44 ^x	.94 ^x		.45 ^x
Visual-Memory										
10. TVPS	.45 ^t	.31	.07	.24	.42 ^x	.35 ^t	.38 ^t	.44 ^x	.45 ^x	

xp = .01^x tp = .05

as recall in that recognition involves a lower threshold than recall.

A second hypothesis (Slamecka, 1967) is that recall and recognition are the same except that recall entails an extra step. In recall the subject must first implicitly generate items that may have been on the list and then these generated items are subjected to a recognition test. In recognition, however, it is the test which provides the items to be recognized, saving the subject the generation process.

The visual association test, it would seem, is both a recognition and recall test. However, in addition to requiring these two steps, there are the additional requirements involving association, sequencing, visual-motor and symbol integration. Tasks of these dimensions should correlate more highly with reading and spelling achievement on the grounds that they are processes fundamental to reading and spelling. A recognition task, on the other hand, is not unlike the task demands associated with responding to items in a reading workbook where children are required to "look and locate" words through a process of visual recognition.

In sum, the findings reported in this study suggest that teachers be aware not only of the limited role that recognition plays in all aspects of achievement, but that achievement in reading, spelling and arithmetic does entail higher cognitive processing.

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INSTRUCTIONAL CLOZE: CONFRONTING SOME COMMON CONCERNS

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In the last ten years, the cloze procedure has increased in popularity as a respected and useful teaching tool. Current research indicates that this growing acclaim is warranted. A study by Sampson, Valmont, and Allen (1982) which attempted to explore how effective the cloze could be as an alternative to more traditional reading approaches is one example. The authors found the cloze to be a significant success in improving the reading comprehension and divergent production (the "fine tuning" of vocabulary) of a group of third-grade students who had received 1) sufficient exposure to cloze exercises, 2) ample teacher-guided discussions regarding the purpose and method of using the procedure, and 3) considerable practice using cloze. In the discussion accompanying the exercises in this study, synonyms were not only accepted but encouraged. Pupils soon learned that there are various ways, all essentially "correct," of expressing the same concept. A deeper understanding of the fine shades of meaning in the English language evolved.

After reviewing the literature on the cloze procedure written in the 70s, Jongsma (1980) altered his original dubious conclusions concerning the instructional value of the cloze. He suggested that the cloze procedure, though probably "no better or worse than conventional methods of reading instruction," was indeed a viable supplement—or alternative—to a regular reading program.

The versatility of the cloze in an instructional setting is almost limitless. Besides its obvious, well-sung value in specific reading areas, cloze can become a refreshing English lesson when differing deletion systems are used for particular parts of speech. Cloze can easily be transformed into a science or social studies review lesson when important words or key concepts are deliberately deleted from a text passage previously read and discussed. Deeper understandings emerge. Cloze can also be employed in foreign language study to increase syntactic awareness, or with fewer deletions, to encourage more careful reading of word problems in mathematics. Almost any written subject matter can become an effective cloze exercise which will foster increased understanding of that subject.

The current widespread approbation of the use of cloze instructionally presumes, in order for maximum success, that certain standard features are followed (Bortnick and Lopardo, 1973):

- 1) The students must first read the selected passage in its entirety to themselves, skipping over the blank spaces

- 2) The students must then reread the passage, this time filling in the blanks as they appear
- 3) The students must then engage in a discussion about the deleted words, freely offering their own responses
- 4) The teacher then accepts and praises appropriate synonyms, explaining how unsuitable responses could change the semantics or syntax of the sentence
- 5) The teacher then guides the students in comparing the passage students have jointly completed with the original
- 6) The teacher may then wish to evaluate the correct responses
  - Below 37% correct—frustration level
  - Below 47% correct—instructional level
  - Over 57% correct—independent level

In following the above procedures, much success has been noted by English and reading teachers, yet two major concerns with the approach have consistently been voiced.

The first concern relates to the "impulsive child" of whom there appear to be at least a few in every elementary classroom. This type of child seems reluctant to complete the first step in the execution of the cloze; that is, (s)he tends not to read all the way through the cloze passage first before filling in the deletions, thus missing much important information which might have been gleaned from an initial overview. This situation can often be rectified with a pre-introduction of the cloze via the "musical cloze." Any selection of music with which the students are thoroughly familiar can be utilized for this purpose. A Christmas carol, for example, would be tape-recorded with every third note deleted (leaving no lines intact) to produce a quasi-cloze format. Simply by playing the first several unconnected notes alone, children prone to rash guessing will begin to see that the blank notes are dependent on additional insight—caught by listening to the entire recording. When the whole passage is subsequently played, the students can then employ the process of "closure" to complete the musical piece. While this "musical cloze" is clearly a more perceptual and less a cognitive process than a regular reading cloze exercise, the rough analogy can be useful. The activity may be the "little extra" that is needed to stress the importance of thoroughly reading a cloze passage before attempting to complete the blank spaces.

A second concern with instructional cloze is a frequent lament from teachers that cloze has a tendency to frustrate students who are used to "perfect papers," or others who become devastated by what they erroneously perceive as "failure." These comments can be readily understood when one considers that a student need only get approximately half of the responses correct to achieve what the teacher will call a "good" score—one that would measure the material as instructionally appropriate. Obviously, with students conditioned to the system that 90% or better is a "good" score, a score of 50% on a cloze exercise would not engender a feeling of success.

One solution aimed at avoiding this frustration of students is through a careful emphasis of the discussion phase of the cloze procedure, as in the Sampson, Valmont, and Allen study. Students consistently praised and positively reinforced for certain "rich" words offered as synonyms may learn to view this type of "reward" as a viable trade-off for the more traditional reinforcement of a high score.

Another approach that has proven helpful in combatting the frustration sometimes caused by cloze is a variation of that procedure called "Clozentropy" (Hittleman, 1976). This modification of cloze does not rigidly compare the responses of students to those contained in the original material; instead, all responses are considered "correct" if the members of a criterion group, made up of peers, agree they are correct. Logically, similar words are more apt to be generated by like-minded peers than those words chosen carefully by experienced writers. Thus, students may enjoy a bit more success.

Finally, care must be taken to ensure that students learn to regard the cloze as a non-threatening exercise with a "game-like" challenge, in some ways similar to that of a favorite video game. Students should be guided toward thinking of a cloze exercise not as a "test" with all its negative connotations, but rather as an open-ended "contest" in which the student's aim is to continually better his/her own performance with constant practice.

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QUESTIONS TO ASSIST IN DESIGNING SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

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Have you ever walked into an elementary classroom and thought you were in the Christmas display window of an F.A.O. Schwartz toy store? The teacher is, putting it mildly, creative and talented at making materials. Many of us are not this gifted, yet want to generate supplementary materials of the teacher-made variety for our own students. This is a good reason for becoming involved in designing and producing materials. A second and even more practical reason is to help solve a real problem: the classroom is deficient in materials and there is little or no financial support available. What would you do in a similar situation?

Do not, cautions Mangieri, "throw in the towel instructionally (1980, p. 20)." Instead, realize that we don't often have maximum conditions for instruction. Continue to request funds for what you feel you need and, at the same time, adapt parts of previously used materials and begin to make other materials. "Assume a spirit of adventure about find and adapting readily available, free and inexpensive materials (Stahl, p. 71)."

Questions First

Our reasons are clear—we want and need additional materials—and we are ready to begin. Almost. In order to avoid unnecessary complications later, it's critical at this point to consider your rationale for choosing the materials you want to design or adapt. Your accumulated experiences in the classroom should help you answer these questions about the three "C's": Concepts, content, clients.

First, what are the major concepts you want to teach? If the concepts are important enough, you'll need to devote extra time to reinforcing them throughout the typical school day. It stands to reason then, that any supplementary materials—whether they are vocabulary match games or newspaper feature stories to model—ought to relate to the concept.

Second, how complex is the content and how is it organized? As you analyze the content of your social studies unit for example, is the information presented clearly and in such a way that the most important information is easy to extract? Or, as is often the case, do you have to select certain sections and present them to the class first? Brainstorming, categorizing information, even expanding a neglected piece of content through newspaper "advertising" are activities that require some prepared supplementary materials to sustain them.

Third, what is its value to your student clients and how familiar are they with it? Here, the supplementary material itself comes under scrutiny. If it doesn't help reinforce instructional concepts and/or help you deliver portions of content, should it be allotted any instructional time? If, on the other hand, it does promise to extend concepts or support content, are your particular students familiar enough with it (rules, routine) to know what to do without taking up extra direct teaching time?

With answers to these common-sense questions at your fingertips, you should be able to design appropriate materials in any of the categories which follow.

Games

One obvious benefit that comes with playing instructional games in the classroom is instant motivation. It's a change of pace, even in the classroom where every Friday morning from 10:00 to 11:00 Concentration or Challenge of Champions or College Bowl is played. There are few surprises in store for the players except one—Who are the winners? Secondly, games provide skill practice and "the best way to acquire most skills is to begin early and practice them often" (Harris and Smith, 1980, p. 404). Combining these two thoughts produces a good answer to the question: "Why are games so popular?" Answer: Students will be reinforcing skills and having a good time doing it.

The most often used type of game over the years has been flash cards or game boards plus word cards. Card games and spin-the-dial or shake-the-dice board games are used to assist students in categorizing, reviewing vocabulary meanings, sequencing, etc.

The cost of teacher-made games is not necessarily less than commercial materials, if durability and professional appearance are taken into consideration (Snyder, 1981). Changing a familiar commercial game or favorite "old" game into a new one is easier to do than starting from scratch. Amount of teacher time, perhaps more than any other factor, needs to be considered. If the game is worthwhile to your students, it's worth spending some time making it. How can you judge the relative importance of the concept being practiced to your students' learning?

One illustration of this might be a teacher who holds a top-down belief about reading and is concerned about what she perceives is an overemphasis on phonics in many materials in her classroom. Her goal was to help her students practice translating visual symbols into meaning. Deciding it was worth the time, she developed a whole language reading game for her second graders. Based on a favorite book they had read, there were different colored game cards for comprehension, synonym substitution, sentence completion and chunks of meaning.

The Newspaper

For years, teachers at all levels and virtually all subject areas have made some instructional use of the newspaper. Whether it's looking at classified ads, cutting out comic strips or buying

a classroom subscription to a major newspaper, students have been exposed to the newspaper as part of their school experience.

Newspapers, as do games, seem to generate enthusiasm in the classroom. They also provide a good resource to develop, reinforce and refine reading skills, especially comprehension. And, as a bonus—newspapers are a good way to communicate with parents when homework assignments are based on newspapers (Criscuolo, 1981).

Two efficient methods for designing newspaper activities are to 1) begin with a particular competency your students need to work toward and select different parts of the paper for the activities; or 2) begin with the various parts of the paper and develop activities according to your students' competency needs. To illustrate, the following are examples designed in keeping with the two methods mentioned:

1) From Comprehension Skill to Newspaper Section

Remembering - Activity to help students focus on information explicitly stated.

-Follow a sports team by recording their progress on sports pages.

-Read an article on front page, noting the 5 W's. Write a summary paragraph using the data.

Inferring - Activity to help students conjecture about what is not explicitly stated.

