



Reading Horizons: A Journal of Literacy and Language Arts

Volume 23
Issue 1 *October 1982*

Article 13

10-1982

Reading Horizons vol. 23, no. 1

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(1982). Reading Horizons vol. 23, no. 1. *Reading Horizons: A Journal of Literacy and Language Arts*, 23 (1). Retrieved from https://scholarworks.wmich.edu/reading_horizons/vol23/iss1/13

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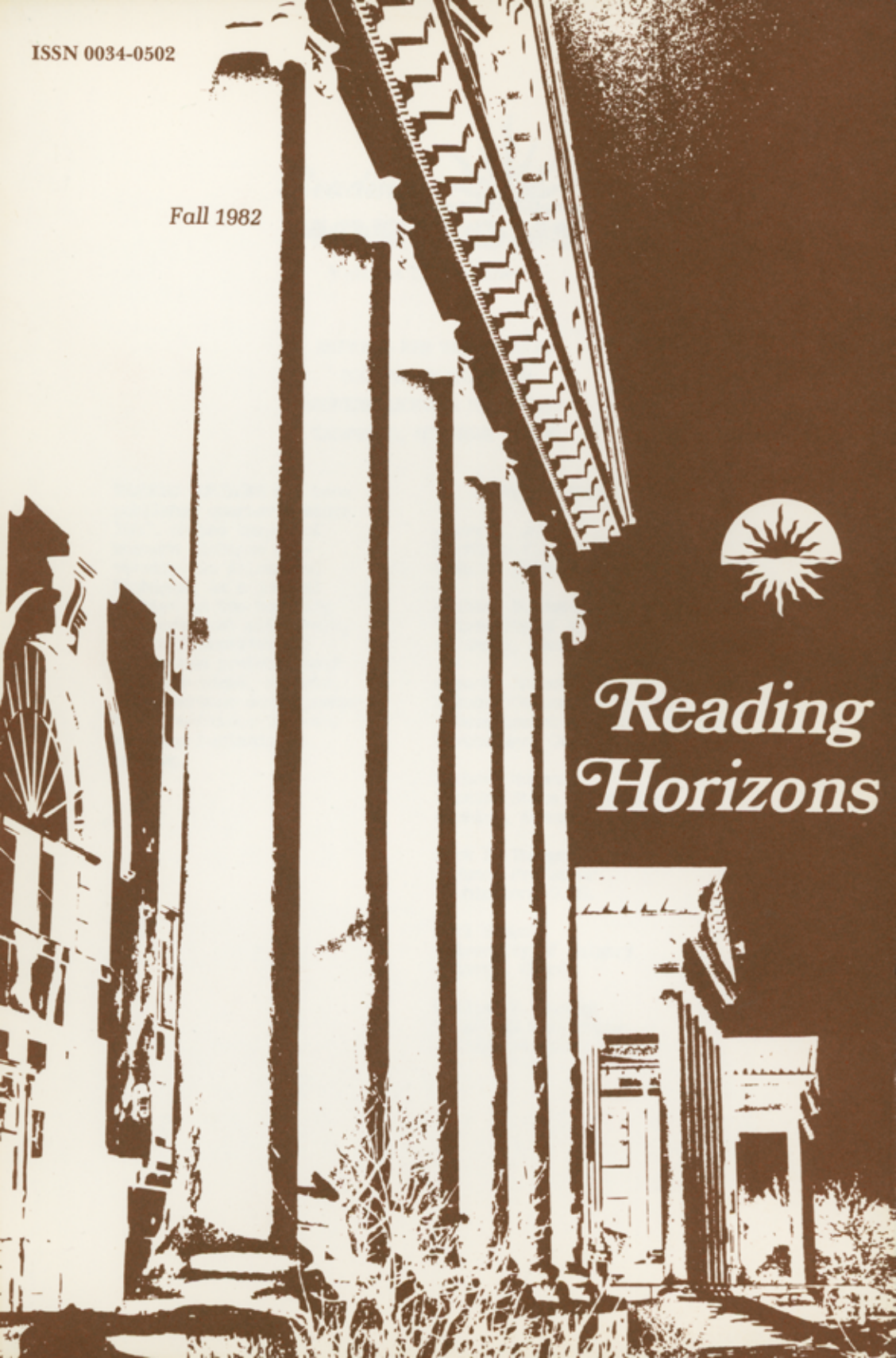


ISSN 0034-0502

Fall 1982



Reading Horizons



Reading
HORIZONS

Volume 23, Number 1

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COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

WESTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY

KALAMAZOO, MICHIGAN 49008

READING HORIZONS has been published quarterly since 1960, on the campus of Western Michigan University, in Kalamazoo, Michigan. As a journal devoted to the teaching of reading at all levels, HORIZONS provides all interested professionals with the ideas, reports, and important developments that constitute the ever widening horizons of reading.

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READING HORIZONS

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

SUBSCRIPTIONS

Subscriptions are available at \$10.00 per year, \$12.00 in Canada, and \$14.00 overseas. Checks should be made payable to READING HORIZONS. Number 1 issue of each volume is published in October, and no. 4 issue of each volume contains Title and Author index for the volume. Rates are determined according to costs, and may be changed.

MANUSCRIPTS

Manuscripts submitted for publication should include original and two copies, and must be accompanied by postage for return of the original if not accepted. HORIZONS is a refereed journal and all manuscripts are considered without author identity by members of the evaluations committee. Address all correspondence to Ken VanderMeulen (Ed.), READING HORIZONS, WMU, Kalamazoo, MI, 49008.

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Microfilm copies are available at University Microfilms International, 300 Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, MI, 48108. Back issues, while available, may be purchased from HORIZONS at \$2.50 (& 50¢ costs) payable in advance.

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READING HORIZONS (ISSN 0034-0502) is indexed or abstracted by Current Index to Journals in Education, Chicorel abstracts to Reading and Learning Disabilities, Council of Abstracting Services, and Reading Disability Digest.

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PROGRESS REPORT

READING HORIZONS:

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Since we are printing under the auspices of the Reading Center and Clinic, College of Education, we cannot buy a pre-publication promotion campaign. However, we need some advance orders to make publication a fact at all! READING HORIZONS has long been known as a forthright and honest publication, full of information. We are relying on that reputation now, to bring us your commitment to buy.

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CREATIVITY AND THE READING SPECIALIST: SOME OBSERVATIONS FROM RESEARCH DATA

Mark E. Thompson

GAITHERSBURG, MARYLAND

The term creativity is frequently used by educators to identify behavior that is different or novel when compared to conventional modes of conduct. This creative behavior usually is the ability to be imaginative and original in handling words, ideas, or materials. For reading specialists, an understanding of creative behavior may provide insight into certain reading problems.

Reading is an active, self-directed process controlled by the reader in many way and for many purposes. It is possible that some creative students are mistakenly classified as having a severe learning or reading problem. Their creative behavior might be interpreted as a disabling handicap. There is a tendency to equate divergence with abnormality. Once this is done, it may be difficult to succeed with applied clinical treatments (i.e., a reading clinic).

There is more than one process of reading (Gibson and Levin, 1975) and most educators understand this guiding principle. Reading specialists are frequently challenged to find the right combination of teaching strategies to stimulate an individual reading style. It may be a creative task for teachers to find the magic key that unlocks reading potential for students whose reading problems defy solution.

Creativity is often misunderstood as being a type of behavior associated solely with scholastically bright, high achievers. David Ausubel (1968) said creativity is one of the vaguest, most ambiguous, and most confused term in psychology and education. He also said, "teaching for creativity" is a flourishing fad and a catchphrase. Most educators have not studied the research evidence regarding creativity and know little about the personality characteristics of creative people.

Creative artists, writers, mathematicians, architects, and scientists differ from those less creative souls in the following ways:

1. Greater Esthetic Sensitivity. The more creative persons place a high value on esthetic experiences and responses.
2. Imaginative. Creative persons have more imaginative, new, different, novel ideas, both in quality and quantity.

3. Flexible. The creatives have more ability to shift and to adapt, to deal with the new, the unexpected, and the unforeseen.

4. More Self-reliant, Individualistic, and Independent. Creative persons value their own independence and autonomy.

5. More Perceptive. Creatives show a preference for perceiving, a preference which leaves them more open to internal and external experience and allows for flexibility and spontaneity.

6. Commitment to Their Work. Creatives have a profound commitment to the meaning of their work.
(Zahn, 1966)

Detailed studies of creativity have been accomplished by respected scholars such as: E. P. Torrance, D. W. MacKinnon, S. A. Mednick, Paul Heist, P. W. Jackson, and J. P. Guilford. Some of their findings will be presented and briefly reviewed in an attempt to define and explain the creative personality.

In 1950, J.P.Guilford made a presidential address to the American Psychological Association on "Creativity". This address stimulated interest, and during the late '50s and early '60s, research on creativity for education began to appear in print. "Almost without exception, the conclusions seemed to be that those with creative potential are neglected, if not discriminated against, at all levels of American Education" (MacKinnon, 1968, p. 149). For professor Guilford, divergent thinking is one of the most important ingredients of creativity (Guilford, 1957 and 1959). Three significant characteristics of divergent thinking are flexibility, originality, and fluency; or the ability to produce rapidly a succession of ideas that meet some requirements (Arieti, 1976).

For the past twenty-five years, E. Paul Torrance has been involved in the study of creativity - its nature, measurement, and training. Torrance has concluded that many kinds of talent, including creative talent, exist in most populations at any given time. As a contribution to education, Torrance has attempted to help teachers identify and promote creativity in the classroom. Some observable signs of creative behavior in the classroom, according to Torrance, are:

- Intense absorption in listening, observing, doing.
- Intense animation and physical involvement.
- Challenging ideas of authorities.
- Checking many sources of information.
- Taking a close look at things.
- Eagerly telling others about one's discoveries.
- Continuing a creative activity after the scheduled time for quitting.

- Showing relationships among apparently unrelated ideas.
- Following through on ideas set in motion.
- Manifesting curiosity, wanting to know, digging deeper.
- Guessing or predicting outcomes and then testing them.
- Honestly and intensely searching for the truth.
- Resisting distractions.
- Losing awareness of time.
- Penetrating observations and questions.
- Seeking alternatives and exploring new possibilities.

(Torrance, 1971)

Torrance (1960) found a weak relationship between creative thinking and generalized ability as measured by intelligence tests. Getzels and Jackson, 1962, also found this weak relationship. Certain childlike (usually called childish) mental operations are demonstrably essential to creativity, among them are playfulness, wishfulness, spontaneity, approximation, and free-floating openness of mind. In summarizing some of his research, Torrance said the most exciting insight was that different kinds of students learn best when given opportunities to learn in ways best suited to their motivations and abilities. "Whenever teachers change their ways of teaching in significant ways, a different group of learners become the stars or 'high achievers'" (Torrance, 1967, p. 88).

Donald W. MacKinnon, while conducting research at the Institute of Personality Assessment and Research within the University of California at Berkeley, has identified the creative person as: relatively uninterested in small details, or in facts for their own sake, and more concerned with their meanings and implications, possessed of considerable cognitive flexibility, verbally skillful, interested in communicating with others and accurate in so doing, intellectually curious, and relatively disinterested in policing either their own impulses and images or those of others (MacKinnon, 1967).

MacKinnon also said one of the most salient characteristics of the creative person is his courage. "Since the creative person is not preoccupied with the impression he makes on others, and is not overly concerned with their opinion of him, he is freer than most to be himself" (MacKinnon, 1967, p. 27).

In 1960, MacKinnon had published an article titled "The Highly Effective Individual," and he conceived of two variables from numerous sources as being central and determinative of the highly effective individual:

1. emotional stability or personal soundness
2. creativity of thought and action

MacKinnon also found that creative people not only experience more anxiety, they also have stronger egos and have a perceptual preference for the complex and asymmetrical; they prefer the richness of the disordered to the stark barrenness of the simple and show a preference for intuition. "In all the groups we have studied we have found that self-image and ego-idea are of crucial importance in determining the level of creativeness with which a person lives his life and practices his profession..." (1967, page 24).

In regard to education, MacKinnon said, "The concept of educating for creativity necessitates our thinking of it not as a fixed trait of personality but as something that changes over time, waxing and waning, being facilitated by some life circumstances and situations and inhibited by others. (1968, p.150) Reading professionals are most certainly interested in promoting those circumstances that are related to constructive, supportive approaches. Often it is a creative challenge for teachers to find the best approach for each student.

Paul Heist (1967,'68) has identified the creative person as: independent, innovative, flexible, with a highly developed sense of the theoretical and the esthetic, and exercising discipline only when he considers it necessary. P. W. Jackson and Samuel Messick (1967) found at the level of everyday experience that creative expression of the highest quality tends to come from people who limit their efforts to a single mode of expression. The professional writer, researcher, singer, actor, and educator (reading specialist) might be good examples.

Sarnoff A. Mednick (1962) introduces the concept of usefulness within the dimension of creativity, a concept which is most important for educators and students. Mednick maintains that the answer 7,363,474 to the question, "How much is 12 and 12?" is original but not creative, because it is not useful within accepted mathematical conventions.

Nevitt Sanford studied the research accomplished by MacKinnon that indicates most creative people are distinguished from less creative ones by greater flexibility of thinking, breadth, openness to experience, freedom of impulse, breadth of interest, autonomy, and integrity. "The argument from this is that, in general, the creative person is above all a highly-developed person, and that educational programs can have an effect on such development in college" (Sanford, 1967, p. 204). In the late 1950s Sanford was touring Eastern Europe, and he said, "When in Russia I suggested to various Soviet officials and professionals that as the living standard in their country rose, and as long as the heavy emphasis on education continued, young people would be increasingly disaffected and deviant. (And, of course, creative, though I didn't mention this.)" (Sanford, 1968, p.188)

But how can creativity flourish? In 1927 Joseph Wallas provided an early description of four main steps in the creative process: preparation, incubation, illumination, and verification. These primary steps have been expanded in various ways. A popular modification of this process developed by Alex F. Osburn in 1939

is what he called brainstorming (Osburn, 1957). Silvano Arieti (1976), a practicing psychiatrist and psychoanalyst, provides a good summary of the major theories of creativity development along with other insights, some quite complex, in his book, Creativity: The Magic Synthesis.

