



Reading Horizons: A Journal of Literacy and Language Arts

Volume 20
Issue 2 *January 1980*

Article 15

1-1980

Reading Horizons vol. 20, no. 2

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

 Part of the Education Commons

---

Recommended Citation

(1980). Reading Horizons vol. 20, no. 2. *Reading Horizons: A Journal of Literacy and Language Arts*, 20 (2). Retrieved from https://scholarworks.wmich.edu/reading_horizons/vol20/iss2/15

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.

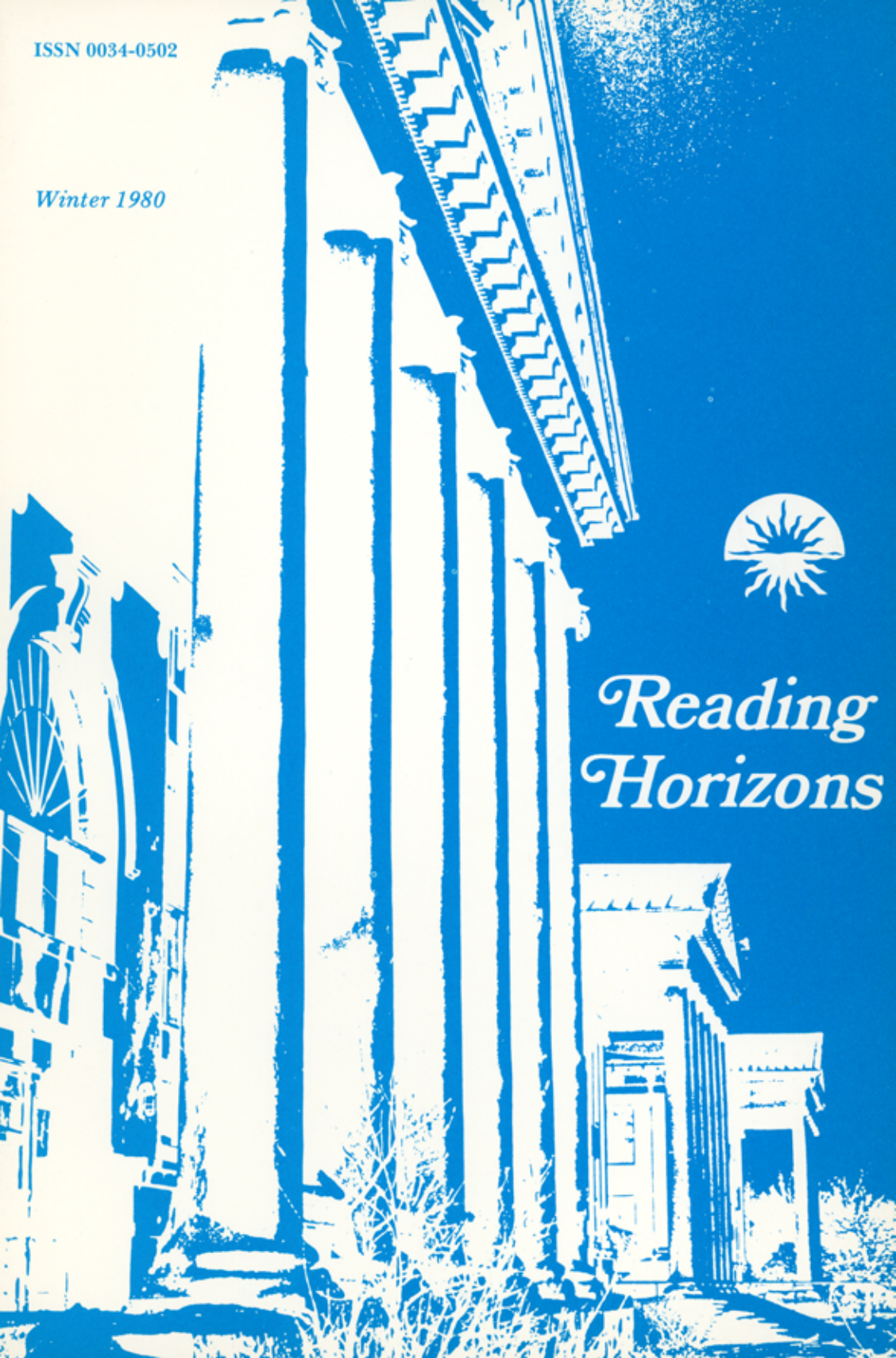


ISSN 0034-0502

Winter 1980



Reading Horizons



Reading
HORIZONS

VOLUME 20

NUMBER 2

EDITOR

Kenneth VanderMeulen

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.