-Examine ads in any section and determine for whom they are intended and how words are used to sell.

Evaluating - Activity to help students make and support judgment about what they have read.

-Determine the point of view of a sports column or editorial on editorial page. Evaluate that position.

Appreciating - Activity to help students become personally involved as they read.

-Read any human interest story in national or local news and respond empathetically in writing.

-Write a story or poem in response to a feature story.

2) From Newspaper Section to Reading Skill

Lost and Found - Find and read the ads. Write a story behind one of the ads pretending to be the animal or item lost.

Comic Strip - Choose a favorite comic strip character and use as many adjectives as possible to describe the character.

Sale Items - Children choose an item of their own that they would like to sell. After reading the classified ads under "For Sale" to see what information is given, a four-line ad is written to help sell the item (Criscuolo).

The advantages of newspapers range from their minimal cost, source of fresh ideas, different reading levels, to their appeal to younger and older students. As the teaching

ideas above illustrate, writing instruction as well as reading can be highlighted. Finally, one more important benefit of newspapers in the classroom is their natural appeal to the multiple cultures in our society; teachers can use newspapers to help bridge cultural differences (Shields, 1980).

Television

Teachers and parents have become acutely aware in the last few years or so that school age children spend many hours watching television. There is evidence to suggest that a person's television interests serve a purpose just as book interests do; each medium satisfies a different need. For example, Schramm, et al (1961) reported a decrease over time in the use of comic books and radio (fantasy need) while book use remained the same (information need). One survey (Feeley, 1974) of intermediate grade students revealed associations between reading and information and between television and entertainment; sports viewers read about sports.

An extension of this line of inquiry is whether or not students' preferences for reading or television are related to the quality of their reading choices. Fourth, fifth and sixth graders studied by Neuman (1982) who were classified as "heavy TV - light reading" tending to choose books of lower quality than the other groups. It behooves us, then, as teachers and parents to 1) provide stimulating, high-quality reading materials; and 2) develop television literacy at home and in school.

Learning about advertising techniques, learning how to make decisions about programs to watch, learning about the equipment behind the scenes at television studios are areas where teachers and parents can intervene. Obtaining scripts of popular programs available from networks, some teachers direct plays from the episodes or organize actual "productions" of TV shows.

Another plus, one that corresponds to the use of the newspaper, is that television "exposes children to language not used in their community" (DeHaven, 1982, p. 482). It helps them expand their vocabularies and sentence patterns but, most importantly, television takes children to different cultures. The problem is, in the final analysis, not one of too much or too little television time. The real problem is the quality of that time. Do we use television as an effective way of improving communication or do we shun it instructionally as a mindless, spectator sport?

Conclusion - What About Microcomputers

It's quickly becoming a moot point whether to purchase or not to purchase a microcomputer for your elementary school. They are here and the real question, I believe, is how can we use the microcomputer to provide good reading instruction? As P. David Pearson put it during a recent speech... "We would like more from computer programs than 'electronic workbooks.' There is a need for software that allows for the reader as writer and the writer as reader to interact with printed language. Word processing equipment has this potential."

Software, just as games, the newspaper and television supplementary material need to make sense instructionally in order to be worth the investment in time and money. They should make sense to classroom teachers who ask questions about major concepts, content, and value to clients.

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READING ABOUT 'READING'

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The centrality of an abundance of books to the task of learning to read is undisputed. No-one writes a book about reading without stressing the importance of experiences with books. Some authors claim that general fiction books alone are sufficient in order to teach a child to read (Bennett, 1979 and Moon, 1977), while others make strong claims for the role of the reading scheme.

Neither reading schemes, nor general fiction books, have escaped critical scrutiny. Explorations of children's books for racism, sexism, ageism, and countless other 'isms' are frequent. The underlying assumption of all those explorations is that there is a relationship between the books and the behaviour of the children who read them. There seems little disagreement amongst authors (although there is, in fact, little actual evidence) that the behaviour of children is influenced by what they read.

It is the way books represent aspects of life that is actually examined. The frequency and form of particular images are often the critical features under consideration, and it is often the frequency and form which are claimed to indicate the status of certain values or beliefs.

It is difficult to understand why, if this aspect is so important, that no-one has seriously considered whether the way literacy itself is represented can influence children's understanding of, beliefs about, and attitudes towards reading and writing.

Considerable efforts are made to make books attractive. They have bright covers, interesting contents and, usually, high quality illustrations. And yet it is not difficult to wonder whether the contents of children's books really reinforce the notion, surely held by publishers, teachers and parents, that reading and writing are purposeful and important activities. The reason for 'wondering' is simple—characters in children's books hardly ever engage in literacy acts.

Where many children are concerned such anxiety is irrelevant. Such children come from homes where they are surrounded by purposeful literacy activity. Their parents continually engage in literacy acts and frequently discuss that behaviour with their children. Many of those children are already well on the road to being readers by the time they start school. They

know that literacy has both general and particular purposes.

Too many children, however, do not experience those benefits and it is likely to be those children who reject literacy as being devoid of personal significance. Such children may well have had few positive literacy experiences. Their parents may be illiterate or uncomfortable with literacy, and there may be few, if any, books in the house. When those children arrive in school they are not so eager to learn to read. Indeed, many of them are unclear about what reading is or why it is important. The research of Reid (1965) and Downing (1970a), and other subsequent research, makes it clear that some children attach little significance to literacy and have little understanding of its purpose.

Frances (1982) studied closely, over a period of two years, the literacy progress of ten children. She wrote 'the major problems of understanding the nature of reading and of learning to read which faced at least five of the ten children were based on the combination of finding the task in school somewhat incomprehensible and of having no particularly relevant prior or background experience to draw on.'

How are these children to become aware that literacy is a purposeful activity? How are they to become aware of the kinds of activities that constitute literacy?

Sensitive teachers recognize the difficulties and attempt to create a climate in which literacy activities have meaning for children. Teachers read to children and provide good books. They label pictures and objects in the classroom, and they introduce children to writing by basing it around the children's own experiences. In doing this teachers are attempting to convey the message that learning to read has validity. The message is that reading is of importance and is purposeful; but do the books to which children are exposed fully support this message?

There is clear evidence, from both the United States and Britain, that the majority of reading schemes do not fulfill their potential for clarifying children's ideas about reading. Snyder (1979) examined ten basal series and concluded that the books were failing to provide the message that reading was 'necessary, valuable, and pleasant'. Hall (1983) examined six British reading schemes and concluded that their message is that 'Reading is a marginal activity, certainly not very functional, highly school-based, and not particularly pleasureable; all the characteristics of a low status activity'. This certainly is not the message intended by the editors, authors and publishers - but is it the message children actually get?

On the whole, characters in reading schemes simply do not read and write. On those few occasions when they do, the reading or writing is either school based or utterly decontextualized. It therefore carries little social meaning. It is extremely rare for any character to read in order to achieve a predetermined purpose.

It is unfortunately very easy for children to divide the world into things that they are forced to do and things that have personal significance. School activities are easily subsumed within the first category if the child lacks the broader understanding that school is a means to an end. Children with limited understanding about literacy are likely to perceive the task of learning to read as a purely instructional activity; something in which they are made to participate by teachers. It may not be seen as an activity invested with personal meaning or having particular purposes.

Teachers need all the help they can get to aid these children develop their understanding of literacy. In America and Britain, Reading Schemes, in failing to illustrate literacy in action, are not providing as much as they could. Downing (1970b) wrote that teachers should 'Reject materials and schemes which give children a false impression of the purpose and relevance of reading and writing.' If teachers carried out Downing's request, what would be left?

The search for materials in which, as Downing (1970b) put it, 'the content is focussed on helping children to understand the communicative purpose of the written form of language', led to a recent survey of 1500 picture books. Picture books are likely to be the form of book most frequently encountered by pre-school children. Do they show children the 'communicative purpose' of print? No, they do not. Only by stretching the definition of a picture book, and by including some picture books more suitable for older children, was it possible to generate a list of 26 books that conveyed positive and consistent images of literacy in action.

As in the reading schemes characters seldom read or wrote. There were instances of books which featured environmental print but too often this was completely incidental to the theme. Frequently the attempt to provide environmental print had proved too much for the illustrator; newspapers had lines indicating chunks of text, and labels and signs were often lines of illegible scribble. Books did sometimes have single instances of literacy behaviour but again these were frequently incidental and had little purpose.

It would be unreasonable to expect every picture book to feature extensive and appropriate portrayal of literacy acts. There is certainly no point destroying a good story for the sake of being didactic. But this surely does not mean that more books cannot involve literacy in a purposeful way. That it can be done is evidenced by the 26 books found in the survey.

It is likely that picture books are not the only offenders. D'Angelo (1983) examined Caldecott and Newbery medal winning books. She considered the extent to which they had the power to influence children's understandings about literacy. She found that, with very few exceptions, these distinguished and popular books did not feature literate behaviour.

Thus it seems that the overall impression is that the contents of books do not carry too many positive messages about their own functions. They do not, through the contents, demonstrate many of the vast range of purposes for reading and writing.

Books are only a part of the experience that teachers provide and there are, of course, many positive aspects of books regardless of whether their content carries messages about literacy. There is, however, a peculiar and sad irony that the contents of books should be so deficient at representing literacy in a meaningful way.

The point of this article is not to suggest that children should suddenly be deluged with books containing forced stories based around contrived literacy events. Children's books must first and foremost be good books. However, it is surely reasonable to request that authors and publishers give consideration to increasing the availability and number of books which do demonstrate that literacy has a purpose, that it is a valued activity, and that it is a worthwhile activity; in other words, books that show literacy as having all the attributes of a high status activity.

If, as many people believe, children can be influenced by the content of books, then why not, more often, allow these attitudes towards, and beliefs about, literacy be influenced. Are there more positive educational acts than helping young children appreciate the nature, purpose and pleasure of being literate? Teachers of reading would do well to look at the books in use in their classrooms and ask if they really do help present the acts of reading and writing as being varied, important and enjoyable. Do they really enable children to read about reading?

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ILLUSTRATIVE AIDS IMPROVE READING

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If the saying is true that "a picture is worth a thousand words" we can logically expect pictures to be very helpful in facilitating reading comprehension. In fact, research has shown that pictures can and do increase comprehension, but only under certain conditions. Many pictures, for example, serve merely as a decorative function, either to make the text more saleable or to promote interest on the part of the reader. These pictures have not been seen to increase comprehension.

In many cases, however, pictures or illustrations have helped readers understand more adequately. These have been reviewed in detail by Levin (1981). A positive use of illustrations we wish to describe here is the use of "spatial organization" (e.g., maps) to provide a visual reference for prose content. It has been seen that map-like illustrations of events in the passage can increase comprehension by providing a spatial framework on which the reader can "hook" new information. Schwartz and Kulhavy (1981) manipulated the type of map-like illustration learners reviewed while they read related prose passages. One group of learners saw a map which contained features from the prose passage in a spatially organized fashion; another group viewed a map which contained the identical features listed randomly along the outside edge of the map. Learners who viewed the spatially organized map not only recalled more information from the passage that was directly related to the features on the map, but also recalled more information not directly related to the map features.

