



Reading Horizons: A Journal of Literacy and Language Arts

Volume 20
Issue 1 *October 1979*

Article 16

10-1979

Reading Horizons vol. 20, no. 1

Follow this and additional works at: https://scholarworks.wmich.edu/reading_horizons

 Part of the Education Commons

Recommended Citation

(1979). Reading Horizons vol. 20, no. 1. *Reading Horizons: A Journal of Literacy and Language Arts*, 20 (1). Retrieved from https://scholarworks.wmich.edu/reading_horizons/vol20/iss1/16

This Complete Issue is brought to you for free and open access by the Special Education and Literacy Studies at ScholarWorks at WMU. It has been accepted for inclusion in Reading Horizons: A Journal of Literacy and Language Arts by an authorized editor of ScholarWorks at WMU. For more information, please contact wmu-scholarworks@wmich.edu.

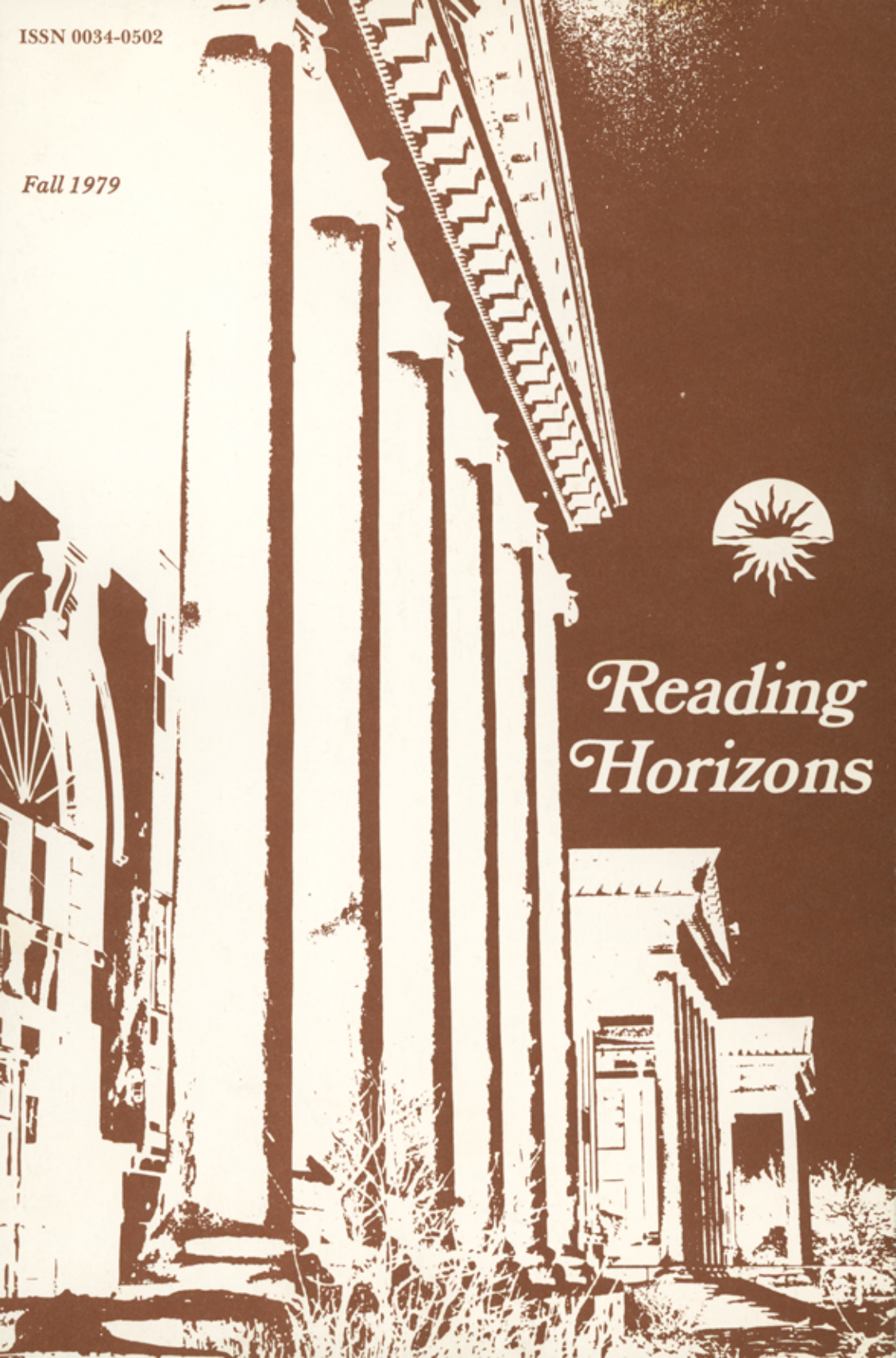


ISSN 0034-0502

Fall 1979



Reading Horizons



Reading **HORIZONS**



VOLUME 20

NUMBER 1

READING HORIZONS has been published quarterly since 1960 by the College of Education of Western Michigan University and the Homer L. J. Carter Reading Council, Michigan's oldest established IRA council. As a journal devoted to reading at all educational levels, HORIZONS provides teachers, educators, and other interested professionals with the ideas, movements, and important changes in the ever widening horizons of reading.

EDITOR:

Kenneth VanderMeulen

ADVISORY BOARD:

Jerry L. Johns
Northern Illinois University
Thomas F. Ryan
Western Michigan University
Helen Johncock
Carter Council President
Dr. Howard G. Ball
Alabama A&M University

FEATURE WRITERS:

Eleanor Buelke
Reading Specialist
Portage, Michigan
R. Baird Shuman
Director of English Studies
University of Illinois, Urbana
Mark E. Thompson
Chief – Employee Development
USDA, Washington, D.C.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

JEAN R. HARBER	7	Are Perceptual Skills Necessary for Success in Reading? Which Ones?
JANET ROSS KENDALL	16	Enriching the Beginning Reading Program: The Natural Language Technique
KEITH J. THOMAS AND MICHELE SIMPSON	20	Reading Requirements and Basic Secondary Teacher Certification: An Update
GAIL M. HUFFMAN AND NANCY W. WEDDLE	27	Psycholinguistics: Teaching Strategies for Comprehension
WILLIAM S. O'BRUBA AND DONALD A. CAMPLESE	30	Beyond Bibliotherapy: Tell-a-Therapy
ANNE P. SWEET AND ROBERT LYNN CANADY	36	Scheduling for a Differentiated Reading Program
THOMAS P. AND ELLEN F. FITZGERALD	43	Sentence Building in Reading and Composition
ESTHER P. VALENTINE AND OLIVE R. FRANCKS	47	To Teach a Social Studies Concept—Chunk It!
DR. LEA-RUTH C. WILKENS	55	The School Library—The Alpha and Omega of Your Elementary School Reading Program
RICHARD L. ALLINGTON AND MICHAEL STRANGE	60	Remembering is Not Necessarily Understanding in Content Areas
JoANNE L. VACCA	65	Changing Forces in Staff Development: Implications for Reading
MARK E. THOMPSON	69	Eric Hoffer and the Significance of Reading
R. BAIRD SHUMAN	72	Professional Concerns: Patricia M. Cunningham—"They Can ALL Learn to Read"
ELEANOR BUELKE	76	Book Review: <i>Surviving</i> by Bruno Bettelheim Book Review by Greta Rey



READING HORIZONS

A professional journal of the College of Education and the Homer L. J. Carter Reading Council. HORIZONS is published quarterly by the Western Michigan University Press. Copyright 1979, 2nd class postage rate paid at Kalamazoo, MI.

SUBSCRIPTIONS AND CHANGE OF ADDRESS

Subscriptions are available to individuals at \$6.00 per year, institutions at \$8.00 per year. Address all correspondence and change of address to READING HORIZONS, College of Education, Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo, Mich. 49008.

MANUSCRIPTS

Manuscripts, books, and any other materials for possible publication or review may be sent to Kenneth VanderMeulen, Editor, READING HORIZONS, Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo, MI 49008. Author's guides and publication policies are available on request.

MICROFILM

Microfilm copies are available from University Microfilms, 300 Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, MI 48106. Back issues, while available, can be purchased from READING HORIZONS, Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo, MI 49008.

ADVERTISING

Advertising rates, policy, and information can be obtained by writing READING HORIZONS, Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo, MI 49008.

EDITORIAL POLICY

The contents and points of view expressed in this journal are strictly those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the opinion of the editorial board of READING HORIZONS.

Copyright 1979
Western Michigan University

RH
TM

*READING HORIZONS is indexed or abstracted by *Chicorel Abstracts to Reading and Learning Disabilities*, *Council of Abstracting Services*, *Current Index to Journals in Education*, *Learning Disability Digest*, *Reading Disability Digest*, *the Universal Reference System* and *Xerox Education Publications*.



EDITORS-AT-LARGE

- | | |
|-------------------|---|
| A. STERL ARTLEY | Professor of Education
Curriculum and Instruction
University of Missouri-Columbia |
| DR. PEGGY BURGESS | Victor Valley Joint USD
Victorville, California |
| LEONARD BRAAM | Associate Professor of Education
Reading and Language Arts Center
Syracuse University |
| ROACH VAN ALLEN | Professor of Elementary Education
University of Arizona, Tucson |
| JEANNE CHALL | Professor of Education
Director, Reading Laboratory
Harvard University |
| WILLIAM DURR | Professor of Education
Department of Elementary and Special Education
Michigan State University |
| ROBERT KARLIN | Professor of Education
Coordinator
Graduate Programs in Reading
Queens College |
| ERIC THURSTON | Professor of Education
Louisiana State University |



"A MESSAGE FROM OUR SPONSOR"

READING HORIZONS, now in its twentieth year of publication, has grown from a local newsletter to a journal of national significance because of the quality of its contributors' work. It is time to show our deep appreciation to all those who helped make RH an important journal in the field of teaching reading.

The number of reading specialists and researchers who have mailed in their ideas, studies, and research data has, in the past few years, outgrown our capacity to publish more than a fraction. Yet, as reading teachers, we want the authors of manuscripts which have been returned unused as well as of articles used, to know that we see growth of RH ahead. The network of regular contributors to this journal has expanded to include learning centers in most of the States and several Provinces of Canada.

We are deeply impressed by the earnest desire of reading personnel to learn more about techniques for improving reading at all levels. We are humbly grateful to the writers of letters who encourage the efforts of the journal, and we appreciate the correspondence with authors and subscribers which often reaches a warm and inspiring level of friendliness.

It is indeed a source of deep satisfaction, as we look through our subscription files, to learn that more and more middle and secondary schools have begun to carry RH on their professional shelves. We are equally happy to see that education departments in colleges have begun to make this publication available to teachers-in-training. Most encouraging is reading the names of individual reading teachers in small schools in rural areas.

The goal of READING HORIZONS remains simply to expand this forum on reading problems and solutions, in all future issues. We feel that we could have no higher goal than to serve the interests of those people who are dedicating their efforts to help young people develop through learning to read, and reading to gain meaning. More specifically, when we recover from the trauma of publishing our first collection in *SELECTED READINGS* (see announcement next page), we hope to make more collections available to our subscribers—supplementary readings in certain problem areas. It is a worthy ambition, we believe, to manage the arena in which good ideas are tested, when those ideas are to serve as a means of helping our young people to grow in mind.

Kenneth VanderMeulen
Editor

ANNOUNCING PUBLICATION OF . . .

READING HORIZONS SELECTED READINGS

Eighty articles, chosen from almost two hundred published in RH in the past and current issues, edited and introduced in appropriate areas by ten experts and leaders in reading education. Published in 1979, our 438 page volume is an ideal collection for teachers in the field as well as reading teachers in training. This work contains the best contributions of sixty specialists in this nation and Canada.



SELECTED READINGS—the inservice program in a single volume.
To receive your copy, send check to **READING HORIZONS**.

Please send **READING HORIZONS: SELECTED READINGS**

\$9.35 per copy, postpaid.

Send _____ (no. of copies) I enclose _____

Name _____

Address _____

Zip _____

ARE PERCEPTUAL SKILLS NECESSARY FOR SUCCESS IN READING? WHICH ONES?

Jean R. Harber

UNIVERSITY OF MARYLAND

Numerous reading and reading readiness programs have been made available to teachers over the years, constructed on the assumption that certain auditory and visual perceptual skills are prerequisites to successful achievement in academics, particularly reading. Many educators have suggested that children who have been labeled learning or reading disabled demonstrate deficits at the perceptual level. In fact, many of those who have been instrumental in the field of learning disabilities have suggested that all learning disabled children have perceptual processing problems and that these perceptual problems are at the root of their learning disabilities (Barsch 1965; Cruickshank, 1977; Frostig, 1970; Getman, 1965; Kephart, 1960; Wepman, 1974).

Two important questions, however, must be raised and answered before the reading specialist can design an educational program for each child for whom she/he is responsible. Are perceptual skills necessary for success in reading? If so, to which perceptual skills is reading success most strongly related? Recently many educators have begun to seriously question previously held assumptions that particular auditory and visual perceptual skills are prerequisites for mastering reading and that deficiencies in these skills may actually cause reading failure (e.g., Bateman, 1964, perceptual and perceptual-motor integration, spatial orientation, body image, and coordination; Bonsail & Dornbush, 1969, visual discrimination; Dornbush & Basow, 1970, auditory and visual short-term memory; Hammill & Larsen, 1974, auditory discrimination, sound blending, auditory memory and auditory-visual integration; Hare, 1977, auditory discrimination, spatial relations, visual memory and auditory-visual integration; Sears, 1970, sound blending and visual closure; Hammill, Larsen, Parker, Bagley, & Sanford, Note 1, visual discrimination, visual memory, and auditory-visual integration).

Just what does all this mean to the reading specialist? It is the reading specialist who needs to make sense of all this information and who needs to decide what educational program to provide for each youngster assigned to him/her for instruction. Therefore, it is important that the reading specialist be familiar with the most recent research findings and the educational implications of these findings. What follows is a brief review of these findings and the presentation of the results of a study recently completed by the author which shed light on two very important questions

frequently asked by reading specialists—(1) Are perceptual skills necessary for success in reading? (2) If so, to which perceptual skills is reading success most strongly related?

A review of correlational studies which explored the relationship of auditory and visual perceptual skills to school achievement in general and to reading in particular have caused many educators to question the practical relevance of the reported correlation coefficients between numerous measures perceptual functioning and reading achievement. Hammill & Larsen (1974) reviewed 33 studies which explored the relationship of word recognition and reading comprehension to measures of auditory discrimination, memory, blending, and auditory-visual integration. They found that a large percentage of children who performed well on tests of auditory perception experienced difficulty in learning to read and an equally sizeable percentage who did poorly on these same tests had no problems in reading. They concluded that these auditory perceptual skills, as measured in the studies they reviewed, do not appear to be sufficiently related to reading to be particularly useful for school practices. It should be noted that only seven of these studies controlled for the influence of intelligence in correlating auditory perceptual skills and reading achievement.

Larsen and Hammill (1975) reviewed 60 studies which used correlational procedures to explore the relationship between visual perceptual skills (i.e., visual discrimination, visual memory, spatial relations, and visual-auditory integration) and reading, arithmetic, and spelling. They concluded that there is little support for the widespread belief that visual perceptual skills are essential for academic achievement. Apparently a large percentage of children who did adequately on tests of visual perception experienced difficulty in school and an equally large percentage who did poorly on these same tests exhibited no problems in academic achievement. In only six of these studies did the investigators control for the influence of intelligence.

However, the picture is not all that clear. Others who focused on particular perceptual skills found different results. Richardson, DiBenedetto, and Bradley (1977) reviewed 13 studies which focused specifically on sound blending and its relationship to reading achievement. Sound blending is of particular interest since it has been suggested as a component of the decoding process (Richardson & Bradley, 1974). Richardson et al. concluded that there is a moderate relationship between sound blending and reading achievement. Intelligence was controlled for in only two of the studies reviewed. Rosner & Simon (1971) also studied the relationship between sound blending and reading achievement and found moderate correlation coefficients in primary grade subjects after the effects of intelligence were partialled out.

While the majority of older studies did not adequately account for the variable of intelligence, more recently researchers have recognized the need to partial out or at least consider the effect of confounding variables when studying the relationship between perceptual skills and academic per-

formance. Hammill et al. (Note 1) studied the relationship of various auditory and visual perceptual skills (i.e., auditory and visual discrimination, auditory and visual sequential memory, auditory and visual association, and auditory-visual integration) and work recognition and reading comprehension in first grade subjects. Using the .35 cut off point for practical significance, they found that, when intelligence was controlled for, only two skills (auditory discrimination and auditory sequential memory) reached significance with work recognition and two (auditory discrimination and auditory association) with reading comprehension.

Peck (1977) studied the relationship between auditory discrimination, memory, and sequential memory, and visual discrimination, memory, and spatial orientation and reading achievement (vocabulary and comprehension) in reading disabled youngsters, ages 7 to 9, whose measured intelligence was equal to or greater than 80. She found "small but significant relationships" (p. 2050) between all of the perceptual skills measured except spatial orientation and reading comprehension and between all but auditory memory and auditory sequential memory and reading vocabulary. Significant correlations ranged from .22 to .36, with only one coefficient, that between auditory memory and reading comprehension, falling at or above .35.

The consensus of the correlational research reviewed suggests that many auditory and visual perceptual skills, as measured, are not sufficiently related to reading to be educationally meaningful. The exceptions appear to be auditory, rather than visual, perceptual skills (i.e., sound blending, auditory discrimination, and auditory memory). Yet, research findings are still far from conclusive as to what specific perceptual components are important to the reading process. It should be recognized that whenever a large body of research is summarized, certain important differences among studies are lost. Variables which may be significant, yet lost in summarization, include: characteristics of subjects (i.e., chronological age, intelligence, school placement, achieving vs. nonachieving, and background), size of sample, test instruments utilized for assessing perceptual academic skills, and the cut off point set for significance.

This author investigated the relationship of four perceptual and perceptual-motor skills (i.e., visual perception, visual-perceptual integration, sound blending, and visual closure) to two measures of reading achievement (i.e., word recognition and reading comprehension) in normal and learning disabled children. Their perceptual skills were selected for study because of the contradictory research findings to date. Separate analyses were conducted for the normal and learning disabled groups in order to determine whether the relationship between perceptual skills and reading achievement differed in the two groups.

METHOD

Sample

Subjects selected for participation in this study were 55 children identified as learning disabled according to prevailing guidelines and 54

normal children. Learning disabled subjects were selected according to the following criteria: (1) they evidence an academic deficit sufficient to warrant special educational services, (2) they obtained intelligence quotients in the average or above average range, (3) they do not have physical, sensory, or primary emotional problems, and (4) they are age peers of second graders. Mean chronological age for the learning disabled subjects was 91 months and mean IQ was 99.19. Normal subjects were randomly selected from the same classes and/or schools as the learning disabled subjects according to the following criteria: (1) they had no record of academic or emotional problems, (2) they obtained intelligence quotients in the average or above average range, and (3) they were in second grade. Mean chronological age for the normal subjects was 89 months and mean IQ was 113.64.

Children of second grade age were selected for this study because research findings suggest that perceptual deficits are most noticeable when children are learning to read. After age eight, average readers have developed an adequate level of perceptual skills or have learned to compensate for their perceptual deficits (Peck, 1977).

Procedure

Each subject was tested individually between late October and early December. Four perceptual and two reading tasks were administered to each subject. The order of presentation remained constant for all subjects.

Perceptual Tasks

The following test instruments were used to measure perception. The Motor-Free Visual Perception Test (MFVPT) (Colarusso & Hammill, 1972) was used because it assesses visual perception without involving motor ability. The Developmental Test of Visual-Motor Integration (VMI) (Berry & Buktenica, 1967) was selected for use because it is a measure of the degree to which visual perception and motor behavior are integrated, in contrast to the MFVPT. The Sound Blending and Visual Closure subtests of the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities (ITPA) (Kirk, McCarthy, & Kirk, 1968) were used to measure sound blending and visual closure, respectively.