ADVISORY BOARD:

Jerry L. Johns
Northern Illinois University
Richard D. Robinson
University of Missouri-Columbia
Thomas F. Ryan
Western Michigan University
Jean R. Harber
University of Maryland
Helen Johncock, President
Homer Carter Reading Council
Howard G. Ball
Alabama A&M University

FEATURE WRITERS:

Review—
Eleanor Buelke
Portage, Michigan
Professional Concerns
R. Baird Shuman
University of Illinois
Mark E. Thompson
Washington, D.C.



-
- READING HORIZONS** Designed for use by teachers, researchers, specialists and students devoted to the teaching of reading, HORIZONS is published four times a year on the campus of Western Michigan University. It is supported by the College of Education. Copyright 1980, 2nd class postage rate paid at Kalamazoo, Michigan, 49008.
- SUBSCRIPTIONS AND CHANGE OF ADDRESS** Subscriptions are available to individuals (mailed to residence) for \$6.00. Institutional subscriptions are \$8.00. Address correspondence and make checks payable to: **READING HORIZONS**, College of Education, Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo, MI 49008.
- MANUSCRIPTS** Manuscripts should include original and two copies, and should be accompanied by stamped, self-addressed envelope. Because HORIZONS depends entirely on subscriptions for the means to print and distribute this quarterly, preference in publication of unsolicited manuscripts is usually given to authors who are regular subscribers. Manuscripts and other materials for possible publication or review should be addressed to Ken VanderMeulen, Editor, **READING HORIZONS**, Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo, MI 49008.
- 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**, \$2.00 each.
- 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 Advisory Board of **READING HORIZONS**.
- ADVERTISING** Advertising rates, policy, and information can be obtained by writing **READING HORIZONS** at the above address.

Copyright 1980
Western Michigan University



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

TABLE OF CONTENTS

RICHARD D. ROBINSON	85	Thoughts on Books and Reading (A Guest Editorial)
PATRICIA M. CUNNINGHAM	89	Plant Seeds This Spring for Reading This Summer—Reap Rewards Next Fall!
DIANE S. WAGNER AND JUDITH ROSENFELD	97	Teaching in Tandem: Media Specialist/Librarian and the Classroom Teacher
J. JAAP TUINMAN, CHARLES KINZER AND NEAL MUHTADI	103	A Short-cut to Testing Passage Comprehension
A. STERL ARTLEY	106	Psycholinguistics Applied to Reading Instruction
JOHN E. READENCE AND DAVID MOORE	112	Differentiating Text Assignments in Content Areas: Slicing the Task
SHIRLEY B. MERLIN AND SUE F. ROGERS	118	The Role of Reading Specialists In Developing IEP's (Individual Education Programs)
GEORGE M. USOVA	123	A Model for Faculty In-service in the Secondary Reading Program
DUANE R. TOVEY	129	Nonvisual Aspects of Reading
JAMES V. HOFFMAN	135	Weighting Miscues in Informal Inventories—A Precautionary Note
NICHOLAS P. CRISCUOLO	140	The Reading Center: A Valuable In- service Resource
L. D. BRIGGS AND SHERRI SKELTON	142	Reading and the Withdrawn Child
R. BAIRD SHUMAN	147	Professional Concerns: Barbara Fox—"Remedial Programs: Some Strategies for Creating A Supportive Learning Environment"
ELEANOR BUELKE	150	Book Review— <i>The Person in Education</i> by Courtney D. Schlosser



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
DOROTHY K. BRACKEN	Professor Emeritus Southern Methodist University Dallas, Texas
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

THOUGHTS ON BOOKS AND READING (A GUEST EDITORIAL)

Richard D. Robinson

UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI-COLUMBIA

Frequently the daily emphasis on lesson plans, skill sheets, and work-book pages blurs the ultimate goal for which all reading teachers strive – and that, of course, is to develop in their students a love for reading. It is easy to forget that while the method or process of learning to read is important, it is the attitudes children acquire about reading during the school years which will largely determine their life-long patterns of reading.

With this thought in mind it might be appropriate to consider the attitudes toward reading of some of the great writers of the past, for perhaps through their words we may better see how reading can become a significant aspect of our students' lives.

He that loves reading has everything within his reach. He has but to desire, and he may possess himself of every species of wisdom to judge and power to perform.

William Godwin

Enquirer: Early Taste for Reading (1797)

Read, mark, learn, and inwardly digest.

The Book of Common Prayer (1662)

How many a man has dated a new era in his life from the reading of a book!

Henry David Thoreau

Walden (1854)

What's a book? Everything or nothing. The eye that sees it is all.

Ralph Waldo Emerson

Journals (1831)

We find little in a book but what we put there.

Joseph Joubert

Pensees (1842)

What we should read is not the words, but the man whom we feel to be behind the words.

Samuel Butler

Note-Books (1890)

There is no frigate like a book

To take us lands away

Nor any coursers like a page

Of prancing poetry.