Jack A. Chambers completed a study for the National Center for Educational Research and Development in 1972 titled "College Teachers: Their Effects on Creativity of Students." Chambers pointed out the concepts of introversion, dominance, and self-sufficiency as being associated with creativity for teachers and researchers. He said there are clear-cut behavioral patterns that differentiate teachers who facilitate creative development from those who hinder it. According to Chambers' research, the most important aspect of student-teacher relationships affecting creativity is encouragement through and via contact. In his study of gifted adolescents, Ernst Kris said he had never seen a case of artistic talent that had not begun by identifying with an older person (Loomie et al., 1958).

Creativity seems to be enhanced by a climate of indulgence, safety, friendliness, and cooperation (Dentler, 1964). Robert Nisbet (1975) warns that we may be losing our creative drives by not encouraging and maintaining creative climates. A large number of research studies on creativity have been devoted to specific teaching strategies for developing fluency, originality, and flexibility (Freeman et al., 1971).

Creative students may find it most difficult to conform within institutional settings. "...there are indications that high creativity may be associated with unusual degrees of introversion and with certain kinds of anxiety, as well as with flexibilities of imagination that are quite disabling in regard to high efficiency and freedom from oscillation in routine performances" (Cattell and Butcher, 1968, p. 272).

Creatives tend to make deviant scores on the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory; this is reflective of the complexity of personality, candor, lack of defensiveness, and openness to experience and not a genuine personality distortion (Ausubel, '68). "Unconventional people are likely to give unconventional responses to diagnostic test items and thus obtain scores indicating the presence of psychopathology" (Bereiter and Freedman, 1962, p. 577). It has been found that creative professionals (scientists, architects, and novelists) were prone to give unusual responses to word association tests and that unusualness of mental association was one of the best indices of an individual's originality in professional work (Hudson, 1966).

The close relationship between mental illness and creativity has been well documented (George Pickering's Creative Malady, 1974, is a good example). VanGogh, at the height of his career, cut off his ear, then committed suicide; he was a schizophrenic. It has been said that the artist threads his way between the Scylla of routine and the Charybdis of insanity (Skura, 1980). Creativity and insanity have been linked to the ability to perceive reality differently.

Many who achieve distinction are hypomanics with mood swings from one of energy, exuberance and confidence, to one of the reverse. "Freud was an example. Such people are quite sane, and, as long as circumstances do not press too hard, are in no danger and often achieve great things ...Plato thought there were two forms of delirium - insanity and inspiration." (Pickering, 1974, p. 26 and 285)

The identification and study of talented students which Wallach and Wing accomplished (1968) gives emphasis to self-initiated activities. "As soon as one looks outside the classroom for evidence of talented accomplishments or attainments, rather than simply looking within the classroom at academic achievement, one finds the student's general intelligence status singularly unrevealing as to who is more likely to exhibit the superior performances. Instead, the clues are provided by information about the ideational resources of the person - something quite different from intelligence" (Wallach and Wing, 1969, p. 127). There seems to be compelling evidence for predicting future creative behavior from past creative behavior (Holland and Nichols 1964; Richards, Holland and Lutz, 1967; Hecover, 1979).

Reading teachers might consider their own behavior and the behavior of their students from the creative perspective. Knowing when and how to administer professional knowledge is part of an effective creative task. Some research indicates socially and emotionally maladjusted students often have higher creative potential than socially and emotionally adjusted students (Finch, 1977). However, it is most difficult to identify the proper educational strategies for creative people.

Teaching a skill requires technical knowledge, but students frequently reject the technical as being inhuman and alien to their unique creative needs. The techniques of reading may indeed be rejected by creative students. It takes a resourceful person to teach reading and promote creativity all at the same time.

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A SUMMARY OF STUDIES RELATED TO THE EFFECT OF QUESTION PLACEMENT ON READING COMPREHENSION

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Most reading specialists would agree that the sole justification for the various decoding instruction in reading is to prepare the student for extracting meaning from the written symbol (Tinker and McCullough, 1962). The pronunciation of words without understanding their meaning is of little use to anyone. Therefore, the development of the processes by which meanings become associated with symbols must be provided for in any reading program (Bond & Tinker, 1973). According to Strang (1969), the mature reader must not only understand the literal meaning of a passage, but also interpret the author's statements, make critical judgments, inferences and evaluations, form conclusions and make generalizations. The degree of accuracy of comprehension called for, motivation, and the purpose for reading determine what level of comprehension students read (Wall, 1971). Reading comprehension can best be inferred by observing the behavior of the reader when responding to comprehension questions—written or oral (Hoskisson, 1973). Harris (1970) emphasizes that questions are useful not only as an indicator of competency in reading comprehension, but as a basis of strategies for teaching comprehension. While it is generally agreed upon that question placement affects pupils' comprehension, it is not agreed upon as to where the placement of questions should be. A review of the research reveals that numerous studies have been conducted in this area. Their findings should be a primary consideration for any teacher interested in developing effective questioning strategies.

Research Showing the Advantages of Prequestioning

The first reported study which dealt with the effect of prequestioning techniques on reading comprehension was conducted in 1921 by Germane. He compared the comprehension levels of students who had been given a set of questions prior to their reading the selection as opposed to those who had been allotted the same amount of time to re-read the selection. Reported mean scores were 14.3 for the experimental group and 13.9 for the control group. This was a one month mean difference in favor of the group that had been exposed to the prequestioning treatment. Germane (1921) also conducted a replication of the above study using 88 college sophomores and obtained identical results. Based on

these findings, Germane concluded that it would be more advantageous to present questions to children before reading an article than to allocate the same amount of time having children read the selection.

The findings of Germane prompted similar experiments. In an effort to determine the reliability of the Germane study, Holmes (1931) conducted a study with the same stated purpose. In addition, Holmes was interested in the effect of prequestioning on delayed recall and the interaction of question placement and the nature of the material presented. Results showed that both experimental groups scored higher than did the two control groups. On the basis of these results, Holmes concluded that since reading guided by prequestions surpasses rereading without questions in both the immediate recall and delayed recall of answers to questions it is beneficial to provide students with questions for guidance in reading material.

Yoakam and Truby (1926) were concerned with the effect on comprehension of prequestions that were general in nature. Reported results indicated that the experimental group which had received the prequestions scored a grade equivalent of seven months higher than did the control group that received no stated purposes.

Distad (1927) conducted a unique study which sought to incorporate several facets of the previously mentioned experimental studies. More specifically, the four treatments were: 1) reading to find answers to eight specific prequestions presented by the experimenter, 2) reading to find answers to eight specific questions raised by the subjects themselves, 3) reading to find the answer to a general problem, and 4) reading with no direction. The following results were obtained. Group I scored 15.0, Group II—14.3, Group III—13.0, and Group IV—11.8. Basing conclusions on these results, Distad stated that directed reading aids in the development of reading habits which increase comprehension.

Washburne (1929) sought to determine the value of placing prequestions in various positions. A conclusion of the study was that question location is an important variable in the mastery of material and that the best placement is the grouping of all questions at the beginning of the story, while the worst placement is the grouping of all questions at the end of the story.

Shores (1960) was also interested in the recollection of information which was not specifically asked in prequestioning treatment. Group one was instructed to read the selection and was given no stated purpose. Group two was instructed to read the selection to restate the major events in their proper sequence. Group three was instructed to read the selection in order to find the main idea. Results indicated the group that had been instructed to read the material for the main idea achieved the highest raw score, while the group that had been given no direction achieved the lowest. Shores concluded that presenting one general question to students prior to their reading the material aided in the recall of factual information. Ballard (1965) sought to determine the effectiveness of different types of prequestions

on the comprehension of a story-type reading selection. Group A received prequestions that contained references to specific detail from the selection, Group B received prequestions that were concerned with the main idea, while Group C received no prequestions. Based on the results, Ballard concluded that guiding (Group A) questions resulted in the highest comprehension, while motivating questions (Group B) were more beneficial than no prequestions.

Grant and Hall (1967) were concerned with how prequestions affected the comprehension of subjects on various reading ability levels. Each ability level was divided into an experimental group receiving a broad prequestion and a control group which received no prequestions. For the above average and average readers, the experimental group resulted in higher scores, while the below average experimental group did not perform as well as the control group.

Henderson (1964) was interested in comparing the effect on comprehension of prequestions generated by the student himself as opposed to prequestions generated by the teacher. Group one was asked to provide for itself a collective purpose prior to reading the selection. Group two received a teacher generated purpose for reading the selection; Group three received no stated purpose. Results indicated that the most effective prequestions are those that are generated by the student himself. However, a teacher generated prequestion is more advantageous than the use of no prequestions.

In an effort to determine the relationship between asking questions to develop a purpose for reading and reading achievement, Fincke (1968) used two different forms of an informal reading inventory. Form A of the inventory included purpose setting questions, while form B included only postquestions. A comparison of the means of the two groups indicated that subjects scored significantly higher when purpose setting questions were included.

Research Showing the Negative Results of Prequestioning

Until the 1950's all the studies lent credence to the hypothesis that prequestioning had positive effects on comprehension in reading. The investigations presented in the following section failed to support this theory.

The earliest experiment which resulted in the high achievement being obtained by the group reading without a specific purpose was conducted by Christensen and Stordahl (1955). The purpose of the study was to measure the effect organizational aids and questions had on reading comprehension. Group A was given prequestions and advance organizers, Group B was not. Based on scores obtained by both groups after reading two selections, the conclusion was drawn that organizational aids and advance organizers do not improve reading comprehension. While the previous investigation was conducted using adults as subjects, Snively (1962) obtained similar findings with fourth, sixth, and eighth grade students.

Bloomer and Heitzman (1965) also used grade school students

as subjects for their experiment. On the basis of results obtained from reading comprehension and I.Q. scores, 80 eighth graders were assigned to one of the following treatments: 1) prequestions were presented the subjects before reading the selection; 2) no prequestions were presented the subjects before reading the selection; 3) prequestions were presented the subjects before reading the selection in which the cloze procedure was used; 4) no prequestions were presented the subjects before reading the selection in which the cloze procedure was used. Mean scores were reported as follows: Group four achieved a raw score of 9.4, group two 9.0, group one 8.2, and group three 8.4. The investigators concluded that prequestions do not increase reading comprehension.

In an experiment with 159 university students, Rothkopf (1966) concluded that prequestions distract the student in that he becomes interested in finding the answer only to the specific question asked, whereas test-type questions presented after the reading increase comprehension in that they have both general and specific facilitative effects on performance.

Goudey (1968) was interested in the effect of directed reading on subjects of various reading achievement levels. He divided 300 fourth grade students into two treatment groups, subjects in each group were again divided into reading ability groups. In analyzing the data according to reading achievement level, Goudey reported that there was no significant difference between the experimental and control groups for the upper and lower reading achievement levels. Within the middle level, the group which had read under nondirected conditions achieved significantly higher than the group which read under directed conditions.

Frase (1968) proposed that characteristics of questions such as type, placement, and contiguity to related content influence learning. Using twelve treatment groups, he placed questions in various positions throughout the paragraphs. The conclusion drawn was that comprehension increased with the frequency of postquestions and decreased with the frequency of prequestions. Frase (1970) replicated his original study, substantiating his first findings.

Brady (1974) wanted to determine how stated purpose for reading affect reading comprehension of children at different ability levels. Subjects were stratified into low, middle, and high levels according to results obtained from non-verbal I.Q. scores. Based on the results, Brady concluded that comprehension was not increased by provided stated purposes for reading.

Mottley (1972) conducted a study using various types of comprehension questions in order to determine the effect of prequestioning on reading comprehension scores of children. It was concluded that prequestions do not increase reading comprehension for either low, middle, or high ability groups. In addition, the effectiveness of the prequestion is not determined by the question type.

Chadwick (1972) was interested in determining the effect

of written prequestions on reading comprehension. While the control group was administered the test in its original format, the experimental group was administered the test in an adapted form which included prequestions. Based on the results, Chadwick suggested that prequestions may lower motivation and hence serve as distractors, thus causing a lower level of comprehension.

Wiesendanger and Wollenberg (1978) studied the effects of inferential prequestions and factual prequestions on reading comprehension. Results of the study indicated that while the group that were given the inferential prequestions scored significantly higher than did the group receiving factual prequestions, the group that received no prequestions achieved the highest results.

In a Danish study (1979) involving 717 high school pupils, Dollerup's findings implied that the effects of questioning cause the students' response to be a distorted reflection of what students had actually experienced or the outcome of something different from the normal reading process.

CONCLUSION

Twenty-two studies have been reported which sought the effect of question placement on reading comprehension. Of these studies, ten favored while twelve opposed the use of prequestions. After reviewing the research in this area, one might conclude the issue of question placement to be more complex than previously theorized. For example, in some of the studies presented (Henderson 1964, and Beaucamp 1925) the prequestions had been generated by the subject; in others (Goudey 1968, and Brady 1974), the questions had been formulated by the researcher.

In addition, the type of prequestions also differed. For example, the prequestions used in the Yoakam and Truby (1926) and Shores (1960) were general in contrast to the specific prequestions used by Germane (1921). Distad (1927) sought to incorporate several facets of the previously mentioned experimental studies. Still other experiments included socio-economic status, sex and I.Q. (Brady 1974, Mottley 1972) as a variable. The effect of written prequestioning (Chadwick 1972) as opposed to oral prequestions (Wiesendanger and Wollenberg 1978) was another point of consideration. In some instances (Ballard 1965, Fincke 1968, Snively 1962) research was conducted using elementary school subjects, in others (Christensen and Stordahl 1955, Rothkopf 1966, Frase 1968) college subjects were used. In the Germane (1921) and Holmes (1931) experiments students in the experimental group were instructed to reread the material. In addition, Holmes considered the effect of prequestions on delayed as opposed to immediate recall.