These perceptual skills were chosen for study because research thus far has yielded contradictory evidence concerning the degree of relationship of these skills to reading. Some researchers (e.g., Busby & Hurd, 1968; Rosen, 1965; Wendell, 1973) have argued that there is a strong relationship between visual perceptual and/or visual-motor integration skills and reading, while others (e.g., Bateman, 1964; Hammill, 1972; Larsen & Hammill, 1975) found little or no evidence of such a relationship. Likewise, some researchers have reported moderate correlations between sound blending and reading (Chall, Roswell, & Blumenthal, 1963; Golden & Steiner, 1969; Hare, 1977; Macione, 1970; Rosner & Simon, 1971), while others found little relationship between reading performance and skill in sound blending (Larsen, Rogers, & Sowell, 1976; Sears, 1970). Similarly, conflicting evidence exists for the relationship between visual closure and

reading. Macione (1970) reported that disabled and nondisabled readers scored significantly differently on the Visual Closure subtest of the ITPA, while Golden and Steiner (1969) and Sears (1970) found that good and poor readers did not perform significantly differently on the same subtest.

Reading Tasks

Reading performance was measured by the Reading Recognition (RR) and Reading Comprehension (RC) subtests of the Peabody Individual Achievement Test (PIAT) (Dunn & Mackwardt, 1970). Separate measures were used for recognition and comprehension in order to determine whether the perceptual skills studied were more strongly related to one of the reading skills than to the other. (E.g., sound blending has been found to be more strongly related to word analysis skills than to oral reading or than to silent reading [Chall et al., 1963; McNinch & Richmond, 1972].)

RESULTS

The data were subjected to second order partial correlational analysis in order to hold intelligence test score and chronological age constant. The results are presented in Table 1. In interpreting correlation coefficients, Guilford (1956) suggests that correlation coefficients ranging from .3 to .8 represent "the level of validity coefficients usually found useful predictive instruments in psychology and educational practice" (p. 378). Garrett (1954), on the other hand, suggests that only coefficients of .4 or above are useful, as lesser values denote negligible or at best slight relationships. For the purposes of this study, .35 was used as the cut off point between coefficients with practical significance and those without.

Examination of Table 1 reveals a striking difference between the normal and learning disabled groups. Six of the eight coefficients reached statistical significance for the normal group, with three, MFVPT and SB with RR and MFVPT with RC, exceeding the .35 cut off point established. Only two of the eight coefficients reached statistical significance for the learning disabled group, with none reaching .35.

DISCUSSION

For the sample studied, the selected perceptual skills were more highly related to reading achievement in the normal subjects than in the learning disabled subjects. However, even in the normal subjects, only three coefficients reached the established significance level. These coefficients represented the relationship between sound blending and reading recognition. None of the coefficients for the learning disabled group reached the established level of significance. Of particular interest is the finding that the correlations between the MFVPT and both measures of reading exceeded the .35 cut off for the normal group but were negligible for the learning disabled group. The degree correlation found for the normal group is consistent with the coefficients between the MFVPT and measures of school performance in normal children reported by Colarusso and Hammill (1972). The negligible coefficients obtained for the learning

TABLE 1

Correlation Coefficients with Intelligence Test Score and
Chronological Age Partialled Out

Measures correlated	group			
	Normal		Learning disabled	
	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
MFVPT with RR	.36	.005	.10	NS
VMI with RR	.16	NS	.24	.05
SB with RR	.38	.005	.31	.025
VC with RR	.21	NS	-.02	NS
MFVPT with RC	.37	.005	-.06	NS
VMI with RC	.28	.025	.15	NS
SB with RC	.34	.01	-.04	NS
VC with RC	.34	.01	.12	NS

MFVPT	=	Motor-Free Visual Perception Test
VMI	=	Developmental Test of Visual-Motor Integration
SB	=	Sound Blending (ITPA)
VC	=	Visual Closure (ITPA)
RR	=	Reading Recognition (PIAT)
RC	=	Reading Comprehension (PIAT)
NS	=	Not significant

disabled group raises serious questions in light of past and present assumptions of the relationship between visual perception and reading. The coefficients between visual-motor integration and both measures of reading did not reach the established significance level for either group, again raising questions in light of assumptions frequently found in the literature.

Also of interest is the finding that the correlations between sound blending and reading recognition exceeded the established significance level for the normal group only. This finding is consistent with previous findings (Chall et al., 1963; Golden and Steiner, 1969; Hare, 1977; Macione, 1970; Richardson et al., 1977, & Rosner and Simons, 1971) that sound blending is significantly related to reading and is of importance in light of the suggestion that sound blending is a component part of the decoding process. These findings also support the view that sound blending is more highly related to word analysis skills and oral reading than to silent reading. That the relationship between sound blending and reading

recognition did not reach the established significance level for the learning disabled group is surprising in light of previous research. The fact that the relationship between sound blending and reading comprehension was negligible for the learning disabled group is somewhat puzzling, although research has shown sound blending to be less highly related to silent reading than to word analysis skills or oral reading.

None of the correlations between visual closure and reading performance for either group reached the established level of significance, again questioning the assumptions frequently found in the literature regarding the relationship between those variables.

This author's findings do not support the view that deficits in the perceptual skills investigated are highly related to reading performance in learning disabled children. These findings, of course, are limited to the perceptual skills studied in this investigation and to subjects of similar chronological age. No inferences should be made to subjects of different ages or to other perceptual skills. Perhaps certain perceptual skills are more strongly related to the academic difficulties learning disabled children frequently experience. However, when the results of this study are analyzed in conjunction with previous research, one is left with a growing body of evidence which suggests that numerous perceptual skills, as measured, are not necessarily requisite for success in reading. Perhaps a minimal level of perceptual processing is necessary but that subjects in these studies have all exceeded that minimal level. Also to be considered, of course, are the skills measured in these studies and the assessment instruments used to measure these skills. The accuracy of the results cannot exceed the accuracy of the instruments used to measure performance in the first place. Difficulties related to many learning or reading disabled children's poor reading performance might also be in totally different areas such as teacher expectancy, social interaction patterns within the classroom, and language skills. The possibility that the learning or reading disabled subjects in the present study have already learned to compensate for their perceptual deficits cannot be totally dismissed, however, the mean chronological age for learning disabled group was only 91 months.

REFERENCE NOTE

1. Hammill, D. D., Larsen, S. C., Parker, R., Bagley, M. T., & Sanford, H. G. Perceptual and conceptual correlates of reading. Unpublished manuscript, 1974. (Available from 1505 Sunny Vale, Austin, Texas.)

REFERENCES

- Barsch, R. H. Six factors in learning. IN J. Hellmuth (Ed.), *Learning disorders*. Volume I. Seattle: Special Child Publications, 1965.
- Bateman, B. Learning disabilities—yesterday, today, and tomorrow. *Exceptional Children*, 1964, *31*, 167-176.
- Beery, K. E., & Buktenica, N. A. *Developmental Test of Visual-Motor Integration*. Chicago: Follett Publishing, 1967.

- Bonsall, C., & Dornbush, R. L. Visual perception and reading ability. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1969, 60, 294-299.
- Busby, W. A., & Hurd, D. E. Relationships between auditory and visual perceptual ability and reading achievement. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Education Research Association, Chicago, February 1968. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 017 432.)
- Chall, J., Roswell, F., & Blumenthal, S. Auditory blending ability: A factor in success in reading. *The Reading Teacher*, 1963, 17, 113-118.
- Colarusso, R., & Hammill, D. D. *The Motor Free Visual Perception Test*. San Rafael, California: Academic Therapy Publication, 1972.
- Cruikshank, W. M. Myths and realities in learning abilities. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 1977, 10, 51-58.
- Dunn, L. M., & Markwardt, F. C. *Peabody Individual Achievement Test*. Circle Pines, Minnesota: American Guidance Service, 1970.
- Frostig, M. *Movement education: Theory and practice*. Chicago: Follett Publishing, 1970.
- Garrett, H. E. *Statistics in psychology and education*. New York: Longmans Green, 1954.
- Getman, G. N. The visuomotor complex in the acquisition of learning skills. In J. Hellmuth (Ed.), *Learning disorders*. Volume I. Seattle: Special Child Publications, 1965.
- Golden, N. E., & Steiner, S. R. Auditory and visual functions in good and poor readers. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 1969, 2, 476-481.
- Guilford, J. P. *Fundamental statistics in psychology and education*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1956.
- Hammill, D. D. Training visual perceptual processes. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 1972, 5, 39-46.
- Hammill, D. D., & Larsen, S. C. The relationship of selected auditory perceptual skills and reading ability. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 1974, 9, 429-435.
- Hare, B. A. Perceptual deficits are not a cue to reading problems in second grade. *The Reading Teacher*, 1977, 30, 624-628.
- Kephart, N. C. *The slow learner in the classroom*. Columbus, Ohio: Merrill, 1960.
- Kirk, S. A., McCarthy, J. J., & Kirk, W. *Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities*. Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1968.
- Larsen, S. C., & Hammill, D. D. The relationship of selected visual-perceptual abilities to school learning. *The Journal of Special Education*, 1975, 9, 281-291.
- Larsen, S. C., Rogers, D., & Sowell, V. The use of selected perceptual tests in differentiating between normal and learning disabled children. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 1976, 9, 85-90.
- Macione, J. R. Psychological correlates of reading disability as defined by the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities (Doctoral dissertation, University of South Dakota, 1969). *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 1970, 30, 3817A-3818A. (University Microfilms No. 70-5308.)
- McNinch, G., & Richmond, M. Auditory perceptual tasks as predictors of first grade success *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 1972, 35, 7-13.
- Peck, N. L. The relationship of visual and auditory perception and modality patterns to reading achievement and intelligence (Doctoral dissertation, University of Miami, 1977). *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 1977, 38, 2049A-2050A. (University Microfilm No. 77-21, 918.)
- Richardson, E., & Bradley, C. M. ISM: A teacher-oriented method of reading instruction for the child-oriented teacher. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 1974, 7, 344-352.
- Richardson, E., DiBenedetto, B., & Bradley, C. M. The relationship of sound blending to reading achievement. *Review of Educational Research*, 1977, 47, 319-334.
- Rosen, C. I. A study of visual perception capabilities of first grade pupils and the relationship between visual perception training and reading achievement. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Minnesota, 1965.
- Rosner, J., & Simon, D. The Auditory Analysis Test: An initial report. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 1971, 4, 384-392.

- Sears, C. R. A comparison of the basic language concepts and psycholinguistic abilities of second grade boys who demonstrate average and below average levels of reading achievement (Doctoral dissertation, Colorado State College, 1969). *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 1970, *30*, 1758A. (University Microfilms No. 69-19, 233.)
- Wendell, K. *Learning and perceptuo-motor disabilities in children*. New York: Wiley, 1973.
- Wepman, J. M. Perceptual processing development; Its relation to learning disabilities. Section I. Washington, D.C.: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. (NEC-003-0102). November 1974. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 125 163.)

ENRICHING THE BEGINNING READING PROGRAM: THE NATURAL LANGUAGE TECHNIQUE

Janet Ross Kendall

SIMON FRASER UNIVERSITY

A friend's first-grade son came running home the other day to show his mother the story he'd "written" and could "read." The story was one he had told the teacher's aide in his classroom; the aide had written it down for him and had read it with him several times until the child knew it by heart. This technique, termed "language experience" or "chart stories," is an extremely good one for promoting positive attitudes toward reading in children and for providing useful experiences with reading.

There is another technique that is equally motivating and useful. This is the technique suggested by Bill Martin in his *Sounds of Language* readers, but it can also be used with many other books. The technique involves finding a book that has predictable language patterns; those with words that are repeated or that rhyme are especially useful. (A list of suggested books is provided at the end of this article.) The book should also have pictures that illustrate the story line and should be reasonably short (10 to 20 pages). If a longer book is used, such as *Go Dog Go*, sections of it can be used at a time.

I have called this technique the "natural language" technique. The way I remember which label goes with which technique is to consider that "language experience" stories are about a child's own experience, and are written in his own language, whereas "natural language" stories contain language children can learn easily and "naturally." (Of course the labels aren't really important; the experiences provided by both techniques are what count.)

Just as language experience stories can be composed by one child or by a group of children, so the natural language technique can be used with either an individual or a group. The following explanation of the natural language procedure is for an individual, but it can be readily adapted to a group situation.

The Procedure

The teacher reads the title to the child and they look at the cover and title page together; they can look at the pictures in the book, too, if the child is interested. The teacher then reads each page to the child, running her finger under the line of print as she reads. (The reading should be done in a natural way, *not* word by word.) When she reaches the end of the story, they can discuss it: did you like it, what did you like best, would you like to

do something like that, etc. Then she suggests to the child that they read the story again and that this time the child read along—"Let's read it together." The teacher again runs her finger under each line; every so often she can encourage the child by telling him how well he's doing. This rereading can be repeated several times. Each time the teacher should try to read less and less—she can start a line with the child, but she should fade out toward the end of it and let the child finish it himself. Finally the child should be encouraged to try and read it himself with any prompting necessary provided by the teacher.

This procedure—the teacher reads, the teacher and child read together, the child "reads" by himself with necessary prompting—may be repeated on consecutive days. After several trials the child will get to the point where he can "read" the book by himself.

Theoretical Implications

In *Sounds of Home*, Bill Martin provides a convincing description of the natural language technique at work. He describes a child who has heard his teacher read the poem "Pussy cat, pussy cat, where have you been." He states:

Once a child has these sounds clearly in the ear, he will have little difficulty reading this old rhyme in its printed form. Once his ears begin telling him what his eyes are seeing, he approaches the reading with confidence and expectation. At first it may seem that he is merely repeating what he has memorized, but when he comes to you and exultingly declares, 'I know that word, Miss Corbett, that word is Pussy,' you will have evidence that he is relating sight and sound in reading. Nor will this be your only evidence. Notice how he ponders the printed page, studying the words and, thus, taking in visually the patterns of language that already are ringing in his ear. (Martin, 1966, pp. TE5-6)

Through such experiences the child is becoming aware of the relationships between spoken and printed words, an understanding that young children appear not to have (Holden & MacGinitie, 1972), and thus he is learning to discriminate the distinctive features of printed words and letters (Gibson, 1965). He is also learning to integrate the printed information in letters and words with the contextual information available from his knowledge of how the language works and his knowledge of the subject matter of the story.

The ability to combine the printed and contextual information is critical. Biemiller (1970) followed the progress of children learning to read and found that those children who were able to integrate these pieces of information were the best readers at the end of the first grade. In contrast, those children who were unable to relate the printed and contextual information were the poorest.

Instructional Implications

There are many activities that can be planned to extend the usefulness

of the natural language technique. These activities can easily be applied to the language experience technique as well. In using these activities the teacher should constantly keep in mind that the ultimate goal is twofold: first, to help the child learn to read, and second, to ensure that reading is pleasurable. Listed below are several suggested activities.

1. The story can be duplicated, following the format of the book, and the child can illustrate it.
2. He can take home the duplicated story and read it to his family (and neighbors, perhaps). The teacher might want to send home a note telling the parents that “books” and stories will be coming home and asking that they read them with their child.
3. If he’s able, the child can copy the story from the book. Dolores Durkin’s (1966) early readers were incessant “scribblers” and loved to copy words and sentences. This, of course, helps the child focus on the letters and words themselves.
4. The child may want to write his own story by substituting words he already knows for those that are in the story. For example, he may want to write, “Tommy, Tommy, where have you been. I’ve been to school to visit my teacher.”
5. The child can find similar words: “Find all the ‘I’s’.” First he should be encouraged to find them within a single story; perhaps he could circle all of one word with green crayon, all of another with red crayon, and so on. Then he can find similar words in two stories, then three stories, and so forth. He may wish to make lists of words that appear often, or he may want to learn “special” words. (This, of course, is reminiscent of Sylvia Ashton Warner’s, 1963, organic vocabulary approach.)
6. The child can be encouraged to read his book to other children, gaining experience reading a book fluently and with expression to an audience.

It’s important to mention that the success of each technique depends on the child involved. Some children are fascinated with seeing their own experiences go down in print; for them, the language experience technique is more effective. Other children can’t wait to learn to read a “real” book; for them, the natural language technique is more effective. Both techniques, however, provide children with important experiences with reading and should be included as part of any program designed for beginning readers.

Suggested Books

The books listed below are only a sampling of those available. Teachers may want to select certain poems or pages from some books (i.e., *Best Mother Goose*). Other books contain a few unfamiliar words (i.e., *Ape in a Cape*); however, this can provide excellent opportunities for expanding children’s concepts and meaning vocabularies.

Baum, Arline and Joseph. *One Bright Monday Morning*. Random House, 1962.

Bemelmans, Ludwig. *Madeline*. Viking Press, 1939.

Berenstein, Stan and Jan. *Bears in the Night*. Random House, 1971.

- Carle, Eric. *Have You Seen My Cat?* Franklin Watts, 1976.
- Eichenberg, Fritz. *Ape in a Cape*. Harcourt Brace and World, 1952.
- Emberley, Barbara (adapted). *One Wide River to Cross*. Prentiss-Hall, 1967.
- Graham, John. *A Crowd of Cows*. Scholastic Book Services, 1968.
- Hutchins, Pat. *Rosie's Walk*. Collier Books, 1968.
- Keats, Ezra Jack (illus.). *Over in the Meadow*. Four Winds Press, 1971.
- Krauss, Ruth. *The Happy Day*. Harper and Row, 1949.
- Langstaff, John. *Frog Went A-Courtin'*. Scholastic Book Services, 1955.
- Langstaff, John. *Oh, A-Hunting We Will Go*. Atheneum, 1974.
- Lionni, Leo. *Inch by Inch*. Astor-Honor, 1960.
- Lobel, Arnold (illus.). *The Comic Adventures of Old Mother Hubbard and Her Dog*. Bradbury Press, 1968.
- Lund, Doris H. *Did You Ever Dream?* Parents' Magazine Press, 1969.
- Maestro, Betsy and Giulio. *Harriet Goes to the Circus*. Crown Publishers, 1977.
- Martin, Bill. *Brown Bear, Brown Bear, What Do You See?* Holt Rinehart and Winston, 1970. (This is just one title in Bill Martin's "Instant Reader" series. There are many other excellent books in this series.)
- Scarry, Richard. *Best Mother Goose Ever*. Golden Press, 1974.
- Seuss, Dr. *Hop on Pop*. Random House, 1963.
- Seuss, Dr. *One Fish, Two Fish, Red Fish, Blue Fish*. Random House, 1960.

REFERENCES

- Ashton-Warner, Sylvia. *Teacher*. New York: Simon & Schuster, 1963.
- Biemiller, Andrew. "The Development of the Use of Graphic and Contextual Information as Children Learn to Read." *Reading Research Quarterly*, vol. 6 (Fall 1970), pp. 75-96.
- Durkin, Dolores. *Children Who Read Early*. New York: Teachers College Press, 1966.
- Gibson, Eleanor. "Learning to Read." *Science*, vol. 148 (1965), pp. 1066-1072.
- Holden, Marjorie and MacGinitie, Walter. "Children's Conceptions of Word Boundaries in Speech and Print." *Journal of Educational Psychology*, vol. 63 (1972), pp. 551-557.
- Martin, Bill. *Sounds of Home*, Teacher's Edition. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1966.

READING REQUIREMENTS AND BASIC SECONDARY TEACHER CERTIFICATION: AN UPDATE

Keith J. Thomas and Michele Simpson

ARIZONA STATE UNIVERSITY

In their article concerning the need for content teachers to respond effectively to reading needs of their students, Estes and Piercey (1973) reported that a mere four states and the District of Columbia required training in reading education for *all* certificated secondary teachers. At that time, those authors rather despairingly commented:

One can seriously question whether there is much real concern for the fact that so many high school pupils cannot read, judging by the requirements, and presumably the expectations, of secondary teachers.

The regrettable condition will undoubtedly persist. Certification agencies will slowly if ever, adjust their requirements to include training in the teaching for secondary teachers. (p. 21).

About two years later, Bader (1975) surveyed the fifty states and Washington, D.C. to determine whether there was any change in the status of certification requirements as described by Estes and Piercey. Bader's findings boded optimism as she reported a substantial increase in the number of states requiring reading education for both temporary and permanent secondary certification.