Emily Dickinson

Poems (1873)

A man ought to read just as inclination leads him; for what he reads as a task will do him little good.

Samuel Johnson
Boswell's Life of Johnson (1763)

My early and invincible love of reading . . . I would not exchange for the treasures of India.

Edward Gibbon
Memoirs (1796)

In reading some books we occupy ourselves chiefly with the thoughts of the author; in perusing others, exclusively with our own.

Edgar Allan Poe
Marginalia (1844)

If you wish to be a good reader, read.

Epictetus
Discourse (cir. 115)

In anything fit to be called by the name of reading, the process itself should be absorbing and voluptuous; we should gloat over a book, be rapt clean out of ourselves.

Robert Louis Stevenson
"A Gossip on Romance" (1882)

The delight of opening a new pursuit, or a new course of reading, imparts the vivacity and novelty of youth even to old age.

Isaac D'Israeli
Literary Character of Men of Genius (1868)

The only important thing in a book is the meaning it has for you.

W. Somerset Maugham
The Summing Up (1938)

There is an implied contract between author and reader.

William Wordsworth
Preface to *Lyrical Ballads* (1798)

The proper study of mankind is books.

Aldous Huxley
Crome Yellow (1922)

Reading maketh a full man.

Roger Bacon
Essay. Of Studies (1625)

It is a great thing to start life with a small number of really good books which are your very own.

Sir Arthur Conan Doyle
Through the Magic Door (1907)

Reading is to the mind what exercise is to the body. As by the one, health is preserved, strengthened and invigorated: by the other, virtue (which is the

health of the mind) is kept alive, cherished, and confirmed.

Joseph Addison
The Tatler (1709)

Books we must have though we lack bread.

Alice W. Brotherton
Ballade of Poor Bookworms (1887)

The reading of all good books is like conversation with the finest men of past centuries.

Rene Descartes
Discourse on Method (1639)

No man understands a deep book until he has seen and lived at least part of its contents.

Ezra Pound
The ABC of Reading (1934)

Books are treasured wealth of the world, the fit inheritance of generations and nations.

Henry David Thoreau
Walden (1854)

All that Mankind has done, thought, gained or been it is lying as in magic preservation in the pages of Books. They are the chosen possession of men.

Thomas Carlyle
Heroes and Hero Worship (1840)

Books are the quietest and most constant of friends; they are the most accessible and wisest of counsellors, and the most patient of teachers.

Charles W. Elliot
The Happy Life (1896)

A good book is the precious life-blood of a master-spirit embalmed and treasured up on purpose to a life beyond life.

John Milton
Areopagitica (1644)

That is a good book which is opened with expectation and closed with profit.

Amos B. Alcott
Table Talk (1877)

A book, like a landscape, is a state of consciousness varying with readers.

Ernest Dimnet
The Art of Thinking (1928)

Appreciation of reading for these individuals was obviously much more than just an abstract ideal. Reading became a significant aspect of their lives because it satisfied the universal desire to know and comprehend the world in which we live. Note how often the reference is made to the reading process in relationship to the reader, especially in terms of understanding. Perhaps, we, in the field of reading education, ought to have paid more attention to the wisdom of the past for as William Shakespeare wrote in *Cymbeline*: "Read and declare the meaning."

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

PLANT SEEDS THIS SPRING FOR READING THIS SUMMER— REAP REWARDS NEXT FALL!

Patricia Cunningham

WAKE FOREST UNIVERSITY, NORTH CAROLINA

Once upon a time in a far-off land, there was a school system that worked very hard on its reading program. Everyone worked hard on reading. The School Board declared reading its top priority and put the lion's share of its budget into reading. The superintendent supported reading and lay awake nights thinking of ways to make the reading program better. All the principals thought reading was important and showed they felt this way by sponsoring schoolwide USSR and motivational reading programs and by listening to children read and reading to children. The teachers spent most of their day teaching reading. They used a variety of methods and materials and tried to fit these methods and materials to the needs of each child. The children also worked hard at becoming good readers. They read everything—books and magazines, of course, but also papers and signs and labels and television commercials, all through the school year everyone worked very hard on reading and went home in the evenings tired but satisfied—satisfied that, while the reading problem was still not solved, they were doing their best and the children were learning to read.

One week in April, however, just as the azaleas were starting to bloom and all the trees were becoming green once more, a sadness crept into the minds of the teachers. The reading director, on her weekly visits to the schools, noticed that the teachers had lost their sparkle and didn't run out into the halls to lure her into their classrooms to see how well their children could read. Instead they appeared worried and frustrated. After talking with many of the teachers, the reading director discovered the problem. The teachers were worried about how much their students would forget over the long summer months. "Every fall," lamented Miss D_____ "when I give these children an informal reading inventory, I discover that many of the children are a full level lower than they were the previous Spring. I can even predict which children it will happen to and they are the very ones I have worked so hard with all year." The other teachers concurred and they moped around shaking their heads and feeling very discouraged.