It is important to note that although the feature-related information was taken directly from the passage, the location of the features on the map was not critical information for the learner to know. In other words, the fact that the features from the story were given in a spatially organized format was more important than where the features were located. This finding has also been seen with learning disabled as well as gifted students (Mastropieri, Peters, Kulhavy, & Lee, 1982; Mastropieri & Scruggs, 1983).

It has also been seen that in the absence of provided illus-

trations, readers can draw their own "maps" to increase their comprehension of the passage. Dean and Kulhavy (1981) found that learners who were required to construct their own map-like device while listening to a story recalled substantially more information from the story than learners who were not instructed to draw a map.

Thus it appears that at least two methods can be used by teachers to assist their students in recalling more information from prose content. First, teachers could present information from a covered passage in a spatially organized map. If the class, for example, was about to read a story which describes a girl living on a tropical island, the teacher might draw on the chalkboard or overhead projector features from the story (village, river, mountain) in a spatially organized format. Even if the features are not located exactly where the author intended, comprehension of the story would probably increase. Also, maps for non-fiction areas such as biology can be drawn to increase comprehension. Different classes of vertebrates, shown in a spatial relationship can be drawn, for example, before the class reads a chapter on vertebrates.

Second, students can be instructed to construct their own maps while reading a passage. Since a picture of the feature seems to aid comprehension more than the label, student should be helped to draw simple pictures or representations of the feature and locate them in a map-like format. These procedures may be extremely helpful to students having difficulty with reading comprehension. Examples of the kind of drawings students could be encouraged to create are shown in Figures 1 to 3.

In summary, one specific form of illustration which has been found to increase comprehension is a spatially organized map, which can be drawn either by teachers or students. The reasons such maps benefit comprehension are uncertain and have even sparked some debate concerning the manner in which information is encoded. It is clear, however, that the use of spatially organized maps does facilitate the recall of related prose content. Since this is a relatively simple and inexpensive instructional tool for teachers to manipulate, we recommend that teachers use maps to increase recall of reading material.

On the following two pages, we present typical examples of what students (or teachers) might do to enhance comprehension while reading. Drawings do not have to be sophisticated, only the spatial organization must be carefully and accurately done. This is an aspect of reading skills improvement to which we need to give more consideration!

Figure 1. "Map" of a story about a fictional island.

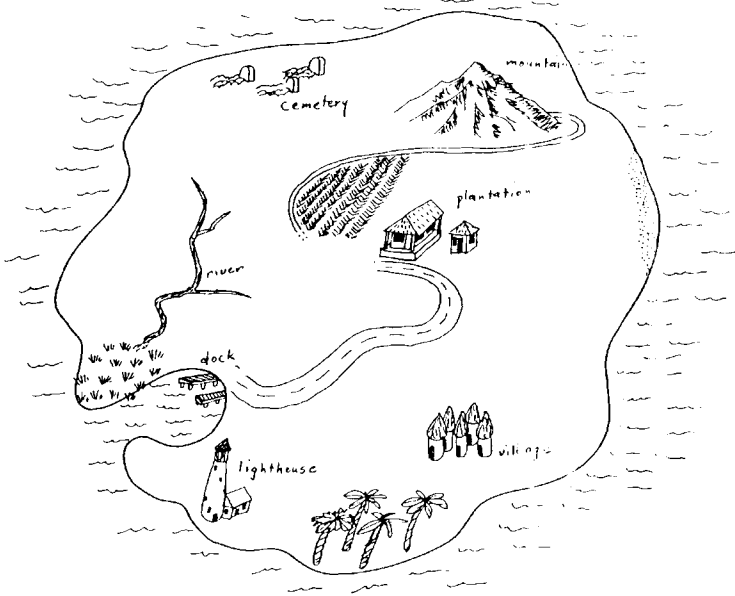


Figure 2. Drawing of a mystery story.

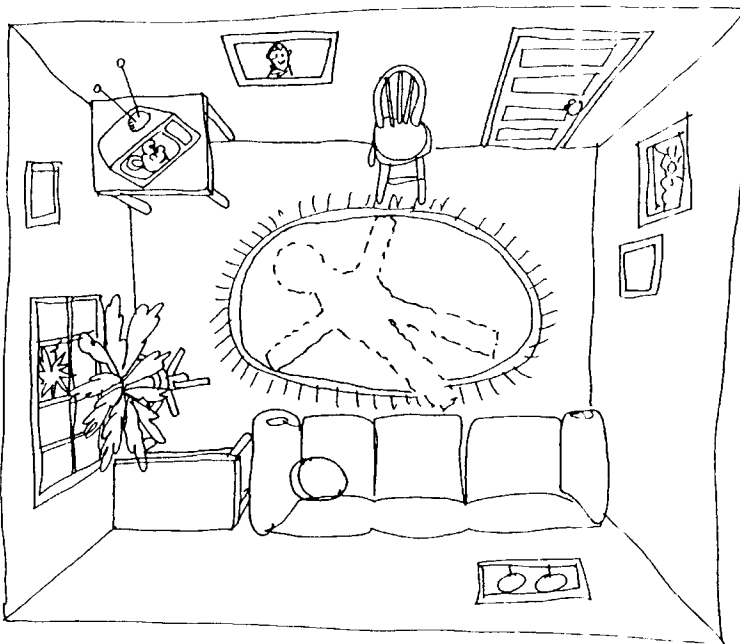
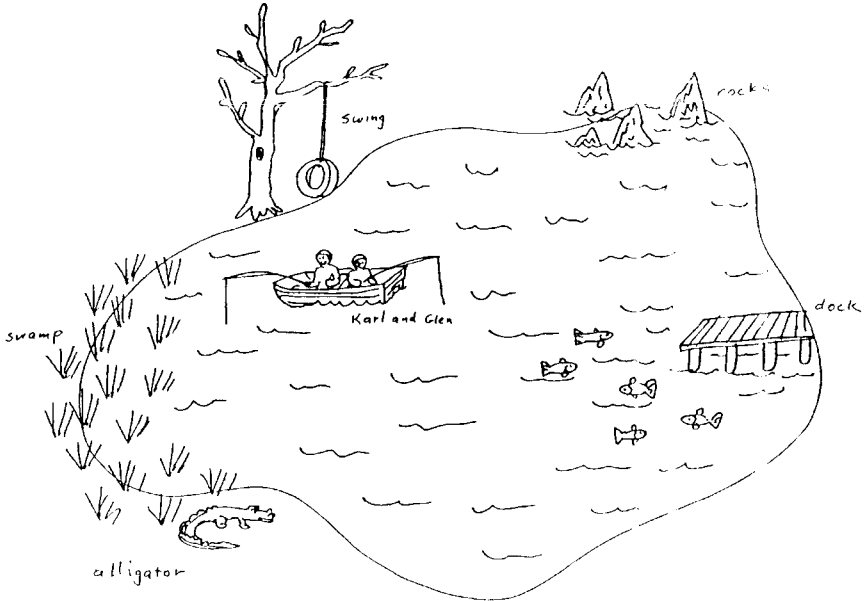


Figure 3. Drawing of a fishing story.



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CHANGING PERSPECTIVES ON CONTEXT

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Recently I visited a number of third grade classrooms during reading instruction. In one, the teacher had placed the following diagram on the chalkboard:

pay	ADD <u>ment</u>	payment
amuse	ADD <u>ment</u>	amusement
adorn	ADD <u>ment</u>	adornment
achieve	ADD <u>ment</u>	achievement
place	ADD <u>ment</u>	placement

One child could not pronounce the word achieve. The teacher used phonics to help the child unlock the word. Then the teacher pointed out to the children that the ment suffix changed the original words from verbs to nouns. Although the children were asked to use both the original verbs and the resulting nouns in sentences, the lesson, by and large, was decontextualized. The words had not been selected from meaningful reading material. They were not introduced by the teacher in sentences. The teacher was using the words simply as instructional tools to illustrate how a small part of the English language works.

In a second classroom, the children were engaged in a cloze activity, attempting to predict the missing words in a series of unrelated sentences on the chalkboard. The children appeared to be attending to both grammar and meaning to determine which words best fit the blanks in the sentences. In some cases, a number of words were suitable for the same blank, and the pupils were actively engaged in discussing how different words slightly changed the meanings and the implications of some sentences. Clearly, context played a larger role in this activity than in the first. The children were using the surrounding words of each sentence to help them determine a missing word. They were also using their own life experiences to perceive the nuances of meaning a particular choice imparted to a specific sentence. The sentences, however, were not a part of continuous text. Therefore, the children were not learning how segments of text both before and after a sentence could constrain the predictions they were making.

In a third classroom, the children were discussing the word "piskie" found in the title of a Cornish folktale they were going to read afterwards. Since the story was a folktale, they suggested that "piskie" probably referred to some type of magical creature. The teacher directed the discussion so that specific predictions were made regarding the nature of a "piskie." After silent reading,

the children discussed which predictions were substantiated. Then the children noted a number of words in their reading that caused confusion. The teacher had the children re-read parts of the story to show how the meanings of the words could be ascertained by surrounding segments of text, and sometimes by clues found in both preceding and subsequent paragraphs. She also pointed out how the general intent of one of the unknown words could be inferred by considering the character who spoke the word in the story, the purpose of his message, and the effect the entire utterance had on another character in the story. Since the folktale was brief, the children were encouraged to embellish upon unstated episodes that could link the incident explicitly stated in the tale. Different suggestions were offered, and each was evaluated in terms of the ultimate resolution of the plot, characteristics of the personages of the tale, and the specific details that would support or reject each imagined happening. The teacher then called attention to structural characteristics of the original tale, and pointed out how the plot pattern of the Cornish story was similar to another folk story the class had read recently. The class then divided into groups; one to construct a chart comparing and contrasting major elements of the two folk tales they had read, another to plan a dramatization of one of the stories, still another to write an original story using the same type of plot pattern, and a final group to plan murals depicting major events from both tales.

Clearly context was playing a broader role in this classroom than in the first and second classrooms. Elements within and beyond the sentence were used to foster comprehension. The children's knowledge of how normal conversation flows and how the roles of speakers influence the language they use was employed to assist understanding. The comparison of two tales encouraged the children to relate their present reading experience to what they had read in the past. The children were encouraged to use both textual and real-world experiences to make inferences about the story. A variety of contextual elements were used by the teacher immersing the children in a dynamic learning event. The students were actively involved in relating, interpreting, extrapolating, comparing, contrasting, and creating. At the conclusion of the activities based on the Cornish story, it could even be said that the narrative itself was extended beyond the pages of the book in which it was found. Instead of treating the story as a number of episodes tied together by theme, motif, and character, the children embedded their reading in the oral story tradition, their own life experiences, and the on-going life of their classroom. The text was no longer merely a bearer of specific information; it was the stimulus for the creation of personal and social meaning.

The three classrooms described above are mirrors of different interpretations of the role of context in reading instruction. Additionally, they reflect a change of perspective on context which has occurred during the past two decades. Previously, reading specialists used the term context to refer to clues within passages that could help readers identify words or determine their meanings.

Today context no longer refers only to adjacent words or sentences in a text. Nor is it merely one of several word attack subskills. Context is a broader and more dynamic term referring to many contextual elements—some within the text, some within the reader, some within the environment, and how all of them influence the unique meanings constructed by individual readers when they comprehend what they read.