Being involved with pre-service training of content teachers in a state which requires by law courses in reading method, we raised the following question: Since only two such studies appear in the widely circulated professional literature, were the findings reported by Bader truly representative of a positive trend toward a commitment to reading, or had the earlier comments of Estes and Piercey proven to be more prophetic?

To resolve this issue as well as bring this body of information on certification standards up-to-date, we replicated these earlier surveys with a questionnaire adapted from Piercey's instrument used in her investigation of 1973. Our survey form included an additional item which asked for a description or outline of how the reading requirement(s) came to be (if in existence). The item was worded: "Could you briefly describe the legislative or executive process resulting in this certification requirement?"

The data were collected during December of 1978 and January of 1979. In addition to the District of Columbia, all fifty states were contacted.

Forty-nine of the fifty-one agencies returned completed questionnaires and/or complete copies of their respective certification codes. The remaining two agencies were contacted and responses to the questionnaire were ascertained via telephone interview. All data were subjected to three separate analyses by independent judges; discrepancies were resolved through discussion. Complete results of the survey are presented in summarized form in Table I. (Because information had to be inferred from some responses, findings are subject to errors of interpretation; we believe these occurrences to be minimal, however.) The table is organized horizontally by informational categories deemed most salient; vertical entries are arranged alphabetically.

TABLE I
SUMMARY OF CERTIFICATION DATA

STATE	CERTIFICATION STATUS	TEACHING FIELDS AFFECTED	IMPLEMENTATION DATE	CODE SPECIFICATIONS
ALABAMA	Considering	N R	N R	N R
ALASKA	No	N A	N A	Approved training program
ARIZONA	Yes	All areas	October 1, 1976 (law effective)	Two reading courses (one a practicum including decoding skills)
ARKANSAS	No	N A	N A	N A
CALIFORNIA	Yes	All areas except art, music, home economics, industrial arts, physical education	1971	Three-four semester units
COLORADO	Yes	All areas	November 1, 1976	Must be part of an approved program "Specific preparation in theory, methods, practices in the teaching of reading"
CONNECTICUT	Yes	English only	December, 1971	Three hours in Developmental Reading in Secondary Schools
DELAWARE*	Being discussed	N A	N A	N A
FLORIDA	Yes	All areas	September, 1974	Competency based upon either university courses or services
GEORGIA	Yes	English, special education	July 1, 1976	Three semester hours in the Teaching of Reading
HAWAII	No (see entry in next column)	Reading considered a separate secondary teaching field	January 1, 1978	Only as required in an approved training program
IDAHO	Considering	N R	N R	N R
ILLINOIS	No	N A	N A	University program option
INDIANA	Yes	All areas	August 1, 1978	Three semester hours that "develops understanding of reading problems encountered by secondary students in subject matter oriented materials"
IOWA	Yes	English only	N R	N R
KANSAS*	"May be" under consideration	N R	N R	N R
KENTUCKY	Yes	English only, but considering all fields	September 1, 1976	One course in the Teaching of Reading

STATE	CERTIFICATION STATUS	TEACHING FIELDS AFFECTED	IMPLEMENTATION DATE	CODE SPECIFICATIONS
LOUISIANA	Yes	All areas	September, 1977	Six semester hours in the Teaching of Reading
MAINE	Considering	N R	N R	N R
MARYLAND	Yes	English, Social Studies	N R	Three credit hours in special methods in teaching reading
MASSACHUSETTS	No	N A	N A	N A
MICHIGAN	Considering	N R	Uncertain	N R
MINNESOTA	Considering	N R	Not determined	N A
MISSISSIPPI	Yes	All areas	July 1, 1979 - law enacted Fall, 1980 - law effective	One course, three semester hours, called Reading in the Secondary Schools
MISSOURI	Yes, but revisions are under way	English currently but others in 1984	1977 present law 1984 effective date for new law	One course, two semester hours, called Teaching Reading in Secondary Schools
MONTANA	Yes	In 1983 all content areas will receive endorsement from 5-12. At that time, yes	October, 1978 - law enacted 1983 - law effective	"Knowledge of reading and writing skills will be required"
NEBRASKA	Considering	N R	April, 1979	N R
NEVADA	No	N A	N A	N A
NEW HAMPSHIRE	Considering	N R	1979	N R
NEW JERSEY	Yes	All areas	September 1, 1977	Two courses, six semester hours, in the teaching of reading as it pertains to the subject areas
NEW MEXICO	Yes	All areas	March 8, 1976 - law enacted July 1, 1982 - law effective	Three semester hours in reading - process, methods and materials in content areas
NEW YORK	No	N A	N A	N A
NORTH CAROLINA	Yes	All areas	1974	Three semester hours in content reading skills and work study skills
NORTH DAKOTA	No	N A	N A	N A
OHIO	Yes	All areas	December 9, 1974 - law effective July 1, 1980 - full compliance is expected	"The teaching of reading, as it pertains to the field for which certification is being sought"
OKLAHOMA	Considering	N R	Uncertain	N R
OREGON	Yes	All areas	December 8, 1971 - law enacted October 13, 1972 - law effective	Two courses required: "A general course in teaching reading and writing and an advanced course in teaching reading"
PENNSYLVANIA	Yes	All areas	Original law in 1969, revisions in 1976	Competency based with institutional responsibility
RHODE ISLAND	No	N A	N A	N A
SOUTH CAROLINA	Yes	English only	1971	One course, three semester hours, in the Teaching of Secondary Reading
SOUTH DAKOTA	Yes	N A	July 1, 1978	Three semester hours in Reading in the Content Areas
TENNESSEE	Considering	N R	Not established	N R
TEXAS	Considering	N R	Indefinite	N R

STATE	CERTIFICATION STATUS	TEACHING FIELDS AFFECTED	IMPLEMENTATION DATE	CODE SPECIFICATIONS
UTAH	Yes	All areas	January, 1977 law enacted; September 1, 1978 law effective	Demonstrated competency in the teaching of reading in the content area
VERMONT	Yes	All areas	1978	Six credit hours or demonstrated competency in nine areas
VIRGINIA	No	N/A	N/A	N/A
WASHINGTON	No	N/A	N/A	"The state encourages the inclusion of such course content"
WEST VIRGINIA	Yes	All areas	1974 law enacted February 5, 1976 law revised and enacted	Specific standards and competencies in content reading
WISCONSIN	Yes	All areas	July 1, 1977	One course in the Teaching of Reading
WYOMING	Yes	All areas	School year of 1979-1980	Two semester hours or workshop equivalent in the theory, methods, and related practice in the teaching of reading
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA	Yes	All areas	1971	Three credit hours in the Teaching of Reading

Key

*Not included in "considering" total because of uncertainty

N/R — No Response on Questionnaire

N/A — Category Deemed Not Applicable by Researchers

Although our intent was to assemble the data into a comprehensive reference table, some noteworthy information emerged that warrants further discussion. For example, Piercey's 1973 study revealed a total of nine states that required training in reading education of at least some secondary content teachers. In 1975, Bader reported eighteen states required such training. The results of our 1979 survey indicated 28 agencies now have some requirements in their licensing codes. In six years, therefore, the number of agencies requiring some training/competencies for secondary content teachers has tripled.

When the number of states who have requirements and those who are considering instituting such requirements are combined into a single category, a similar increase is noted. Piercey's study reported seventeen states, 34%, requiring or considering; Bader's 1975 data identified this statistic to be 55%. According to our findings, approximately 75% of the respondents now fall into this category. In short, it appears that the trend suggested by Bader is indeed real.

It is also important to note that several agencies (e.g., Illinois, Hawaii, Alaska) who indicated their state did not have a specific requirement in its code, suggested universities/colleges within the state might have reading requirements as part of their approved programs for secondary teacher preparation. Thus, some states may be certifying secondary teachers with

reading education background equal to or greater than other states that require this training by law.

In several states reading requirements apply only to particular curricular or content areas. For example, six states require only English teachers to meet the requirement and one state requires both English and social studies. California, whose state code once required all content teachers to have background in reading education, now exempts the teaching fields of home economics, art, music, physical education, and industrial arts. However, examination of the data in Table I indicates a general trend toward requirements that embrace all content areas.

The span of years encompassing the inception and/or implementation of reading requirements is considerable. The earliest reported implementation date was 1967 in West Virginia; the most currently reported date for future implementation is 1984 in the state of Missouri. Nineteen seventy-six and 1978 appear to be the years which experienced the most vigorous implementation activity, as four states chose to enact their laws during those periods.

Some items on our questionnaire revealed interesting data on the initiation and/or subsequent revision of requirements in several states. California's revision has already been cited. Missouri began with a requirement affecting only English teachers, but has revised their code to specify that by 1984 teachers from *all* disciplines will be required to have completed a two-semester hour course in secondary reading. Kentucky is reportedly considering a similar revision.

As noted, we also sought to ascertain the genesis for the respective requirement(s) from all agencies contacted. The responses received were extremely varied as to their comprehensiveness and specificity. Hence, it was not possible to summarize this information in the data table. We were able, however, to sort this information into several nominal categories and chose to report the more salient findings in textual form. For instance, twelve certification agencies credited their State Board of Education for initiating the reading requirement(s), though the nature of the actual decision-making process was not explicitly stated.

Five respondents credited professional organizations and/or associations for the sole or participatory creation of the reading mandate. Specifically, professional teacher associations, English councils, and reading councils were cited for their efforts. In some states, advisory councils to the State Board of Education were credited with having played a major role in the inception of such requirements. These councils were reportedly composed of classroom teachers, school administrators, university faculty, and members of the community. Thus, it would appear that the impetus for initiating reading education requirements has generally emanated from State Boards of Education (with assistance from advisory councils) and/or from professional teacher associations and special interest/professional groups.

Specific certification requirements listed in Table I are as varied as the processes described in creating the codes. With respect to this item on our

questionnaire, some states reported specific competencies; others indicated minimum credit-hour requirements, number of courses required or both. Competencies reported ranged from precise behavioral statements to rather broad generalities such as a knowledge of the reading process.

In cases where only a course title appears in the code, states have apparently left the nature of course content (and specific competencies) to the discretion of those institutions or agencies authorized to provide the training. For example, titles reported which imply but do not specify course content include: "Teaching Developmental Reading in Secondary Schools," "Reading in the Secondary Schools," or "Teaching Reading in the Content Areas." An apparent exception to this general rule is Arizona, whose code specifies two required courses: one course in reading which includes "decoding skills," and a practicum in reading which also includes "decoding skills." In addition, Arizona appears to be the only state which *requires* a practicum experience. This is an interesting point considering the general trend toward including more field-oriented experiences in pre-service training components before completing basic secondary certification.

In states reporting college credit hours, the range was from two to six units with the mode being three. An examination of data from those agencies not specifying credit hours, but rather number of courses, revealed that most states require only one course; the maximum number required appears to be two.

Our survey suggests a relatively strong commitment by licensing agencies to the responsibility of developing reading competency through content instruction by secondary school subject-matter teachers. Some reading professionals may find the scope of this commitment, as deduced from our data, to be somewhat startling. We believe the commitment is serious enough to warrant additional types of research inquiry heretofore unreported in the professional literature. For instance, in states that have had such requirements for several years, it would be both valuable and interesting to determine the impact such legislation has had on both teaching practices and student performance in junior and senior high schools. Such inquiry may yield some insights into whether or not the actual intent of the legislation is being met. In addition, those states which are considering adopting new standards might look to others which have already enacted similar requirements. Information may be available which would help facilitate the organization and implementation processes in their respective states.

Finally, institutions charged with the responsibilities for pre-service training could profit from follow-up research on their own graduates/trainees which may lead to curricular modification in both content and methodology for required reading courses. The type of research now being conducted by Roberta Kelley in the state of Arizona may serve as an appropriate example. (Kelley, Note 1)

In short, Patberg's (1979) suggestions for further research in the validation of content reading strategies are well taken. However, the data

from our survey suggests that such research findings should perhaps interface with actual classroom practices by content teachers who have already gained competencies through pre-service course work. Results from investigations that include this additional dimension would presumably have relevance to more than just reading pedagogists.

REFERENCE NOTES

- ¹ Roberta Jane Kelley, a doctoral candidate at Arizona State University, is presently conducting a follow-up study to ascertain what reading strategies are actually being employed by secondary teachers from differing content areas. These teachers successfully completed required courses in content reading before being permanently certified in Arizona.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Bader, Lois A. "Certification Requirements in Reading: A Trend." *Journal of Reading*, Vol. 19, No. 3 (December, 1975), pp. 237-240.
- Estes, Thomas H. and Dorothy Piercey. "Secondary Reading Requirements: Report on the States." *Journal of Reading*, Vol. 17, No. 1 (October, 1973), pp. 20-24.
- Patberg, Judythe P. "Validation of Reading Strategies in Secondary Content Areas." *Journal of Reading*, Vol. 22, No. 4 (January, 1979), pp. 332-336.

PSYCHOLINGUISTICS: TEACHING STRATEGIES FOR COMPREHENSION

Gail M. Huffman

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA AT CHARLOTTE

Nancy M. Weddle

UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI-COLUMBIA

Children typically come to the reading task with a foundation for learning to read. They have attained a substantial amount of oral language and they have accumulated a storehouse of personal background experience. As with oral language, the child needs to understand that what he reads must make sense. Goodman (1973) reminded us, "A reader, then, is a user of language who constantly seeks sense from what he reads."

However, recent research suggested that poor readers do not apply what they know about oral language to the act of reading. They do not strive to make sense of what they read. Au's (1977) study of the types of oral reading errors which distinguished good from poor readers indicated that poor readers 1) make a significantly higher percentage of non-meaningful substitutions, 2) often showed lack of any effective strategy, 3) do not self-correct their own errors and 4) seldom used the context (Au, 1977). Au suggested that poor readers would benefit if given training in self-correction and use of context.

In an attempt to find solutions to this problem, the authors developed the following techniques while working with remedial readers at the Child Study Clinic, University of Missouri-Columbia. Readers are encouraged to use their knowledge of language and their experience to make sense of material they are reading. Use of the techniques provides training in self-correction and training in the use of context to aid comprehension. In this way, the child is taught strategies for building meaning or seeking sense from written language.

Strategies for Building Comprehension

In a directed reading lesson the teacher can follow these steps to help children develop effective strategies for comprehension:

1. When readers meet an unfamiliar word they should skip it and read on to the end of the sentence, paragraph or passage. This helps readers use the context and their skill with language to determine the unknown word.
2. If the child is reading orally, and the miscue does not change the meaning, do not stop the reading. Example: (Text) "The neighbors painted their *house* white." Child reads, "The neighbors painted their *home* white."

3. If the miscue *does* change the meaning, stop the child at the end of the paragraph. Example: (Text) "They descended the stairs." (Child) "They decided the stairs." Allow time for the child to realize the word or phrase doesn't fit the context and self-correct the miscue. If the reader doesn't self-correct, ask the student to reread the sentence, say the sentence the way it was read, and add, "Does that make sense?" or "Does that fit?"
4. Tell the child to think of a word that would "fit" in the sentence or to think of a word that would make sense in the sentence.
5. If necessary, help the reader note additional cues such as the initial or the final letter of the word.
6. If the child still does not know the word, consider whether or not it would be best to tell the reader what it is. Each situation should be considered individually and no hard and fast rule should be applied. Do not put the child on the spot, but give the reader individual help at a later time.

Teaching Techniques

1. Teach with a tablet and felt marker readily accessible. Call attention to miscues which changed the meaning by jotting them on paper. Example: (Text) "So he shouted again." (Child) "So he shut again." Call attention to the differences and to the place where the reader needs to look to find the differences.
2. If children habitually associate words such as "saw" and "was," supply text with blanks for the child to insert the appropriate word. The omitted words ("saw" and "was") should not be used interchangeably in the sentence; that is, the words must not be in the same semantic (meaning) or syntactic (grammatical) slots. Example: Susie _____ the man. The truck _____ red.
3. If children confuse words which appear similar such as "for" and "from," use sentences in which clues are given for the meaning and leave blanks as above. Use enough context so that the word can be called correctly. Example: Helen was coming _____ the store.
4. It is important that the teacher help children relate these strategies to all their reading. Be careful not to confine these techniques to the reading group only, but integrate and reinforce the ideas throughout the day. Provide the child with many and varied opportunities for reading.
5. Capitalize on the reader's interests and find books which are appealing. Children are motivated to read material which is stimulating and of personal interest.
6. Research shows that readers can read silently much more efficiently than they can read orally (Smith, 1971). Encourage readers to read silently, just the way their parents and teachers read, while emphasizing reading for the meaning of the passage.

The teacher must help the child acquire strategies for developing better

comprehension. The use of strategies such as those described can aid in developing confident, independent readers who apply their knowledge of language and their background of experience to seek meaning when reading.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Au, Kathryn Hu-peis, "Analyzing Oral Reading Errors to Improve Instruction," *The Reading Teacher*, October 1977.
- Goodman, Kenneth, "Strategies for Increasing Comprehension in Reading," in H. Robinson (Ed.) *Improving Reading in the Intermediate Years*.
- Smith, Frank, *Understanding Reading*. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1971.

BEYOND BIBLIOTHERAPY: TELL-A-THERAPY

*Dr. William S. O'Bruba and
Dr. Donald A. Camplese*

BLOOMSBURG STATE COLLEGE, PENNSYLVANIA

"A book," stated Dr. Samuel Johnson, "should help us either to enjoy life or to endure it."

Many years later such an intriguing idea began to grow in the minds of educators, ministers, psychologists, psychiatrists and persons in contact with a world reaching in many directions for answers to their problems. The last half century has seen the utilization of books for therapeutic purposes grow from an idea to an accepted practice bordering on a science. Pierre Janet, a French psychiatrist, interested in this topic of therapeutic reading believed that one could inspire or stimulate patients into making a better life adjustment through reading assignments. Teachers and ministers had intuitively believed this for literally centuries, but until this time, no psychiatrists had accepted the theory.

The word bibliotherapy first appeared in 1930, in an article by G. O. Ireland in *Modern Hospital*. Other names applied to this therapy have been biblioprophyllasis and therapeutic reading. In the United States, the Menningers were among the first to foster interest in this new aid to healing. In 1937, Dr. Will Menninger wrote *The Prescription of Literature* and later Dr. Karl added *A Guide to Psychiatric Books*.

Providing a case for bibliotherapy, Dr. Karl notes that Robert Downs issued *Books That Changed the World* and states, "Since we know that many books have in many different ways changed the thinking of the world, we can easily believe that many an individual can and does have his life changed directly through the experience of reading a book."

Karl Menninger in his book, *Human Mind*, which was written for, but not accepted by, medical libraries, stated, "The whole matter of bibliotherapy for the relief of suffering by the psychological processes induced by reading is a field in which we have little scientific knowledge. But our intuition and our experience tell us that books may indeed 'minister to a mind diseased' and come to the aid of the doctor and even precede him."

Bibliotherapy was first used primarily as one type of individual therapy with those who were emotionally ill. The assumption underlying this was that a patient's mind would turn from his illness and then, from vicarious experiences, develop insights concerning others with similar problems. From this point one could begin to plan ways of resolving his own conflicts. It followed that such a measure might well be used in a preventive manner as well as to help those emotionally disturbed to develop better

attitudes and be prepared to make more satisfactory adjustments to their problems and their world.

Schools, perhaps are in the best position to work with bibliotherapy in a preventive approach against mental illness. In America, schools are founded on the principle that reading experience would affect not only a child's attitude, but also his behavior. The first book published in America, the New England primer, contained both religious and secular material, and who would deny the far reaching influence of the McGuffey Reader on the mind of America. Although there is little tangible evidence supporting the claim that reading does influence and change one's behavior, those involved in fostering the learning of others must continue to assume this is true—that reading of good books positively influences the way one thinks, feels, and acts. In the past few years the thinking of many of our educators and psychologists have reflected the inadequacy of our present education system to meet the needs of the "whole child." Jersild expresses the idea that there is a need for the child to understand himself and others even on a nursery school level. He states that problem facing is not realistic in the classroom. Educators need to promote wholesome understanding of self revelation instead of self-defense. Let the child be himself.