This Spring Discouragement Disease was highly contagious and soon all the teachers and children and principals out in the schools wore long faces and moped around. The superintendent, who is in charge of solving all serious problems, was consulted. He confirmed the fact that, while reading was the priority subject in the schools, there just was no money for an ex-

tensive summer program. He suggested that the schools might each try to keep their libraries open one afternoon a week so that children could come and check books in and out. This seemed like a very likely solution to the problem and was suggested to several of the principals. They were most enthusiastic and began at once to talk to parents and round up volunteers to keep the libraries open one afternoon a week.

The teachers, however, were unconsoled. "The children I am most concerned about would not come here to the library to check out books," explained Miss D_____. "Keeping the libraries open is a good idea but only if the parents will bring their children and they won't do that unless they see how important it is. We had a PTA meeting devoted to the topic of the importance of reading in the home and the only parents who came were the ones who already know how important it is. We just don't seem to be able to communicate with those parents we need to communicate with."

As Miss D_____ spoke the other teachers nodded their heads. Just keeping the libraries open one day a week was not going to solve the problem. The superintendent, when he heard that his suggestion would not solve the problem, also got Spring Discouragement Disease. He moped around and shook his head. In fact, the superintendent developed a most serious case of Spring Discouragement Disease because it was his job to find solutions to the really serious problems.

For a while this gloom enveloped the land.

Then one morning, the superintendent drove into the parking lot, bounced into his office and convened a meeting of all the people concerned with reading. "I woke up in the middle of the night with an idea I hope will help solve our problem," he proclaimed. "Let's have a whole week devoted to communicating with parents the importance of reading with and to children over the summer. We could print bumper stickers saying, 'Have you read with your child today?' and get lots of television, radio and newspaper coverage. Let's use everything at our disposal to get our message across."

Everyone thought this was a marvelous suggestion and plans for "Read With Your Child Week" began. There was much to do and everyone in the administration and in the local schools worked very hard. Local governing boards were contacted and at their monthly meetings, they officially proclaimed May 15-21 "Read With Your Child Week."

Bumper stickers were designed and printed by the high school graphics department for only the cost of materials. Stores were contacted and most agreed to hold special sales on children's books during this week. Restaurants and motels agreed to put "Read With Your Child Week" on their marquees.

The county librarians were just delighted when they heard about this great week. They too planned some special events. Puppet shows, parent workshops, "Read With Your Child" corners in the library, and an intensive library card drive were some of the many activities the library planned.

Exhibits were planned for the three shopping malls in the county. These

exhibits contained posters and coupons telling parents to “SAVE the Future” and “Free some time to read with your child today.”

Seven thousand copies of a letter from the superintendent were printed. One was sent home with each elementary school child. In this letter the importance of reading with and to children during the summer months was emphasized and parents, guardians, grandparents, aunts, uncles, brothers, sisters, or babysitters were asked to sign a contract agreeing to do one or more of seven things during “Read With Your Child Week” and during the summer.

The Letter:

Dear Parents, Guardians, Grandparents, Aunts, Uncles, Brothers, Sisters, and Babysitters,

May 15-21 is a special week for our children. All over the county, we will be celebrating “Read With Your Child Week.” A parade on Saturday, May 14th at 10:00 a.m. will kick off the festivities. During the week, schools, libraries, and stores throughout the county will sponsor special events which encourage reading.

Reading is the top priority in our county schools. Teachers and children have worked especially hard on reading this year. Now we need your help. Children who do not read during the summer lose much of what they learned during the school year. To be really good at anything (tennis, swimming, baseball) you *must* practice regularly. This is also true of reading. You can help by setting aside a few minutes every day to read to your child and listen to your child read to you. Since children want to learn to do those things they see adults doing, it is also important to have some time each day when everyone at home reads. Therefore, we are asking all adults to make a promise to help children practice reading during this special week and during the summer.

The Contract:

Please check which things you promise to do during “Read With Your Child Week” and during the summer. Sign this contract and return it to the school.