In summary, one might suggest that the issue is not whether prequestions or postquestions produce greater gains in reading comprehension. Interaction of question placement and other variables such as sex, I.Q., socioeconomic background, must also be considered when determining the effect of question placement on reading comprehension.

It is logical that the objective of the lesson as well as other variables might determine whether or not the teacher should prequestion. For example, the objective might be for the student to skim in order to uncover the general gist of what the author is saying or scan to find out something particularly stated in the material. This would influence a teacher's questioning strategies.

It does seem important to remember that the ultimate goal should be for students to become proficient readers—independent of the teacher's aids. For this reason it seems apparent that we want students eventually to develop their own purposes for reading. Consequently, it would behoove teachers to encourage student development of questions, to learn to read the material in order to answer their questions, and to set new purposes for reading. Comprehension is an active process whereby the reader interacts with the material. After taking a number of variables into account, the teacher must use whatever questioning strategy necessary to help the student develop this interaction, so to achieve a degree of independence in reading.

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PATTERN BOOKS: AN ACTIVITY FOR BEGINNING READING INSTRUCTION

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The Language Experience Approach is recognized as a highly effective method of beginning reading instruction (Ashton-Warner, 1963 and 1972; Hall, 1976 and 1978; and Lee and Van Allen, 1963). Reasons for the success of this approach include both the cognitive and the linguistic "match" of the reader with the material to be read. Students use their own vocabulary and grammar to dictate their own thoughts, feelings and experiences. This "match" makes the dictated material easier to reread as well as highly interesting, relevant and motivating to the reader.

A possible disadvantage of the Language Experience Approach, however, is the lack of vocabulary control which may sometimes occur. Since practice and reinforcement are important in developing a sight vocabulary, it is important that beginning readers have frequent, repeated contact with the vocabulary to be learned. The development of such sight vocabulary is necessary, to allow the reader to read more and more proficiently one's own dictation as well as the writing of others.

The Pattern Book activity to be described can provide a means of introducing and reinforcing high frequency vocabulary within a Language Experience Approach. With this activity the teacher selects a high frequency word (or a few words) which a small group of students or an individual student does not know. These words may come from the students' self-selection, from student' dictation, from a word list or from a basal pre-primer. The teacher then thinks of a common pattern in which the word(s) might appear.

For instance, the students and/or the teacher may decide that "this" is a word needed to be learned. The teacher then constructs a pattern using the word "this." For example, "This is a _____." Having selected such a pattern, the teacher follows these directions with a small group of students or an individual student:

Have students cut pictures of interest to them out of magazines. Large, colorful advertisement illustrations in magazines such as Ebony, Life, and Sports Illustrated are good sources. Paste each of these pictures on a large sheet of lined paper.

With the students, say and slowly print the chosen pattern under the picture pasted on the first page of paper. "This is a _____." The students take turns

completing the pattern for each picture on each page. Print exactly what the student says. Re-read as you print. You may ask the students what letter or sound certain words begin with. Re-read the pattern dictated with the students before going on to a new page. After doing seven or eight pages, put them together into a book. Make a book cover from construction paper and have students select a title. Put their names on the cover as authors. Re-read the book with the students until the students can read the book by themselves.

As a next step, select a number of words from the students' book and print each word on a card. These cards can be stored in a library pocket pasted in the back cover of the book. Have students practice reading these word cards. If a student has trouble, have the student find the word in the book and then try to read the word card.

The student can use these word cards to remake and re-read the patterns in the book. The word cards may later be used in sentence combining activities, in which the student makes new sentences from the word cards, reads these and then copies them in a journal.

Students can share their book and word cards with other students. The books can go home to parents and/or become part of the classroom library or reading center.

Other simple patterns for beginning readers might include:

I can _____

I see a _____

We like _____

I like to _____

I have a _____

The _____ is _____

I want a _____

More advanced patterns might include:

My favorite _____ is _____

Last year I _____

My first wish is _____

My friend likes _____

Such pattern Book activities have been found to be highly effective with both young and older beginning readers. Pattern Books can provide a supportive approach for the introduction and practice of words the student uses in dictation as well as words to be met in the basal reader, thus helping slower students, or students learning English as a second language, to develop a basic sight vocabulary and to experience success.

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WHAT TO DO UNTIL THE READINESS WORKBOOKS ARRIVE!

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On a brisk October morning, Ms. Kind arrived at school early. "Are those readiness workbooks here, yet?" she asked Ms. Leeder, the principal. "Not yet," Ms. Leeder replied, "but they should be here any day now." "I hope so," responded Ms. Kind. "This morning I noticed how much the leaves have turned. The school year is moving right along. Since the school system's goal this year is to have all children ready to begin reading instruction by the time they complete kindergarten, and my children have such a long way to go, I had better get started soon." "Well, they're due in any day now," Ms. Leeder repeated as she walked out to greet the first busload of children.

Ms. Kind hurried to her kindergarten classroom and prepared for the morning's activities. As she was mixing paints and putting out clay, her mind was on the awesome responsibility of preparing all these kindergarteners for beginning reading instruction. Having taught second and third grades for several years, Ms. Kind recognized how crucial it was that first graders get off to a successful start in reading. She believed in the newly adopted school board policy that kindergarten should provide students with the essential reading readiness skills, and she had only two concerns about providing the necessary instruction. The first problem was her lack of knowledge about exactly what the essential readiness skills were and how to teach them. This problem would be solved if the readiness workbooks would just come as they were supposed to! The second problem was going to be harder to solve. When Ms. Kind taught second and third grades, she had always wondered about all the "playing" that went on in kindergarten. As she had walked past the kindergarten classroom and had seen the youngsters digging in sand and building with blocks, she had often wondered if these activities were not a waste of precious instructional time. Since then, however, Ms. Kind had taken several courses in early childhood education and, based on knowledge gained from these courses and observations of her own kindergarten class during the first six weeks of school, Ms. Kind now understood that the traditional kindergarten activities were crucial to the intellectual development of many children.

But where, she wondered that morning as the children rushed into the classroom, was she ever going to find the time to continue to provide these activities crucial for intellectual and

social development and provide her youngsters with a thorough reading readiness program? That problem, she decided, would just have to wait to be solved when the workbooks arrived.

For the next several weeks, Ms. Kind checked every day to see if the workbooks had arrived. Finally, she was told that they were back-ordered and should be there after Thanksgiving! Meanwhile, Ms. Kind knew from talking with teachers in other schools that their workbooks had arrived weeks before. When Christmas vacation began and still no readiness workbooks had appeared, Ms. Kind decided to take matters into her own hands. Armed with journal articles she had copied at the library and some current textbooks, she sat down one snowy afternoon after Christmas, determined to plan her own reading readiness program. Her list at the end of the afternoon included five major "know-ings":

1. Children must know what reading is for.

Ms. Kind was amazed to discover that many children come to school without a clear understanding of how important reading ability is, not only in school but also, in life. Marie Clay (1976) had investigated correlates of successful beginning reading in New Zealand, and had identified two groups of "disadvantaged minority" children. One group, the Maoris, possessed better capabilities with English, the language of instruction. The other group, the Samoans, while possessing less English, progressed much more satisfactorily in reading and, in fact, were very similar to the rest of the students at the end of two years of instruction. In attempting to explain these unexpected results, Clay observed that the Samoan children seemed to know more at school entrance about reading and books. She had the following conversation with a Sunday School teacher:

Clay: "Do they see their parents reading at home?"

Teacher: "No, I am sure they don't because the parents do not read English well and they have written almost nothing in Samoan."

Clay: "Do they read the Bible?"

Teacher: "Oh yes, all the time, that is, almost every day."

Clay: "Do they read the Bible aloud to the family?"

Teacher: "Yes, that is very common. And my four-year-old Samoan children who come to Sunday School all want to write. They take the pencils and paper and write..."

Clay: "Where would these young children get the idea of writing messages?"

Teacher: "I don't know."

Clay: "Would the parents write letters to Western Samoa and read mail from home? I have seen the Nuieans on Boat Day selling their crafts in the market place to the tourists but at the same time reading their mail from New Zealand and frantically writing their answers so that the boat which stays only a few hours can take the letters back to New Zealand. Would the Samoans also value their letters to and from home?"

Teacher: "Yes, they would. I never thought of that but children would see high value placed on written messages." (p.341)

As she thought about it, Ms. Kind realized that the children who didn't come from homes where reading and writing were everyday activities might not realize that you learn to read and write in school so that you can do it out in the world. Even children who come from homes where reading and writing do not occur (and it was hard for Ms. Kind to imagine homes in the 1980's where no reading and writing occur!) might not have recognized that reading and writing were going on. If a person is making supper, he or she is "cooking." The fact that the recipe in the cookbook is being read can easily go unnoticed. When one is making a shopping list, paying the bills or filling out an order blank, reading and writing are the hidden agendas. Ms. Kind vowed that, if nothing else, her kindergarteners would know some real-world reasons for learning to read and write.

2. Children must know what reading feels like and sounds like; that it must make sense and sound like English.

When she was a second/third-grade teacher, Ms. Kind had always been astonished by children who read sentences in ways which did not make any sense and then just went on reading. She had, in fact, developed the habit of correcting the child who read, "The man was a river" for the printed "The man saw a river" by asking: "The man was a river? How could that be? Could a man turn into a river? Something must be wrong. That didn't make any sense to me. Let's go back and read that sentence again." By consistently correcting the child by referring to the meaninglessness of certain oral reading errors and insisting that making sense was the bottom line of reading, Ms. Kind was usually able to help students eventually develop this internal feedback system. Now she realized by reading the articles and books of various experts that children do not come automatically equipped with this internal feedback system. The notion that reading has to sound right and make sense is probably developed through many early being-read-to experiences as well as by modelling. Some self-taught readers, in fact, reported that when they came to a word they didn't know, they "...think about what would go there" or "...just say what would sound right" (Taylor, 1977, 669). Ms. Kind thought about the recent advances in medicine and physical education involving the use of biofeedback. Patients who suffer from high blood pressure or other imbalances of internal body functions are sometimes taught to control these ordinarily involuntary processes by being given feedback, usually by a meter connected to them with electrodes, on how the functions change as they concentrate to modify them. It occurred to her that the internal feedback "meter" for readers is the feeling readers get regarding the sense and sound of what they read. If children can be persuaded to use this internal meter, they learn to control the otherwise involuntary eye movements and internal speech mechanisms so important to fluent reading with comprehension. Ms. Kind realized that it is this internal feedback meter which alerts good readers when their reading fails to sound right or make sense, and that it is this meter which compels them to reread to self-correct when their attention has been temporarily distracted from gaining meaning.

3. In order to read with comprehension, children must be able to listen with comprehension.

This knowing was no surprise to Ms. Kind. She had known for a long time that children could not read better than they could listen. She had always done a lot of listening comprehension activities with her second and third graders and was doing some as well with her kindergarteners. She often used every-pupil-response activities during or after the reading of a picture book to help focus the attention of every child on what was being listened to. She also held "conversation times" with small groups of children in order to help them learn to express their ideas in sentences. During these times, she never corrected the child's language patterns. Rather, she accepted the response as spoken and then repeated it in the language pattern more apt to be used in writing. If a child said, "My dog ain't got no tail," Ms. Kind responded "Your dog doesn't have a tail? What happened to it?" Phrase and short sentence responses made by the children were expanded by Ms. Kind as she accepted the child's responses with a syntactically more complex translation. The development of concepts and meaning vocabulary also accounted for a large chunk of the instructional time Ms. Kind had with her children. Finding that listening comprehension ability was essential for success in reading, Ms. Kind determined to redouble her efforts in that area.

4. Children who are successful in beginning reading know the conventions and jargon of print.

There are some things about reading and writing which are peculiar to print. We read and write starting in the top left-hand corner, go across a line, make a return sweep and go across the next line until we come to the bottom of the page. Left-hand pages are read before right-hand pages. That which can be said, can be written. That which can be written, can be read. In reading and writing, one must understand some terminology. To many beginning readers, a letter is something the mailman brings; words are something they use all the time but don't know as separate entities. (Ask the average five-year-old how many words there are in "Bill Brown wants an ice cream cone"!) And if they have any meaning at all for sentence, it may be because they heard it used by a judge on television.

5. Children who are successful in beginning reading can visually discriminate letters and words.

As Ms. Kind was reading about visual discrimination, she discovered that it is currently believed that most young people can see likenesses and differences in objects and shapes but that they cannot always match like letters and words. This makes sense, she thought, because they have had much experience with objects and have not had much practice in discriminating letters and words. Furthermore, letters and words are different from objects in that the way a letter or word is oriented makes a difference. Ms. Kind thought about her two-year-old niece, Katrine, who knew what a chair was. One day, Katrine came to visit. A dining room chair was turned upside down while the glue for a

loose rung dried. Katrine entered the room, pointed to the chair, and said "What's that?" "Why, you know what that is, Katrine," Ms. Kind said. "It's a chair. I just had it turned upside down while the glue dried. You remember it had a loose rung in back. Now it is dry so we can put it back up." All during the afternoon, when Ms. Kind was out of the room, Katrine would turn the chair over and then attempt (usually unsuccessfully) to turn it up again.

As Ms. Kind thought about Katrine's "What's that?" reaction to the overturned chair and her continued need to turn it this way and that way, Ms. Kind realized that children do not come into the world knowing that it doesn't matter which way you turn something, it stays the same thing. They learn this important concept by manipulations such as those performed by Katrine on the chair. By the time most children come to school, they know it doesn't matter what order things are in or how you turn them, they stay the same things. Then - they meet letters and words. Suddenly, order and position do matter. As Ms. Kind thought about providing her children with visual discriminations of letter and word practice, she realized that she would have to make it clear to them that with letters and words, unlike objects, when they are turned around they are no longer the same.