Arthur Combs in explaining the school's function in promoting a more self actualized personality says, "Disillusionment and despair in human relationships are the product of inaccurate assessment of what people are like and what can be expected of them. A clear conception of possibilities and limitations is more likely to produce more realistic goals. These in turn provide the bases for success, experience and good morale." The students should also through exploration, come to see that people change their way of doing things only when they see new or different and better ways of doing them. In this way they may learn that meanings are individual and that the differences in behavior among their classmates and others may be accounted for because of the meaning each sees in the situation. This, in effect can change a student's attitude of blaming the person for his behavior to one of understanding this concept, the student is able to deal more effectively with his own problems. Since ways of perceiving are learned, can they not be taught? Although there is no one solution to the way of bringing about these changes in a student's behavior and picture of himself, perhaps bibliotherapy is in a position to make a healthy contribution toward this goal. In a program of bibliotherapy one would not experience just an intellectual or academic, didactic approach, but the process of developing self-understanding involving all of the growing persons' faculties for feeling, cognition, or recognition. What other agency in our society is in a more crucial position to help bring about these necessary conditions than the public school system? Yet, how many teachers know what the word bibliotherapy means?

Bibliotherapy as a preventive approach is concerned with the technique in which a teacher attempts to solve a child's problem by bringing him a similar experience vicariously through books. Through recognition of the problem and its solution in literature, the individual gains insight into his

own problems and presumably is then able to take a step toward solving it.

The theory of preventive bibliotherapy can be expressed in three points.

1. All children and adolescents face certain types of problems.
2. By reading and developing a sane attitude, youngsters are better prepared to make a satisfactory adjustment when similar problems arise.
3. A little vicarious injection of experience with a problem in a book is to prevent a bad case of this same kind of experience in the young readers' development.

Dr. T. V. Moore of the Catholic University of America believes that psychiatry and psychology have put too little emphasis on the importance of intellectual ideals in determining human conduct. It is his view that the intellect has a great deal to do with determining conduct. "If we can give children and young people proper principles of conduct, we can alter their behavior and make it more desirable. One of the best ways of implanting desirable ideas is gained from books. Children need a discussion of books to see the application of the situation in these books to their own problems." If we take this emphasis on the intellectual element in bibliotherapy, it is easy to justify a kind of preventive bibliotherapy which might well be practiced by teachers, librarians, and guidance officers.

Certain suggestions and aids have been prescribed by users of bibliotherapy which would be of benefit in such a program. If counseling or discussion follows the reading, teachers should not moralize or prescribe behavior for the child or group. This, for each child, is individual. "It must be understood that in using bibliotherapy as another way of encouraging children's use of books in influencing behavior, that most children in the classroom are not seriously maladjusted nor is the teacher a qualified therapist. But it may serve as another technique of getting close to a child, helping him to achieve a greater degree of maturity, along with developing the ability to verbalize his concerns."

Heaton and Lewis set forth steps to alter attitudes and behavior from the use of literature. These steps are:

1. A retelling of what occurred in the story itself.
2. A probe into what happened in feeling, in shift of relationship and change of behavior.
3. A stimulation to identify similar incidents drawn from the experience of the students or from other stories.
4. An opportunity to explore the consequences of certain behaviors or feelings.
5. A chance to come to a conclusion or generalization about the consequence of certain behavior or feelings.

If the chosen material is good, the theory that children will become like their heroes does no harm, "since children are past masters at pulling their own particular plums out of any pie." A child not only reads with his eyes but with his knowledge; taking his needs and problems to the reading experience and reading himself into the story. He attaches his plight to that

of one of the characters. This mirror image helps him to see his own weakness without directly affecting his ego. Through these experiences the child becomes better prepared to meet real problems or make readjustments in solving the existing ones.

One way of using bibliotherapy with special students is through telling stories which fit the developmental needs of a group of students, followed by group discussion of the social values that were found in the story.

The special teacher may retell the story so that the children may receive mental and emotional therapy through identification with a character in a book who faced a similar problem or situation. Tell-a-therapy can and often does have a marked positive or negative influence on behavior.

The following example serves to illustrate how Tell-a-Therapy can be utilized. Ernie, a polio victim, is now a ninth grader who is in a special education program. From the first day of class the teacher noticed that the other boys and girls were tripping Ernie on the way to and from class but usually catching him before he hit the floor. His teacher pointed out the hazards of this activity to no avail. Finally in desperation, the teacher read *Green Door to the Sea*—a book about the perils of a young boy who had polio and then told the story to the class. The positive behavior effects showed immediately, for nobody dared to trip or push Ernie. However, about two weeks later the principal called the teacher into his office to discuss the behavior of another of his students who had been involved in five fights during the past two weeks. This young man, all two hundred and ten pounds of him, had adopted the role of Ernie's protector. Naturally, the teacher explained to the principal that his Tell-a-therapy had worked too well and that he would remedy the situation.

This is a good example of Tell-a-therapy properly carried out. Tell-a-therapy can produce both a positive and a negative influence on the behavior of a special student. This is a situation where a model behavior was presented by the therapist and accepted by the client, but the client had no grid by which to judge his overprotective performance.

Through a story, the special student can see himself more realistically. He can see his weaknesses without threatening his ego. Through this type of identification model and problem-solving situation, the student can become better prepared to face real life problems and situations. However, in dealing with retarded individuals it seems necessary to provide a kind of grid or standard by which these individuals can judge problems and situations. Thus appropriate examples of behavior for many life situations must be given to the students so they can establish a grid by which to behave.

The writers have established four categories which may be helpful when using either bibliotherapy or Tell-a-therapy.

The four categories of useful books are as follows:

- I. Personal Appearance
- II. Physical Handicap
- III. Family Situations
 - A. Disturbing features at home

- B. Living without father
- C. Living without mother
- D. Living without either parent
- E. Living with step parent
- F. Living with relatives
- G. Living with other people

IV. School and social Problems

Bibliotherapy has had its problems trying to become a science, mainly because, "Many people read not to explore and examine with open mind and honest experience, but rather to select and reinforce their own traits, aversions, unrealities, and so to perpetuate their immaturities, or lacking concern with the issues encountered, they remain immune to any potential influence from what they read."

One must admit that each reader brings his own complex ideas, needs, and ego into the therapeutic situation. Of course these factors help determine the therapeutic effect upon the individual. Logic can easily lead one to believe that the therapeutic effect could be completely misinterpreted by an individual to bolster his own shaky ego; or that an individual's attitude may completely prevent the desired response to be coded in a meaningful manner, or to provide a response that would have an effect the opposite of therapeutic. Thus, it is almost impossible to prove that specific reading has had a certain effect in a certain case. In the fields of psychology and education, a sizable amount of research and experimentation has been done relating to bibliotherapy in the hope of supporting the theory that the use of books can influence the total development of a person. We find in clinical literature, theories of the process of bibliotherapy and leads for further research, but it contains few definitive answers for teachers, librarians, psychologists and psychiatrists. Largely, the research articles are descriptive rather than experimental.

Kircher emphasizes the view that, "We must not delude ourselves with the idea that once a moral principle gains entrance to the mind of the child it determines conduct. I have been deeply interested in observing a child acquire a good moral principle, see its beauty, and recognize its validity, but refuse to apply it to his own personal problems."

It is disappointing to read Mr. Kircher's remark, but could it be possible that his yardstick wasn't long enough. This moral principle doesn't determine conduct—maturity does. But who is to say that this same moral principle wasn't applied to his own personal problems in later years?

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Kircher, C. J., *Character Formation Through Books, a Bibliography*, Catholic University of American Press.
- Russel, D. H. and Shrodes, C., "Contributions of Research in Bibliotherapy to the Language Arts Program." *School Review*, 58: 335-42. 411-20, September, 1960.
- Combs, Arthur, "A Perceptual View of the Adequate Personality." *Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming*, ASCD Yearbook 1962.

- Darling, R. L., "Bibliotherapy as Used with Children and Adolescents." *Wilson Library Bulletin*, 32: 293-6, December, 1957.
- Marie, Sister Thresa, "Bibliotherapy in the Elementary Classroom." *Catholic School Journal*, 55: 35-7, February, 1965.
- Gray, M. "Books: Another Use in Our Classroom." *Education*, 79: 487-98, April, 1959.
- Heaton, Margaret M. and Lewis, Helen B., *Reading Ladders for Human Relations*, American Council on Education, 1955.
- Smith, Nila B., "The Personal and Social Values of Reading," *Elementary English*, 490-500, December, 1948.
- Kircher, C. J., "Bibliotherapy and the Catholic School Library." Vol. II, *Catholic Library Practices*, 173-84.
- Smart, Maxwell A., "Mental Hygiene and TV, Bibliotherapy as used with the Chief and 99." *NBC Bull*, 7: 30-8, February, 1967.
- Spache, George D., *Good Reading for Poor Readers*, Garrard Publishing, 9th edition, 1974.

SCHEDULING FOR A DIFFERENTIATED READING PROGRAM

Anne Polselli Sweet

PETERSBURG PUBLIC SCHOOLS, PETERSBURG, VIRGINIA

Robert Lynn Canady

UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA

A renewed impetus toward the improvement of reading instruction has been provided in great measure by the nationwide thrust toward educational accountability. Educators have been prompted to seek diverse means for improving reading instruction because of the realization that large numbers of average to high IQ children exhibit a discrepancy between capacity and performance scores. Supplementary instructional programs have been instituted; teacher in-service programs have been provided; paraprofessionals have been employed; teaching methodologies have been varied; learning centers have been constructed; management systems have been implemented; and new textbooks have been adopted. Altering the delivery of instruction, however, has been afforded minor consideration in the quest for improved reading instruction. Varying the delivery of reading instruction is a positive step toward the differentiation of a reading program, because in so doing the individual instructional needs of students can be met more readily. This process can be facilitated directly through the employment of scheduling procedures accompanied by distinct staffing patterns. Limited options have been available to teachers in modifying the delivery of instruction. The choice of instructional alternatives for teachers can be expanded by incorporating the scheduling concept into the reading program.

It has been indicated by evidence accrued from research that a relationship exists between class size and reading achievement, (Frymier, 1961; Balow, 1967; Furno, 1967). Through the use of scheduling procedures, an instructional group can be manipulated so as to reduce considerably the staffing ratio of the group. Specifically, a large reading "class size" can be transformed to accommodate a relatively low ratio of students to staff positions when scheduling techniques are utilized effectively.

The role of the class size variable in scholastic achievement has received voluminous support from research. Olson and McKenna (1975), Glass, Cahen, Smith, and Filby (1979), after examining the numerous class size studies, concluded that the class size ratio is related to a broad range of educational goals and processes as reflected in the generalizations that follow. When teacher-student ratios are reduced:

1. Teachers employ a wider variety of instructional strategies, methods, and learning activities and are more effective with them (Newell, 1943; Richmond, 1955; Whisitt, 1955);
2. Students benefit from more individualized instruction (Hare, 1962; Danowski, 1965; Edwards, 1969; Katz, 1973);
3. Students engage in more creative and divergent thinking processes (Otte, 1966; Olson, 1970);
4. Students learn how to function more effectively as members and leaders of groups of varying sizes and purposes (Brown, 1965; Olson, 1970, 1971);
5. Students develop better human relations and have greater regard for others (Shane, 1961; Applegate, 1969; Bolander, 1973);
6. Students learn the basic skills more thoroughly and master more subject matter content (Balow, 1967; Burno, 1967; Walberg, 1974);
7. Classroom management and discipline are improved (Richmond, 1955; Hubbard, 1963; Cannon, 1966);
8. Teacher attitudes and morale are more positive (Hubbard, 1963; Cannon, 1966);
9. Student attitudes and perceptions are more positive (Eash, 1964; Applegate, 1969; Bolander, 1973).

The importance of class size reduction to the quality of education is readily discernible from an examination of research studies wherein class size was utilized as the independent variable. It appears reasonable to assume that major consideration should be given to the employment of scheduling procedures in which class size can be manipulated so as to accommodate the unique requirements of varied instructional strategies and alternate styles of educational activity. Educators are faced with the problem of achieving flexibility when burdened with teacher-student ratios of one to twenty-five or one to thirty. Flexibility is desirable because the more productive styles of educational activity—small group work, individual work, discussion, laboratory work, pupil report, and demonstration—are more likely to occur in groups with teacher-student ratios of one to five through one to fifteen (Olson, 1971). The authors contend that basic scheduling concepts can be incorporated into a reading program so as to reduce considerably the class size ratio and, thereby, facilitate altering the delivery of reading instruction.

When small teacher-student ratios are desirable, the reading class size ratio may be manipulated so that the number of students for which a teacher is responsible during critical instructional periods is reduced by approximately fifty percent. This reduction may be accomplished through the use of parallel scheduling which involves scheduling small reading groups parallel to a large group activity, and opposite from Extension Center (enrichment) activities. For illustrative purposes, the reader is referred to Schedule Models 1, 2, and 3, (page 41).

Directed Reading Group (DRG) and Reading Skill Group (RSG) are references to students who have been grouped according to common instructional needs. A DRG is composed of students who have been placed in

a particular level of a basal textbook series. For example, in Schedule Model 1, students in DRG-5 have been grouped for instruction because they share a broad spectrum of instructional needs which are met sequentially in a particular level of a commercial basal reader program. Language Experience Activities as well as other reading programs and approaches in which small student groups are required can be accomplished by the DRG grouping pattern. An RSG is composed of students who have been placed in a temporary skills group according to a specific instructional need. In Schedule Model 2, students in RSG-8 have been grouped for instruction because they need more experience in identifying word affixes. The RSG grouping pattern is well suited to a skills oriented approach to the teaching of reading similar to the approach utilized in commercial reading management systems.

Language Arts Group (LAG) is a reference to a group of students formed by combining two DRG's or two RSG's. These students are grouped heterogeneously for varied language arts activities. For example, in Schedule Model 3, students in LAG 1, 7 may be scheduled to engage in creative writing activities. Teacher A meets with small groups of students (RSG 1; RSG 7) separately for two periods of time in the block and meets with the two small groups combined (LAG 1, 7) for one period of time in the block. Through this scheduling arrangement, each teacher is freed from the burden of having to supervise one or more groups of students while attempting to direct a small, specific reading group activity.

Students in the Extension Center are provided with opportunities for the reinforcement, extension, and application of those skills which have been taught in skills groups. Students are encouraged to select experiences of individual interest, and they receive minimal teacher guidance during this activity period.

By including the Extension Center concept in scheduling, problems relative to providing services to students qualifying for special services such as Title I, learning disabilities, and oral language remediation often can be managed. Students needing special services may receive assistance during the Extension Center period. In some cases, such as Title I, it may be best for the special service to be provided in the Extension Center area. Such a plan helps reduce the isolation of students receiving such services. Children qualifying for special services may benefit from this type of schedule by not having to be absent from teacher directed activities such as art, music, or social studies.

The Extension Center is usually staffed by one professional teacher who is assisted by teacher aides, parent volunteers, student tutors, interns, or other support personnel. The Extension Center is a room or area containing games, learning centers, interest centers, learning modules, manipulative aids, and other types of reinforcement materials which are multi-level and multi-media. It is an organized "pooled" resource area to which all teachers contribute. Major pieces of audio-visual equipment are located in the Extension Center, thus making readily accessible not only content but also

multi-media materials to all teachers and students, within scheduling constraints.

Flexibility is paramount to the parallel scheduling concept. Through parallel scheduling, the use of diverse instructional strategies is facilitated because personal teaching philosophies can be honored and individual teacher strengths can be capitalized upon. For example, in Schedule Model 1, Teacher A engages students in language experience activities (LEA) when meeting with DRG's because she is philosophically attuned to the tenets of LEA, and conducts this type of reading activity with ease when teaching beginning readers and/or pupils with reading difficulties. Teacher D provides Directed Reading Thinking Activities, using a basal reader, when meeting with DRG's because he is committed to an independent problem solving approach to reading instruction in which the purposes for reading are set by the students. Teacher E prepares teacher-directed reading lessons for students in DRG's because pedagogically she favors a structured skills approach to the teaching of reading and functions best in this type of teacher role.

Student needs as well as teacher preferences are accommodated by parallel scheduling. For example, in Schedule Model 1, students experiencing difficulty in learning to read through the traditional skills approach are assigned to DRG's 1 and 2, instructed by Teacher A who employs LEA. Pupils exhibiting a high degree of distractability and dependence are assigned to DRG's 9 and 10, instructed by Teacher E who provides a structured learning environment accompanied by direct supervision. In addition, when students in DRG's 9 and 10 require a self-contained setting, they remain with Teacher E for the duration of a complete block of time while students assigned to the other DRG's continue with the program as shown.

The implementation of a management system is greatly facilitated by the use of parallel scheduling. In point of illustration, Schedule Model 2 is employed by a school in which a reading management system has been adopted to assist teachers in the continuous process of identifying exactly what reading skills each student has, the degree to which he has mastered them, and at the same time identifying those skills in which the student is deficient. RSG's are formed by use of the criterion-referenced instruments which accompanied the commercially prepared management system. Group composition is temporary because students assigned to a RSG may work in this group from several days to several weeks before being assigned to a different RSG according to level of individual progress, rate of learning, and evolving instructional need. A multitude of materials is used by teachers in developing the particular skill(s) being emphasized in each RSG. In order to facilitate material retrieval, all reading materials (packaged, boxed, bound, regardless of publisher and/or program), are drawn together and organized with respect to the skills identified in the continua set forth by the management system. Certain materials from this collection are housed in the Extension Center in order to serve as reinforcement activities for select students.

Staffing patterns within the parallel schedule are subject to discriminant manipulation. In the assignment of consecutive RSG's to teachers, consideration should be devoted to reading group composition in terms of student level of performance as well as to teacher expertise. For example, in Schedule Model 2, RSG's 1 and 2 are composed of students reading below grade level. Gradations of reading performance increase so that RSG's 11 and 12 are composed of students reading above grade level. Lower level groups are composed of fewer students than are higher level groups. Teacher A is assigned RSG 1 during first period, and RSG 12 during second period. Teacher A is thus enabled to instruct a dependent (RSG 1) and a relatively independent (RSG 12) group of students in succession. In addition, Teacher A instructs students with varying capabilities concurrently during third period when RSG's 1 and 12 are combined to form LAG 1, 12.

It is instructive to note that in Schedule Model 1, Teacher A has been assigned to instruct the lowest level reading group (RSG 1) and the highest level reading group (RSG 12). In contrast, Teacher F has been assigned to instruct the two mid-level reading groups (RSG 6 and RSG 7) which are similar with respect to level of student performance. It appears advisable to assign a highly experienced, effective teacher to the role of Teacher F. Schedule Model 3 is suggested for utilization in a reading program staffed by teachers who prefer to instruct individual group and group combinations that are less diverse in terms of student level of performance.

The scheduling procedures which have been presented are designed to facilitate the delivery of instruction and to promote the formation of a differentiated reading program. Similar schedules can be designed to suit unique program needs by employing the basic principles of parallel scheduling used in the construction of the Schedule Models which have been presented. Scheduling procedures accompanied by distinct staffing patterns are crucial to the successful operation of a differentiated instructional program. The school principal most likely will fulfill the leadership role in extending to teachers and support staff a basic pattern of organization. No single scheduling plan is ideal, nor is there a single scheduling plan that can be constructed to accommodate all types of multi-school programs. Finally, it must be recognized that no single scheduling plan should remain in effect beyond its capacity to endure flexibility. As teachers develop greater expertise and as students develop greater independence, the scheduling plan will require alteration.