CHILD'S NAME _____
 GRADE _____
 SCHOOL _____

I will read to my child each day.	May 15-21 _____	Summer _____
I will listen to my child read each day.	May 15-21 _____	Summer _____
I will turn off the television for a few minutes each day and have everyone in the house read.	May 15-21 _____	Summer _____

I will read appropriate parts of the newspaper to my child.	May 15-21_____	Summer_____
I will encourage my child to read real-world things – signs, menus, cans, boxes, telephone books, etc.	May 15-21_____	Summer_____
I will take my child to the library once a week.	May 15-21_____	Summer_____
I will get more books for my child to read.	May 15-21_____	Summer_____

_____
Signature

Check Relationship to Child: Mother____ Father____ Guardian____
Grandparent____ Aunt____ Uncle____ Brother____ Sister____
Babysitter____

Since it was desired that every person in the County be involved in this special week, something had to be done for the middle and high school students. While they would not appreciate taking home a letter to their parents asking someone to read with them, it was hoped that they would respond to a letter from the superintendent written directly to them and a contract which they, themselves, would be asked to sign.

The Letter:

Hey Kids!

Have you heard all the uproar about how today's kids don't read as well as their parents did? Well, it's true – and we are beginning to discover why. Kids today just don't read as much as they used to. The television is always on. There are lots of things to do and places to go.

Reading is just like any other skill. To be good at it and stay good at it, you have to practice. Just as you practice swimming and tennis regularly to stay in top form, you have to practice reading regularly to stay in top form.

Did you know that —

If you don't read anything during the summer you will probably drop back a level in reading.

Students who read have more impressive vocabularies than students who don't read much.

Students who read do better on college entrance exams.

Students who read do better at all jobs.

May 15-21 is a special week for our county. All over the county,

we will be celebrating "Read With Your Child Week." A parade on Saturday, May 14th at 10:00 a.m. will kick off the festivities. During the week, schools, libraries, and stores throughout the county will sponsor special events which encourage reading.



Photo by Neva Dennis

TEACHERS BOOST READING



Photo by Neva Dennis

FAVORITE BOOK CHARACTERS

As secondary students, we hope you will participate in some of the “Read With Your Child Week” activities with your younger brothers, sisters, cousins, and neighbors. We also hope that you will commit yourself to doing some things this summer which will help *you* stay in top reading form.

The Contract:

Please indicate what you will promise to do during “Read With Your Child Week” and during the summer. Sign and return to your teacher.

_____ During the summer, I will read part of the newspaper each day (especially the sports section and the comics)!

_____ I will read 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 or more books during the summer.
(Circle One)

_____ I will read parts of a magazine each week.

_____ I will encourage my sister, brother, cousin or neighbor to read, read to them, and/or take them to the library.

_____ Other (Please specify) _____

Signature: _____

Grade: _____

School: _____

Meanwhile, the teachers and principals and children out in the schools were all busy and excited planning activities in their schools for the week and planning their entries for the big event – the parade! Yes, the kick-off event for this special week would be special, indeed – a Saturday morning parade. Plans for the parade took much time but the support of the whole community helped a great deal. People who had organized parades before gave advice (Get parade insurance!) and cautions (Put all horses at the back of the parade!). The rescue squad agreed to line the parade up.

Finally, the great week came. The scene downtown on Saturday morning was unlike anything ever seen there before. Traffic was slowed for miles as the parents of 1500 kids delivered them to the lining-up point. State and local officials convened on the lawn of the superintendent’s home for coffee before going to their assigned cars. By 10:00, the streets were lined with curious spectators and doting parents. The parade, 58 units long, began. In addition to local and state officials, bands and firetrucks, the parade included: floats (The Family that Reads Together Learns Together; A Bedtime Story; Athletes for Reading and many more), children dressed up as their favorite book characters, reading cheerleaders, a middle school chorus singing reading rounds (*Are you Reading?* to the tune of *Are You Sleeping?*, *Read, Read Read Good Books* to the tune of *Row, Row Row Your Boat*), a midget baseball team with a banner proclaiming “Let’s read the Sports Page,” clowns, a reading convoy, an MG car decorated to look

like Peter Rabbit, and many, many more. A giant chicken (Doodles) and Gilbert Giddyup were special attractions in the parade.

The reaction of the spectators and participants in the parade was unanimously great! Comments like, "Why haven't you done this before?" and "You should do this every year." were heard over and over.



Photo by James W. Cunningham

MIDDLE SCHOOL ATHLETES

With this kind of kickoff, the week was bound to be a success and indeed it was. During the week, most of the activities centered in individual schools. Many schools had something special planned for each day of the week. School-based events included: Read Outs, Book People Pageants, Story Hours, Adult Book Character Dress Up Days, Creative Writing Activities, Old-Time Story Hours, Reading Pep Rallies, Poster Contests, Door Decorations, Book Sing-A-Longs, Book Auctions, Book Exchanges, Book Fairs and Reading Awards Days.

There was also much media coverage during this week. In addition to the coverage of the parade and school activities, television and radio programs and newspaper articles devoted to explaining to parents the importance of reading activities in the home and how to get these activities started were featured during this week.