As Ms. Kind finished her list of essential reading readiness knowings, she realized that there were a number of things she believed were important to success in beginning reading which were not on her list. Didn't all children need to know some letter-sound associations before beginning to read and wasn't the ability to name the letters of the alphabet the best indicator of success in beginning reading? A little more reading revealed that while learning letter-sound associations is important to reading success, it is only prerequisite to reading success if the approach to beginning reading starts by having the children decode words. If the approach to beginning reading is one in which the children learn some sight words and then are taught inductively the sounds represented by the letters in their known words, letter-sound association knowledge can be taught along with beginning reading rather than required before reading instruction begins.

The letter-name information she found was frankly shocking. She found that the ability to name letters was indeed the best predictor of success in beginning reading and that traditionally much time and effort has been expended to teach all kindergarteners their letter names. In many cases, beginning reading instruction has been postponed until a child could name all upper and lower case letters. What Ms. Kind discovered, however, was that letter-name knowledge was an indicator of a lot of experience with reading and writing. Children who came to school able to name all the letter of the alphabet also had many of the other important readiness knowings. Just teaching the letter names without building these other knowings would not result in a child's being successful in beginning reading. Letter-name knowledge, however, is important since teachers and instructional materials use the letter names as an integral part of beginning reading instruction. Children who don't know the letter names

are apt to be confused about what tasks they are asked to do. Ms. Kind decided that she would try to teach all the children the names of the letters but would remember that, as with letter-sound associations, children could begin reading and learn some of the letter names as they went along and that the five knowings she had compiled must be developed in the children before or during this instruction.

By the time Ms. Kind had finished all her reading and thinking, it was dark outside and her boy was demanding refreshment with which to replenish all the energy she had expended that afternoon. As she was making a turkey sandwich, she vowed to take another afternoon and plan how she was going to accomplish what she now knew had to be done. As with most vacations, however, time passed quickly and Ms. Kind found herself returning to school with her list of five knowings but without a definite plan for teaching them.

As her kindergarteners burst into the classroom, Ms. Kind was amazed to notice how little they were. "When you work with them every day," she thought, "they look sort of normal size. But when you haven't seen them in a while, you see them as the tiny people they really are." Every child had brought something he or she had gotten over the holidays. They spent a long time in a circle sharing and talking about the summer and what each had brought. Then, Ms. Kind had an idea. "Wouldn't you like to write a story telling what everyone got?" she suggested. The children were enthusiastic and Ms. Kind assigned them to four groups of six or seven children each so that she could write the stories with them in small groups. She then let all but one group of children choose a center in which to work for the first 25 minutes. With the group of children who stayed with her, she wrote on chart paper each child's sentence telling what he or she had gotten. Her chart looked like this:

I got a football. (Carol)
I got a spider man. (Bill)
I got a Sesame Street book. (Joshua)
I got a tape recorder. (Cathy)
I got a Candyland game. (Burt)
I got a lunch box. (Sam)

Once the chart was written and read by Ms. Kind and chorally by the group, several children wanted to read the chart. They all knew that each sentence began with: I got a, and they all knew their own gifts. But, most did not know each other's gift. Ms. Kind solved the problem of each child wanting to read the whole story by having each one stand and hold up the object as the reader was reading that sentence. Even Burt, who was a "young" kindergartener in every way, was able to read the whole story as each child popped up, proudly holding his or her object while Burt read their sentences.

Using this procedure, Ms. Kind met with each group (two before lunch and two after) and helped them write a chart. She

then hung the charts by the door and explained to the class that the charts would tell anyone who came to visit their classroom what each child had gotten over the holidays.

That afternoon, Ms. Kind sat down and looked at her list of five essential readiness knowings. She was amazed to realize that in doing the charts with the children, a natural outgrowth of their morning sharing time, she had begun to accomplish some of her readiness objectives. Hanging the charts by the door so that visitors could find out what the different children had received helped the children to realize that writing and reading provide information and consequently began to meet the goal that children would know what reading was for.

Because they were involved in giving their sentences, watching them being written, reading them and listening to others read them, they were gaining an internal sense of what reading feels like. Ms. Kind had guided their hands as they were reading and she could see that they were gaining experience with the convention that reading is done from left to right and top to bottom. While Ms. Kind hadn't drawn attention to the concepts of letter, word and sentence nor provided practice in visual discrimination, she realized that she could use the dictated story as a vehicle for this learning. On the following day, she did just that.

First she met with each group and reread the story. She had asked each child to bring his or her gift back to school and so, once again, she had each one stand and display his or her object as that sentence was being read. In this way, all the children were able to read the whole story successfully. When everyone who chose to had a chance to read the story, Ms. Kind took out some sentence strips. "Now," she explained, "I am going to write each of your sentences. But I am not necessarily going to write Carol's sentence first because Carol's sentence is at the top or Sam's sentence last because his is at the bottom. (Ms. Kind emphasized the underlined words because they are part of the terminology children must learn if they are to be successful in beginning reading.) She then wrote I and asked the group whose sentence she was writing. When all hands flew up, Ms. Kind drew their attention to the chart and to the fact that all of the sentences began with the word I. The children concluded that you couldn't tell whose sentence it would be from just the first word, I.

When Ms. Kind, after writing got, asked whose sentence it was, only half the hands went up. The children were led to observe that since all sentences had got as the second word, you still couldn't tell. No hands were raised when Ms. Kind wrote a, but the children were eagerly watching for the next word. This word, they had figured out, would determine whose sentence was being written. In this manner, each child's sentence was written. As Ms. Kind was writing the last three sentences, she guided the children in to seeing that they might be able to tell by the first letter of the fourth word whose sentence it would be. When all the sentences were written on sentence strips, Ms. Kind cut each child's sentence into words and had the child "Put them

in order to make them say your sentence." She circulated, giving praise and assistance as they completed this visual discrimination and left-right orientation activity.

That afternoon, as Ms. Kind sat down with her list, she was delighted to see that she had indeed helped her children to become acquainted with the jargon of reading, and that she had given them some practice in left-right orientation and word matching. Since she had read the children several of the new books they had gotten for holiday gifts, she had also helped improve their listening comprehension. With one of the books which was familiar to all the children, The Three Billy Goats, Ms. Kind had intentionally made some reading errors which didn't sound right or make sense. The children were quick to point out these errors to her. Ms. Kind realized that she could use this strategy to help her children become aware that when reading, if it didn't sound right and make sense, something was wrong and you had better look again at what you read.

Over the next several weeks, Ms. Kind found numerous opportunities to develop the essential readiness knowings as she worked with her children in traditional kindergarten activities. Before baking No Mess (???) Valentine Cookies, Ms. Kind and the children read the recipe together and did word matching activities. Ms. Kind used this opportunity to discuss with the children things you have to read in order to do. For homework, each child was to interview parents and/or neighbors and find out what they read to do their jobs at home or at work. The children were to bring samples of this reading material, if possible, to school. To Ms. Kind's delight, she soon had a bulletin board full of menus, package labels, bus routes, train schedules, invoices, and other real-world reading materials. There was no doubt that each and every one of her students would see reading as a "real world" essential.

As an outgrowth of a simple paper bag puppet-making activity she did with the children, Ms. Kind made Mr. Blooper, a puppet who always made bloopers when he read. The children begged for Mr. Blooper to read books and eagerly pointed out to him that his bloopers "can't be what it says, that doesn't sound right. You made a blooper. Read it again so that it makes sense." Thanks to Mr. Blooper, Ms. Kind's children all know that making sense is the bottom line of reading.

To help the students further internalize this sense that reading must feel and sound right, Ms. Kind did several things. First, she initiated a brief period (five minutes) of sustained silent "reading" every day during which each student chose a picture book or a wordless picture book and "read" it. Ms. Kind also read a book during this time. While such periods were in progress, Ms. Kind often had guests come by to sit with the group and model reading. These guests included parents, first- and second-grade teachers, older children, and the principal. Second, she taught comprehension lessons using wordless picture books. In these lessons, she always gave the children one purpose for "reading" and then let them look at a few pages in the book while she held it. Then, with the book closed, she asked them to answer

a question or perform a verbal task which was directly based on the purpose for "reading" she had given them. She would write down exactly what each child said on chart paper, just like a language experience lesson. When she had several statements written, she would open the book back up and ask the students to decide which statements were right and how to change the ones that weren't. Third, she had children follow along in a short book while listening to the record or tape once or twice a day until they could "read" it fluently with the recording. Each time she would listen to someone read, she would say, "There, now you're beginning to sound like a good reader. Doesn't that feel good?"

Teaching listening comprehension had always been a strength of Ms. Kind's and she did a fine job with this as the year went on. One discovery which disturbed her was that many of her children were unfamiliar with the supposedly familiar, classic stories for children. She solved this problem by reading these stories to the children and taping the story as she read it. (The children were to clap their hands as she turned the page. This became the audible "turn page" signal on the tape.) The children would listen to the story in small groups several times so that they were very familiar with it. When all the children were familiar with the story, Ms. Kind would lead them to list major events, sequence events, discuss characters and then act out the stories. The children loved doing these story dramatizations and Ms. Kind found that they listened better and remembered more when they had the lure of being able to act out the parts as a purpose and motivator.

Ms. Kind found that, after dictating and reading many language experience charts like the one they did after the Christmas Holidays, all of her children proceeded automatically to read print from left-to-right and top-to-bottom and were clear about the meaning of such terms as letter, word, sentence, top, bottom, first, last, etc. After much experience with matching words and letters from these stories, they had good visual discrimination of letters and words and had learned many of the letter names.

One day in April, after Ms. Kind had forgotten their very existence, the readiness workbooks arrived with some apology about a warehouse fire. Ms. Leeder brought them to her classroom and, after commiserating with Ms. Kind for having to "struggle along" almost the entire year without them, urged Ms. Kind to "do what you can in the few short weeks remaining."

Ms. Kind was about to explain to Ms. Leeder that she had, in fact, gotten along quite well without the books, but Ms. Leeder went rushing off to "man the busses." Ms. Kind then opened a workbook and perused its contents. She found page after page of lessons designed to teach letter names and sounds. She also found that the readiness workbook taught a number of sight words. Little space was given to the more basic and global readiness knowings she had been teaching. Ms. Kind realized that what she had been teaching required that children be in the presence of reading and writing and could not be neatly packaged in workbook

format. "It's an ill wind that blows no good," she thought. "That warehouse fire gave me time to get them ready for readiness."

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DIRECT INSTRUCTION OF COMPREHENSION: WHAT DOES IT REALLY MEAN?

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The term "direct instruction" is being applied more and more to the teaching of reading, particularly to the teaching of comprehension. The most dramatic evidence of this is the commitment recently made by the Center for the Study of Reading:

During the next five years, a major task of the Center for the Study of Reading ought to be to devise improved means of instruction based on insights that are emerging from basic research into the nature of reading. The challenge is to develop direct methods for teaching basic reading comprehension skills, basic study skills and basic thinking skills to tens of thousands of children who, in the absence of explicit instruction, are not acquiring these skills today. This is a challenge we accept with enthusiasm (Anderson, p. 6).

Similarly, we find reading researchers suggesting (1) the need to directly "induce" inferencing (Hansen, 1981), (2) the importance of directly teaching comprehension of math word problems (Cohen & Stover, 1982), (3) the need to provide direct instruction for concepts about a topic which is to be read (Pearson, Hansen & Gordon, 1979) and (4) the need to directly instruct the deciphering of an author's organizational plan (Pearson & Camperell, in press). In addition, the desirability of direct and structured instruction in the acquisition of decoding, a concept which had already been accepted in some quarters, has recently been re-affirmed by Calfee and Piontkowski (1981).

Such widespread use of "direct instruction" implies a shared understanding. Presumably, the accepted meaning is the one associated with the results of process-product research in which teacher behaviors correlated with greater achievement gains are characterized as "direct instruction" (Rosenshine, 1976; 1979; 1980; Rosenshine & Stevens, in press). Hence, direct instruction means an academic focus, precise sequencing of content, high pupil engagement, careful teacher monitoring and specific corrective feedback to students.

There is little to debate regarding the validity of findings which suggest that instruction focusing directly on the task of learning to comprehend will result in greater and more consistent achievement than incidental, spontaneous and/or oblique instruction. Within this framework, however, the term "direct

instruction" can mask a multitude of qualitatively divergent classroom styles. To illustrate, we will briefly describe a study in which two second grade teachers, each reflecting the characteristics associated with direct instruction, provided noticeably different kinds of reading and language arts instruction for their students. With this study as a basis, we will then offer some "food for thought" regarding reading the instruction of reading comprehension.

A Study of Two Direct Instruction Teachers

The study encompassed six weeks of daily language arts and reading instruction as conducted consecutively by two teachers in the same second grade classroom in a K-12 American school located in an English-speaking, expatriate community overseas. The first teacher was the established second grade teacher (hereinafter referred to as "the regular teacher"). She was in her seventh year of teaching, had nearly completed a Master's degree and was the designated leader of the three teachers who comprised the second grade team. The second teacher (hereinafter referred to as "the temporary teacher") assumed for four and one-half weeks the total instructional responsibility for reading and language instruction in the same classroom. He is a professor and researcher of reading instruction who had nine years of elementary classroom teaching experience and fifteen years of subsequent university work.

Both teachers worked under the same set of constraints. For instance, both were accountable for the coverage of instructional objectives mandated in the curriculum guide, both had to use specific commercial textbooks in reading, language and spelling, and both had to adhere to the established, school-wide grouping pattern.

The regular teacher, who had been teaching the class since September, was observed on seven consecutive school days in early January as she conducted her reading and language arts program. The temporary teacher then took over the class and maintained full responsibility until mid-February. While they were teaching, both were observed by a veteran participant observer. For the regular teacher, the observer collected 32 hours of field notes, notes from three interviews and 19 entries made in a self-report journal. Data were analyzed using standard procedures recommended for naturalistic data. Details regarding data collection and analysis are available elsewhere (Duffy, Roehler & Reinsmoen).