Schedule Model 1

<i>Teacher</i>	<i>*I</i>	<i>*II</i>	<i>*III</i>
A	**DRG 1	DRG 2	***LAG 1, 2
B	DRG 3	LAG 3, 4	DRG 4
C	LAG 5, 6	DRG 5	DRG 6
D	DRG 7	DRG 8	LAG 7, 8
E	DRG 9	LAG 9, 10	DRG 10
F	LAG 11, 12	DRG 11	DRG 12

Extension Center Activities

G	DRG's	DRG's	DRG's
2 Aides	2, 4, 8, 10	1, 6, 7, 12	3, 5, 9, 11

*I, II, III—periods of time (usually at least 40 minutes)

**DRG — Directed Reading Group

***LAG — Language Arts Group

Schedule Model 2

<i>Teacher</i>	<i>*I</i>	<i>II</i>	<i>III</i>
A	DRG 1	RSG 12	LAG 1, 12
B	RSG 2	LAG 2, 11	RSG 11
C	LAG 3, 10	RSG 3	RSG 10
D	RSG 4	RSG 9	LAG 4, 9
E	RSG 5	LAG 5, 8	RSG 8
F	LAG 6, 7	RSG 6	RSG 7

Extension Center Activities

G	RSG's	RSG's	RSG's
2 Aides	8, 9, 11, 12	1, 4, 7, 10	2, 3, 5, 6

*I, II, III—periods of time

**RGS — Reading Skill Group

***LAG — Language Arts Group

Schedule Model 3

<i>Teacher</i>	<i>*I</i>	<i>II</i>	<i>III</i>
A	RSG 1	RSG 7	LAG 1, 7
B	RSG 2	LAG 2, 8	RSG 8
C	LAG 3, 9	RSG 3	RSG 9
D	RSG 4	RSG 10	LAG 4, 10
E	RSG 5	LAG 5, 11	RSG 11
F	LAG 6, 12	RSG 6	RSG 12

Extension Center Activities

G	RSG's	RSG's	RSG's
2 Aides	7, 8, 10, 11	1, 4, 9, 12	2, 3, 5, 6

*I, II, III—periods of time

**RSG — Reading Skill Group

***LAG — Language Arts Group

REFERENCES

- Applegate, T. R. "Why Don't Pupils Talk in Class Discussion?" *The Clearing House*, October, 1969, 78-81.
- Balow, I. H. *A Longitudinal Evaluation of Reading Achievement in Small Classes*. (FD 011813, RE 000, 121) Washington, D.C., U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, ERIC, 1967.
- Bolander, S. F. "Class Size and Levels of Student Motivation." *The Journal of Experimental Education*, Vol. 42, Winter, 1973, 12-17.
- Brown, R. "Group Dynamics," *Social Psychology*. New York: The Free Press, 1965, Ch. 13.
- Cahen, Leonard S. and Nikola N. Filby. "The Class Size/Achievement Issue: New Evidence and a Research Plan." *Phi Delta Kappan*, Vol. 60, No. 7, March, 1979, 492-495.
- Cannon, G. M. "Kindergarten Class Size—A Study." *Childhood Education*, September, 1966, 9-11.
- Danowski, C. E. "Individualization of Instruction: A Functional Definition." *IAR-Research Bulletin*, Teachers College, Columbia University, Vol. 5, No. 2, 1965, 1-8.
- Eash, M. T. and Bennett, C. M. "The Effect of Class Size on Achievement and Attitudes." *American Educational Research Journal*, Vol. 1, 1964, 229-239.
- Edwards, W. J., Jr. "Classroom Size and the Human Equation." *School and Community*, Vol. 55, May, 1969, 22.
- Frymier, J. L. "The Effect of Class Size Upon Reading Achievement in First Grade." *Reading Teacher*, Vol. XVIII, November, 1964, 90-93.
- Furno, O. F. and Collins, G. J. *Class Size and Pupil Learning*. Baltimore: Baltimore City Public Schools, 1967.
- Glass, Gene V., Leonard S. Cahen, Mary Lee Smith, and Nikola N. Filby. "Class Size and Learning—New Interpretation of the Research Literature." *Today's Education*. Vol. 68, No. 2, April-May, 1979, 42-44.
- Hare, A. P. *Handbook of Small Group Research*. New York: Free Press, 1962.
- Hubbard, F. W. "Millions of Children and Their Teachers are Being Handicapped by Overcrowded Classes." *NEA Journal*, March, 1963, 52-54.
- Katz, L. G. "The Child: Consumer or Consumed." *Childhood Education*, May, 1973, 395-397.
- Newell, C. A. *Class Size and Adaptability*. New York: New York Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1943.
- Olson, M. N. "Classroom Variables That Predict School System Quality." *IAR-Research Bulletin*, Teachers' College, Columbia University, Vol. II, No. 1, 1970, 1-11.
- Olson, M. N. "Identifying Quality in School Classrooms: Some Problems and Answers." *MSSC Exchange*, Vol. 29, No. 5, January, 1971, 1-11.
- Olson, M. N. "Research Notes, Ways to Achieve Quality in School Classrooms: Some Definitive Answers." *Phi Delta Kappan*, 53:64, September, 1971.
- Olson, M. N. and McKenna, B. H. "Class Size Revisited." *Today's Education*, 64:29, March-April, 1975.
- Otte, R. W. "Creativity in Teaching." *Childhood Education*, Vol. XLIII, September, 1966, 40-43.
- Richmond, H. *Educational Practices as Affected by Class Size*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1955.
- Shane, H. G. "Class Size and Human Development." *NEA Journal*, Vol. 50, No. 1, 1961, 30-32.
- Walberg, H. J. and Rasher, S. P. "Public School Effectiveness and Equality: New Evidence and Its Implications." *Phi Delta Kappan*, Vol. LVI, No. 1, September, 1974, 4-9.
- Whitsitt, R. C. "Comparing the Individualities of Large Secondary School Classes with Small Secondary School Classes Through the Use of a Structured Observation Schedule." Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1955.

SENTENCE BUILDING IN READING AND COMPOSITION

Thomas P. Fitzgerald

STATE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT, ALBANY, NEW YORK

Ellen F. Fitzgerald

STATE UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK AT ALBANY

Bert is an average fourth grade student in most ways but reads slowly and with low comprehension. Although he tries, he has considerable difficulty understanding and remembering information from longer sentences and from paragraphs. His ability to store information breaks down beyond the level of short simple sentences. Bert is one of many students experiencing this difficulty in the middle grades. What is needed are activities that encourage an active involvement of students while reading.

The primary objective of this article is to describe an instructional technique called sentence building as a means of developing the ability to read more complex sentences with understanding and to write more complex sentences. The process may be viewed as a preliminary step to reading and writing paragraphs. A secondary objective is to develop an awareness that instruction in reading and composition should be based on oral language skills and may be taught concomitantly.

The relationship between reading and writing behavior has been extensively described in the literature (Gutknecht and Keenan 1978; Sticht *et al.*, 1974). Some researchers have reported that certain students have vocabulary knowledge but do not have the ability to comprehend sentences, especially those with complex syntactic structures (Cromer, 1970) while others deny that such conditions truly exist. In cases such as Bert's students can speak and understand complex sentences. Therefore, the problem occurs in storing meaning from written messages with complex construction or unfamiliar construction. The teacher's task is to develop a sequence of instructional activities based on oral abilities to improve the processing skills of memory storage and retrieval.

How can Bert and others who share his problem best be taught to comprehend and compose longer, more complex sentences? He is able to identify the agent and action elements in simple sentences but he has difficulty when he encounters connectives and signal words. For example, Bert can read and understand sentences such as these:

- (1) Ellen became interested in running.
- (2) She began running in school.
- (3) She attended school with her husband.
- (4) Her husband was a member of the track team.

However, he cannot comprehend this sentence:

- (5) Ellen first became interested in running while attending school with her husband who was a member of the track team.

The concept of sentence building focuses on the students' oral language ability as a key to unlocking literacy. The initial step is to demonstrate the relationship between complex and imbedded simple sentences. For instance, the student might hear sentence (5) and be asked to relate what he/she "knows" from the sentence. We could expect that some form of the information found in sentences one through four would be produced. Working from an oral presentation of complex sentences, students will generate the embedded sentences and will experience the storage and retrieval challenges of longer sentences.

Special emphasis should be placed on the language cue system reflected in signal words (then, next, while, etc.) and connectives (and, but, nor, etc.). The function of logical connectives frequently poses difficulties for even the more proficient readers (Robertson, 1968). Signal words and connectives represent a prompting system in language which is important when reading sentence construction of compound, complex and compound-complex nature. It is not essential that students study such a classification scheme before working on the process of sentence building.

After discussing the meaning of sentences presented orally, students are ready to build sentences in their own writing. This may be accomplished individually or in small groups. Sentence building requires students to generate possible sentence extenders (phrases or clauses) to basic core elements. The teacher distributes 10 to 15 core sentences and uses the first to demonstrate what will be expected from the student. Each core element should be expanded by the addition of two phrases or clauses. The better extenders are those which alter the expected meaning. For example, consider the following core sentence.

The wheels continued to spin . . .

The students are challenged to predict what might be added through a series of questions, each drawing on the oral language knowledge of students. Why were they spinning? What image is evoked by this sentence? Do you feel that the meaning of this sentence is now vague or precise?

The wheels continued to spin as the men worked feverishly . . .

What is so urgent? An accident? What would students predict for the next phrase?

The wheels continued to spin as the men worked feverishly to get the racer ready . . .

Now the answer to what is so urgent is apparent. However, a "racer with spinning wheels" is still puzzling. What are they getting ready for? The completed sentence provides the explanation.

The wheels continued to spin as the men worked feverishly to get the racer ready for the soap box derby finals.

The string of added units now represents quite a different image from those most students would generate by looking at the core unit. The aspect of surprise challenges and motivates students. However, other examples should be used to demonstrate that many complex sentences *can be* predicted, a fact used as an aid to comprehension. It must also be remembered that this exercise uses a linear model of sentence development and other methods may also be used by adding words, phrases or clauses throughout the core structure.

Following the work with one or two samples, students pursue sentence building individually or in small groups. For added motivation, a game simulation may be developed by having groups compete in predicting the complete sentence after two additions have been made to the core.

A third step in the instructional sequence addresses the technique of combining simple sentences (Stoodt, 1970). Here, the use of signal words, connectives and conjunctives becomes more important. The first two sentences (1 and 2) might be combined by using signal words —

When Ellen became interested in running, she *then* began to run *while* in school.

or

Only if Ellen became interested in running would she *then* begin to run.

The students might generate a large number of combined sentences using a list of directional, time, conditional and logical signal words supplied by the teacher.

Bert may now be capable of handling complex sentences because he can identify smaller meaningful units in complex structures. The instructional process of sentence building is no panacea for comprehension problems but it will provide an instructional program that begins at the oral language level, usually a student's strength, and builds systematically. Sentence building actively engages the student in a positive approach to comprehension and composition instruction.

REFERENCES

- Cromer, Ward. The difference model: A new explanation for some reading difficulties. *Journal of Educational Psychology*. 1970, 61, 471-483.
- Gutknecht, Bruce and Keenan, Donna. Basic skills: Not which, but why, and an enlightened how. *The Reading Teacher* 1978, 31, 668-674.
- Robertson, James. Pupil understanding of connectives in reading. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 1968, 3, 387-417.

- Sticht, Thomas et al. *Auding and Reading: A Developmental Model*. Human Resources Research Organization, Alexandria, VA, 1974.
- Stoody, Barbara. The relationship between understanding grammatical conjunctions and reading comprehension. Doctoral dissertation. (Ohio State University) Ann Arbor: University Microfilms, 1970. No. 71-7576

TO TEACH A SOCIAL STUDIES CONCEPT—CHUNK IT!

Esther P. Valentine and Olive R. Francks

FORDHAM UNIVERSITY

"I don't know why they couldn't answer the questions. We covered the subject in our social studies class. Besides, all the answers are in the textbook!"

Has such a thought ever passed through your mind as you looked with dismay at your class' test results? Unfortunately, this kind of reaction is common to the social studies teacher in our nation's classrooms. Difficulties in learning to read in content area subjects tend to baffle the teacher and present obstacles to the learner. All this can be overcome by a strategy which is based on knowledge of how a student learns to read fluently.

One solution to the problem is derived from research findings in the fields of memory processing and reading (Adams, 1967; Smith, 1971, 1975; Wilson, 1966). From memory processing, we will borrow a principle known as *chunking* and adapt it to the aim of reading, that is, to get meaning from written language. First, let us examine the reading problem as it relates to social studies.

Reading in Social Studies

In order to help students in your social studies class, the teacher should be aware of the nature of the reading process and, in particular, the specific problems in reading social studies material.

Reading in social studies requires that the student learn how to read maps, charts, diagrams, and graphs. Many of the vocabulary words reflect high-level abstract concepts—for example, democracy, feudalism and chauvinism. The interpretation of relationships, especially cause-effect, can create difficulty in comprehending the content materials (Dillner & Olson, 1977, p. 129).

Today's students are also required to explore a variety of disciplines, and, to do this successfully, they need to learn specialized vocabularies and abstract concepts which are often set in unfamiliar contexts. One prerequisite is to help the youngster to identify the symbol—or word—through reading. By citing quotations from a social studies textbook, let us examine some types of comprehension problems which can confront the student.

What is usually referred to as the "vocabulary" is really much more than just finding a dictionary definition. The student must be able to draw upon his own ideas of the meanings of words in order to grasp the full intent of a

statement. Consider, for example, the following quotation: "Man was first a savage, then a barbarian, and finally a civilized being" (Roehm, p. 11). Complete understanding of this statement requires conceptualization of the enabling words "first," "then," and "finally" (the import of which may be overlooked), in addition to "savage," "barbarian," and "civilized being." Without this understanding, the student will not appreciate the evolutionary aspect of the statement, nor have complete comprehension of the concept itself.

Another problem which youngsters have in reading most textbooks is the heavy use of unfamiliar concepts. "A people's culture arises and grows from three sources: Inheritance, cultural interchange and invention" (Roehm, p. 6). The student must be able not only to identify and understand the meaning of "inheritance," "cultural interchange," and "invention," but also to form a relationship among these separate concepts so as to form the new category: "a people's culture."

A third difficulty stems from the necessity to manipulate numerous abstract intellectual operations and to use knowledge from other disciplines—both of which are necessary if the student is to derive meaning from a written passage. For example: "If the wood from an ancient cave fire gives off a radioactive count of 108 (measured by a Geiger counter) we know that the tree died 11,500 years ago" (Roehm, p. 11). Here the student must have scientific knowledge about *radioactivity*, a *Geiger counter*, *carbon half-life*, *archeological findings*, *proportional relationships*, and be able to combine these understandings for a *full* relationship of this one short statement to the social studies context. As the network of concepts expands, the series of problems becomes increasingly more complicated, and the student requires directed help from the teacher in order to solve the problems inherent in reading the social studies text.

The problems in concept formation can be resolved through the technique of word clustering. Verbalizing also relies on the capacity to cluster words. Therefore, this strategy of verbal chunking should especially appeal to the teacher of social studies where a main focus of instruction lies in the presentation of complex concepts through language. Let us next investigate how verbal chunking can assist in concept formation.

Chunk It!

Chunking is the process of organizing or clustering information into more compact thought units, such as, phrases or clauses. The original research by George Miller (1956) was done with digits and showed that chunking can be an effective aid in learning, storing and retrieving items in the memory system. For example, suppose you wanted to remember the number 52869021. Instead of trying to remember 5 2 8 6 9 0 2 1, the number might more easily be remembered as 528 690 21. Try it with your credit card account numbers! Subsequent research, seeking to relate Miller's theory to verbal material, found that people who were able to group words could recall them more easily. Since the purpose of study is to be able to recall and apply knowledge at a later date for a specific reason, the

learning, storing and retrieval of new concepts are functions which are of fundamental importance to the teacher.

The primary aim in chunking social studies material should be to simplify the data so that the student can assimilate new and unfamiliar vocabulary and concepts into his memory and thus be able to deal successfully with the text. Students need specific help with this process; they cannot struggle with the new vocabulary, complex syntax and the abstract social studies concepts and conquer all three simultaneously!

Match the Material to the Student

The objective of simplifying the printed material for social studies texts does not conflict with the reading aim of building vocabulary. As the student learns more about a particular concept, new terms are acquired and used, and more complex forms of language can be developed. It is useful to give the student extended practice both in oral discussion and written work. Because a positive relationship exists between the ability to chunk and to read fluently, the practice given in chunking will help the student in both social studies *and* reading.

If you want to reduce the content reading problems as described, the following will be of interest to you: The teacher should (1) assess the degree of abstractness in the text, and (2) relate this to the capacity of the students to handle abstract concepts and complex sentence structures. Let us use the following selection as an example:

A Reindeer Stampede

Suddenly a boy ran into the cave, shouting that a herd of reindeer had been spotted nearby! The men and boys in the cave put aside what they had been working on. They lit torches at the fire and rushed out of the cave.

Some of the men hid behind piles of large stones that had been stacked up along a nearby slope. Others went to the opposite side of the herd and began shouting at the reindeer to get them moving up the slope. Still others lit rows of fires.

As the reindeer came closer and the flames leaped higher, men jumped out from behind the pile of stones. They screamed and waved their burning torches. Hemmed in by the fires and frightened by the screams, the herd thundered up the slope, wildly shaking their antlers from side to side.

At the top of the slope, the reindeer plunged over a cliff. One after another they crashed on the rocks below. Then hunters waiting at the bottom moved in with their spears to finish off the wounded animals (Yohe, 1971, p. 50).

At first glance, this selection may be adjudged by the teacher as simple

until the student's frame of reference is considered. Not too many students have seen cave dwellers or reindeer, and previous subject matter in readings may have emphasized only urban scenes and experiences. Let us compare the two passages which follow in terms of ease in reading, as well as in comprehending the ideas and vocabulary:

Passage #1

Suddenly a boy ran into the cave.
He was shouting,
"I saw some reindeer!"

Passage #2

Suddenly a boy ran into the cave,
shouting that a herd of reindeer
had been spotted nearby!

The first passage is easier to visualize mentally and to comprehend in terms of concepts and vocabulary than the more difficult and structurally complex second passage. In addition to obstacles of syntax, there are often semantic problems for the teacher to evaluate. Can the teacher be sure whether the word "spotted" conveys to the student the way a zoo animal looks, or whether it means something seen?

Based on previous experiences with stories and language, different students (without direction) would respond in varying ways to the language of *any* selection. A common reaction is for the reader to ignore anything that has no meaning for him. As a result, some information is never processed into the student's memory and cannot, therefore, be recalled for later use, such as at test time. If the student does not fully understand the concepts and/or the language, he will, in all likelihood, also reject the data. The teacher's task, then, is to train the learner to expand his present language store to include new concepts and new vocabulary, to expand meanings of more familiar words, and to assimilate new ideas in such a way that they will be understood and retained for future use.

If the "reindeer" selection were rewritten and simplified into chunked style, one possible form would be as follows:

Suddenly a boy ran into the cave.
He was shouting,
"I saw some reindeer!"
Men and boys were in the cave.
They stopped working when the boy ran in.
There was a small campfire in the cave.
The people used this fire for cooking
and for supplying heat.
This time they used the fire to light torches
so they could see when they went outside.
They ran outside the cave with the torches . . .

Simplification of the text, however, would not be required for all

students or for all materials, but should be thought of as an alternative that works for some learners. After presenting a simplified version in class, the teacher can then refer to the textbook as another way of saying the now familiar ideas. Presentation to the class of the textbook material can be made easier by an oral reading first—by the teacher—with gestures and explanations to indicate meanings for difficult and/or possibly unfamiliar concepts, such as, *stacked up*, *slope*, *opposite*, *hemmed in*, *plunged* and *finish off*. The concept of *stampede*, for example, might be related to stampedes in cowboy stories and movies.

As we previously stated, a student will increase his vocabulary as his knowledge of the concept is expanded. For example, by exploring not only the factual use of the word “stampede” in the reading selection, but also other uses of the word, the students can expand their conceptual knowledge of the word. Note the difference in the use of “stampede” in the following two passages:

Passage #1

When the earthquake started, people began to *stampede* through the streets to escape the destruction.

Passage #2

When the voters learned about the scandal, they began a *stampede* to swing support to the other candidate.