The purpose of this article is to show how older, largely context-free models of reading and its instruction became changed into a multidimensional, context-dependent orientation toward written language and the reading process. This change was influenced by an identical trend in linguistics, which also shifted from an over-reliance upon isolated pieces of language to a study of naturalistic, connective texts (Kintsch, 1974). The article concludes with suggestions for using a variety of contextual strategies to increase reading comprehension.

Older Models of the Reading Process

Older models of the reading process saw written text as a linear visual arrangement of alphabetic symbols standing in place of oral language. The print contained the message, and readers had only to translate the written text into the sounds of language for comprehension to occur. If readers could not understand what they could pronounce, either a language deficit and/or a thinking problem was the cause (Bloomfield & Barnhart, 1961).

Older models of reading also implicitly divided readers into two groups—beginning and skilled readers. Although it was assumed that a continuum existed between the novice and the proficient reader, the task of learning to read was viewed as primarily one of "cracking the code," that is, of learning how to pronounce the words in books. It was recommended that the text itself be over simplified to make the task easier.

Although a variety of different approaches were advocated as the most efficient method to help children learn how to pronounce the words found in text, all of them assumed the text contained the meaning and that beginning readers progress by mastering the smaller units of text first (i.e., letters and/or words) and then proceeding to interact in sequence with larger units of discourse (i.e., sentences, passages, brief stories). The result of this orientation was a decontextualized approach to instruction: isolated drill and practice in ditto sheets and workbooks with an emphasis on the bits and pieces of written language. Even the use of pictures in beginning readers was suspect, for they cued the pronunciation of words. Reading instruction became to a considerable extent context-free.

The Beginning of the Change

Although an over-reliance on word identification had its early critics (Lefevre, 1964; Lee and Allen, 1963; Stauffer, 1969), it was not until the implications of generative grammar became clear that a fundamental shift in thinking occurred. The work of Chomsky (1965) indicated that the surface form of language

(language as it is actually heard or read) is different from its deep structure (the underlying grammatical relationships which determine the "meaning" of a given sentence). Chomsky cited ambiguous sentences to show that a sentence may have more than one meaning; he also pointed out how the same meaning may be expressed in different surface forms. From this perspective, therefore, merely pronouncing the words of a sentence correctly does not guarantee that its meaning has been understood. Readers must interact with what they are reading to comprehend the underlying grammatical relationships of words within sentences to understand the message of a text (Larkin, 1979).

Under the influence of generative grammar, syntax played a larger role in reading research. Many studies were conducted to determine how different grammatical arrangements impeded or facilitated reading comprehension (Huggins, 1977). Although the reader came to be viewed as a more active participant in the reading process, the text itself, however, was still viewed as the source of meaning, the sentence (rather than letters and words) being the primary contextual influence.

Toward a New Perspective

Insights from generative grammar motivated reading researchers to understand what readers actually do when they interact with text. Goodman (1977) observed that the exact words of a text were not always pronounced by readers. Proficient readers sometimes substituted and omitted words, but retained the underlying meaning of the text. Goodman found that readers selectively used three language systems to make predictions as they interacted with what they were reading: syntax, semantics, and graphophonic patterns. Many readers also transformed the language of books into their own dialects. Text, therefore, could no longer be viewed as a precise, static entity which must be responded to in an exact fashion.

Research also indicated that the idea of a dichotomy between beginning and fluent readers was an over-simplification. Smith (1978) asserted that the same factors that operate in fluent reading also occur in beginning reading. Memorization of letter names, sounds, phonic rules, spelling patterns and word lists were no longer recommended as standard instructional procedures for beginners. Naturalistic, connected text (particularly children's stories with highly predictable sentences and language experience materials) were recommended as vehicles for instruction. Learners were seen as needing more context rather than less in order to become better players of a "psycholinguistic guessing game" (Goodman, 1967).

These developments in reading research paralleled the interest in connected discourse in the field of linguistics. Stories were shown to have organizational patterns used by readers in comprehension (Mandler & Johnson, 1977; Marshall & Glock, 1978; Rumelhart, 1975; Stein & Glenn, 1979). Cohesiveness was studied (Halliday & Hasan, 1976), and models were developed to analyze how the underlying propositions of text were connected and related (Grimes, 1975;

Frederiksen, 1975). More and more, multidisciplinary research supported Goodman and Goodman's finding that words were more easily read than sentences, and that sentences were more easily read when embedded within connected discourse (1977). More, not less, context was seen to foster comprehension, even with beginning readers.

The Final Refinement

Factors other than those within the text itself were shown to influence comprehension. Research on inferences and schema studies from the Center for the Study of Reading indicated that readers bring their own perspectives to bear on what they read (Spiro, 1980). Background experiences, values, personal characteristics, purposes, conceptual levels, cultural expectations—all play significant roles in guiding what readers expect, comprehend, recall, and apply from their reading.

An adequate model of reading, therefore, must see written language as a blueprint for the creation of meaning (Spiro, 1980). Although texts do constrain the types of meanings readers construct they are no longer regarded as fully explicit. Readers (with their own particular background of knowledge, interest, attitudes, purpose) restructure, interpret, integrate, and evaluate the writer's intent according to their own purpose at the time of reading. Context is no longer a handmaiden of reading instruction, but the entire domain in which the reading act occurs.

Recommended Teaching Practices

The following teaching practices seem to reflect the orientation that context of various kinds exerts a powerful effect on reading comprehension.

(1) Treat all children as readers when they enter your classroom. Research has indicated that even pre-schoolers can respond meaningful or "orchestrate" some printed signs (Harste, Burke & Woodward, 1981). For example, young children respond to labels on cereal boxes and candy, television titles, environmental signs, names of popular toys, their own names. Print is everywhere in a literate society. It is a part of the everyday context of the lives of children. As members of a highly literate culture, children know a great deal about written language. Expand on what children already know to lead them to a higher level of literacy.

(2) Use dictated stories, experience charts, and much writing (diaries, stories, scripts) with developing readers. In that way, you are assured of a match between children's own experiences and their texts, and you are also involving them in the creation as well as the interpretation of written discourse.

(3) Teach reading skills in the context of natural reading. Isolated practice sessions on skills should be used sparingly, only when individual readers have shown the need for such instruction during the process of reading meaningful text.

(4) Encourage children to predict or define their own purposes for reading a selection. Let them evaluate and revise their predictions as reading proceeds. The Directed Reading-Thinking Activity

(DR-TA) developed by Stauffer (1969) is one procedure teachers can use to encourage readers to become involved in their reading. Another procedure which develops abilities to ask questions and sets purposes for reading is the ReQuest Procedure developed by Manzo (1968). In this strategy, the teachers and students silently read sections of a selection and then take turns asking and answering each other's questions. Children should be guided initially in the ability to formulate questions that go beyond that of factual recall.

(5) Build experiences before reading many selections. Use what children already know as the starting point for pre-reading discussions. Have the children themselves work on an "idea framework" or conceptual chart showing relationships among the ideas they already know and understand about a topic. Enlarge the chart to incorporate whatever information is vital to the understanding of a selection. This procedure is an adaptation of the Structured Overview Strategy developed by Earle (1969).

(6) Most of the time, permit the children to read silently a cohesive story all the way through. Tell them to make predictions about unknown words and to substitute synonyms in the service of meaning. Later go back to analyze some of these predictions, permitting students to confirm or to self-correct their own substitutions.

(7) Construct cloze exercises as teaching devices to help pupils utilize syntactic, semantic and graphophonic clues. At first, it may be necessary to use single sentences, and a maze technique (i.e., a multiple choice format) rather than completely blank spaces. Early cloze exercises should be on the children's independent reading levels (Schell, 1974) and words should be deleted not by any rigid numerical formula but selectively to encourage children to focus on different elements. Accept synonyms for deleted words, and discuss varying answers. As soon as students understand the cloze technique, progress to larger segments of text. When first introducing cloze passages, use material highly predictable from children's prior experiences. For example, construct a cloze passage based on a recent popular movie or current television series. Children can see themselves as active participants in the reading process when they can generate acceptable alternatives to blanks used in the cloze procedure.

(8) Let children become aware of how writers use context to help them learn the meaning of many new words. Rather than giving them a list of contextual techniques and examples (i.e., synonyms, definitions, prior experiences, etc.) point out these techniques as they occur in actual reading situations.

(9) Give children practice in seeing how paragraphs and longer texts cohere. Let them find sentences not pertaining to the topic in a constructed paragraph. Let them practice (use the overhead) rearranging sentences in paragraphs to see how text is constructed. Let them work with their own writing in the same way.

(10) Develop children's sense of story. Let them create story maps (Swaby, 1982) to outline events and reactions in narrations.

Let them create divergent plots using the same characters or the same initiating event of a story they previously read.

(11) Develop the idea that texts are process tools in learning. Use books in the classroom to seek information, test ideas, compare sources, respond divergently. Do not confine narrative reading to basal reader selections. Use children's literature copiously. Do not be overly concerned about controlled vocabulary and readability checks.

(12) Encourage children to pursue their own interests in reading, while you help them refine and develop new ones. Let children read in your classroom, and let them see you read. Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Reading is a good practice to permit children to see that reading is not confined to scheduled skill instruction (McCracken, 1971). The socio-cultural environment of your classroom should encourage children to view print not as a closed instructional tool but as a means to enrich their own ideas and experiences.

(13) Help children to tie texts together. Use one reading to create a context for another.

(14) Allow children to translate their understandings of texts into a variety of different mediums. Murals, music, scripts, puzzles, discussion groups, poetry, posters, drawings are preferable alternatives to the usual multiple-choice, fill-in-the-blank evaluation sheets.

(15) Teach children that non-linguistic, textual context (i.e., charts, graphs, pictures, tables, maps) provides valuable assistance for comprehension. Many pupils tend to skip over graphic aids. Visual aids can enhance print in a variety of ways. Children should be taught how to engage in the back-and-forth reading graphics demand (Vacca, 1981). Open-book discussions, and the overhead projector are techniques to use to help children profit from the non-linguistic context provided by writers.

Conclusion

During the past twenty years, reading has come to be viewed as an active process of creative response to print rather than a mere recovery of information found in written texts (Spiro, 1980). What the reader brings to the printed page interacts with the text to generate interpretations that are coherent and functional. The conditions under which reading occurs also influence the comprehension process. A sequential, skills-based reading program does not reflect adequately this dynamic, contextually-dependent process. Teachers who are aware how factors within the reader, within the text, and within the environment interact will create a classroom environment in which reading can become a vehicle for learning and for personal enrichment.

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A PROGRAM TO HELP PREPARE PRE-SCHOOLERS FOR READING

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Parents of young children are very often concerned with their child's pre-reading and beginning reading development. They want to know what they can do to help their child have a good start in this critically important skill. All too frequently parents do not have the information available to them to help their children. This article describes a local project designed to provide parents with ideas and information that should contribute to their children's maximum opportunity for success when formal school instruction begins. Although each parent-child relationship should be treated individually, there are some pre-reading experiences which are applicable to most family situations.