The results indicated that, at a superficial level, the two teachers were virtually identical in their approach to and their handling of language and reading instruction. Both worked hard, had similar styles of interacting with children, established pleasant but efficient environments, used similar management procedures, were task-oriented and academically-focused, generated high pupil engagement rates, used commercial materials efficiently, monitored pupil efforts carefully, provided direct feedback to children, grouped in standard ways and provided differential instruction to various groups depending upon need. In short, both conducted their work in a professional manner, both created

warm, pupil-centered environments and both embodied the characteristics of direct instruction. In fact, one suspects that if both teachers had been subjects in a process-product study, they would have been judged to have equivalent instructional behavior.

However, the rich information provided by the descriptive data indicate that, despite the apparent similarities in their work, the two teachers were in fact qualitatively different in both what they taught and how they taught it.

Close examination of the data revealed that the temporary teacher was actually teaching different content than the regular teacher, despite the fact that both used the same textbooks and adhered to the same institutional mandates. He added content to that suggested by the textbooks, presented other content in different contexts, introduced reading-language activities that went beyond the boundaries of the commercial textbooks and integrated these in various ways. In short, the regular teacher accepted uncritically the curriculum specified in the textbooks and assumed that it should not be modified; in contrast, the temporary teacher routinely made modifications in what constituted reading and how pupils did or did not reflect the conception in their use of reading.

Similarly, even though both teachers used the required texts as an integral part of instruction, there were substantial differences in how pupils were instructed. The regular teacher viewed instruction as the monitoring of pupils through materials of commercial origin, and providing guidance in response to pupil errors. Her attitude was that pupils will learn to read by virtue of repeated exposure to the activities associated with covering the textbook. Consequently, her instructional efforts focused on the routine procedures necessary for completing the activity, and was, in this sense, activity-focused. The temporary teacher, in contrast, used a variety of materials but, when he did use the commercial materials, he did so only after he had modified the recommended instructional sequence and structure to allow for teacher-led explanations designed to make explicit the cognitive processing he wanted pupils to use successfully when completing the activities prescribed by the textual materials. His instructional efforts emphasized how pupils could consciously regulate their use of language conventions and was, in this sense, metacognitive.

In sum, while the instruction of the two teachers was similar in many ways and undeniably "direct" in the sense that both met the criteria suggested by process-product research, there were substantial qualitative differences both in what they taught and how they taught it. These differences suggest the need for more precise uses of the term "direct instruction."

Food for Thought

The two teachers studied here do not necessarily generalize to all teachers. However, the account does provoke reflection. Just as it is intuitively sensible that "direct" instruction will be more effective than "indirect" instruction in achieving specifiable goals, it is also intuitively sensible that instruc-

tion which is direct can take qualitatively different forms. Reading researchers have done very little thinking about such qualitative aspects of reading instruction generally or of direct instruction of comprehension in particular. Three thoughts stimulated by the study reported here may help initiate such thinking.

First, the fact that the two teachers were similar in so many ways relating to the development of a warm and efficiently managed learning environment suggests that such considerations are crucial foundations for instruction, whatever form it takes. Both teachers invested large quantities of physical, emotional and intellectual effort in establishing and maintaining this foundation, both were consciously aware that their instructional effectiveness depended upon their ability to mold all the complex personalities and components of that second grade into a smoothly functioning unit and both viewed reading instruction within the context of this organizational reality. Understanding the significance and nature of this complex prerequisite to effective instruction may be the first step in considering the qualitative dimensions of direct instruction.

Second, the study dramatized the need to expand our understanding of instruction generally. Should instruction of basic reading be simply a process of repeated exposure to reading materials? The work of the regular teacher, as well as the results of classroom studies of reading practices (Duffy & McIntyre, 1980; Durkin, 1979; Morine-Dershimer, 1979) indicate that this is the way it often is in the reality of the classroom. The work of the temporary teacher, however, illustrates that expanded concepts of instruction are possible; however, much conceptual effort needs to be devoted to explicating such models.

Third, we need to determine whether instructional models which call for substantive instructional decision-making (such as that exemplified by the temporary teacher [or variations]) are reasonable alternatives to the instructional patterns of the regular teacher. The temporary teacher implemented his decision-making model of instruction not only because he possessed rich and refined conceptions of both the nature of reading and the nature of instruction but because he, unlike the regular teacher, was not permanently subjected to the contextual pressures and realities of day-to-day classroom instruction. While it is legitimate to point to the temporary teacher as evidence that alternatives to the repeated exposure model of instruction exist, it is altogether another to argue that the temporary teacher's four and a half week stint constitutes evidence that such a model of instruction can be sustained. In fact, some results from research on teaching suggest that sustaining such a pattern would be difficult, at best (Duffy, Note 3; Note 4). If more substantive instruction than repeated exposure is desired, reading educators must either find effective ways to develop teachers who can implement such models in the face of the complexities of real classrooms or we will have to face the implications of Rosenshine's (Note 5) prediction that it is virtually impossible to create enough master teachers and that, to guarantee uniformly competent instruction, "master developers" must create scripts which teachers can follow explicitly.

Conclusion

While we accept the common sense notion that reading comprehension instruction which is direct will be more effective than instruction which is not, we nevertheless suggest that direct instruction itself embodies considerable qualitative variation. Consequently, we cannot accept the term uncritically. Instead, we must, first, place reading instruction within the context of the day-to-day realities of classroom life and, second, conceptually and empirically develop our understanding of the qualitative dimensions of direct instruction. Anything less than a concentrated attack on these questions will leave us ambivalent about what direct instruction really means and how such instruction can actually be applied to improve classroom comprehension instruction.

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INTEGRATING THE LANGUAGE ARTS FOR PRIMARY-AGE DISABLED READERS

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Children who attended the University of Missouri Child Study Clinic had an opportunity to participate in a program of reading instruction based upon a theory of the reading process developed by Kenneth S. Goodman. Goodman viewed reading as a meaning seeking process which has two characteristics. One is that the reader is attempting to get at meaning. The second is that he or she is using whole language to do so (Brenner, 1976). This whole-language comprehension-centered approach to the teaching of reading is rooted in the belief that children learn to read in as natural a way as they learn to speak.

Studies in language acquisition clearly indicate that children are endowed with an innate ability to learn language (Brown, 1973; Brown & Bellugi, 1964; Slobin, 1971) and that, based upon the speech they hear, they are able to construct the phonological, syntactic, and semantic rule systems of their language. Hoskisson (1979) points out that this process is not automatic but extends over a long period of time and takes the form of a series of grammars which have their own phonological, syntactic, and semantic components which gradually approximate the language of the adults in their environment. Adults reinforce language learning in children. Goodman stated, when parents respond to what their children are saying, language is being facilitated. Children soon realize that language is worthwhile because it gets them what they want and what they need. As children learn to speak in a natural way, they also learn to read naturally (Brenner, 1976).

Thus learning to read is an extension of natural language learning. It is Goodman's contention that reading, like language learning, becomes self-motivating if it is meaningful and functional. Therefore, reading must be presented to children as a productive and worthwhile experience.

Using the children's natural language abilities as a starting point, instruction in reading at the Child Study Clinic was integrated within a total language arts curriculum. Instructional strategies emphasized the interrelationship of reading, writing, speaking, and listening. It was felt that if children were to expand their language learning, numerous opportunities would have to be provided so they could use their own natural language,

both oral and written, to communicate. Thus expansion became a key component to the program. Teachers developed activities which served to enrich and broaden children's language concepts and experiences. These activities, in turn, generated many natural reading and writing experiences. For example, the oral language that the children used and heard daily was utilized as material for instruction rather than fragmenting language into bits and pieces, such as syllables or sounds. As a result no artificial exercises in recitation or drill were used.

To assist children in gaining meaning from print, instruction incorporated the three systems of language: the graphophonemic (sound-symbol relationships) system, the syntactic (grammatical structure) system, and the the semantic (meaning) system. Children were encouraged to use information from the integration of all three language systems and the isolated use of any one system was avoided. Since children read, wrote, and talked about the activities they participated in, reading became immediately meaningful and purposeful for them.

The following four components formed the bases for the language arts curricula. Each component was utilized daily.

Teaching Component One: Opportunities for discussion and spontaneous conversation.

Rationale: When a child has something to say, it is at that point that he or she is motivated to use language (Smith, Goodman and Meredith, 1976).

Although children were encouraged to freely express themselves at all times, the beginning minutes of each session were identified as an especially appropriate time to discuss personal news, such as: family activities, events that had occurred since the previous day, television programs, and individual interests. Children were also encouraged to ask questions, share experiences, and to listen as others talked. Teachers asked openended questions rather than questions calling for specific answers. Such questions allowed children to express their ideas, opinions and feelings. In addition, teachers served as models for language behaviors by:

- using language that was natural and situationally appropriate
- expanding and restating child utterances when appropriate
- listening attentively and showing interest when the children spoke

Teaching Component Two: Daily reading to the children.

Rationale: A child's ability to learn to read print will depend on his or her prior familiarity with written language, which can only be gained by being read to (Smith, 1979). Learning to read naturally begins when children are read to at an early age and are allowed to handle books. Children who hear prose and poetry written in a variety of moods and styles are being prepared to encounter and enjoy the writings and styles of many different authors and to become authors themselves (Goodman and Watson, 1976).

Teachers read daily to students. They selected materials

from a variety of sources: short stories, poetry, the children's section from a local newspaper, and chapters from books. Selection was made on the basis of stylistic merit and interest rather than on traditional readability factors, such as word frequency or sentence length. Once reading was established as a comfortable part of the morning routine, teachers encouraged the children to predict what might happen next in the story. In some instances, at the conclusion of the story, the children were asked to create a different ending for the story. The previous day's reading was frequently discussed, particularly when a long selection was read. Favorite stories were re-read. The teacher's reading frequently resulted in follow-up group activities such as: art project, cooking experiences, and writing.

Teaching Component Three: Daily reading by both the children and their teachers.

Rationale: Reading is learned through reading. Children need adults as models: they will try to learn and understand what adults do, provided they see adults enjoying the activity (Smith, 1979).

For children to learn to read they must have an opportunity to interact with books (Brenner, 1976). Daily reading was accomplished through a Sustained Silent Reading Program (SSR). Guidelines for SSR were developed by McCracken (1971):

1. Each student must read silently
2. The teacher reads, and permits no interruption of his reading
3. Each student selects a single book (or magazine or newspaper)
4. A timer is used
5. There are absolutely no reports or records of any kind
6. Begin with whole classes or larger groups of students

A reading corner was designated and everyone gathered there to read during the silent reading time. A time was set initially for five minutes and gradually increased to fifteen minutes. Additional opportunities for reading were also available during the individual activities time (free time).

A system called Mine, Yours, and Ours (Goodman & Watson, 1976) was used for selecting the daily reading materials. The student's choice, without adult interference, was the Mine selection, while the Yours selection was made by the teacher. The Ours selection was one mutually agreed upon by the student and the teacher. This selection process was also used when the group made its weekly trips to the library to check out books. Rather than using traditional book reports, a simple bookkeeping system was used. On a 3 x 5 card each student wrote his or her name and the title of the book read. On the reverse side of the card the student answered two questions. The following is an example of the bookkeeping system used (next page):

Front	Back
Your Name ----- Book Title ----- 	Did you finish the book? yes no Did you like the book? yes no

This system enabled teachers to keep abreast of the students' daily reading. Children engaged in both oral and silent reading. During oral reading no attempt was made to correct children. Oral reading was used for pleasure and for communicating meaning to the listener.

Teaching Component Four: Daily writing by both the children and their teachers.

Rationale: As long as writing is a natural and purposeful activity which poses no threat, children will write and consequently will learn. Children will strive to make sense of writing in the same way they strive to make sense of any activity through the manner in which it satisfies purposes and achieves intentions (Smith, 1979).

The content of the writings was generally student initiated. No writing assignments were made by the teachers, although suggestions were given when appropriate. As in reading, the teachers served as models and they actively engaged in meaningful and purposeful writing themselves.

The writings were not graded or corrected and the children's spellings no matter how poorly executed were accepted and encouraged. The focus of the writings was on communication of these ideas and meanings, not on the mechanics of writing and correct spelling. Writings were always read. Teachers read the writings of children and encouraged children to read their own and each other's writings.

Language experience activities were utilized in various forms. The children dictated and wrote about field trips, cooking experiences, school activities, family events, week-end trips, and parties. The teacher wrote these dictations on charts that were placed on the walls. The children read, reread, and referred to them often.

Patterned after SSR, Sustained Silent Writing was also initiated. The writing was carried on by both teacher and student during the individual activities time. Discussion preceded the writing as boys and girls were helped to verbalize an idea that might become the topic of the writing. Writing about themselves was particularly encouraged.

Close communication between students, teachers, and parents was maintained throughout the duration of the program. Strategies were presented to parents to assist them in incorporating many of the daily teaching components into family activities. Parents were encouraged to:

- read daily to their children
- write notes to their children
- involve their child in family discussion
- and
- make weekly trips to the local public library

The following are examples of some of the activities used in the program:

Establish a class post office. Encourage children to send notes to each other. Teachers write a special note to each child weekly.

Bring the child's real world to the classroom by having children bring food and household products to set up a play grocery store. Students can make shopping lists, commercials, and stories about their store.

Provide cartoon strips without words so students can write their own dialogue.

Provide direct learning experience such as cooking, science experiments, nature walks, caring for plants and animals, etc. The activities can be incorporated into daily activities for talking, writing, and reading.

Include in the classroom many predictable books. Books are predictable if the child can predict what the author is going to say and how s/he will say it. Following is a sample listing of such books: The Three Billy Goats Gruff by Marcia Brown, Harcourt Brace and World, 1957.

Goodnight Moon by Margaret W. Brown, Harper and Row, 1947.

Drummer Hoff by Barbara & Ed Emberly, Prentice-Hall, 1967.