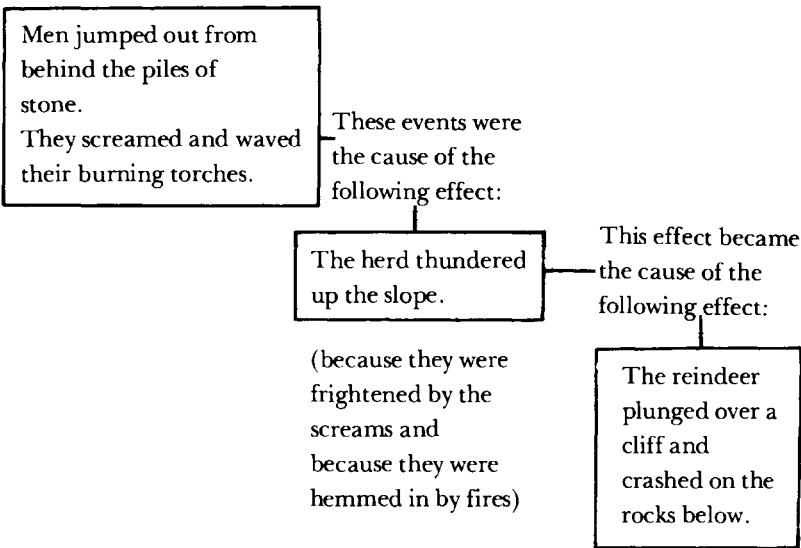
How far, and in what manner, the exploration of other uses of the word “stampede” will take place is dependent upon the level of the students’ thinking; i.e., the use of the term “stampede” in politics could be developed into a research project. This basic principle of vocabulary and concept expansion can be applied to generalizations in any lesson.

Combine Reading and Social Studies Skills

Understanding of social studies concepts requires the student to be able to locate cause/effect relationships. This is an advanced reading and thinking skill. Even if the skill is taught in the reading or language arts class, research studies have shown that skills are not automatically transferred from the reading class to the content area class. The social studies teacher can facilitate this type of learning by showing students a technique which is commonly used by reading teachers: to seek clues to these relationships through understanding of the use of such words as *because*, *so*, *if . . . then*, *therefore*, and *as a result (of)*. In the selection, “A Reindeer Stampede,” the teacher can ask the students to locate the sequence of actions and show how the effect of one became the cause of the next. One method is to chunk the material to establish obvious cause/effect relationships in long selections.

Sequence

Some of the men hid
behind piles of
large stones.
Others went to the
opposite side of the
herd and began
shouting at the
reindeer.
Others lit rows of
fires.



This last effect has produced still another effect: the people had plenty of meat for food and skins for clothing. Teachers must help students to see for themselves how a sequence of events precipitates an action, and how one particular action can lead to further outcomes.

Chunking and Beyond

In the foregoing examples from social studies material, the chunking principle has been used to perform four different functions: (1) to rewrite social studies materials in more simplified, visual fashion; (2) to indicate language and concept factors which may present problems when they are initially presented to the class; (3) to combine social studies and reading skills in ways which will facilitate learning; and (4) to imply why students may reject or "not remember" information which has been presented to them.

There is a need to help the student to relate new information to that which he already knows. The social studies teacher can greatly improve students' abilities to get meaning from the printed page. The teacher should directly instruct the youngster to relate new information to what he already knows. This occurs both by expanding the denotative uses of the words and by connotative applications. For example, to expand the meaning of "stampede," the teacher might remind students of the film, "Living Free," in which the playful lion cub caused a herd of elephants to stampede through a village, destroying huts and scattering livestock. In this way the word "stampede" would have been applied not only to the reindeer of the caveman era, but also to elephants in an African village in the twentieth century and connected to the student's visual experience of the movie incident. As the chunks of information grow larger, they contain more information and ideas which the student can now store in his memory for future use. Thus the social studies teacher, by using certain techniques of the reading specialist, can help the student lay the experiential foundations necessary for higher level creative thinking abilities.

Concept development can be thought of as steps taken by the learner toward understanding. To be a witness when the mind "sees the light" of a new idea is as fascinating and satisfying to the teacher as it is to the student who experiences the learning. You can help each student by presenting the material in increasingly expanded bits of information which lead to the generalization to be grasped. Give your students many opportunities to start small and gradually to increase their capacity to think, rather than memorize. The building blocks of concept formation are these chunks of information which the lesson delivers and the student acquires. Therefore, to teach a concept, analyze its component parts and re-form the data into increasingly larger bits of print which contain more and more information. We can say this in a different way: To teach a social studies concept, chunk it!

REFERENCES

- Adams, Jack A. *Human memory*. New York: McGraw Hill, 1967.
- Allen, Robert L. Better reading through the recognition of grammatical relations. *The Reading Teacher*, Dec. 1964, 18, 194-198.
- Brown, Robert & Bellugi, Ursula. Three processes in the child's acquisition of syntax. *Harvard Educational Review*. Reprint series No. 7, 1972.
- Carroll, John B. Words, meaning and concepts. *Harvard Educational Review*. Reprint series No. 7, 1972.
- Chapin, June R. & Gross, Richard. *Teaching social studies skills*. Boston: Little, Brown, 1973.
- Dillner, Martha H. & Olson, Joanne P. *Personalizing reading instruction in middle, junior and senior high schools*. New York: Macmillan, 1977.
- Harker, W. John. Selecting instructional materials for content area reading. *Journal of Reading*, Nov. 1977, 21, 126-130.
- Miller, George. The magical number seven plus or minus two: some limits of our capacity for processing information. *Psychological Review*, 1956, 63, 81-97.

- Palmer, William S. Teaching reading in content areas. *Journal of Reading*, 1975, 19, 43-51.
- Roehm, A. Wesley and others. *The Record of Mankind*. Lexington, Mass.: D. C. Heath, 1970.
- Shafer, Robert E. Will psycholinguistics change reading in secondary schools? *Journal of Reading*, 1978, 21, 305-316.
- Smith, Frank. *Understanding reading*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1971.
- _____. *Comprehension and learning*. New York: Holt, & Winston, 1975.
- Wilson, Harlalee Allen. *An investigation of linguistic unit size in memory processes*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Stanford University, California, 1966.

THE SCHOOL LIBRARY—THE ALPHA AND OMEGA OF YOUR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL READING PROGRAM

Dr. Lea-Ruth C. Wilkens

UNIVERSITY OF HOUSTON AT CLEAR LAKE CITY, TEXAS

The principal initiates the new program:

Yes, your school library (media center) can be the Alpha and Omega of your reading program and turn failures into successes if you, "Dear Principal," are daring enough to take the first enthusiastic step and let everyone around you know that the library is the place where reading connections are made and reading appetites are nurtured and nourished.

Yes, it is you, "Dear Principal," who makes the Alpha connection by volunteering to fill the reading or storyteller's chair in your library for at least one hour every week. you might call this hour a time of renewal. Renewal in the sense that you divest yourself of your garments of authority and, as if by magic wand, become the Pied Piper who leads children to the realization that reading and listening can be a very titillating experience. In reading to children, you, like the Pied Piper, take it upon yourself to charm children out of the confines of their texts into the wider world of reading found in the thousands of books available to them in their own school libraries.

Your second daring step then is to convince your teaching staff that you consider the library the heart of your reading program. In that sense, the library, like the heart, should pulsate new life into every classroom where reading is taught. For it is the library where gifted as well as reluctant and retarded readers can select from thousands of books and other materials that one specific item that will suit their particular reading needs.

Reading readiness and the School Library:

No child in your school is ever too young to be introduced to the magic place called the library. Kindergartners in particular need to be surrounded with books, books and more books if we expect them to develop voracious appetites for the printed word. All children need to be saturated daily with stories which will stimulate their imagination and keep their curiosities amply nourished. For instance, an appreciation and sense of language and word power can be cultivated very satisfactorily through the use of Mother Goose rhymes. The musical quality of these rhymes has rarely ever failed to tickle children's ears. Before long then, they will be eager participants who find great delight in letting even the more difficult words roll across their tongues easily and expertly.

Alphabet books, counting books, concept books should not be overlooked as valuable tools to help children make that all important transition from thinking and perceiving only on the concrete level, but also on the more advance abstract level.

Kindergarten children should also have the opportunity to take their first giant step of selecting their very own books to take to the classroom and then to their homes. By letting kindergarten children use their own books they can immediately be introduced to the basic prereading skills of caring for books, turning pages, looking from left to right, looking up and down, using picture clues, and even reading a few basic sight words.

For the kindergarten child there is no better place than the school library to make the Alpha connection that will lead to reading success.

The School Library as the catalyst to assure reading success for your primary grades:

Today's school library can also truly be the catalyst to spark the enthusiasm of your first grade readers. Most exciting among the hundreds of books and other materials which are available to first graders is a new series of books generally referred to as "I Can Read Books," or "Read Alone Books." These books have been written especially for beginning readers who have been told so frequently by well meaning parents and grandparents that they would be able to read books once they entered first grade. Children, of course, more often than not, have interpreted this to mean, "I will be able to read a book at the end of my first school day." These easy to read books can nearly make this promise become reality because they were written using vocabulary which first graders either know already or want to learn very quickly. Many of the titles also reflect the interests which first graders have expressed over many years. Even though children live in the age of robots they still continue to ask for books which deal with ferocious dinosaurs, dogs, cats, slow moving turtles, and even minute tadpoles which sooner or later grow into not so minute bullfrogs. The attractive illustrations which cover part of each page, furthermore, enhance the exciting plots and help the beginning readers in realizing their reading goals through the additional help of picture clues. Even the overall format of these books has been planned carefully so as to closely resemble the type of book a more advanced reader might take home. All of these qualities appeal to the beginning readers who have waited so long to be "grownup" when it comes to reading.

In schools where the basal readers may not be taken home by children the easy to read book can truly be the lifeline which will keep the reading program between school and home intact.

Students who were avid library users as first graders usually become even more avid library users as second graders. Children at this age level also have that urgent desire to become more self-sufficient in how and what type of material they want to select. Because they are so full of that unquenchable thirst for knowing more about the world around them, they are even willing to learn how to use the card catalog in order to find the books

and materials which might answer their questions. Although they come to the library to read on their own, they still like to be read to and experience the world of make-believe and high adventure.

Second graders, like any other grade, also have that special need to find corners within the library where they can read and browse either alone or with trusted friends who might share in the fun and laughter which a book might bring. It is the kind of experience which seldom emerges in a structured classroom where only formal reading practices are allowed which are not always conducive to making the beginning reader understand that reading can also be an exhilarating experience.

Many librarians have also introduced puppets in their libraries. These puppets serve as listeners for those students who find reading difficult and need additional practice outside the classroom. A puppet sitting next to these special readers can instill that extra confidence needed by some of these children so that they may better survive in the very competitive classroom environment. "Frieda" as one of these puppets might be called, has unending confidence in the troubled reader, and if you believe in magic, you might be able to overhear Frieda whispering in the children's ears, "Don't worry, I won't tell anyone, just try it again."

Another item in the library that has always attracted the attention of second graders is the "rare" bookshelf. These books might rightfully be called rare because they have been written and illustrated by fourth and fifth graders with that rare charm and humor with which only children are endowed at this stage of their lives.

For second graders the library is like a kaleidoscope which, when turned again and again, will continue to bring new reading adventures.

Ask third graders what they like best about a library and they will probably tell you that it is the place where the *Guinness Book of World Records* is kept. It is the place with the reference shelf where answers can be found to such pressing questions as: "Who ate the most worms at one time?" "Who has the largest ears?" "Who has the smallest feet?" Another very tempting place in the library is the listening station area where they can try out their mechanical skills and wind, roll and thread tapes, films, filmstrips and view and listen to materials which will enrich their textbook lessons and help them prepare for social studies reports.

The library can also be the mentor for teachers who need to encourage the shy child to become a more active participant in creative group activities. Wordless picture books, when looked at and talked about in a magic circle, usually have the power to entice even the quietest child to participate and come forth with welcome responses.

Third graders also consider a poetry learning center set up for them in the library a very special place they like to come to. Poems dealing with such current themes as wheels, monsters, skateboards, and wishes, have a very special drawing power. In fact, before long you will probably find your students not only eagerly reading poetry but actually writing their own Haiku, Diamante and Cinquain poetry. This, of course, means that

another successful reading connection has been made between classroom and library.

Towards reading independence at the intermediate grades through the school library:

For fourth and fifth graders the library functions as a place of self-discovery. For them the library becomes the Alpha connection between the reading requirements of the classroom and how these requirements may be applied in the world to which they return after school.

In their basal readers, for example, they might be introduced to a unit on newspaper writing and publishing. Follow-up and extension activities in most basal readers usually suggest that students read certain articles in a daily newspaper and then attempt to follow this up with writing their own headlines and/or write an article which might be published in a classroom or school paper. The prime purpose of the assignment, of course, is to promote the habit of daily newspaper reading for both information and pleasure. While the classroom teacher might motivate children by having additional newspapers available in the classroom, it is in the library where students can pursue the topic in greater depth through the use of an interest center set up for them. Such special items as galley proof, type, and make-up page, can usually be obtained from a local newspaper. A "real life" reporter might even be present at the center for a few hours to add that extra touch of reality to the project.

Other reading connections to the outside world can be made by asking community volunteers to come to the library so that they might share with students how reading and their particular professions are very much interrelated. For instance, volunteers with such diverse backgrounds as bicycle repairing, weather-forecasting, farming and truck driving might be a very challenging and worthwhile beginning.

Reading and civic responsibilities can be presented through the cooperation of the local League of Women Voters who might be invited to come to the library when local or national elections are imminent. The presentation of campaign issues in all likelihood will arouse not only fervent debates but also bring about more critical reading habits if the students are asked to carefully examine the campaign issues through the various media made available to them in the library.

For the intermediate grades the library can, without doubt, be the most important Alpha and Omega link towards the development of lifetime independent reading habits.

In schools where the library has been allowed to be an integral component of the reading program, reading suddenly stops being fundamental for teachers and students only, but rather becomes fundamental for everyone within the school and outside the school. The term fundamental in itself takes on new meaning and becomes "FUN" damental. It is a special reading aura which permeates the entire school and can easily be detected by the positive attitudes that teachers and students exhibit both in their work and in the environment in which they work. "Quiet" signs have been

banished from the library. Bookshelves no longer look like soldiers parading for review, but rather like soldiers on active duty to the reader. There are no empty walls or drag spaces in these schools. Every corner has been utilized to display completed work or work still in progress. Every corner has been used to help all children make the all important Alpha and Omega connection to a successful lifetime reading program.

REMEMBERING IS NOT NECESSARILY UNDERSTANDING IN CONTENT AREAS

Richard L. Allington

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBANY

Michael Strange

THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT AUSTIN

Improving comprehension in middle-grade content areas would be an easier topic to address if we had available validated theoretical models, and hence an understanding, of 1) how one learns from text, and 2) how intellectual operations develop in adolescence. Our current state of ignorance in these areas has been aptly summarized by Miller (1976) and Neimark (1975) respectively. We are then, like everyone else who would discuss improving comprehension of text, reduced to drawing upon the available body of literature and from this attempting to produce a framework from which useful strategies can be developed.

Goals and Instruction

Content area teaching is typically purposeful as opposed to incidental. For this purposeful teaching to occur, however, there must be goals for teaching; goals which go beyond the vague generalities and professional sounding platitudes too often associated with the various disciplines. We will not go as far as some and advocate goals which meet strict behavioral criteria, but for a variety of reasons the content area teacher must know what is to be taught and what is to be learned.

These goals have to reflect the dual role of the middle-grade content area teacher. In the middle grades the content area teacher has the distinctive and unique responsibility of developing effective application, utilization, and extension of reading abilities in content area texts (Allington, 1975). That is, the middle-grade teacher's role is one of producing students who know how to learn from printed material, thus attempting to ensure mastery of some of the most important prerequisite abilities for later learning, while simultaneously providing knowledge prerequisite to further learning in a particular discipline. The content specific knowledge must, of course, be identified but additionally the necessary learning strategies must also be identified. The middle-grade content area lesson then must not only produce content relevant learning but also provide the learner with skills and strategies for learning from text.

Instructional goals should be precise enough to allow the teacher to justify each assignment in relation to them. For instance, we should ask, "Why am I having students read page 33?" Is there information on that

page that has been identified as important? Can a particular strategy for learning from text be employed? Or is it assigned because it follows page 32 and precedes page 34? Many pages in content area texts have nothing worth remembering, nor are any important concepts, functions, or relationships presented. We should argue that assigning these pages because they fall between more relevant material is justifiable, but only as long as the teacher is aware that the purpose is to maintain textual continuity. This rationale then cues the teacher that no test item should be drawn from that page. Students should not be tested on material simply because it is there. Test items must be related to the instructional goals set by the teacher.

This may seem blatantly obvious but we still visit content area classrooms which are totally text dominated. The teacher seems to have no goals except to get through the text. Now simply getting through a text may indeed be justifiable economically, and even politically, but it cannot be supported educationally. The teacher who adopts this position assumes no real responsibility for teaching, seldom setting any educational goals. Every page is page 33 and assessments are constructed with randomly selected statements from the text. Any statement, regardless of significance, may be turned into a test item (What was the tune the British band played when Cornwallis surrendered to Washington at Yorktown?).

Without clearly formulated goals the content area teacher has little guidance for developing either instruction or the assessment. Formulation of goals must precede instruction even in the most eclectic teaching environment. Both types of goals, content specific and generalize learning strategies, should be presented on the assessment. The type and level of assessment employed is a powerful shaping factor for student learning. If assessments do not relate to the goals then the students, particularly the brighter ones, adopt strategies which relate to success on the assessment. Assessments which require only remembering of minute details, for instance, focus student attention on these rather than on acquiring an understanding of the concepts, functions, processes, and relationships presented.

This leads us to another facet of goals, instruction, and assessment in content areas; remembering does not equal understanding. This is noted because goals sometimes become lists of data to be memorized, at least until the test (consider for a moment all of the facts we have forgotten from classes in which grades of A were earned). We are at this point quite sure that remembering what one reads is not itself a valid indicator of understanding, or comprehension. A rather simple demonstration of the validity of this contention will be found by reading the paragraph entitled "The CRT" and then completing the test items.

THE CRT

A CRT is a handy device. Of course, it cannot function without a central processing unit. The portable models need only a telephone pick-up to work. However, the most common access device is similar to an electric

typewriter. With this combination a person can examine stored information prior to requesting hardcopy. It also allows a user to confirm input.

There are many uses for a CRT. Some models key mechanical responses such as opening valves, locks, etc. Of course direct mechanical manipulation requires a light sensitive model. These models are also useful in schools. The most common function is to present drill and practice exercises. However, due to the expense only about 1 percent of all classrooms have a CRT. Most experts predict that the CRT will become more common in schools. Some say it will replace the workbooks of today.

Answer True or False:

1. A CRT is a handy machine. _____
2. A CRT needs a central processing unit. _____
3. There are portable CRT models. _____
4. A CRT allows a user to confirm input. _____
5. A CRT has a single use. _____
6. Most classrooms have at least one CRT. _____

Select the best answer:

7. The most common access device for a CRT is . . .
a. a John Deere tractor b. a CRT c. an electric typewriter
d. none
8. CRT's are found in what percentage of classrooms?
a. .1 percent b. 1 percent c. 10 percent d. 100 percent
9. The CRT allows a user to examine information prior to . . .
a. hand copy b. impress c. input d. hardcopy
10. Most experts predict that the CRT . . .
a. will become common in schools.
b. fad will die out.
c. producers will market a color model.
d. will eliminate human teachers.

Write a short answer to the following question:

Describe in some detail how a CRT would be useful in your classroom.

Few teachers have difficulty correctly answering 70% of the items, even when the passage is removed after reading. Few, however, can describe a CRT (though most have had a direct experience with one). Simple questions on size, material, color, etc., cannot be answered. Likewise virtually none can answer the final question beyond simply regurgitating the statements from the passage. Thus while most readers are able to recognize all of the words and even remember much of the information, few ever comprehend what they have read, or understand the function of a CRT. This brings us to a crucial issue yet to be resolved. If comprehension is to be defined as an increase in information (Bormuth, 1969), then the performance on the CRT test is a demonstration of comprehension. However, it should be fairly obvious that little understanding has been generated. Remembering is not necessarily either comprehending or un-

derstanding. Only if the new information can be organized or associated with the previously known will understanding, or comprehension, take place.