When the special week was finally over, the people who had worked so hard during that week sat down to evaluate what they had accomplished. Had the one simple message that reading to and with children is important gotten across? Miss D_____ said she thought it had been a tremendous help. All her children had returned their contracts and she planned to write a note on each contract encouraging the parents to honor

that commitment all summer and telling them how much it would help their child. She would include this contract and note in the end-of-year report card.

The director of community relations said she knew it had strengthened the ties between the schools and other community agencies. The libraries, stores, restaurants, motels, rescue squad, fire and police departments, local governing bodies, newspaper radio and television people had all been involved and all felt a part of the success of the week.

The superintendent said that the teachers and principals all thought it was a great week and, considering it was extra work for them, you know that means it was a success.

A school director, who is also a parent of a middle school child, remarked that her daughter was most impressed with getting a letter from the superintendent and took the contract she had signed very seriously.

Several comments written on the bottom of the elementary contracts were shared:

"I feel that this project is very important to my child's education and also it gives us, the parents, a chance to see just how our child reads and how we must help."

"I will do all I can to help my child in his reading and I think this is a great idea. It gets the child and parents to get together and learn and know more about what your child can do as well as for the parents to show that they care and love them."

"We think this is a good program and are glad to cooperate with you in every way possible."

"I am so strongly for turning the TV off and for the whole family to take a book they each prefer."

"When I can't, my mother or his father will listen or read to him during the summer."

The best thing is that the teachers and principals and children out in the schools are now smiling again. They are working hard but they are satisfied because they know they are accomplishing something. Parents are reading with their children and hopefully they will all live happily ever after!

TEACHING IN TANDEM: MEDIA SPECIALIST/LIBRARIAN & THE CLASSROOM TEACHER

Diane Stephanie Wagner

BASIC SKILLS SPECIALIST, MOORESTOWN, NEW JERSEY

Judith Rosenfeld

PARK SCHOOL, BALTIMORE MARYLAND

The NCTE/AASL joint Committee on Learning Resources has been charged by both organizations with the responsibility of finding areas of cooperation and communication between media specialists/librarians and English teachers. Professionals in both fields have strong opinions about the nature and depth of experiences the student should have in a school media center. The questions upon which they are focusing their attention are:

What skills are to be initially introduced, developed and reinforced?

At what grade level are these skills to be taught?

Where will the teaching process occur: in the classroom, media center/library, or both?

Will the teacher or the media specialist/librarian introduce, develop, and reinforce the skills to be taught?

Recognizing the significance of these questions, the media specialists/librarians in a southern New Jersey suburban school system that includes four elementary schools proceeded to find some answers. They sought a process that could be shared with all schools for the purpose of:

- 1) identifying necessary information and learning strategies for research skills;
- 2) determining who will teach these skills; when and where they will be introduced, developed and reinforced to ensure program continuity;
- 3) assuring media specialist/librarian and classroom teacher recognition of the need for joint cooperation in the teaching of the skills and mutual understanding of the role of each of the professionals involved.

The district's basic skills specialist acted as a resource person for the project. The interaction process, procedures and strategies were evolved and developed in conjunction with the district's curriculum guidelines.

Our first step was to identify the skills to be emphasized and incorporated into a K-4 media center program. The media specialists/librarians identified the skills they felt should be included, while the basic skills specialist developed a chart extracting those prescribed in the district's curriculum guides for reading, language arts and media center experiences.

The results from each individual's outline were combined into a single skill bank.

To develop a scope and sequence chart, the media specialists/librarians made an analysis of the identified skills and after discussion and reaction to the headings and subheadings of the concepts listed in the skill bank they filled in the resulting scope and sequence of concepts and skills for each grade level from K-4 on blank display charts. An accurate interpretation of the chart required a code: for example, the person responsible for skill development was designated as T (teacher) or M (media specialist). The instructional cycle of a skill was shown as I (initial exposure to skill), D (development of skill), or R (reinforcement of skill). (See chart, Study and Research Skill Assessment—Media.) The code also served to identify the level of involvement by the media specialist/librarian in the teaching of media skills at each grade level.

The basic skills specialist gathered the scope and sequence charts from the district's basal reading and language arts programs to compare with the chart prepared by the media specialists/librarians and devised a color-coded system to distinguish between the basals and their respective levels on the media-developed chart.

It was time to get the professionals together, personally and philosophically. The classroom teachers received blank copies of the scope and sequence chart for their input. The media specialists/librarians set up individual or grade-level conferences within each building to explain the skills chart and interpret the color code. The teachers then reacted to the chart in terms of how they perceived their role with respect to the instructional cycle in their classrooms and within their curriculum, indicating where they felt the media specialist/librarian should be a) totally involved or b) supportive to their program.