Relevant Research and Literature

The research and literature in the fields of reading and early childhood education have provided evidence that parent education and involvement do have a positive effect on young children's success in school and reading related skills. MacLaren (1966) found that providing parents with information about the process of learning to read significantly influenced the reading achievement of their first grade students. Perez (1972) was interested in learning whether or not parents who were given appropriate instruction and materials could significantly improve oral language concepts and visual motor skills. She found significant differences between children of parents given instruction on pre-reading activities versus those not receiving instruction.

Reading should have a place of high priority in the homes of young children. The research has indicated this conclusively. Rankin (1967) identified four behaviors that are related to the development of children's interest in reading. Mothers had children read aloud, asked children to tell parents what stories they had read, mothers read to themselves at home, and parents read magazines at home. Durkin (1961) studied children who read before grade one. In assessing the literary background of these children, she found: (a) children were read to regularly at home, and (b) parents had a high regard for reading. Parents also took time to answer the children's questions. McWilliams and Cunningham (1976) further emphasize: "The importance of parent involvement in the reading process has been supported again and again by research as well as personal experiences of reading teachers. It is essential that parents be involved and support their children's

learning experience if the children are to reach their fullest potential as students and readers."

In an article summarizing a University of Connecticut project designed to acquaint parents with children's literature and techniques to help involve children more intimately with reading, the authors report: "Research has shown that family life exerts a lasting influence on children and that parental example is extremely influential... Parents should be encouraged to do things with their children which will cultivate exposure to books and a variety of reading experiences... Parents, the population that has the most influence on children, have generally been neglected" (Baker, Durdeck, Rowell and Schmitt, 1975).

Finally, Criscuolo (1982) reviewed the literature on parental involvement. He cites several studies all indicating that parent knowledge about the reading process and parents as beginning teachers do make a positive difference.

The project described in this article is based on the recognition of the importance of educating parents so that they will be able to help their youngsters in early reading development. The program conceives of reading as a developmental activity that begins long before a child enters school. The need has been established: Educators should be involved not only with the public schools but with parents of babies and pre-school children. The later success of these children in school can be enhanced by the positive experiences at home if those experiences are designed to develop preschoolers to a point of readiness for formal school instruction.

Parent Education Project

The Research Committee of the Phi Delta Kappa Chapter in Atlanta organized the parent education project. A packet of materials was developed to be used in program presentations. It included a booklet (Flippo, 1982) and a set of free and inexpensive materials obtained from International Reading Association (IRA). Also included were an outline of suggested procedures for the presenters, back issues of "News for Parents" published by IRA, and highlights of research findings related to parent education and reading success. Members of the chapter and education students from local universities/colleges were recruited to present programs at day care centers and PTA meetings. They usually worked in pairs to plan and present the programs.

The program was publicized through contacts of members in the metro Atlanta area and through distribution of a flyer to agencies and organizations that are concerned with pre-school children and their parents in this area. As calls were received, members of the project committee scheduled the presentations and assigned members to conduct the program.

Each program consisted of four parts. The first was a brief talk to parents telling of the importance of their role in helping to develop the experiential background that is necessary for preparing a child to read. The talk also included some of the high-

lighted material from the packet of articles and brochures.

Then each parent was given a copy of "How to Help Grow a Reader." The presenters considered the contents of this booklet and emphasized the main points of the parents' role in children's reading. The presenters also explained that the materials were free and encouraged parents to use them and obtain others that are available (a list of free IRA materials was distributed).

The third segment of the program was devoted to questions from the parents and responses from the presenters. The questions generally reflected a new awareness of the fact that a parent can make a contribution to the child's being ready to learn to read. Parents were grateful to know that certain experiences—rather than direct instruction like that given at school—were an important part of their contribution to the reading process.

The last segment of the program was devoted to completion of an evaluation form. The respondents unanimously agreed that the program had been helpful in providing ideas about "How to Help Grow a Reader." They also commented extensively about the practical ideas and suggested activities. One parent identified the most significant fact of the project: "Someone is here who cares how my child learns."

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LISTENING TO STUDENTS ABOUT READING

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Too often teachers and administrators rely solely on standardized test scores to determine a student's achievement or attitude toward a subject. Criterion measured tests probably come closest to assisting teachers in diagnosing and prescribing instruction. But, increasingly, it becomes clear to educators that we need to "back-up", "stand-back", and "talk to" students about their learning processes. In other words, educators must consider the pupil's view toward learning in school while planning appropriate tasks for students.

Where students were traditionally viewed as passive recipients of instruction, there now is a growing recognition of the experience children bring to the classroom learning situation. A review of studies has shown that students actively struggle to make sense of school and learning (Weinstein, 1983). The thought that students may not perceive the intent of instruction has great implications for improving teacher effectiveness.

Information about the quality of instruction and instructional intent may be discovered by tapping the student's point of view on the learning to read process. Although children's awareness of various facets of the reading process has been previously investigated (Mason, 1967; Downing, 1970; Johns & Johns, 1971; Tovey, 1976) the thrust here is somewhat different. The intent of this exploratory study is to examine perceptions of reading in terms of both developmental characteristics and implications for reading instruction.

Instrument

The interview questions were designed to elicit responses in four categories: (a) the definition of reading; (b) the purpose for reading; (c) the process of reading; and, (d) the teacher's instructional intent.

Subjects

Preservice teachers randomly selected three subjects from classrooms being observed for a course requirement. Interviews were conducted with 18 subjects in kindergarten, 21 subjects in third grade, and 30 subjects in sixth grade. The subjects were drawn from below average to average socioeconomic school districts located throughout rural eastern North Carolina. The racial and sexual composition of the sample were comparable. The interpretation of the results should consider the subjects' involvement in phonic emphasis reading programs.

The Definition of Reading

To determine whether children view reading as a process of deriving meaning from print, each subject was asked "What is reading?" Of the 69 responses, 26 subjects (38%) viewed reading as a meaning-making process. The majority of the subjects (62%) perceived reading as a process involving "sounding-out" or "word-calling". Grade level differences did occur, however, with more kindergarten students defining reading as meaning-related than either third or sixth graders (see figure 1). This finding is in conflict with a similar study (Tovey, 1976) which found more meaning-related responses elicited from older students. Perhaps more concentration today on skills at each grade level along with greater student awareness of instructional intent account for the percentage increase of "word-calling" responses by third and sixth grade subjects. Furthermore, since the phonic approach was stressed in the population sample may have accounted for the differences in the two studies.

Sample responses at each grade level include:

What is Reading?

Kindergarten	—Telling a story
	—Words in a book
Third	—Something learned in school
	—Something you learn words in
Sixth	—Learning to recognize words
	—Skills and books

An interesting finding was that almost all students believed reading was an act to be performed in school, a school-related activity. The teacher request "Get out your reading books; it's time for reading" perpetuates these early misconceptions. Giving students more purposeful, recreational type of reading activities and using diverse reading materials should help to curtail the faulty thinking that reading is only when you are in a school reading group. Also, teachers can discuss with students the relevancy of each reading task; if this can't be done, then the question arises whether the skill should be taught at all.

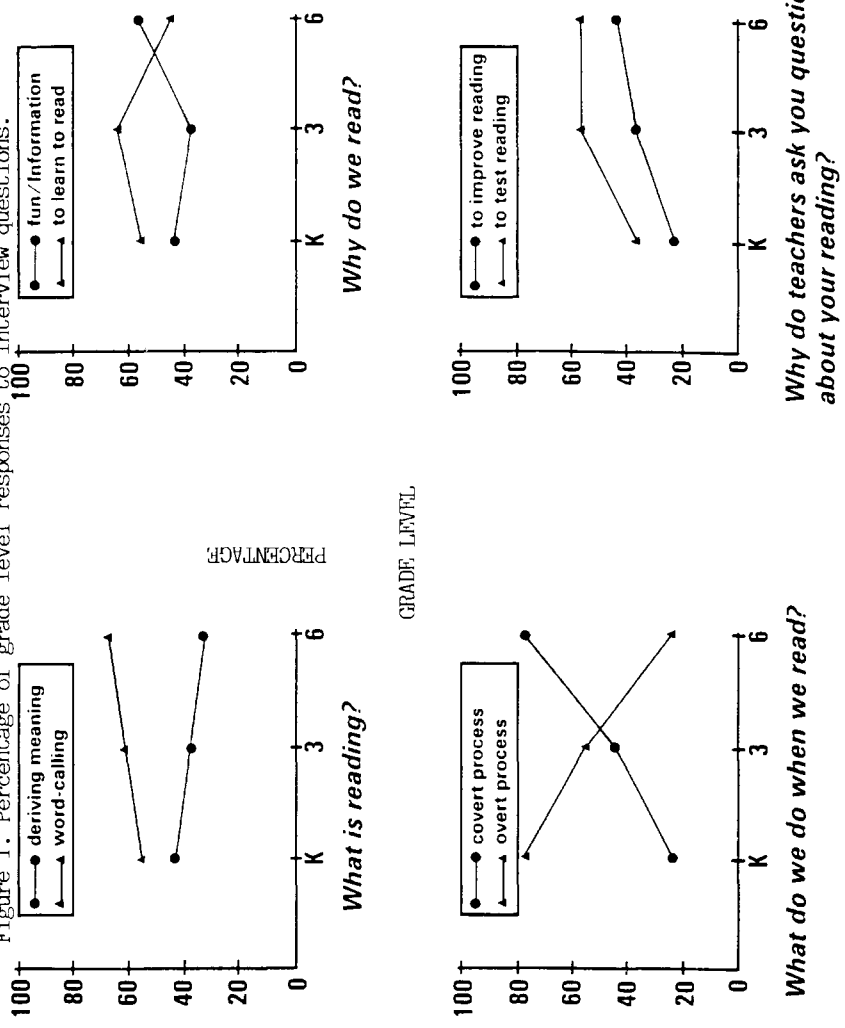
The Purpose for Reading

When asked "Why do we read?" 33 responses (48%) viewed reading as a source of "fun" or a method of gaining information. Grade level comparisons (see Figure 1) generally revealed the younger students viewing reading as an activity necessary to learn to read. As one kindergartener stated "So that when you get older you can read." Typical responses were as follows:

Why Do We Read?

Kindergarten	—So we can learn to read
	—The teacher tells us to

Figure 1. Percentage of grade level responses to interview questions.



- Third grade   —When you're older you'll know words
                                   —So you'll know what to do in your
                                   workbook
- Sixth grade   —To learn about things
                                   —So the teacher can find out what area
                                   you're strong in and what area you are
                                   weak in

It is clear the task of learning to read is emphasized by the responses. To the younger students reading is a task to be conquered. "One is learning to read." It is only when you're older, sometime in that nebulous future can you really read. However, some sixth graders (43%) still think reading is improving skills.

The types of reading activities students are involved in everyday, especially in the early grades, foster the idea learning to read is a never-ending process. As students complete one word list, basal, or workbook/skill sheet, another immediately takes its place, the only difference being a little longer, thicker, or more difficult.

Having students, even kindergarteners, read or be read to, for various purposes, such as recreational reading, would portray a true meaning for reading. Materials geared at the independent level, although scarce at the beginning stages, can be written by the students (via language experience approach) or by a teacher, using the controlled vocabulary of the preprimers. Students need reinforcement of vocabulary in many different reading sources, for example the word boy printed in a preprimer is also boy in a language experience chart story, word list, or on a cereal box.