How much learning in the content areas is of this type? Simple remembering of factual information but no assimilation, or cognitive reorganization. Do we really have as goals remembering whether Ben Franklin signed the Declaration of Independence, or how many miles Lee advanced into Pennsylvania, or the capitol of Oregon, or the major river in Brazil? Each of the above were drawn from social studies tests and by turning the items around we get what seem to be quite arbitrary and menial goals for learning. Similar examples abound in other content areas as well and these seem to suggest either goals that reflect rather low level expectations or test items discrepant from the original instructional goals.

Thus far remembering as an instructional goal has been criticized in relation to the content area skills role of the middle-grade teacher. However, similar criticism can be leveled in relation to the other role, that of developing learning skills. Factual recall is a necessary learning skill to be sure, but it is far from the most important or most powerful, particularly if recall goes no further than that found in the CRT task. Middle-grade students need to learn a variety of text processing skills particularly; assessing the value of information, identifying relationships, rapid identification of information relevant to a specific purpose, etc. A continual emphasis on recall of information leads to rote learning in content areas, students who can list exports without understanding the importance of exporting to an economy, students who can solve x but do not understand the underlying mathematical relationships, students who can list the genus and species of an organism without discovering the interrelationships of living things.

Goals are necessary for teaching. They do not have to be narrow or even measurable in the behavioral sense, but they do need to guide the teacher in planning instruction. They are even more useful for deciding whether one has reached the planned destination. However, goals for teaching are not enough, one must attempt to meet the goals with effective instruction and that is another point at which content area instruction at times breaks down.

From our standpoint what is called teaching in some content area classrooms is too often only testing or telling. To support this contention let us present two brief scenarios which can be observed in virtually any school on any day. In the first, the teacher simply assigns pages to be read with no further guidance and follows this with a test covering the material assigned. Or the teacher may simply use class time to question students on the assigned material. In the second scenario the teacher tells students a number of pieces of information and then also follows with a formal test or perhaps with the in-class questions. Both of these scenarios recur endlessly in the schooling process, and seem plausible methods for ensuring students have read assignments or attended to the lecture, but we need to examine whether either is truly teaching.

If the teacher simply writes "Read pg. 108-123" on the chalkboard and then later assesses student knowledge of this material, it would seem that instruction has not occurred. Even though pages have been assigned to be read, the teacher has not specified what is to be learned (unless one assumes everything on pages 108-123). Now suppose the student fails the test. Has the teaching failed? Perhaps it failed by omission but in the strictest sense teaching cannot be evaluated. How then should the failure be construed? If no teaching has occurred, what type of inadequacy is indicated?

It could be that the student has not read the assigned material, or perhaps could not read the material. It is also possible the student completed the assignment but did not have adequate experiences, or previous knowledge, to fully assimilate all the concepts presented. Then again the student may have completed the assignment and understood the material but failed to retain the specific information required for the test. The point is, the student failed the test but without a teaching component it is difficult to assess the relevance of this failure.

The student has failed to demonstrate the necessary independent learning skills and strategies, but we have identified the development of these as one of the two primary goals of the middle-grades content area teacher. The student has also seemingly failed to acquire the knowledge base one would consider prerequisite for further learning in the discipline, the other primary goal of middle-grade content area instruction.

Rather than continuing to beat this dead horse, let us summarize here by noting that in neither of the previous scenarios did the teacher develop either of the primary prerequisites; strategies or knowledge. These examples point out a major deficiency in content area instruction; too often aptitude and achievement is assessed without an instructional component. The learner has instruction in neither the development or refinement of processing skills and strategies nor in the development of an understanding of the concepts, processes, functions, or relationships presented in the text. At this point the teacher is only maintaining the status quo; those students who have the abilities or knowledge achieve, the others do not.

REFERENCES

- Allington, Richard L. "Improving Instruction in the Middle School Content Areas," *Journal of Reading*, 1975, vol. 18, pp. 455-461.
- Bormuth, John R. "An Operational Definition of Comprehension Instruction," in K. S. Goodman and J. T. Fleming (Eds.), *Psycholinguistics and Reading*, Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1969.
- Miller, George A. "Text Comprehension Skills and Process Models of Text Comprehension," in H. Singer and R. Ruddell (Eds.), *Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading*, Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1976.
- Neimark, Edith D. "Intellectual Development During Adolescence," in F. D. Horowitz (Ed.), *Review of Child Development Research*, Volume 4, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1975.

CHANGING FORCES IN STAFF DEVELOPMENT: IMPLICATIONS FOR READING

JoAnne L. Vacca

RUSSELL SAGE COLLEGE, TROY, NEW YORK

"Trust in the Force, Luke," was Ben Kenobi's admonition to the youthful hero of *Star Wars*. This was to be repeated throughout the adventure, for the Force was not easily defined. Nor was it observable, except for its occasional manifestation in the form of a light-saber.

Some words which are used frequently in school-related contexts are almost as nebulous as the Force. The words "staff development" or "in-service," for example, are easily recognized by educators. Nevertheless, these terms are used in so many different contexts that they represent a challenge to define. There are "in-service meetings," "staff development programs," "in-service released time," "staff workshops," "professional days," etc., etc., etc.

An attempt at a thorough definition should provide a fairly comprehensive explanation of the concept of staff development (used interchangeably with in-service). This writer (in press) interviewed six recognized reading experts in order to synthesize a general aim or purpose of staff development in reading. The results of these interviews suggest that staff development in reading may be viewed as

. . . a continuous involvement process of developing and utilizing local (and non-local) talent to identify and facilitate responses to local needs.

The above definition covers most conceivable situations. It is also useful as a foundation for discussions about staff development in reading today, or in the future. One of its shortcomings may be that the definition does not appear to include any links to past attempts at, or the history of, staff development in education generally or reading specifically. What forces have contributed to the growth of staff development, resulting in changes in its very nature?

Staff Development In Retrospect

The 1950's witnessed the advent of the National Science Foundation (which emphasized science and math curricula), the National Defense Education Act (foreign languages and guidance services), and the cooperative Education Act (educational innovation), extended in the 1960's by Title IV of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. The climate for staff development had turned favorable "with the convergence of the

dreams of the New Frontier and Great Society and the demands of the Civil Rights Revolution (Boyan, 1968, p. 24)."

By the mid-1960's, the emphasis was on contributions to improving educational practice. Research and development centers were established; the E.S.E.A. included the training of personnel as one provision for strengthening education at many levels. According to Harris (1969, p. 4), "The in-service education program is not only a tool of progress; it is also a symbol of faith in the improvability of the individual." Moffitt (1963) continued in this vein, comparing a school system's interests in staff development with its quality.

Prominent educators in the fields of reading and the language arts documented the need for continued professional training beyond the baccalaureate, and welcomed the benefits such training would provide. Frequently, their statements of need were coupled with reports of general dissatisfaction with existing staff development programs.

Indrisano (1969) pointed out that both the Conant and Harvard-Carnegie studies in reading found the undergraduate training of teachers inadequate preparation in the skills necessary to teach reading. Conant had documented that out of thirty-five institutions' sampled, only nineteen required a specific course in the teaching of reading (1963, p. 156). Austin (1968) extended Conant's work on the state of the pre-service training of teachers. She reported that "completion of a course in the teaching of reading as a prerequisite for secondary school certification is virtually non-existent (p. 360)."

However, it is important to note that in a recent follow-up to their original study of teacher preparatory programs in reading, Morrison and Austin (1977) noted that post-secondary schools now require at least one course in reading. "Yet, despite advances, little progress appears to have been made in some areas . . .;" student teaching programs expend little effort to attract quality cooperating teachers (p. VIII). Recommending that persons who supervise student teaching be better informed, these authors called for colleges to appoint liaison persons to work directly with the local school system to recruit and train cooperating teachers.

The literature reported on staff development in reading has been infrequently based on empirical research. Studies cited have experienced problems that are common to investigations which measure teacher growth: the presence of uncontrolled or intervening variables over time (Moburg, 1972, p. 34). A question yet to be resolved is whether the typical in-service program in reading is amenable to study through an experimental or quasi-experimental design.

In a study of staff development in central New York State, Cunningham (1972) noted a general lack of significance on tests of content acquisition (of teachers) and classroom application. His initial investigation included a treatment condition with Stage Number One aimed at developing a group commitment to change among the participating teachers. A student attitude change favoring the Stage One group of teachers was reported. These findings should not be interpreted to mean that staff development is

significant in affecting change; rather, that the credibility of staff development was not advanced.

Four studies described data gathered primarily through questionnaires which were used to survey teacher groups *involved in pre and/or in service programs*. Adams (1964) identified twenty-eight aspects of reading instruction as areas of greatest need; these became a pool from which to select topics for staff development. Smith, Otto and Harty (1970) surveyed over three hundred teachers, discovering that programs which differentiated among teachers at different grade levels and with different terms of experience were desirable.

The 1973 survey results reported by Estes and Piercey added to the knowledge about the present status of professional teacher preparation in reading. Four states required training in reading for certification of all secondary teachers, four required training in reading for teachers in particular subject areas, and eight states were in the process of considering requirements (pp. 20-24). As a viable alternative to this condition, the authors suggested professional development by the teachers in practice (p. 21).

Few educators have examined staff development in reading through an investigation of key personnel best suited to do the job of effectively developing these programs. Indrisano (1969) attributed the continuity and cooperation she observed as a consultant in a district to the active involvement of principals, assistant superintendent and superintendent, along with teachers. Liette (1969) cited ability to work with groups, knowledge of the reading process and "almost innate" ability for organization, as qualifications necessary to lead a program. It may very well be that much hinges on the personnel who assume leadership roles in actual programs.

Implications

Past attempts to enhance professional development in reading have resulted in some changes, but have in general lacked a conceptual framework of the staff development process. Efforts at development have not fully considered the means by which the desired objectives for professional growth are to be achieved.

In-service or staff development processes are needed that promote change in programs commensurate with present and future education directions. Reading personnel involved in various leadership roles can no longer operate in a vacuum. Rather they must have training designed to help them function in a *dynamic situation*.

Several implications related to staff development process warrant the attention of reading consultants and directors who may be contemplating future staff development programs. These implications represent a synthesis of present opinion and research on staff development (Vacca, 1978). A consideration of them may make the difference between the merely "adequate" and the very "successful" program:

1. The personnel responsible for the development of staff in reading need

- access to the administrators in key decision-making positions.
2. Staff development is best accomplished when persons likely to be affected by impending change are brought into the process as soon as possible.
3. Successful staff development is not likely to occur following the single application of any technique.
4. Typing development to program adoption and implementation is vital to insuring success.
5. Interactions between teachers and staff developers should emphasize the effect of process on product.
6. Quality analyses of district problems and available personnel should *precede* the selection of the staff developer.

Although not nearly as intriguing as the fictional Kenobi's "FORCE," the delineation of changing forces and their implications can move us closer to a better understanding of staff development. Change, as illustrated here, doesn't erupt, but emerges gradually from a perspective that is definitive, historical, and practical.

REFERENCES

- Adams, M. L. "Teachers: Instructional Needs in Teaching Reading." *The Reading Teacher*, vol. 17 (January 1964), pp. 260-264.
- Austin, Mary C. "Professional Training of Reading Personnel." *Innovation and Change in Reading Instruction*. NSSE, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1968, pp. 357-396.
- Boyan, Norman J. "Problems and Issues of Knowledge Production and Utilization." *Knowledge Production and Utilization in Educational Administration*. T. Eidell and J. Kitchel, eds. Eugene: Center for the Advanced Study of Education, 1968, pp. 21-36.
- Conant, James B. *The Education of American Teachers*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1963.
- Cunningham, Richard C. "The Design, Implementation and Evaluation of an Affective/Cognitive Model for Teacher Change Through A Staff Development Program." *Dissertation Abstracts*, vol. 34, No. 03 (1972), p. 1160.
- Estes, Thomas H. and Piercey, Dorothy. "Secondary Reading Requirements: Report on the States." *Journal of Reading*, 17, (October 1973), pp. 20-24.
- Harris, B. W. and Bessent, W. *Inservice Education: A Guide To Better Practice*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1969.
- Indrisano, Roselmina. "Promising Practices in In-Service Education in Reading." *Reading and Realism*. J. A. Figurel, ed. International Reading Association Conference Proceedings, vol. 13 (1969), pp. 389-394.
- Liette, Sister Eileen. "Reading Guidance: In-Service Procedures and Techniques." *Reading and Realism* (1969), pp. 422-427.
- Lucas, George. *Star Wars*. New York: Ballantine Books, 1976, p. 122.
- Moburg, Lawrence G. *In-Service Teacher Training In Reading*. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1972.
- Moffitt, John Clifton. *In-Service Education for Teachers*. New York: Center for Applied Research in Education, 1963, p. 103.
- Morrison, Coleman and Austin, Mary C. *The Torchlighters Revisited* Newark: International Reading Association, 1977.
- Smith, Richard J., Otto, Wayne and Harty, Kathleen. "Elementary Teachers' Preference for Preservice and Inservice Training in the Teaching of Reading." *Journal of Educational Research*, vol. 63 (1970), pp. 445-449.
- Vacca, Jo Anne L. "The Synthesis of A Dynamic Model for Staff Development in Reading." Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Boston University, 1978.
- Vacca, Jo Anne L. "Staff Development in Reading: What the Experts Say." *Reading Horizons*, vol. 19 (in press).

ERIC HOFFER AND THE SIGNIFICANCE OF READING

Mark E. Thompson

GAITHERSBURG, MARYLAND

Eric Hoffer is a most unusual person. He was born in 1902 in New York City and taught himself to read English and German at the age of five. When he was seven years old, he suddenly and inexplicably went blind (Tomkins, 1968). At the age of 15, he mysteriously recovered his sight and became a voracious reader. Hoffer had no mentor or formal education during his youth or in his adult years, but he had books to read from the public libraries of California. After the death of his father in 1920 (his mother died when he was seven), Hoffer bought a bus ticket to Los Angeles and lived on Skid Row for the next ten years. During this time, he spent his days reading in the Los Angeles Central Library. He has been reading all his life—serious works of philosophy, science, biography, sociology, history, political science and the classics. Authors like Montaigne, the 16th century French essayist, became Hoffer's mentor. "I can't read French, and yet it's the French who always influenced me. Montaigne, Pascal, Renan, Bergson—and de Tocqueville. What a pleasure to read de Tocqueville! They were my teachers." (Tomkins, 1968, p. 41). Hoffer was obviously influenced by the lucid, literary style of the French.

When Hoffer's money ran out on Skid Row (his father had left him 300 dollars), he worked at odd jobs for the next 20 years or so. He was an ingenious person when it came to getting work. In the depression Hoffer was able to find all sorts of work. During the 1930's, Hoffer made a living as a migrant farm worker; he drifted over the whole state of California. During this time, Hoffer was slowly teaching himself to write; he wrote in notebooks and even wrote two novels. "My writing is done in railroad yards while waiting for a freight, in the fields while waiting for a truck, and at noon after lunch" (Tomkins, 1968, p. 35.)

In 1942, Hoffer joined the International Longshoremen's and Warehousemen's Union in San Francisco and went to work on the waterfront as a stevedore. He worked at this job for the next 25 years, the first time in his life he had a steady job. It was during this time that Hoffer completed some brilliant writing. *The True Believer* (Hoffer, 1951), a penetrating study of mass movements, brought recognition. Since this first book, Hoffer has published *The Ordeal of Change* (1952), *The Passionate State of Mind* (1954), *The Temper of Our Time* (1964), *Working and Thinking on the Waterfront* (1970), *First Things, Last Things* (1971), and *Reflections on the Human Condition* (1973). In 1977 he published *In Our Time*, a series of 32 brief essays that reveal an understanding of history, philosophy, sociology, political science and human nature.

A study of Eric Hoffer and his writing demonstrates that the ability to read is important to thoughtful, reflective people. Certainly Hoffer's experiences living and working have augmented his studies. There are not too many institutions of higher education that have graduated productive, humble persons with Hoffer's ability and insight. Reading stimulated Hoffer, and it may be that prolonged blindness had something to do with this. The legerdemain of psychology may help explain this interesting aspect of Hoffer's life. The fact remains that Eric Hoffer was able to become a knowledgeable man of considerable wisdom with the help of books in public libraries. This man stands as a unique model for us to emulate in many ways. He is worldly, yet he has never lived outside the United States. He is a humble person who has labored with his hands to make a living. His perception of people and events in history provide us with valuable lessons, equal to the Durants' well known *Lessons of History* (Durant, W. and Durant A., 1968).

How could it be that Hoffer, the son of an Alsatian carpenter and cabinet-maker with no formal education, has become so wise? Reading seems to be a key element. The joy, the excitement, the stimulation of reading in many areas is a most important part of Hoffer's life. Reading books consumed Hoffer; he has become a serious scholar without going to a formal school. The public library was Hoffer's classroom.

Being able to read is no guarantee that a person will be wise, honest or good, but reading in many areas may provide insight. Could it be that a reading of the sages helps us to see the world from different perspectives? There is ample evidence that the ability to read helps promote a good self-concept, emotional stability and mental health. Poor readers in school often have serious emotional problems.

Is it not a paradox, in this age of sophisticated technology and mass education, that we have so few thinkers like Eric Hoffer? Is Hoffer a mutation of the species in this technotronic, puerile age? We have a rare person in the form of Eric Hoffer, and he needs to be studied, known and understood. It may be that a technocratic society will turn its back on quality literature and humble people of letters. If this is so, we are in danger of being overrun by clever, hustling, technocratic demagogues. The Watergate scandal may have been a warning of what is to come. We can observe nefarious deeds becoming legitimate at all levels of government: local, state and national. Power and control is what our exalted leaders crave. "Even in the freest society power is charged with impulse to turn men into precise, predictable automata. When watching men of power in action it must be always kept in mind that, whether they know it or not, their main purpose is the elimination or neutralization of the independent individual—the independent voter, consumer, worker, owner, thinker—and that every device they employ aims at turning man into a manipulatable 'animated instrument,' which is Aristotle's definition of a slave" (Hoffer, 1952, p. 97).

Our era of technology has not emphasized reading and study as virtues. We have come to depend upon television, motion pictures and slick

magazines for information and entertainment. The reflective scholars in our institutions of higher education are being replaced with hustling grantsmen and strange mountebanks flooding us with shallow erudition. “. . . despite its spectacular achievements in science and technology, the twentieth century will probably be seen in retrospect as a century mainly preoccupied with the mastery and manipulation of men” (Hoffer, 1952, p. 99). Our efficiency and desire for the good life may be our doom. “A high level of bureaucratic rationality and of technology does not mean a high level of either individual or social intelligence” (Mills, 1959, p. 168).

We have relatively few people who appreciate the Eric Hoffers of the world. The public tends to pay homage to the hustling type—the power-seeking person. It is a sign of sickness when a society can but does not learn from literate, wise people and encourage its young to read and study. Being able to read may help to keep us free if we exercise our senses.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Durant, W. and Durant, A. *Lessons of History*. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1968.
 Hoffer, E. *The True Believer*. New York: Harper and Row, 1951.
 Hoffer, E. *The Ordeal of Change*. New York: Harper and Row, 1952.
 Hoffer, E. *The Passionate State of Mind*. New York: Harper and Row, 1954.
 Hoffer, E. *The Temper of Our Time*. New York: Harper and Row, 1964.
 Hoffer, E. *Working and Thinking on the Waterfront*. New York: Harper and Row, 1970.
 Hoffer, E. *First Things, Last Things*. New York: Harper and Row, 1971.
 Hoffer, E. *Reflections on the Human Condition*. New York: Harper and Row, 1973.
 Hoffer, E. *In Our Time*. New York: William Morrow and Company, Inc., 1977.
 Mills, C. W. *The Sociological Imagination*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1959.
 Tomkins, C. *Eric Hoffer: An American Odyssey*. New York: Harper and Row, 1968.

PROFESSIONAL CONCERNS

R. Baird Shuman

EDITOR

Patricia M. Cunningham

CONTRIBUTOR

Professional Concerns is a regular column devoted to the interchange of ideas among those interested in reading instruction. Send your comments and contributions to the editor. If you have questions about reading that you wish to have answered, the editor will find respondents to answer them. Address correspondence to R. Baird Shuman, Department of English, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Urbana, Illinois, 61801.