At this stage of the project the teacher charts alongside the media specialist/librarian charts the value of tandem teaching was evident. Teachers and media personnel discovered the extent of each other's efforts and recognized omissions, out-of-sequence patterns and duplication of effort that created unnecessary repetition rather than reinforcement. Each had assumed they were reinforcing certain skills when, in fact, necessary groundwork had not been prepared. Naturally they also found areas in which they had been accomplishing their goals sequentially, although it had not been a direct result of joint planning.

The need for cooperation and joint planning thus became apparent in determining who would teach the skills, when and where they would introduce, develop and reinforce the skills to ensure program continuity.

An additional benefit of the project was realized when we decided to share the chart with the middle school media personnel and teachers so they in turn could visualize the foundation and building of skills taking place at the elementary level. This provided an opportunity for them to react, adjust and plan for the higher levels of learning at each conceptual strand in the middle school curriculum.

Although the media skills and professional involvement in the in-

Literature Appreciation	
Individual Study	
Myths & Legends	
Fables	
Folktales/Folklore	
Poetry	
Drama	
Newbery Award	
Caldecott Award	
AV Production of Materials	
Non-Print Appreciation	
Thesaurus	
Fact Books, Atlases, Guinness	
General Encyclopedias	
Special Subject Dictionary	
General Dictionary	
Pictorial	
Synthesizing	
Summarizing	

structional cycle will differ, we feel the process can be used at the intermediate and secondary levels to achieve the same goals as in the elementary schools. The final plan reached within each school community for teaching in tandem will differ to some extent, but the process we have described will develop and encourage stronger bonds of communication between media specialists/librarians and classroom teachers. The students will benefit from a variety of learning strategies for research and reference skills which should heighten competence and pleasure in books and non-print materials. In turn, the media center/library will become the hub of cooperation and interaction brought about by tandem teaching.

A SHORT-CUT TO TESTING PASSAGE COMPREHENSION

J. Jaap Tuinman
Charles K. Kinzer
Neal A. Muhtadi*

In this study the feasibility of administering the Woodcock Passage Comprehension Test in written rather than oral form was examined.** In their short life the Woodcock Reading Mastery Tests (Woodcock, 1973) have quickly found wide-spread usage. A critical review of the tests by Tuinman (1978) points out various limitations to the claims made by Woodcock for his tests, but nevertheless recognizes this battery as an important and useful contribution to the field.

A feature of these tests which particularly appeals to those working with high school students is the availability of K-12 norms. In addition, the norming data provided has many unique features. Three kinds of Grade Level Scores, for example, are provided:

“Easy Reading Level, (E) the grade level at which the subject is predicted to perform with 96 percent mastery the tasks performed with 90 percent mastery by average pupils at that grade.” (Woodcock, 1973, Manual p. 32).

“Reading Grade Score, (R) the grade level at which it is predicted the subject will perform at 90 percent mastery those reading tasks on which average pupils at that grade level would also demonstrate 90 percent master.” (idem, p. 31).

“Failure Reading Level (F), the grade level at which the subject is predicted to perform with 75 percent mastery of the tasks performed with 90 percent mastery by average pupils at that grade.” (idem, p. 32).

It should be pointed out that Woodcock also presents data which seems to indicate that the E, R, and F levels closely match Bett’s independent, instructional and frustration level.

Not all of the five tests included are equally useful for, or usable by, the

---

*Dr. Tuinman is currently Professor of Education at Simon Fraser University in Vancouver, British Columbia, Past-President of the National Reading Conference and former Editor of the *Journal of Reading Behaviour*. Mr. Kinzer is Chairman of the English Department and teacher of reading at Abbotsford Junior Secondary School and Mr. Muhtadi is principal of that school.

**Permission to reproduce the test was obtained from the publisher.

pressed-for-time secondary reading specialist. The Letter Identification Test becomes fairly meaningless after the primary grades, since five (out of forty-five) items make up the difference between Grade 4 and Grade 12 placement. The Word Comprehension Test measures Verbal Analogy, which is perhaps a useful measure of a general verbal factor, but is misplaced in a reading test. The Word Identification Test (pronouncing sight words) and the Word Attack Test (decoding nonsense words) are useful, but require oral administration. So does the Passage Comprehension Test, at least as presented by Woodcock.

As mentioned above, we set out to examine the possibility of providing secondary teachers with a quick and accurate measure of passage comprehension, (one of the most meaningful reading scores) by using the Woodcock Passage Comprehension Test in written rather than in oral form.

PROCEDURE

One hundred eighth grade students were randomly selected from an eighth grade school population of 425. Half of those students were assigned to the Oral-Written (OW) group. They received Woodcock's Passage Comprehension Test (Form A) first in oral form and, after one to two days' delay, in written form. The remaining students (WO) took the same test first in written form, then in oral administration.

Oral administration proceeded according to Woodcock's directions. The student read a passage with one word deleted. He/she then told the examiner the answer.