The Process of Reading

The question "What do you do when you read?" was asked to assess subjects' view of the reading process. Of the 69 responses, 23 subjects (33%) viewed the process of reading as an overt action (e.g., sound out words). Sample responses elicited from the three grade levels are:

What Do You Do When You Read?

- Kindergarten   —you talk out loud
                                   —look at pictures
- Third grade   —you see words and say them
                                   —read stories and do workbook pages
- Sixth   —remember what is read
                                   —think of words and what they mean

Developmentally, the responses by grade level generally reveal a progression of overt action upon a reading material (i.e. talk out loud) to an internalized, covert action (i.e., think of words). Expectedly, older students are more cognitively aware of the internal processes needed to decode print (see Figure 1). An alarming

aspect, however, is that, as students progress toward reading competence, there appears to be an increasing notion one must read every word and remember it in some manner to derive meaning from print.

Reading orally, answering questions, marking answers on dittoes and workbook pages are events students are engaged in frequently each day. The attitude toward reading encouraged by such activities is "one must read carefully every word to obtain the right message so one can answer questions correctly" — a tremendous task, especially for a beginning reader, yet struggling to "break the code".

To develop a meaning-related concept of reading, the students need to actively seek meaning as they read. Teachers can encourage students to skim material for main ideas, predict what the story or book will be about, and discourage the notion that there is "one right answer". Questioning skills are at the heart of effective reading instruction. Carefully pre-planned and open-ended questions will facilitate an accepting environment in the search for meaning.

Teacher's Instructional Intent

The question "why do teachers ask you questions about your reading?" was asked to assess the subjects' ability to determine the teacher's instructional intent. Thirty-six (52%) of the 69 subjects thought teachers were testing them (e.g. "to check on me"). Another 36 percent viewed the questioning as a means to improve their reading skills. Eight non-categorical responses were elicited: (seven "I don't know" from kindergarteners, and one third grader replied, "My teacher doesn't ask questions.")

Typical grade level responses are:

Why Do Teachers Ask You Questions About Your Reading?

Kindergarten	—to see if we listened —because she wants you to learn
Third grade	—to see if you read it —it can help us to think better
Sixth grade	—to find out if you read or just looked over it —so you can understand your reading

Across the three grade levels it is evident a greater proportion of subjects believe teachers ask questions to test them on material read. This assumption, of course, is not entirely false. Comprehension checks are a major focus of the directed reading lesson. Durkin's study (1981) revealed teachers in grades three through six as interrogators, confusing children as to how the questioning was related to the learning to read process.

As educators, we must provide a conducive environment for

students to learn to read. Instead of workbooks, ditto sheets, and unending questions dictating the reading program, students should be given reasons why they are studying a certain skill or topic and how, in this case, questioning is related to learning how to read. Teachers, basal book authors, and others should also question their own motives in asking so many questions. Selective questioning geared at the various levels of thinking or designed for specific purposes will be a more meaningful approach in teaching students to read.

Summary

The age-span responses, to a great extent, are due to developmental differences in how a student views the environment. The egocentrism of a five year old is characterized by concentration on immediate objects and actions (e.g. reading is a book or words). What cannot be discounted, however, is the impact of the reading program, per se, on the students' perceptions. The methodology and amount of instructional emphasis on various facets of the program will influence or formulate perceptions toward the learning to read process.

Students' perceptions in this study revealed some negative aspects of a phonically-oriented reading program. Interviewing students about their reading instruction will help teachers to enrich those areas lacking in a single faceted program. The findings, limited in terms of generalizations, warrant at least a closer look at present reading techniques. It is clear students are not perceiving the intent of all reading instruction.

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LET'S DISCUSS CHICANO ADOLESCENT LITERATURE

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Introduction

Ethnic literature has had an increasingly important role in our public schools as the number of minority children enrolled has grown dramatically. Teachers are realizing the importance of helping children to appreciate the richness of cultural difference and to develop some feelings of empathy for all people (Washburn, 1978, p 3). Tanizer very aptly sums up the matter: "What does children's literature have to offer?... At its best it can hold up a mirror to minority life and provide memorable characters with whom minority children can identify. At its best it can enable children to gain insight into the lives and essential humanity of people who seem superficially quite different" (Tanizer, 1972). Children's literature appears to have the potential of dispelling harmful stereotypes about groups.

Improved Representation

Various studies have documented an increase in the ethnic diversity within the pages of literature intended for youthful readers (McKay, 1970; Garcia, 1977; Chall, Radwin, French and Hall, 1978). However, many of these same researchers found that these improvements in the number and quality of ethnic characterizations were minimal compared to the actual need. Jean Chall and other replicated Nancy Larrick's study and found that the world of children's literature had changed very little in over ten years, and in fact had remained the "all-white world" that Larrick had earlier documented. Many researchers also found problems with the characterizations of these ethnic protagonists. For example, Taylor felt that there were some very serious problems of stereotypes in the extant Chicano children's literature (Taylor, 1975). Monson and Peltola put together a very fine collection of research studies of ethnic children's literature (Monson & Peltola, 1976).

The Evaluation Process

Another issue developed around the task of evaluating and selecting this ethnic literature for inclusion in public school and library collections. A review of the literature revealed many different instruments for evaluating and selecting ethnic children's literature. However, to a great extent, it remains primarily a function and process involving individual selections, views, and perceptions.

There has been real concern in the scholarly literature regarding the background of those who write, evaluate, or select this literature for young readers. The concerns take varied and often

controversial forms. The IRA sponsored a forum on ethnic children's literature for the purpose of exploring issues facing a pluralistic society (Tanizer & Karl, 1972). One of the issues discussed was the question of who speaks for a culture both in the writing and in the evaluation of literature. Among the minority literature opinions stated that it is very unlikely that a white person is able to write about the minority experience. Other researchers have expressed these positions regarding the selection and evaluation of ethnic children's literature. Articles expressing similar opinions and positions often appear in the Bulletin for the Council on Interracial Books for Children (1975).

The issues that surfaced in the 1972 roundtable discussion sponsored by the IRA are still developing in the current literature as witnessed by Taylor and others who question the current ethnic children's literature that is being made available to young readers. They are not questioning whether it should be shared with children. Indeed, the literature clearly stated the need for more and better ethnic children's literature. The questions revolve around the issues of negative characterizations and the differences of opinion that develop in determining what is good ethnic literature. The following investigation attempted to address these issues.

Summary of the Study

The primary concern of this study was to determine whether there were significant differences in the perceptions of Chicano adolescents and librarians who read three selected samples of Chicano adolescent literature. The sources of data consisted of three Chicano adolescent books that were selected through a questionnaire administered to librarians. The investigation was carried out using Osgood's Semantic Differential Scale (SDS) and a Council on Interracial Books for Children (CIBC) instrument for evaluating Chicano adolescent literature.

The sample consisted of 54 Chicano adolescent students who were participants of the High School Equivalency Program at California State University in Fresno. The panel of librarians consisted of ten employees of the Fresno County Public Libraries System.

The primary hypothesis was that there would be no significant differences in the perceptions of the Chicano adolescents and the librarians. This hypothesis was tested three different times for each of the three samples of literature. There were also composite evaluations of each book and an overall comparison of the three books. The t-test was used to identify significantly different evaluation scores between the Chicano adolescents and the librarians.

The results of this study seem to support the idea that there are strong similarities in the way that Chicano adolescents and librarians from Anglo and middle-class backgrounds perceive the same literature. The statistical findings of the study seem to indicate that there is not a significant difference in the way that Chicano adolescents and librarians perceive literature, as measured by the semantic differential scale. This would seem to

support the argument that librarians, in fact, have been accurately identifying and selecting literature that Chicano adolescents would enjoy. If this is the case, a number of related questions remain to be answered. The first has to do with the applications of this research finding to the reality of the library systems.

In a Bulletin double issue devoted to the status of children's books for Chicanos, five articles explored the problems of establishing library collections that are free of racism and stereotypes. The general mood of the articles was that current library systems and staffs were not sufficiently informed about the Chicano experience to make accurate decisions regarding literature selections. How are the findings of this study reconciled with the expressed opinion in the extant literature? A reasonable response is that this study has uncovered some important commonalities and has affirmed that there is a basic understanding between librarians and Chicano adolescents.

Implications for Further Research

This researcher was struck by the difficulty that librarians had in identifying the five best examples of Chicano adolescent literature. Many of the librarians were only able to identify three examples, and many of their selections were not Chicano adolescent literature but Black or Puerto Rican literature. Two research recommendations arise from this experience.

The review of research and scholarly opinion did not reveal any studies or annotated bibliographies devoted exclusively to Chicano adolescent literature. Such a study would describe the quantity and quality of this literature and would be a welcome resource for teachers and librarians alike.

A similar recommendation is directed at writers and developers of literature and instructional materials. The review of the literature and the experience of the librarians involved in the study verify that the body of existing Chicano adolescent literature is actually very limited. Writers from Chicano backgrounds or who are knowledgeable about the Chicano experience should consider contributing to this limited body of literature. The growing number of Chicano children in the public schools gives this recommendation a sense of urgency.

Adolescence is a difficult and demanding stage of development. This is especially true for minority background youths who often suffer from unemployment, poverty, racism, and a frequently bruised self-image. Librarians and teachers can make a significant contribution in the lives of Chicano youths by making available to them a literature that calls out to them personally and provides them with an opportunity for self-assessment and reassurance in their identity.

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MODELS OF THE READING PROCESS HELD BY ABE AND GED INSTRUCTORS

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During the past several years a great deal of research has been conducted regarding the nature and extent of adult illiteracy in the United States (Harris and Associates, 1970; Northcutt et al, 1975; Hunter and Harmin, 1979). All studies concluded that approximately 20 to 30 million adults are functionally incompetent readers. Books proposing solutions to this problem and descriptions of instructional strategies unique to adult disabled readers have also appeared (Bowren, 1977; Neuman, 1980; Kozol, 1980; Jones 1981).

Research has highlighted the importance of identifying an instructor's conceptual framework and the effect it has on the instructional process (DeFord, 1979). How one views the reading process dramatically affects how one teaches reading. This research study explores the theoretical construct of reading held by instructors of adult disabled readers. Two central questions explored are: "What models of the reading process do instructors of Adult Basic Education (ABE) and General Educational Development (GED) courses have?" and "Does the number of reading courses the teachers have taken correlate with their model of the reading process?"

Methodology

In order to determine how ABE and GED instructors viewed the reading process, we administered the DeFord Theoretical Orientation to the Reading Process (TORP) to 148 ABE and GED instructors throughout the state of Illinois. The TORP is a 28 item Likert scale questionnaire which was validated by DeFord in 1979. This instrument differentiates teachers according to their theoretical orientations to reading. The three orientations used by DeFord are: (1) phonics or smaller than word emphasis, (2) whole words with multiple skills for dealing with print and (3) a "meaning making" view in which one deals with language as a natural process. Sample questions from the TORP include the following:

"When children (adults) do not know a word, they should be instructed to sound out its parts."