Patricia Cunningham's exposure to the teaching of reading at a variety of levels has been extensive. She has most recently served for three years as reading consultant in Alamance County, North Carolina. She left her position there quite recently to join the faculty of the Department of Education at Wake Forest University. She is well known through her contributions to professional journals.

In this contribution, Professor Cunningham suggests extremely practical solutions to very widespread elementary school reading programs. Her techniques have proved highly successful in the schools in which she has employed them. Her use of the structured language experience program is described in detail here, as is her use of the Imitative Method. As Professor Cunningham points out, the reading tactics which she suggested were most successful "where the teacher was willing to try something 'unorthodox' and carry out the new approach in a day-by-day systematic fashion." Perhaps the key to Professor Cunningham's success is that she is not willing to give up on any child who has a reading problem.

They Can ALL Learn To Read

They can ALL learn to read! "A naive assumption," you may surmise, "typical of those ivory-tower college professors who teach courses in reading rather than teach children to read!" This conclusion, however, was reached after much daily work in elementary classrooms and before returning to the halls of ivy. Actually, my suspicions that, given the will and the inspiration (not to mention perspiration), we could teach all children to read began way back when, thirteen years ago, I was a fledgling first-grade teacher. For three years, I taught first grade. Then, having obtained a Master's degree in reading, I taught fourth grade for two years and worked as a reading

specialist for a year. During all those years, I can't claim that I taught every child to read. I had neither the knowledge, the resources, nor the confidence to achieve that end. I can honestly say, however, that I believed every child could be taught to read and that their failure to do so had more to do with us and our approach to teaching them than it did with their inadequacies.

For the past three years, I worked as a reading director in a medium-sized, small-town/rural county in the Southeast. For the first two years, I bustled about inservicing, demonstrating, meeting, and befriending my 300 plus elementary teachers. I observed and assisted in numerous classrooms, tested and made recommendations for numerous children, talked with and encouraged numerous discouraged parents. During these two years, my bias that ALL children could, indeed, learn to read grew stronger and my craving to know if this was indeed truth became insatiable. I spent most of my third year satisfying this craving!

I began the year by meeting with various groups of teachers and letting them know that my personal challenge for the year was to teach all our children to read! I volunteered to come into their classrooms and work with those children who were not meeting with success in spite of the teacher's best efforts. I then followed up this offer with visits to individual classrooms, always asking the same question, "Do you have any children who just aren't making progress with their reading?" There were many who fit this criterion and, class by class, I began to work with these children. The strategies and materials I used were many and varied. Some were even unorthodox. A few examples!

In one first-grade class in our most rural and most disadvantaged school, more than half the children were not meeting with success in their basal reader instruction. The teacher knew the basal approach was not working with these children but didn't know what else to try. She had tried language experience in the past but had given up on this approach because the children's language was limited to words and phrases rather than sentences, and they couldn't remember their dictated stories from one day to the next. In that classroom, we put two groups of children into a "structured" language experience program. This approach (described in detail in an article in the Spring, 1979 issue of *Reading Horizons*) does not require that students talk in sentences and have good memories for dictated stories. Readiness skills are built into the lessons and all children can successfully begin the reading process.

Very briefly, the structured language experience lesson takes 25 minutes daily for one week. On Monday, oral language and vocabulary skills are built as students discuss pictures from a given category. On Tuesday, they dictate a story in which each sentence is exactly alike except for each child's chosen picture. (*I like to eat ham. I like to eat cake. I like to eat pizza. Etc.*) This dictated story is then used for sentence and word matching activities on Wednesday. On Thursday, the children work with a typed version of the same story, again matching sentences and words. On Friday, each child makes a book by cutting and pasting the typed sentences and appropriate

pictures. All children can read “their book” by Friday and proudly take the book home to read to anyone who will listen!

This strategy was used in numerous first-grade classes throughout the county. Each week the teacher selected a new topic and gathered appropriate pictures. The steps were strictly followed to insure success for each and every child. Many groups of children were able to succeed in initial basal reader instruction after six or seven weeks of structured language experience lessons. All first-grade teachers agreed that “Structured language experience was an approach that really worked with all their ‘not ready’ children!”

One day, I wandered into a fifth-grade class. The teacher had a group of large boys sitting in a circle with preprimers open. The teacher and the boys were valiantly struggling to somehow get through the lesson. “Debbie,” I said, as we talked in the hall, “what are those fifth graders doing in a preprimer?” “But you told us to give an IRI and put them on their level,” she responded. “It’s awful, but they can’t read above that level. In fact, they can hardly read at that level.” Debbie and I proceeded to the bookroom and found some old *Sailor Jack* books. The first book had 38 words. “I hate *Sailor Jack*,” protested Debbie. “I don’t care,” I responded. “It’s a hardback book. It’s certainly more interesting than those preprimers and we have to convince these kids they can learn to read. Do you know how many years these boys have sat with preprimers on their laps?”

Debbie agreed to forget her own likes and dislikes and give it a try. We taught all the words in the book with a Bingo-type game before giving the boys the book. When they had learned all the words, we introduced the characters, previewed the book and then paired them up to read the whole book! At first hesitantly, then jubilantly, those boys read the entire book in one sitting. Perhaps, the first book they ever read independently, cover to cover! As the year went on, Debbie continued this practice of teaching all the words as sight words before presenting the boys with a new *Sailor Jack* book. She also taught them to use context plus initial consonants and rhyming word families as decoding tools. By May, all five boys were reading comfortably and fluently in a *Sailor Jack* book which was a strong first-reader level. The boys, all labeled educably mentally retarded, were delighted but not as delighted as their teacher and I!

There are many other stories to be told about that year. There was the second-grade teacher who called me in February. She was a first-year teacher and having a most difficult time. She had four reading groups which were making some progress and Billy and Tony. Billy and Tony had been in the preprimers all year and were not progressing in their reading although their repertoire of disruptive tactics had certainly increased! I observed in their classroom for a short while and left, telling the teacher I would bring her some materials and ideas tomorrow. This was a stall tactic, on my part. I could think of lots of ways to get the boys moving in reading, but this teacher could not reasonably carry out anything else that required her time and energy during the school day.

After a sleepless night, I decided on the only approach I knew which

had any chance of success—the Imitative Method. (For a detailed description, see James W. Cunningham, “Providing Students with an Automatic Pilot for Decoding,” *Reading Teacher*, 1979.) That afternoon, I helped the teacher tape record one of the boys’ favorite “easy-to-read” books. She made the tape very personal, telling the boys when to turn the page and calling them by name. She recorded the book at a much slower pace than commercial tapes are recorded. The next day, she sat down with the boys, the tape recorder and two copies of the book. She explained that she had made a tape especially for them and that they were to listen to the tape until they could read the entire book to her. They could listen to the tape as many times as they liked during the day but they must listen to it at least twice each day. At first, the boys were not enthusiastic (To say the least!). They did, however, listen to the tape. After three days, they began to discover that they could read much of the book. After that, they spent many spare minutes listening to the tape. On their own, they turned off the tape before each page to see if they could read it first. After seven days, each boy could read the entire book and proudly read it to the kindergarten class. The teacher taped three more books and was then able to use commercially-taped books. By May, those two boys could read 19 easy-to-read books and were successfully reading in the primer of the basal series.

As the year drew to a close and the word got around that I really was serious about wanting to find the most stubborn cases and helping the teacher set up a program which worked, my phone rang off the hook. In all cases, where the teacher was willing to try something “unorthodox” and carried out the new approach in a day-by-day systematic fashion, we were able to find an approach which could get the students moving in reading. They did not all read on grade level and their beginning success in reading did not solve all discipline problems, but they all experienced success and began to see themselves as readers.

We did not teach every child in our county to read that year. I heard about one during bridge the other night—a third grader who had been in a second grade class in which the teacher had assured me “everyone was doing just fine!” We didn’t teach him to read, but we could have!

BOOK REVIEW

Eleanor Buelke

Bettelheim, Bruno

Surviving

New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1979. Pp. xi + 432.

This is a book written by a survivor *par excellence*. In it Dr. Bettelheim writes of themes that have occupied his mind and have been basis of his work since he survived the European holocaust of World War II. Those in education who have read and listened to this outstanding teacher-psychiatrist's expressions of his deep, caring, and enlightened knowledge of children and society will value this collection of his important essays.

In this volume, Bettelheim covers a variety of concerns. He philosophizes about the significance of life, and how humans deal with the battle to master its finiteness. From his own personal struggle to survive, he has learned that "all attempts to extract meaning from life are to a very large measure actually a projection of meaning into life . . . This can occur only when and to the degree that a person is able to find meaning within oneself . . ." However, he suggests repeatedly that how survivors deal with their later lives is directly related to the support they receive from others closest to them. Teachers can belong to the group of supportive "others closest" to children, and to members of their profession, helping to make a significant difference in all their lives. In the light of current, increased references and attention to teacher "burn out," and the destructive environments within which many educators have to work, what this author writes about survivorship is timely and appropriate.

The writer's descriptions dealing with individual and mass behavior in extreme situations say much to educators about the parallel between the concentration camp experiences and what happens to children destroyed by coldness, abandonment, and rejection. It also reinforces concerns about loss of self-respect and personal autonomy under oppressive powers of the state, or other administrations that use external power for extreme regimentation and conformity.

His discussion of education in its relationship to the reality principle may help teachers to clarify their understandings of failure in reaching and teaching many obviously normal, intelligent children. He suggests that learning will improve when teachers are not bound by their role-taking and personal anxieties, but, instead, consider what children are really like and why they act as they do. If children's worlds are at odds with education as represented by teacher and school, in order for them to give up the prejudices of their "own marketplace," they must be reached initially within the framework of their particular individual, or peer, mores. To do this, he says, will require "no unusually inspired teachers, but only ordinary ones who have been helped to understand what is going on."

Bettelheim addresses himself directly to teachers when he writes of violence and aggression that impede learning in the classroom. Children who experience strong anger and violent feelings often have little opportunity to discharge their emotions. Relieving hostility through vicarious

means in books and stories helps to free positive tendencies for the learning process. Writing about angry thoughts in words and terms that concern themselves deeply is an important step for children in learning to deal with things they fear.

Further, he says that self-chosen, emotionally charged words are easier for children to learn than innocuous, "nice" words, and he claims "... that the wish to express and master what is important is a powerful motivating force for learning to read and understand a word and thus the phenomenon to which it refers, pleasant or not" He also suggests that dealing with violence through reading, writing, and thought may help children to cope with it in their lives with the smallest danger to themselves and those around them.

Bettelheim believes that there is an intimate connection between emotions and learning ability. He states that, "Assuming normal intelligence, only the severely disturbed child will have serious trouble learning to read . . . Failure to learn may, in fact, to chosen by some children as their way of surviving. If, to learn means to grow up, to become independent, perhaps, to lose the known security of parental and home care, the choice to fail may seem the safer path. When home environments and parental standards differ radically from school middle-class standards, opting for school learning failure may be a way of expressing loyalty and protection for them. Moreover, if children are convinced that their failure is inevitable within a given learning milieu, choosing not to learn at all will at least attract attention. Such attention may afford some measure of status and self-respect because children, themselves, have made the choice."

Children's choices are made in response to the inner and outer worlds of those adults who are significant to them. If what these significant adults are teaching is perceived as "tool" learning, "something to be mastered and used only upon occasion," such educational effort is apt to fail. Mastery of reading, for example, means nothing without some application; its perfection as a tool, in and of itself, will not automatically lead to scholarship. Furthermore, insistence upon mastery of meaningless operations may produce children who appear intellectually precocious, but who are really "emotionally, terribly immature." Many people are in trouble today in their struggle to survive because at some point "too much was asked" of them and "too little was given."

Except in times of trauma or trouble, wondering about the problems of life's meaning and purpose do not particularly concern or oppress many people. For teachers who deal daily with the unique quality of life, its meaning for learning and for many learners besides themselves, ways to survive with confidence have major impact and importance. In education, surviving means recognition of what this author characterizes as the deepest and most important motive for learning:

The inner conviction of the uses of learning for oneself is what overcomes educational handicaps, even the most severe blocks to learning. For education to be such an inner liberating force, it must not be degraded to the position of a tool, but made the essence of personal growth and development.

Greta Rey

NORTH CHRISTIAN SCHOOL, KALAMAZOO, MICHIGAN

Glazer, Joan I., and Gurney Williams III, *Introduction to Children's Literature*, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1979, 737 pp., \$15.95.

If this important new book has a weakness, it is the inadequacy of the title to convey the freshness and vitality with which the subject of children's literature is most thoroughly presented. In a very readable style, the authors live up to their promise to "convey (the) power and artistry (of children's books) in a way that will send many of our readers on a hunt for the actual books, or others like them."

The book is divided into two major sections. The chapters of Part One, "Exploring the Realm of Literature," define the universal truths of all literature and the specifics of children's literature. The first chapter, which alone makes the book a valuable acquisition, reviews children's growth and development as they apply to language and literature. Then, ingeniously using Marguerite de Angeli's *The Door in the Wall* to illustrate, it presents the elements of good literature so beautifully, that it could well serve one who had never had another literature course. The remaining chapters of this section each deal with a genre of children's books. In addition to analyzing the type, historical background is given, its value to and effect on children, and guidelines for choosing and evaluating the books. While the reader may delight in the pure elements of the literature for their own sake, the authors never let literature become a solely intellectual study separate from the children who will read it. Each chapter ends with a helpful summary, annotated bibliography, adult references, and children's book references. One of this book's many strengths is its organization.

Part Two, "Literature and Children Together," provides a wealth of material particularly useful for teachers-in-training, and as a revitalization for experienced teachers. These chapters deal with presenting literature to children, eliciting their thoughtful responses, and helping them increase their understanding and enjoyment of books, by utilizing just about every imaginable method of good teaching. Included is an excellent chapter on building units.

A distinctive feature of *Introduction to Children's Literature* is the use of numerous "Issues" boxes interspersed throughout the text. Consisting of one or two pages of quotations of two or more experts who have opposite opinions, they deal with the subjective issues of children's literature. These are followed by thought and discussion-provoking questions, useful for the college classroom.

The format of the book makes one want to pick it up, page through it, and own it—quite a feat, considering the vast quantity of material. The single columns offset by white space are attractively laid out with many illustrations from the children's books referred to in the text. An eight-page folio of colored plates accompanies the chapter on picture books.

SUBSCRIPTION AND COMMUNICATION FORM READING HORIZONS

Message to subscribers and readers —

We are encouraged by letters from our contributors to offer the same facility of communication and comments to our readers. Authors and co-authors have helped to establish the reputation for quality that **READING HORIZONS** enjoys, and they would join us in inviting your reactions and reflections on what is offered in these issues.

Our writers further suggest that you pass this page on to reading specialists and teachers who have not yet become acquainted with RH. Here is a journal devoted to the teaching of reading. We are not part of an organization, and one's subscription may begin at any quarter of the year. We are an educational endeavor, and profit is not our motive. However, **READING HORIZONS** does need the support of subscribers. Thus, as a subscriber, you can help the cause. Through your support and cooperation, we can avoid expensive ad campaigns, and beat inflationary trends.

READING HORIZONS . . .

- . . . the journal for professionals in reading
- . . . a quarterly containing practical ideas, theory, current information, study reports, at all levels.
- . . . a journal for and from the classroom and clinic.

READING HORIZONS

\$6.00 to individuals

\$8.00 at institutional rate

Name _____

Address _____

_____ Zip _____

**Make checks payable to: READING HORIZONS, College of Education,
Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo, MI 49008**

U.S. POSTAL SERVICE			
STATEMENT OF OWNERSHIP, MANAGEMENT AND CIRCULATION			
(Required by 39 U.S.C. 3685)			
1. TITLE OF PUBLICATION READING HORIZONS		2. DATE OF FILING 9-19-79	
3. FREQUENCY OF ISSUE quarterly		A. PUBLICATION NO. 0 6 2 3 1 0	
4. LOCATION OF KNOWN OFFICE OF PUBLICATION (Street, City, County, State and ZIP Code) (Not printers) 1921 W. Michigan, Kalamazoo, Kalamazoo County, Michigan 49008		A. NO. OF ISSUES PUBLISHED ANNUALLY 4	
5. LOCATION OF THE HEADQUARTERS OR GENERAL BUSINESS OFFICES OF THE PUBLISHERS (Not printers) College of Education, Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo, Michigan 49008		B. ANNUAL SUBSCRIPTION PRICE \$6.00	
6. NAMES AND COMPLETE ADDRESSES OF PUBLISHER, EDITOR, AND MANAGING EDITOR			
PUBLISHER (Name and Address) College of Educ., Western Michigan Univ., Kalamazoo, MI 49008			
EDITOR (Name and Address) Kenneth VanderMeulen, College of Educ., Western Michigan Univ., Kalamazoo, MI 49008			
MANAGING EDITOR (Name and Address) same as above			
7. OWNER (If owned by a corporation, its name and address must be stated and also immediately thereunder the names and addresses of stockholders owning or holding 1 percent or more of total amount of stock. If not owned by a corporation, the names and addresses of the individual owners must be given. If owned by a partnership or other unincorporated firm, its name and address, as well as that of each individual must be given. If the publication is published by a nonprofit organization, its name and address must be stated.)			
NAME Western Michigan University		ADDRESS 1921 W. Michigan Kalamazoo County Kalamazoo, Michigan 49008	
8. KNOWN BONDHOLDERS, MORTGAGEES, AND OTHER SECURITY HOLDERS OWNING OR HOLDING 1 PERCENT OR MORE OF TOTAL AMOUNT OF BONDS, MORTGAGES OR OTHER SECURITIES (If there are none, so state)		NAME NONE	
9. FOR COMPLETION BY NONPROFIT ORGANIZATIONS AUTHORIZED TO MAIL AT SPECIAL RATES (Section 132.122, PSM) The purpose, function, and nonprofit status of this organization and the exempt status for Federal income tax purposes (Check one)		(If changed, publisher must submit explanation of change with this statement.)	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> HAVE NOT CHANGED DURING PRECEDING 12 MONTHS		<input type="checkbox"/> HAVE CHANGED DURING PRECEDING 12 MONTHS	
10. EXTENT AND NATURE OF CIRCULATION		AVERAGE NO. COPIES EACH ISSUE DURING PRECEDING 12 MONTHS	
A. TOTAL NO. COPIES PRINTED (Net Press Run)		1000	
B. PAID CIRCULATION		ACTUAL NO. COPIES OF SINGLE ISSUE PUBLISHED NEAREST TO FILING DATE	
1. SALES THROUGH DEALERS AND CARRIERS, STREET VENDORS AND COUNTER SALES		0	
2. MAIL SUBSCRIPTIONS		772	
C. TOTAL PAID CIRCULATION (Sum of 10B1 and 10B2)		772	
D. FREE DISTRIBUTION BY MAIL, CARRIER OR OTHER MEANS SAMPLES, COMPLIMENTARY, AND OTHER FREE COPIES		75	
E. TOTAL DISTRIBUTION (Sum of C and D)		855	
F. COPIES NOT DISTRIBUTED		145	
1. OFFICE USE, LEFT OVER, UNACCOUNTED, SPOILED AFTER PRINTING		145	
2. RETURNS FROM NEWS AGENTS		0	
G. TOTAL (Sum of E, F1 and 2—should equal net press run shown in A)		1000	
11. I certify that the statements made by me above are correct and complete.		SIGNATURE AND TITLE OF EDITOR, PUBLISHER, BUSINESS MANAGER, OR OWNER <i>Ken VanderMeulen Editor</i>	
12. FOR COMPLETION BY PUBLISHERS MAILING AT THE REGULAR RATES (Section 132.121, Postal Service Manual)			
39 U.S.C. 3626 provides in pertinent part: "No person who would have been entitled to mail matter under former section 4359 of this title shall mail such matter at the rates provided under this subsection unless he files annually with the Postal Service a written request for permission to mail matter at such rates."			
In accordance with the provisions of this statute, I hereby request permission to mail the publication named in Item 1 at the phased postage rates presently authorized by 39 U.S.C. 3626.			
SIGNATURE AND TITLE OF EDITOR, PUBLISHER, BUSINESS MANAGER, OR OWNER <i>Ken VanderMeulen, Editor</i>			