I Love You, Mouse by John Graham, Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1976.

The Fat Cat by Jack Kent, Scholastic Book Services, 1971.

One Sunday Morning by Uri Shulevitz, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1967.

Encourage children to write daily. Ideas for daily writing would include: charts, poems, short stories, captions, posters, books, journals, etc.

Have children select a partner for reading. They

As stated earlier, the emphasis of the program was to integrate the language arts curriculum for primary-age learning disabled children. The areas of listening, speaking, reading, and writing were never considered as isolated skills but as interrelated variables to language and learning.

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THE LANGUAGE EXPERIENCE APPROACH: A TRANSITION FROM ORAL TO WRITTEN LANGUAGE

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A child's speaking ability is a valuable resource for the beginning reading teacher. Research findings about children's language acquisition have lent support to theories of language, such as Chomsky's (1959) criticism of Skinner's (1957) behaviorist explanation of language; it might be supposed that those findings would play a similar supporting role for theories about the learning of reading, a language-related activity. In fact, the language research most relevant to reading educators is that which highlights the differences between oral and written language. An exception is research about a late-developing aspect of language competence called metalinguistic ability, the mature speaker's ability to reflect upon language.

A language experience approach to the teaching of beginning reading makes use of the valuable resource of children's speaking ability. But more importantly, it also cultivates metalinguistic ability and eases the child's transition between two very different forms of language, utterance and text.

1. Theories of Language Development and Applications to Reading

A recurring discovery of research in the development of language production is the regular, systematic, and often universal nature of that development. Examples include the systematic evolution of word meaning (E. Clark, 1973; and Nelson, 1974); the universal importance of word order (Slobin, 1971; and Braine, 1976); and the regular order of appearance of sounds (Jakobson, 1971; and Foss and Hakes, 1978), forms of negation (Bellugi, 1967), forms of the interrogative (Bellugi, 1965), inflections (Gleason, 1958), obligatory syntactic features (Brown, 1973), and transformations (Menyuk, 1969). Considering that a behaviorist theory of language cannot account for all such regularities (Wardhaugh, 1971) nor for the limited role of expansion and imitation in language learning (Brown and Bellugi, 1964; and Cazden, 1965), other explanations must be sought. The two main alternatives are the nativist and cognitive theories of language acquisition.

Nativist Theory

Chomsky (1967, 1968, 1972, 1980) has delineated a theory of an innate facility for language learning, or universal grammar. Rosemont (1974) emphasizes the language-specificity of the innate mental structure that Chomsky hypothesizes. McNeill's (1970) concept of an innate language acquisition device (LAD) is consistent

with Chomsky's theory. Giordano (1979) outlines support for the innateness hypothesis, especially for language ability being discrete from other, later-developing forms of abstract ideation. He goes on to describe an approach to reading readiness instruction that would make use of the same inherited aptitudes that promote oral language learning.

Cognitive Theory

A cognitive explanation of language acquisition emphasizes biologically determined mental abilities, but sees no need to characterize any such abilities as language-specific. Several observations point to a relationship between speech development and the development of general cognitive ability. For example, McNeill (1970) accounts for holophrases (one-word utterances) as their being the left-overs when parts of sentence-like concepts are lost before production, and Menyuk (1969) explains observed development in children's sentence structure in terms of growth in memory capacity.

Besides memory and control of specific production processes, other general cognitive abilities come into play, such as those that characterize Piaget's stages of development. Foss and Hakes (1978) point out that the child's understanding of object permanence surely contributes to the onset of one-word utterances and that the change from the sensory motor to the preoperational stage seems to parallel the transition to utterances longer than one word, in which words must function as parts of wholes. Flavell (1977) argues for the existence of cognitive, rather than linguistic, universals. He says that children use the same strategies to interpret both non-linguistic events and language. Slobin (1966, 1970, 1973), among linguists, makes the strongest claim that general cognitive and mental development is the critical determinant of language acquisition. Contributing factors are growing ability to deal with the world, increasing short- and long-term memory ability, and strengthening information processing ability (Slobin, 1966).

The disagreement between the nativists and the cognitive theorists is not nearly as fundamental as their common differences with behaviorists. In many cases it reflects a difference in emphasis and in choice of data. It seems that there may be linguistic and cognitive universals. The former restrict the forms into which human languages may evolve and the child's innate acquaintance with them directs—makes most efficient—his or her application of the latter to the task of learning language.

Direct Application to Reading

Two explanations of the reading process emphasize the parallels between oral and written language, their common dependence upon syntactic and semantic constraints. Goodman (1967 and 1973) calls reading a psycholinguistic guessing game with graphophonic, syntactic, and semantic clues. By sampling, predicting, testing, and confirming, the reader determines the writer's message with minimal dependence upon graphemes. F. Smith's (1971) description of the reading process in terms of reduction of uncertainty is similar. The amount of dependence upon visible features varies

with the amount of syntactic and semantic information that is available. Studies of children's oral reading errors, even in the first grade (Weber, 1970), reveal a grammatical awareness of preceding text, which lends support to such theories of reading.

Examples of efforts to coordinate the reading and language-processing abilities of children include comparisons of the language in reading texts and the oral language of children. In 1962, Strickland found that the former was more advanced than the latter, and that reading texts seemed to lack a scheme for controlling introduction of sentence structures. Ruddell (1974) tested fourth graders' comprehension of texts written with common and uncommon syntactic patterns, using cloze tests. He found better comprehension of high frequency syntactic patterns. Shuy (1969) called for a new system of language arts instruction, emphasizing self-instruction, stressing the innate ability of students, and using texts that reflect children's oral language.

Bougere (1969) attempted to identify oral language predictors of beginning reading success, but failed to find significant results for most of her hypotheses.

It seems from this review of language research and efforts to apply it to reading, that little has emerged that has direct, practical value for the reading teacher. Two additional areas of research, however, do have important implications for the design of a program of beginning reading instruction. One is research about children's metalinguistic ability; the other is research about differences between oral and written language.

II. Metalinguistic Ability and Reading

Metalinguistic ability is the mature speaker's ability to reflect upon language. It is evidenced by linguistic intuitions, the speaker's capacity to make judgments about such properties of utterances as grammaticality, synonymity, and ambiguity. Another aspect of such ability may be knowledge of such concepts as "letter", "word", and "sentence" (cf., Downing, 1973, in regard to "cognitive clarity" about such concepts, as a prerequisite to learning to read). This may be one aspect of language competence that overlaps with reading ability. It is acquired at roughly the same age that formal reading instruction begins.

Mattingly (1972) makes the distinction between a language-based skill, e.g., Pig Latin or reading, and primary linguistic activity, e.g., speaking and listening. He maintains that reading depends upon linguistic awareness, and that—unlike during speaking and listening—that awareness is never inaccessible during reading. Nurss (1980) reviews literature about linguistic awareness and reading and cites C. Chomsky's report, at a 1979 conference on the subject, that before third grade, children are unable to focus simultaneously on syntactic structure and meaning. She has asked grade-school children to make grammaticality judgments. Hakes, Evan, and Turner (1976) report that before age six, children's grammaticality judgments are based on content—what is asserted—rather than on form. McGhee (1974) reports that not until age six or seven do children understand puns, riddles, and other "linguistic" jokes.

Still, an obvious question remains: whether linguistic awareness—coinciding as it does with formal reading instruction—is a product of or a prerequisite to that instruction. Nurss (1980) concludes that at least word consciousness is a product. Foss and Hakes (1978) point out that linguistic intuitions may reflect the child's transition from preoperational to concrete operational thought, but they also point out that this step has only begun at age five, when reading instruction is taking place in many of our schools. They question the assumption that the child's knowledge of spoken language is great enough that it does not present any problems with learning to read. For example, children at age five and six usually do not know what phonological units are and so can not know what graphemes are meant to correspond to. They cite Weinschenk (1965) that even German children, learning to read a language with a more regular phoneme-grapheme correspondence than English, have difficulty learning to read.

III. Differences Between Oral and Written Language

Carroll (1966) points out some important differences between learning to speak and learning to read. Reading is taught, while speech is acquired informally; reading is broken down into components of the task and abstracted, while speech is experienced in its full complexity and remains situational; reading is taught before writing, while listening and speech develop in a parallel fashion; reading may be taught as a subordinate coding skill, while speaking is always functional and meaningful to the child.

D. Olson (1977) describes fundamental differences between utterance and text, traceable to their being different means to different goals, not optional routes to the same goal. He argues against the presumptions that knowledge is not altered when it is transformed into statements and especially that statements are not altered when they are written down. Written language was invented to serve science and philosophy and their vision of reality, with an emphasis on true conditions, explicitness, and conventionalized language forms. The functions and structures of language were altered to meet the demands of autonomous text, a process that began at least as long ago as Luther's time. When children first experience text, they encounter almost a foreign tongue. Their previous experience is with utterance, a form of language that serves social needs and in which meaning is negotiable.

Schallert, Kleiman, and Rubin (1977) also analyze differences between oral and written language. Speakers tailor their messages with specific listeners in mind, and they receive feedback from the listeners. They use less complicated syntax and less diverse vocabulary than writers. And they use intonation for prosodic cues. Thus readers may require more comprehensive knowledge schemata than listeners, greater knowledge of syntax and vocabulary and greater skill at taking another's perspective.

Rosemont (1974) maintains that language that is transferred to a non-speech medium is no longer natural language.

Tatham (1970) tested second and fourth graders' reading comprehension with two different tests, one that used frequent

oral language patterns and one that used infrequent oral language patterns. A significant number of children did better with the test that used frequent oral language patterns, and the difference in results on the two tests was greater for second graders than for fourth graders. Tatham concluded that the second graders may lack the ability to relate oral language competence to written language.

Although the point of these findings seems to be that written language is not as simple a matter as "speech written down," they highlight the value of an approach to reading instruction whose first step is reading as "speech written down."

IV. The Language Experience Approach to

Beginning Reading Instruction

The conclusion to be drawn from the above reviews of research about metalinguistic ability and differences between oral and written language is that the most effective program for beginning reading instruction would do two things: (1) foster children's "cognitive clarity" about such concepts as "letter", "word", and "sentence" and how those elements look in written language; and (2) retain characteristics of utterance while introducing children to text. The language experience approach, which uses transcripts of the students' own speech as the primary material for teaching reading, is such a program.

The usefulness of such concepts as "letter", "word", and "sentence"—which are of marginal value to speakers—becomes immediately apparent as the child's speech is transcribed during story dictation. And with a language experience approach, the use of conventionalized language forms associated with text is postponed, while the informal nature and social function of language use, with which the child is familiar from his/her experience with utterance, is maintained. The language experience approach is well suited to the needs of the beginning reading teacher who wishes to overcome children's "cognitive confusion" and avoid introducing them to reading as a foreign tongue.

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THE DR-TA: AVOIDING COMMON PITFALLS

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The Directed Reading-Thinking Activity (DR-TA) described by Stauffer (1969, 1980) is currently being used by many classroom teachers at all levels of instruction. The DR-TA is a procedure which improves students' reading-thinking skills by encouraging students to establish their own purposes for reading.

The basic steps in a DR-TA are as follows:

- I. Establishing purposes for reading
(individual and/or group)
- II. Adjusting rate of reading to the declared
purposes and to the nature and difficulty
of the material
- III. Achieving reading purposes
- IV. Developing comprehension
- V. Completing fundamental skill training activities
of discussion, further reading, additional
study, or writing (Stauffer, 1969, pp. 41-42)

Students establish their own purposes for reading by formulating predictions regarding the outcome of a story or what they expect to find in a content area selection, such as a social studies or science passage. The teacher regulates the amount of material read by students by stopping periodically to allow students to verify their predictions, reflect on or refine some of them, and formulate new predictions based on the additional information they have gleaned from the passage. Thus, the major thrust of the overall procedure is on the process of problem solving.

The superiority of the DR-TA is well established (Stauffer, 1976), and teachers who use the strategy effectively indicate that students do increase their abilities to reason while reading. However, elements of the DR-TA are being distorted or misused by some teachers who may then wonder why children don't seem to respond "like they're supposed to." Some suggestions for instruction may assist teachers in the effective use of DR-TA.

Use of Indirect Influence

Stauffer emphasizes repeatedly the importance of the use of verbal statements or questions which encourage students' par-

ticipation and freedom of action in group activities. Note the difference in these two questions:

"What do you think will happen next, John?"

"Does anyone have a prediction regarding what will happen next?"

The first question could demand a response from John. He u t respond to the teacher's question. The teacher has become an authoritative figure using direct influence over the student. In contrast, the second question permits nyone or everyone to respond, if they choose to do so. The teacher is using indirect influence with the students and it is in a facilitating role.

All the students in the group may not choose to respond to the teacher's questions. There seems to be concern from many teachers about this point. They feel that everyone in the group must respond in order to be involved. It is easy for teachers to fall into the "round robin" trap when they find themselves verbally or nonverbally forcing each student to respond to questions. Note the trap for students in the following examples:

"Who has another prediction? George, do you have any additional ideas? Jimmy...?"

"Who has another prediction?" The teacher waits and looks expectantly at each student in the group. One student breaks the silence by giving another prediction. The teacher again waits and looks expectantly at those students who have not yet voiced their predictions...

The teacher's behavior is autocratic in these two examples. Students are quick to recognize the pressure; they know that what the teacher really wants is an answer from each of them. They have lost freedom of interaction between group members. Receiving no responses from the second question could be a strong indication that the students need to read additional information, that they feel strongly about their original predictions, or that there is some other element in the group process which has gone awry. For a DR-TA to achieve its goals, students must be encouraged to interact freely with other members of the group; the teacher's major role is to serve as a moderator in the discussion.