"The use of a glossary or dictionary is necessary in determining the meaning and pronunciation of new words."

"When coming to a word that's unknown, the reader should be encouraged to guess based upon meaning and go on."

Instructors who strongly agreed with the first statement should be classified as phonics model instructors; those who strongly agreed with the second statement would be whole word/skills instructors; those strongly agreeing with the third statement could be considered to view reading from a whole language or "meaning making" model.

Research Findings

The results of this questionnaire administered to 42 GED and 106 ABE instructors are contained in the following tables.

TABLE I
MODELS OF ORIENTATION TO THE READING PROCESS

(n = 148)

	Phonics	Skills	Meaning Maker	Total
GED	8 (19%)	34 (80%)	0	42
ABE	38 (36%)	67 (63%)	1 (.009%)	106
Total	46 (31%)	101 (68%)	1 (.009%)	148

Of the 148 instructors surveyed, 31% scored in the phonics range, 68% in the skills range and less than 1% scored in the meaning making range. More than twice as many ABE instructors scored in the phonics model range than did the GED instructors. GED instructors have a greater tendency to favor a skills model of reading over a phonics model. Eighty percent of the GED instructors had a skills model of reading while only 63% of the ABE instructors had a skills model of reading.

The second question explored in this study dealt with the number of reading courses ABE and GED instructors had taken and their orientation to the reading process. Tables II and III present this data:

TABLE II
NUMBER OF READING COURSES TAKEN COMPARED WITH
MODELS OF THE READING PROCESS (GED INSTRUCTORS)

(n = 42)

Number of Courses	Phonics	Skills	Meaning Maker
0 (n = 12)	1 (8%)	11 (92%)	0
1-3 (n = 14)	4 (29%)	10 (71%)	0
4-6 (n = 9)	0	9 (100%)	0
7+ (n = 4)	2 (50%)	2 (50%)	0
# not stated (n = 3)	1 (33%)	2 (66%)	0
Total	8 (19%)	34 (81%)	0

TABLE III
 NUMBER OF READING COURSES TAKEN COMPARED WITH
 MODELS OF THE READING PROCESS (ABE INSTRUCTORS)
 (n = 106)

Number of Courses	Phonics	Skills	Meaning Maker
0 (n = 18)	6 (33%)	12 (66%)	0
1-3 (n = 42)	13 (31%)	29 (69%)	0
4-6 (n = 28)	14 (50%)	14 (50%)	0
7+ (n = 10)	4 (40%)	5 (50%)	1 (10%)
# not stated (n = 8)	1 (12%)	7 (88%)	0
Total	38 (36%)	67 (63%)	1 (1%)

There appears to be a slight correlation between the number of reading courses one has taken and one's orientation to the reading process for GED instructors. Those who have taken some reading courses tend to be more skills oriented. ABE instructors who have taken four or more reading courses appear to be about equally divided in terms of their phonics and skills orientations. Again, only one instructor in our sample fell into the meaning making model.

Discussion and Implications

In an earlier study the authors made of adult disabled readers which included 100 ABE and GED students who read at a grade equivalent of 5.0 or lower as measured by standardized tests, we discovered (through the use of the Burke interview) that adults who were poor readers did not read for sentence and passage meaning as does the proficient reader (Keefe, Meyer 1980). Instead these adults viewed reading as a task involving "sounding out" (phonics model) and word identification (whole word/skills model). Only 15% of the 100 adults sampled saw reading as a meaning making activity. A noteworthy finding was that adults who had a "reading for meaning" orientation improved on standardized reading test scores an average of 1½ to 2 years in a period of three months of reading instruction. On the other hand, tests scored indicated only a three month gain in reading ability per three calendar months for learners who conceptualized reading as either a phonics or whole word/skills process.

It is important for adult students to shift their orientation from phonics or whole word/skills approach to a meaning making model if optimum results are to be achieved. Most teachers are just not aware of the model of reading they carry in their head or

its relationship to other models or its effect upon their students. If the teachers of adult disabled readers hold a phonics/whole word skills model themselves, they will only reinforce the disability model of the student. Classroom activities will tend to reflect the instructor's phonics or whole word/skills bias.

Conclusion

ABE and GED instructors must see reading as a meaning making process if they wish their students to obtain maximum results in reading growth. While more research needs to be conducted in this area, the results of this study suggest that ABE and GED instructors view reading as a process of sounding out words or learning specific skills. Psycholinguists such as the Goodmans (1977), Smith (1979), Harste and Burke (1978), and others have substantiated that effective and efficient readers are those who are able to get the meaning. Reading as a meaning making process must begin to occupy the central position in ABE and GED programs.

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ALTERNATIVE USES OF NETWORKING

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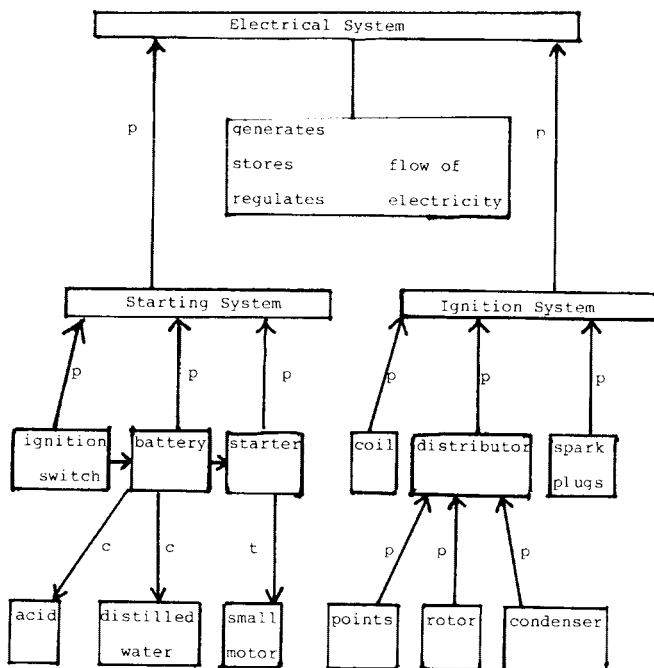
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In secondary schools, many remedial reading teachers are beginning to work with texts students use in their content area classes. Reading teachers are doing this because they feel that students do not transfer skills they learn in reading classes to help themselves understand and study content area texts. Many reading teachers, however, are not always familiar with information in content area texts, especially if they use books from vocational technical areas. One way reading teachers can begin to familiarize themselves with these texts is to create network diagrams or maps of the information (Dansereau, 1978; Anderson & Armbruster, 1980). We have found that such diagrams not only help us learn new information but also provide us with a tool for planning instruction.

Networking and mapping are note-taking procedures which involve representing ideas from texts in some sort of symbolic or graphic diagram. These procedures are different from outlines in that to create a diagram readers must organize and reorganize ideas abstracted from a text and then depict them as clusters of related ideas. Lines and arrows are used to show relationship among ideas and each relationship on the diagram is labeled. Major or superordinate ideas in outlines are distinguished from supporting details through indentation and use of different types of letters and numerals. Important ideas appear on the left of a page. With maps or network diagrams, however, important ideas are placed on the top of a page. Lines rather than letters and numbers are used to link less important ideas to the major ideas they support. For example, the following passage has been partially diagrammed in Figure 1. The superordinate idea is the electrical system. Major subordinate ideas are descriptions of the parts of which this system is made. Each subordinate idea is further divided into subparts. Lines with arrows are used to depict the flow of electricity through the parts of a starting system. This is simply one way to diagram the passage, and each teacher's diagram might differ depending upon his or her familiarity with the topic.

The sample passage:

The electrical system generates, stores, and regulates the flow of electricity in a car. It is made up of several functional systems that make a car start and keep it running. The starting system provides an electrical current that flows along wires. These



p = part of

c = contains

l = leads to

t = type of

wires lead from the ignition switch to the battery and from the battery to the starter. The battery is a box filled with acid and distilled water. It stores electric current that turns the motor, and fires the spark plugs. The starter is a small motor that makes the crankshaft turn so that pistons fire and the engine starts running.

Another part of the electrical system is the ignition system. It consists of a coil, distributor, and spark plugs. The coil is a metal cylinder with wires coming out of it. It amplifies small amounts of electricity voltage from the battery into large amounts needed to fire the spark plugs. The distributor contains the points, rotor, and condenser. The points are two pieces of metal that can touch and draw apart. The points control the flow of electricity to the spark plugs so that current reaches the plugs at the correct time and with the right intensity.

Researchers suggest that creating these diagrams engages readers in learning strategies that are more effective than those involved in outlining because readers have to attend to and process relationships among all of the idea in a passage (Anderson & Armbruster, 1980). Outlines, on the other hand, require readers to distinguish only among superordinate and subordinate relations. Other types of relationships such as compare/contrast relations, temporal relations, or causal relations are not specified.

Results of studies designed to test the effects of networking or mapping on recall and recognition measures are inconclusive (Holly, et al, 1979; Dansereau, et al, 1977; Armbruster & Anderson, 1980). Moreover, in our efforts to teach networking to junior college students, we have observed that extensive amounts of instructional time are needed to teach the strategy to academically unsuccessful students. The students we have worked with lack even such a prerequisite skill as the ability to paraphrase. Thus, we hesitate to recommend teaching a strategy like this to students in remedial classes. Teachers, however, have been successful students in the past and can easily learn a diagramming procedure. All they have to do is modify the notetaking skills they already use.

Developing diagrams from texts in which the content is not familiar can assist teachers in understanding ideas that may be new to them. Even if teachers are familiar with the ideas in a content text, creating such diagrams enables teachers to identify places in the text which may pose learning difficulties for students. More importantly, however, the diagrams provide a tool teachers can use to design instructional activities. We have found such diagrams especially helpful in creating graphic organizers (Barron, 1979) and developing various types of questions.

Major concepts and relations among concepts can be clearly depicted in a diagram. Teachers can then use that information to develop a graphic organizer for lessons. These organizers can be employed to (1) discuss and clarify ideas before students read about them, (2) focus student attention on the organizational structure of reading assignments, or (3) provide a type of concept guide students can complete as they read the assignments. Teachers can also use the organizers to model recitation strategies for students and monitor the rehearsal strategies they employ to study for tests.

As teachers create a diagram, they have to analyze all the explicit and implied ideas and relations among ideas in a text. In so doing, teachers have a basis for developing various types of questions to use in reading guides or class discussions. Pearson and Johnson (1978) suggest that teachers should be aware of the data-sources students draw on to answer comprehension questions. They recommend that teachers classify questions according to whether or not the expected "correct" response is textually explicit, textually implicit, or scriptally implicit. To develop such questions teachers must know which information is implied

or directly stated in a text and when students should use prior knowledge (scripts) to derive their responses. The diagram provides a simple tool teachers can use to develop such questions.

Teachers who use a content text in remedial settings find that students appreciate receiving help learning. Students actively participate in reading classes when the information they are expected to read is information that will help them achieve their academic or vocational class. Content area teachers also appreciate the extra help students receive. When content teachers see low-achievers performing more successfully in their classes, they begin to perceive the reading teacher as a colleague who supports their efforts to teach students who have difficulty learning.