Individual and/or Group Purpose-Setting

I once observed a DR-TA demonstration in which teachers were advised to write predictions for children, who were to read them aloud at appropriate times when the teacher called on them. The teachers participating in the demonstration were told that this practice would help children who were afraid to respond. Whether or not it would achieve its goal, this practice is a clear abuse of the DR-TA, because the students should establish purposes for reading, not the teacher. It is simply unnecessary for all children to make oral contributions to the group. Teachers frequently ask, "But what about the youngster who never contributes?" When youngsters feel the need to contribute, they will choose to do so, if the teacher establishes an appropriate environment and maintains indirect influence. Teachers who force

students to respond, like the teacher who directed Jimmy to respond, or the teacher who directed students to read predictions that were not their own, have broken the consistency of the pattern of influence imbedded in the DR-TA. Children respond to such practices by becoming suspicious and distrustful, and for good reason. There is no fear of failure, if the teacher is using indirect influence consistently in the DR-TA procedure and regulating the amount of material being read by the students. They are free to establish individual and group purposes for reading, because the outcome of the passage is unknown. The students are involved as individuals and as a group in predicting the outcome of the passage based on the information that is revealed to them as they read and think about what they have read.

When students make predictions based on information from the first part of a passage, teachers must be careful not to consciously or unconsciously reward those predictions that will prove accurate; all predictions should be encouraged and accepted. After a passage has been read, discussion of the accuracy of predictions will help students improve their abilities to look for various kinds of clues. Teachers, trying to help students who don't immediately offer predictions, sometimes piece together facts that lead to predictions. Students must have the opportunity to piece together facts for themselves, thus increasing their powers of reflection and abstraction.

Questioning Practices

Another common misunderstanding about DR-TAs involves the question types used. The two types of questions which tend to be most frequently asked during the procedure are interpreting, inferring questions ("What will happen next?") and evaluative questions ("Why do you think so?") (Davidson, 1978). Students base their responses on the facts they have gathered through reading and their background of experience or knowledge of the world. These two types of questions tend to keep students focused on the material being read; they are task-oriented when they read to find out if their predictions were accurate. These types of questions also assure students of their freedom to respond and encourage them to make further predictions. Inappropriate use of applying-type questions can actually lead children away from the problem they are involved in solving. An applying question has been defined as "one in which the teacher... asks a student to make some direct application of information or criteria related to lesson. It includes applying information to illustrate a point, applying criteria to be used in evaluation, and illustrating a generalization or a principle in a specific instance" (Wolf, King, & Huck, 1967, p. 169). Many teachers tend to use applying-type questions to cause students to relate to the passage by identifying their own experiences. For example, if the passage being read is about dogs, the teacher may ask, "How many of you have dogs?" Students respond by discussing their pets; at some point, the teacher is forced to stop this discussion or to ask questions which lead them back to the material. This example of an applying-type question shows a distortion or lack of knowledge of the question type. Use of this question does not further

facilitate problem solving; rather, it directs students away to another topic as it is not passage dependent. However, an applying-type question can be properly used to assist students in the transfer of information after reading a passage as in the following illustrations:

"How do these points relate to our social studies lesson from this morning?"

"What are some rules that should be established for taking care of pets, based on information in the story?"

These questions ask students to relate to the information in a more appropriate way, which leads to transfer of information.

Regulating the Amount of Information

It is possible to "beat the DR-TA to death" by establishing numerous stops and asking so many questions that students feel they are being interrogated. While it may be necessary to create frequent stopping points during students' first experience with a DR-TA, this practice should certainly not become a regular part of the procedure. It is important to vary the amount of information read at one time by students, depending upon the type of material being read and the students' sophistication with the procedure. There are numerous ways to vary the amount of material being read at one time, such as, stopping at the end of the first few paragraphs, just before the climax, before the final ending, or providing a picture clue. It is equally important to provide opportunities for students to examine the quality of their predictions after a story or passage is finished.

Proving a Point

Although students should be encouraged to justify their predictions, the practice of having students read the line in the passage that proves a conjecture is also one which can be carried to extreme. The student who is reading fluently and effectively may read only that portion of the sentence which contains proof when responding to the teacher's question, "Why do you think so?" or "What facts support your statement?" Teachers who challenge students by coupling an evaluative question with interpreting, inferring questions are basically letting students know that support for predictions, hypotheses, or theories is always expected. Students soon tend to habitually support their predictions from information in the material and their oral reading becomes natural and fluent. In contrast, the teacher who orders students to "read the entire sentence or the paragraph out loud to the rest of the group" have placed themselves in authoritarian roles, which changes the climate of the group. The student who is forced to read is under psychological pressure, causing oral reading to sound choppy and stilted. When such demands on students occur, they make predictions less often.

The Fifth Step

The last step of the DR-TA provides for refinement of skills through additional activities: discussion, further reading, additional study, or writing. Many teachers tend to assign written

after students have completed the reading of a passage and either call the students back to the group to correct their written work or to collect students' written work, evaluate it, and give it back to students at a later time with little, if any, discussion (Durkin, 1978-79). Stauffer identified students' needs in increasing powers of observation and reflection, clarifying and developing concepts, developing adeptness in the use of semantic analysis, and refining word identification skills. These needs cannot adequately be met by assigning unrelated workbook pages or ditto practice sheets that require little intellectual involvement on the part of the student. Teachers who understand that what follows the reading of a passage is as important as the actual reading of the passage tend to organize and/or devise activities that facilitate the improvement of students' reading-thinking skills. Concept development activities, library research related to aspects of the passage, individual or small group assistance in word identification, writing activities, Group Mapping Activities (Davidson & Bayliss, 1978), and independent reading are but a few examples of useful follow-up activities.

These suggestions may help teachers refine and develop their skills in the use of DR-TA. The DR-TA is a sophisticated procedure when it is appropriately used by a sensitive teacher who is knowledgeable about reading and the reading process. The motivation and intellectual commitment of students who seek to improve their reading-thinking skills is a critical goal of reading instruction.

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READING: WHAT IS IT? WHAT'S REQUIRED?

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What is the task of the reader who is immersed in the act of reading? The importance of understanding this task has been recognized and given increased emphasis in recent years. For those engaged in the preparation of reading teachers, it has become apparent that they must help these future teachers to see that their choice of materials and teaching procedures should stem from an understanding of the task faced by the reader. To obtain an indication of whether or not future teachers did recognize the importance of basing their choice of procedures and materials on their view of the reading task, a study was conducted with a group of preservice elementary education majors.

Subjects and Procedures

The eleven subjects in this study were enrolled in a second preservice reading course which was conducted both on campus and in a field based setting. The first eight weeks of the semester were spent on campus. During these first sessions on campus students were asked to begin thinking about the task faced by a reader and to be able to provide an explanation of this task by the end of the semester. Recognizing that the task varies depending upon the particular level of the reader, the students were to consider a specific level of reader rather than readers in general. One chapter in the text dealt with this subject, and a number of class sessions were devoted to a discussion of the topic. Also available to the students, housed in the Media Center, was a series of slide tape presentations on the various theories and models of reading. These tapes included behavioral, cognitive, information processing, and psycholinguistic models. Although not required to do so, students were encouraged to view some of these slide tape presentations to become familiar with the various theories and models represented by them.

During the last six weeks of the semester, the students conducted tutoring sessions in an elementary school setting. Each student worked with an elementary child who was experiencing difficulty in reading. The tutoring sessions were very structured. Students were asked to use no textbooks or workbooks during these sessions. Their major emphasis was to be placed on helping each child develop an interest in reading and a desire to read. Trade books were to be used and tutors were to spend a portion of each

tutoring session reading aloud to the child. Language experience techniques were also to be a part of each session. The child was to read from trade books in areas of interest for a third portion of the period. The instructor of the college class was present each day during the tutoring sessions and thus kept in close contact with the students. All lessons were conducted in the lunchroom of an elementary school. There was sufficient room to enable each child to work with his tutor at a separate table located far enough from the other children so that the working situation was a quiet one.

At the end of the semester the students were asked to respond to two questions:

1. What do you see as the task required of a reader? (Specify the grade level for the reader you will be discussing.)
2. If you could choose any materials you wished for teaching reading, what would those materials be?

Findings

First View of the Reading Task

Three of the students, all of whom were describing the reading task for a child in second or third grade, saw the task as being one of mastering individual letters and their sounds. The sounds were then to be combined into words, words into sentences, and sentences into paragraphs. The overall goal was to give meaning to the words.

Materials Recommended by First Group

As might be expected, one of their first recommendations for materials was phonic books (to help decode words), phonic games and cards.

All three would also recommend basal readers because the accompanying manuals provide for sequential presentation of skills. Workbooks were requested along with the basal readers.

The rest of the recommendations made by these students included trade books for independent reading and for supplementing content area books. One student thought games should be incorporated into the program so that children would get the idea that learning can be fun.

A final suggestion was for tape recorders, movie projectors, and film strips. In all instances these were to be used for listening to and for viewing stories.

Second View of the Reading Task

The second view of the task of the reader was held by the other eight students in the class. All but one of these students was discussing the reading task in the middle grades.

The viewed the task of the reader as being comprised of four activities: seeing, thinking, imagining, and assimilating. They went on to state that as a child reads, s/he ideally should be seeing reading as a whole instead of bits and pieces without

significant meaning. The reading process varies from child to child, but each brings with her/him certain basics such as background experiences and her/his own attitude toward what s/he is doing.

Materials Recommended by Second Group

All once again recommended basal readers on a wide variety of difficulty levels for each grade and with a wide variety of content. Trade books to be read for pleasure and to supplement content area texts should be included. All recommended that teachers read to children both in material above pupils' reading levels and those at their reading levels.

Language experience creations should be written and tape recorders be made available for dictation of these creations.

Tapes and earphones should be available for listening to stories while following along in a printed text. Finally, riddles and puzzles were to be included to add meaning to the reading program.

Discussion

While it is reasonable to assume that the students describing the task of the primary reader would see this task in a different light from those students describing the task of readers at higher levels, such a sharp difference seems unusual.

The first description of the reading task was one which had as its base a foundation in phonics—synthetic phonics. Students who expressed this view saw reading as an adding up of letters into sounds, sounds into words, words into sentences, and sentences into paragraphs. The total outcome was to assign meanings to words. This seems to be an extremely fragmented process which would not easily lead to the obtaining of the total meaning expressed in the author's message. It also is quite far removed from the students' experiences in the on-campus class meetings and in the tutoring sessions. If students viewed any of the slide tape presentations, the result of that viewing was not apparent. There was no indication that the students had based their definition of the reading task on any of the models presented in the slide tapes.

It is not difficult to understand why in their choice of materials they selected phonics materials to help decode words. Certainly this selection of materials follows from their view of the reading task. The recommendation of basal readers with accompanying workbooks because of the sequential presentation of skills also seems to follow from their definition.

Beyond those, however, the other recommended materials are centered on the meaningful aspects of reading. One of the best means of making reading meaningful and interesting is to use trade books for pleasure reading, both by students themselves and by teachers to students. Trade books in the content areas can make those areas meaningful or at least comprehensible, while in some instances the text does not do this, and for a number of reasons. One of the most obvious of these reasons is that

the text is too difficult for many of the pupils to read.

The use of tape recorded stories accompanied by printed texts or stories presented on film strips would be another means of developing interest in and enthusiasm for reading.

In no way would the description of the reading task expressed by these students lead to the choice of meaningful and interesting materials for reading instruction. The fact that they would incorporate games into their instructional materials so that children would find pleasure in learning seems to be an indication that children could not receive pleasure from the reading task itself. This is definitely a feeling teachers should not be conveying to children.

The use of trade books for pleasure and for supplementing content areas was perhaps included because of the emphasis placed on these areas in the tutoring sessions and in other written assignments which were required of the students in the on-campus sessions.

The choice of materials of instruction in the case of the second group is more closely related to the view of the reading task held. It should be noted, once again, however, that their use of trade books and the language experience approach, could be as a result of the requirements of the tutoring sessions.

While basal readers were recommended, it was pointed out that these should be on a wide variety of levels and should include a wide variety of content. Supplementing the basal readers would be trade books to stress the importance of making reading a pleasurable activity. The trade books were to be read by the children and by teachers to the children. Finally, the trade books should supplement content area instruction.

Another suggestion for the use of language experience creations and tape recorders for recording these is geared to making reading meaningful. Trade books, including those made of riddles and puzzles, would serve to further increase children's interest in reading.

Listening to stories and following along in a printed text is a final activity designed to increase children's skill in reading while providing them with a pleasurable reading activity.

Summary

It appears that both groups were guided, at least in part, in their selection of reading materials by the view of the reading task held. The second group of students gave more emphasis to providing materials which took into consideration the readers' experiential backgrounds and the cognitive, affective, and linguistic components of the reading task. How much of this was due to the influence of the requirements of the tutoring sessions and how much was due to the definition of the reading task cannot be clearly determined.

Suggestion for Future Research

Answers to the two questions should be obtained from students

enrolled in this class in future semesters. In these instances students should not be given strict guidelines as to the make-up of the tutoring sessions. Thus, there would be greater likelihood that their choice of materials would be more firmly based on the views they have of the reading task.

EXPANDING CHILDREN'S VOCABULARY

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The positive relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension is widely acknowledged. Thus, one of the responsibilities facing our schools is systematic guidance in vocabulary development. Carroll (1964) stated this obligation in strong terms: "The teaching of words, and of the meanings and concepts they designate or convey, is one of the principal tasks of teachers at all levels of education" (p. 26).

The lesson plans contained in the teacher's manuals of most basal reader series reflect the emphasis placed on vocabulary development. Suggested activities for building vocabulary almost invariably precede the reading of a selection as part of the "Preparation for Reading" stage of a typical reading lesson. Additionally, it is not uncommon for there to be a vocabulary exercise of some sort as part of the "Skill Development" stage of a lesson after a selection has been read and discussed.

Even though this "sandwich" arrangement is fairly prevalent, the vocabulary-building content of the two stages is seldom related. The absence of a link between the vocabulary material that precedes and follows the reading of a selection amounts to ignoring a fundamental principle of learning; namely, that learning involves relating new experience to what is already known. Failure to do this results in what Smith (1975) refers to as nonsense or noise, i.e., "...a signal that conveys no information, and which therefore cannot be interpreted" (p. 31).