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INFORMAL CHILDREN'S LITERATURE INVENTORY: TEST YOURSELF

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Educators are frequently advised to familiarize themselves with children's literature. Knowledge of books at a wide range of interest and ability levels will assist teachers in providing books for recreational reading in the classroom, recommending books to students, setting up individualized reading programs, and reading aloud to students. Based on Huck's (1966) Inventory of Children's Literary Background, which evaluated children's knowledge of well-liked literature, the following instrument was developed for teachers to assess their knowledge of children's books. An answer key and suggestions for maintenance or "remediation" appear at the conclusion of the inventory.

1. Mrs. Jonathan Frisby became the aide and confidante of
  - a. a sophisticated society of rats
  - b. two wealthy neglected children
  - c. a clever mouse detective
2. Sylvester the donkey accidentally turned into
  - a. a mouse
  - b. a small boy
  - c. a rock
3. Taran and Gurgi were in pursuit of
  - a. the Holy Grail
  - b. the beautiful princess of Dallben
  - c. Hen Wen, the oracular pig
4. Lost on the Arctic Alaskan plains,
Julie was befriended by
  - a. an Eskimo family
  - b. a pack of wolves
  - c. a fur trapper
5. Annie's grandmother will die when
  - a. her mother finishes weaving the rug
  - b. the corn crop is harvested
  - c. the tribe breaks camp and moves on
6. Two runaways became curious about a sculpture
by Michelangelo when they hid out in
  - a. the Sistine Chapel
  - b. the Louvre
  - c. the Metropolitan Museum of Art

7. Whose fault was it that Mother Owl wouldn't wake the sun?
  - a. Father Owl's fault
  - b. the mosquito's fault
  - c. the North Wind's fault
8. A kidnapped boy played the fife
  - a. in a Civil War prison camp
  - b. for a Revolutionary War regiment at Valley Forge
  - c. on a slave ship
9. Little Obadiah was befriended by
  - a. a puppy
  - b. a seagull
  - c. a goat
10. M. C. Higgins watched people coming and going
  - a. from the lighthouse window
  - b. from the top of a flag pole
  - c. from a secluded mountain cabin
11. More than anything, William wanted this to play with:
  - a. a velveteen rabbit
  - b. a teddy bear
  - c. a doll
12. This literal-minded maid always did exactly as she was told:
  - a. Mary Poppins
  - b. Queenie Peavy
  - c. Amelia Bedelia
13. His "day" began with gum in his hair and ended when he had to wear his railroad train pajamas:
  - a. Max
  - b. Alexander
  - c. Freddie
14. The Herdmans were "the worst kids in the history of the world" until they
  - a. joined a traveling circus
  - b. were adopted by understanding parents
  - c. became part of a Christmas pageant
15. Her magic pasta pot caused problems for Big Anthony:
  - a. Strega Nona
  - b. Baba Yaga
  - c. Tattercoats
16. This younger brother swallowed Peter's pet turtle:
  - a. Alexander
  - b. Fudgie
  - c. Michael
17. The tenth good thing about Barney was
  - a. he helped flowers grow
  - b. he always got "A's" in arithmetic
  - c. he was a great ball player

18. Will Stanton sought the six Signs of Life in order to
  - a. defeat the Cauldron-Born
  - b. keep the Dark from rising
  - c. overcome the Shadow Beast
19. Peter didn't want this painted pink for his new baby sister
  - a. his crib
  - b. his dish
  - c. his favorite chair
20. Winnie Foster discovered the spring that gave the Tucks
  - a. everlasting life
  - b. supernatural powers
  - c. all the fish they could eat
21. Dragons bake bread and a rabbit is the host
  - a. in King Reginald's palace
  - b. on Market Street
  - c. at William Blake's Inn
22. Meg and Charles Wallace were able to travel through space by creating a wrinkle in time called
  - a. kything
  - b. warp factor
  - c. tesseract
23. With Bangs' help, Sam learned
  - a. the importance of telling the truth
  - b. the proper way to care for a cat
  - c. how to swim in the ocean
24. Jess and Leslie created this secret kingdom in the woods:
  - a. Prydain
  - b. Terabithia
  - c. Narnia
25. Some courageous children buried their own father under the direction of this resourceful sister:
  - a. Mary Call Luther
  - b. Caddie Woodlawn
  - c. Sarah Noble
26. Duffy and the Devil is a Cornish version of this folk tale:
  - a. Jack and the Beanstalk
  - b. Sleeping Beauty
  - c. Rumpelstiltskin
27. Chester was convinced that the family's pet rabbit Bunnacula was
  - a. raiding the garden
  - b. really a vampire
  - c. under the spell of a witch

28. To play this game, you must read all the directions and play until someone reaches the end:
  - a. the Egypt Game
  - b. the Westing Game
  - c. Jumanji
29. This coon-dog was devoted to his sharecropper master and had a voice that was loudest in the countryside:
  - a. Candy
  - b. Thunderpup
  - c. Sounder
30. He ate through an apple on Monday, two pears on Tuesday, three plums on Wednesday and much, much more:
  - a. Gregory, the terrible eater
  - b. Ralph S. Mouse
  - c. the very hungry caterpillar
31. The Indian girl Karana lived
  - a. in the mountains of New Mexico
  - b. on a Pacific island shaped like a fish
  - c. on the Alaskan tundra
32. When Mickey fell into the cake batter, he was in
  - a. a bakery
  - b. the night kitchen
  - c. a cooking pot belonging to the giant's wife
33. She was determined to keep her father from smoking:
  - a. Ramona
  - b. Laura
  - c. Elizabeth
34. The "Funny Little Woman" lived in
  - a. Japan
  - b. Mexico
  - c. Kansas
35. Annabelle had a "freaky" day when
  - a. she was transported to another planet
  - b. she walked into an old wardrobe
  - c. she turned into her mother
36. Frances is
  - a. a mole
  - b. a badger
  - c. a muskrat
37. This boy detective always solves his case:
  - a. the Great Brain
  - b. Encyclopedia Brown
  - c. Hector Hobbs

38. When Moon Shadow came to Chinatown, he shared his father's dream of
  - a. building a flying machine
  - b. taming a dragon
  - c. opening a chain of Chinese laundries
39. Viola Swamp was the best substitute for this teacher
  - a. Miss Finney
  - b. Miss Nelson
  - c. Miss Brooks
40. Doctor De Soto did "good work," but refused to treat dangerous animals. What was his profession?
  - a. a dentist
  - b. a veterinarian
  - c. a cook

For maintaining or updating knowledge of current children's literature, recommendations for teachers are as follows:

- 1) Take a course in children's literature.
- 2) Read journal reviews of children's books. The Reading Teacher, Journal of Reading, Language Arts, The Horn Book, and School Library Journal review books monthly. The Bulletin of the Center for Children's Books is comprised totally of reviews of children's books.
- 3) Become familiar with what students are reading. Have students keep reading records, involve them in creative book sharing activities, and conduct interest inventories. Much information can be gained just by observing students and what books they check out of the school library.
- 4) Read selections from the IRA/CBC "Children's Choices" lists, which have appeared in the October issues of The Reading Teacher since 1975.
- 5) More than 30 states have children's book award programs in which school children vote for favorite books. Find out if such a program exists in your area and read books from the list.
- 6) Use the many bibliographies of "Best Books" for any given year as reading lists. These include "Notable Children's Trade Books in Social Studies" (Social Education, April issue), "Outstanding Science Trade Books for Children" (Science and Children, March issue), and the American Library Association's "Notable Books."
- 7) Browse the children's section of bookstores and the public library.
- 8) Ask the school librarian for publishers' pamphlets or catalogs promoting new children's books.

Answer Key

1. a. O'Brien, Robert C. Mrs. Frisby and the Rats of NIMH. New York: Atheneum, 1971.
2. c. Steig, William. Sylvester and the Magic Pebble. New York: Windmill, 1969.

3. c. Alexander, Lloyd. The Book of Three. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964.
4. b. George, Jean. Julie of the Wolves. New York: Harper & Row, 1972.
5. a. Miles, Miska. Annie and the Old One. Boston: Atlantic-Little, Brown, 1971.
6. c. Konigsburg, E. L. From the Mixed-Up Files of Mrs. Basil E. Frankweiler. New York: Atheneum, 1967.
7. b. Aardema, Verna. Why Mosquitoes Buzz in People's Ears. New York: Dial, 1975.
8. c. Fox, Paula. The Slave Dancer. Scarsdale, N.Y.: Bradbury, 1973.
9. b. Turkle, Brinton. Thy Friend, Obadiah. New York: Viking, 1969.
10. b. Hamilton, Virginia. M. C. Higgins, The Great. New York: Macmillan, 1974.
11. c. Zolotow, Charlotte. William's Doll. New York: Harper & Row, 1972.
12. c. Parish, Peggy. Amelia Bedelia. New York: Harper & Row, 1963.
13. b. Viorst, Judith. Alexander and the Terrible, Horrible, No Good, Very Bad Day. New York: Atheneum, 1972.
14. c. Robinson, Barbara. The Best Christmas Pageant Ever. New York: Harper & Row, 1972.
15. a. de Paola, Tomie. Strega Nona. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1975.
16. b. Blume, Judy. Tales of a Fourth Grade Nothing. New York: Dutton, 1972.
17. a. Viorst, Judith. The Tenth Good Thing About Barney. New York: Atheneum, 1971.
18. b. Cooper, Susan. The Dark Is Rising. New York: Atheneum, 1973.
19. c. Keats, Ezra Jack. Peter's Chair. New York: Harper & Row, 1967.
20. a. Babbitt, Natalie. Tuck Everlasting. New York: Farrar, Straus and Giroux, 1975.
21. c. Willard, Nancy. A Visit to William Blake's Inn. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1981.
22. c. L'Engle, Madeleine. A Wrinkle in Time. New York: Farrar, Straus and Giroux, 1962.
23. a. Ness, Evaline. Sam, Bangs and Moonshine. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1966.
24. b. Paterson, Katherine. Bridge to Terabithia. New York: Crowell, 1977.
25. a. Cleaver, Vera & Bill. Where the Lilies Bloom. New York: Lippincott, 1969.

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27. b. Howe, James & Deborah. Bunnicula. New York: Atheneum, 1979.
28. c. Van Allsburg, Chris. Jumanji. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1981.
29. c. Armstrong, William. Souder. New York: Harper & Row, 1969.
30. c. Carle, Eric. The Very Hungry Caterpillar. New York: Collins-World, 1969.
31. b. O'Dell, Scott. Island of the Blue Dolphins. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1960.
32. b. Sendak, Maurice. In the Night Kitchen. New York: Harper & Row, 1970.
33. a. Cleary, Beverly. Ramona and Her Father. New York: Morrow, 1977.
34. a. Mosel, Arlene. The Funny Little Woman. New York: Dutton, 1972.
35. c. Rodgers, Mary. Freaky Friday. New York: Harper & Row, 1972.
36. b. Hoban, Russell. Best Friends for Frances. New York: Harper & Row, 1969.
37. b. Sobol, Donald. Encyclopedia Brown, Boy Detective. New York: Nelson, 1963.
38. a. Yep, Laurence. Dragonwings. New York: Harper & Row, 1975.
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