This article describes an instructional technique for expanding children's vocabulary which embodies the learning principle above. The technique is used during the "Skill Development" stage of a basal reading lesson, and presupposes the introduction of new words during the "Preparation for Reading" stage. It will be presented in terms of a planning phase, a teaching phase, and an application phase.

Planning Phase

The planning phase consists of three steps:

- Step 1. Determine which words introduced during the "Preparation stage can be readily used as a basis for generating synonyms and/or antonyms. In terms of the learning principle mentioned above, these words are what is already known.

Step 2. Generate either a synonym or an antonym from each of the "Preparation for Reading" words identified in Step 1. In generating synonyms and antonyms, two guidelines to keep in mind are a) to generate words which are common enough to be useful, and b) to generate words that are likely to be unfamiliar and will represent an expansion of children's vocabulary; so as to represent the new experience.

A sample output of Original and Generated words might be: famous—renowned, talent—aptitude, flop—triumph, intact—deteriorated.

Step 3. Formulate two context-rich sentences for each generated word. A sample output on completion of Step 3 might be:

1. Babe Ruth is renowned for his home run record.
2. If you became President of the United States, you would be renowned.
3. A clown has an aptitude for making people laugh.
4. The repairman has an aptitude for fixing machines.
5. Learning how to ski was one of my greatest triumphs.
6. Becoming a doctor was quite a triumph for the blind man.
7. The building where my dad went to school is old and deteriorated.
8. Many of the houses in the downtown area need repairing because they are deteriorated.

Teaching Phase

For each generated word, the teacher follows these steps:

1. Pronounces the word while pointing to it. Because the meaning of the word is supposedly unfamiliar to the students, it is not appropriate to expect them to figure out its pronunciation.
2. Instructs the students to read a context-rich sentence which contains the word. Once the students have some notion as to the word's meaning, they are ready for the next step.
3. Asks the students to tell which "Preparation for Reading" stage word it is a synonym or antonym for. (The "Preparation for Reading" words should be listed in random order in the vicinity of the sentences.) This is a critical point in the instructional sequence, where new experience is being related to what is already known.

Application Phase

After the generated words have been introduced in this manner the teacher presents the students with the context-rich sentences that were not used during the teaching phase. Unlike the sentences used during the teaching phase, however, the generated words have been omitted, and replaced by blank spaces. The students are to complete each sentence with the appropriate generated word. This activity provides the students with an opportunity to apply their newly acquired knowledge in a meaningful setting, which in itself is an important learning principle. A sample worksheet for this phase might look like the following:

1. Becoming a doctor was quite a _____ for the blind man.

2. Many of the houses in the downtown area need repairing because they are _____.
3. If you became President of the United States, you would be _____.
4. The repairman has an _____ for fixing machines.

renowned   triumph   aptitude   deteriorated

Additional Comments

In addition to incorporating the principle of relating new experience to what is already known, this technique possesses at least two other commendable features:

a) According to O'Rourke (1974), the study and use of synonym and antonym helps students to classify and generalize concepts.

b) The ultimate purpose in reading is to gain meaning, and as Farr and Roser (1979) have stated, "...using context analysis is using meaning to get more meaning" (p. 188).

The instructional techniques described illustrate ways in which the principle of relating new experience to what is already known can be applied to teaching word meaning. Hopefully, it will result in meaningful as opposed to rote learning, thus improving the probability of retrieval and use.

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THE SELECTION AND USE OF READING GAMES AND ACTIVITIES

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The use of educational games and related game format experiences, have within the past several years gained some degree of acceptance (Tassia, 1979). Many critics still voice repeated concern over the apparent misuse, overuse or segmentation of learning processes created by the use of educational games (Andrews and Thorpe, 1977; Allington and Strange, 1977). Others provide some feasible suggestions for integrating games into an instructional setting (Carney, 1978; Ensminger, 1980; Hautala and Mason, 1978; and Mann and Fridell, 1980). The present discussion includes a checklist for evaluating and selecting game-type activities and a list of resources from which specialists, teachers, and parents may select appropriate reinforcement procedures and games.

There is a useful place for educational games and creative activities in the classroom if a teacher is willing to be selective in the type and utilization of such experiences. The following checklist and annotated resources are intended for those who use such experiences to 1) reinforce existing or newly taught skills or concepts; 2) improve social interactions among youngsters; 3) provide circumstances for student-directed learning; and 4) bring an enjoyable alternative to learning in the classroom.

Selecting a Gaming Activity

A gaming activity is ultimately a student-directed learning experience that involves two or more of the following elements: 1) risk taking; 2) competition; 3) measurement of gain or achievement; 4) decision making; and 5) interaction with other students or a teacher. The overall effectiveness of a gaming activity may be determined through teacher observation during and following an activity. The amount of formality for the observations is a matter of personal preference. The checklist which follows was developed with the assistance of one hundred seventy-eight teachers who use educational games in their classrooms. It is intended to be used as an informal guide for teacher observation and selection of game-type learning experiences and not as a formal evaluation instrument.

USABILITY CHECKLIST FOR EVALUATING EDUCATION GAMES*

	Yes				No
1. Most students can be successful.	5	4	3	2	1
2. The experience builds enthusiasm.	5	4	3	2	1
3. The players can easily understand the rules.	5	4	3	2	1
4. There is ample learning involvement.	5	4	3	2	1
5. Teacher supervision is limited.	5	4	3	2	1
6. A record keeping or progress indicator is kept.	5	4	3	2	1
7. The activity requires an appropriate length of time.	5	4	3	2	1
8. The experience is directly related to skills necessary for other academic tasks.	5	4	3	2	1
9. Decision making (not chance) is involved.	5	4	3	2	1
10. The activity is, in format and skill practiced, appropriate for my students.	5	4	3	2	1
11. The activity is adaptable to other skill or content areas.	5	4	3	2	1
12. The experience can be used more than one time without becoming boring.	5	4	3	2	1
13. The level of noise generated during the experience is acceptable.	5	4	3	2	1
14. The physical format of the game is easy to maintain and store.	5	4	3	2	1

* A score of fifty-five points or higher is deemed acceptable.

Wise investors rarely invest all of their dollars in a single venture. Similarly, a wise teacher should not use one particular instructional strategy to the exclusion of all others. Because games may be used at times, it does not imply that they should not be used at all. A variety of different learning experiences is a prerequisite for providing a balanced program of instruction.

Children learn from infancy to assimilate new information about reality through play activities. As a result, students are comfortable with games and they usually enjoy the direct involvement that games offer. However, teachers should be wary of the "happiness index" when considering the use of a particular gaming experience. A pleasurable experience is not a valid indication of the success of a learning experience. While a child's responses are important, the overall joy or repeated requests for particular games may represent more of a task avoidance behavior of classroom work than a genuine desire for the activity. Our survey, involving more than 480 elementary age youngsters, revealed that most children play games because they "want to win." While the possibility of winning is usually there, teachers are generally concerned

about the reinforcement of skills and "winning" represents the needed motivation to help students remain on a task.

Activities for teaching reading work if the teacher-directed conditions for learning are appropriate and if a variety of interesting experiences are maintained. With this in mind, your authors suggest the following resources which represent books from which reading and language arts games and creative activities may be selected for use in remediation programs, classroom supplements and tutorial lessons.

Suggested Resource Books of Reading Games and Activities

Blake, Janet; Susan Rybert and June Sybastion, Bag of Tricks: Instructional Activities and Games, Denver: Love Publishing Company, 1976. Ideas are provided for teachers or parents to make language and game board activities. Easy to follow directions and possible variations are given.

Bryant, Cathy J., Coding Games: Active Ways to Enhance Reading and Thinking, Denver: Love Publishing Company, 1971. The book is designed to integrate movement with cognitive learning. Areas of instruction include communication and thinking skills, problem solving and recognition of symbols.

Burns, Paul C., and Betty D. Roe, Reading Activities for Today's Elementary Schools, Chicago, Rand McNally Publishing Company, 1979. The book includes several sketches and illustrations along with ideas for using a variety of materials, word recognition, vocabulary, comprehension and study skills, oral reading, drama and recreational reading strategies.

Forgan, Harry W., The Reading Corner: Ideas for Individualizing Reading, Santa Monica, Goodyear Publishing Co., 1977. Many illustrations are used in this handbook for teachers. Special attention is given to the role of the teacher along with teaching ideas for four basic reading skill areas. Over seventy ready-to-use pages are provided for individualizing along with twenty helpful lists for teachers.

Herr, Selma E., Learning Activities for Reading, 3rd edition, Dubuque, IA, Wm. C. Brown Co., 1977. This book represents a traditional approach to basic skills with several illustrations and plenty of suggestions. There is a special section for teaching bilingual children.

McIntyre, Virgie M., Reading Strategies and Enrichment Activities for Grades 4-9, Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Publ. Co., 1977. A useful blending of fifteen chapters is used to combine theory and practice. Suggestions are offered for areas of difficulty, including special areas such as student interests, building enthusiasm, motivation and involvement.

Nichols, Arline and Susan Coleridge, Reading Games and Activities, Carthage, IL: The Good Apple Publ. Co., 1980. The collection of ideas is directed toward the areas of reading and mathematics. The ideas were developed by teachers for use in grades K-3.

- Noble, Eleanor and Sondra Kutzman, Pick-Me-Ups for Your Reading Program, Hattiesburg, MS: Univ of Southern Mississippi, 1977. More than one hundred ideas are provided for creating pre-reading and reading activities. Multiple suggestions are given for using containers, newspapers, magazines, catalogues, bottles, rocks, strings and other everyday items to teach reading.
- Seaman, Rosie. Through Their Looking Glass, Nashville, TN: Incentive Publications, Inc., 1979. Forty-nine sensory games and activities are suggested for use with pre-schoolers.
- Spache, Evelyn B. Reading Activities for Child Involvement, 3rd edition, Boston: Allyn & Bacon Inc, 1980. The book offers nine chapters containing teaching ideas for making reading kits, pre-reading and basic reading skills, locational skills, content reading and other areas.
- Thomas, Ellen L., Reading Aids for very la s: 40 Activities for Every Class, Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1980. This big paperback includes most areas of reading and study skills. A helpful subject area index and some 75 master copies for ready use are also provided.

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BOOKS FOR THE YOUNGEST READERS

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Parents are advised to read to their children frequently and to begin when the children are quite young. The following books are some recent offerings that are especially appropriate for sharing with pre-school readers.

Ahlberg, Janet and Allan. Peek-a-Boo! Viking, 1981. \$10.95.

A brief rhymed text gives the reader a baby's view of the world in a book that is perfect for the lap audience. From breakfast until bedtime, the baby is in the backyard, visits the park, has supper and finally a bath. At each place, the reader is invited to "Peek-a-Boo!" through a die-cut hole in the page and see what there is to see. The illustrations are loaded with details, giving a small child many things to identify. All babies know how to play "Peek-a-Boo," and this book adds another dimension to a familiar game.

Hoban, Tana. A, B, See! Greenwillow, 1982. \$8.00.

Known for her concept books illustrated with photographs, Hoban has created a striking alphabet book. Black and white photgrams of familiar objects illustrate each letter of the alphabet. There are several objects representing each letter for young children to identify. The entire alphabet is printed at the bottom of each page with the featured letter several sizes larger than the rest. Like most alphabet books, its value in helping to teach letter sounds is somewhat limited, in that some of the objects begin with consonant blends (e.g. crab, glasses) rather than a single consonant sound. The book is well designed, and the total effect is stunning.

Hutchins, Pat. 1 Hunter. Greenwillow, 1982. \$9.00.

A humorous safari and some hidden pictures highlight this simple counting book for young readers. A rather determined hunter stalks his prey in the jungle, totally unaware that he is being watched by two elephants, three giraffes, four ostriches, and so on. The brightly colored illustrations offer some opportunities for visual discrimination as the reader uses pictorial clues, such as elephant legs next to tree trunks and stepping stones that are the backs of crocodiles, to predict what animals are next. Young children will enjoy the reaction of the hunter when he realizes that he is being followed.

Kalan, Robert. Jump, Frog, Jump! Il. by Byron Barton. Greenwillow, 1981, \$8.95.

A frog that is trying to catch a fly is the first segment of this house-that-Jack-built-type tale. The frog is in jeopardy at every turn as the text asks the reader, "How did the frog get away?" The answer is always the same, "Jump, frog, jump!" The illustrations are simple and appealing, done in vivid colors. The book is a perfect read-aloud, for all young listeners will surely become involved in the reading themselves by chanting, "Jump, frog, jump!"

Oxenbury, Helen. "Baby Board Books" Wanderer Press, 1981. \$3.50.
"Very First Books" Dial Press, 1982. \$3.50.

The "Baby Board" series, according to the book covers, was created for "babies from the age of six months." The five titles in the series, Friends, Playing, Dressing, Working and Family, feature a rather cuddly baby as the main character. The baby is depicted interacting with his environment, with one-word descriptions on every other page. In the "Very First Books" series, the same character has grown into an endearing toddler. The five books in this series, Beach Day, Shopping Trip, Mother's Helper, Monkey See Monkey Do, and Good Night Good Morning, show the toddler involved in everyday activities with his parents. The books in both series are small size in format with laminated cardboard pages, which make them durable and washable.

Shannon, George. Dance Away. Il. by Jose Aruego and Ariane Dewey. Greenwillow, 1982. \$9.00.

An irrepressible rabbit who loves to dance is the hero of this purely delightful book. Rabbit's friends grow tired of dancing all the time, but they change their minds when Rabbit's dancing saves them from Fox. Young children will be caught up in the rhythm of Rabbit's dance that is repeated throughout the book, "left two three kick right two three kick left skip right skip turn around." Dance Away is meant to be danced to, and Aruego and Dewey's colorful and humorous illustrations make it even more fun!