In the written form students were supplied with an answer sheet containing 80 blanks. Since the oral administration indicated that items below 21 were too easy, students were told to begin with item 21 in the written form. Students wrote their answers in the appropriate blank on the separate answer sheet.

Woodcock recommends establishing a basal and a ceiling level by finding the points where a child makes five consecutively correct and incorrect responses respectively. The manual notes that, in some cases, this procedure results in "false" basals (i.e., the child actually can *not* do all the items below the basal) or "false" ceilings (i.e., the child *can* do some items beyond the ceiling item). Our administration of the written and oral forms clearly showed that false basal and ceiling levels are quite common.

The written tests were scored *as if* they were oral tests. That is, a basal level was established in terms of the first five consecutive correct answers. Even if some items below the basal were missed, credit was given for all items preceeding the basal. This scoring method was used to make scores on the written form comparable to those on the oral form.

Alternately, the ceiling was established by noting the first sequence of five incorrect responses. No credit was given for correct answers beyond the ceiling level.

RESULTS

For oral administration (combined over OW and WO), $X = 64.77$ and $s.d. = 9.84$. Administering the test in written form led to nearly identical results, $X = 64.86$, $s.d. = 10.40$. According to Woodcock's Manual, raw score of 65 is equivalent to an Easy Reading Level of 6.4, a Reading Grade Level of 8.7 and a Failure Reading Level of 12.9.

The product-moment correlation between the oral and written scores was .82. This value appears low if interpreted as a test-retest reliability coefficient. It is doubtful, however, that administering the test once, in a form for which it wasn't intended, influenced this coefficient. Woodcock (1973, Manual, p. 58) reports a Test-Retest Alternate Form reliability ($n = 102$) of .79. Unfortunately, no same-form test-retest coefficient is provided.

DISCUSSION

It took about 25 minutes to administer the Passage Comprehension Test in written form (as opposed to 13 minutes on the average orally). Since it is possible to test a large number of students simultaneously, the written form saves large amounts of time. We think that the resulting scores are every bit as valid as those obtained by following Woodcock's original format.

A reliability of approximately .80, with a resulting standard error of measurement in the neighbourhood of about 4, is not ideal. Six to eight raw score points ($1.5 - 2 SE$) can make a large difference in the Reading Grade Score. This is true particularly in the higher grades. This comment, however, also applies if one used the test orally, according to Woodcock's directions. The standard errors reported in the manual are based on split-half reliabilities, not on much lower test-retest coefficients.

Finally, the results of any reading test should be viewed with caution and checked against the teacher's intuition. This test is no exception. With that caveat in mind, the written administration of the Woodcock Reading Tests provides a quick and informative assessment of students' reading achievement.

The reading profession should encourage the publishers to make the test available in this form.

REFERENCES

- J. Jaap Tuinman Woodcock Reading
Mastery Tests - Review, Buros Eighth
Mental Measurements Yearbook (1978)

PSYCHOLINGUISTICS APPLIED TO READING INSTRUCTION

A Sterl Artley

PROFESSOR EMERITUS, UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI-COLUMBIA

Teachers who are doing their homework in the way of professional reading are meeting with increased frequency the word, psycholinguistics, especially as it relates to reading. One might assume that the very appearance of the word connotes some abstract body of knowledge having meaning only to language theoreticians. On the other hand it is possible that once understood, the word may be a label for a developing body of knowledge that has far-reaching implications for reading teachers. In fact, one might discover that for the most part psycholinguistic thinking puts into a new context much that has been accepted and applied by reading teachers.

Psycholinguistics - A Concept

Psycholinguistics, as the word itself connotes, is the alliance of two respected disciplines—cognitive psychology and linguistics, one dealing with the learning process and the other with language, so that one may say that psycholinguistics is concerned with the process of language learning. The union of the two disciplines is a fortunate one since it makes possible the application of concepts and understandings that were overlooked when each discipline was considered in isolation.

Within the limits of this paper it is impossible to elaborate on either the psychological or the linguistic concepts that provide the base for psycholinguistic thinking. One can say only that it is undergirded by a firm theoretical and empirical foundation. For example, only cognitive psychology emphasizes the place and importance of cognitive structures as the means by which information is acquired and organized in the nervous system, a concept which helps to explain the comprehension process. The inherent desire of an individual to make sense of one's environment relates to reading as an act of constructing meaning. The concepts relating to hypothesis testing, feedback, and redundancies have a direct bearing on word identification.

In like manner linguistics as a discipline deals with such concepts as phonemic and morphemic structures and semantic and syntactic patterns, thus contributing further to our understanding of word identification in reading. Linguistics offers an understandable explanation of a word and gives cues not only to word identification but to the place and use of words in the entire act of reading. The terms surface and deep structure (meaning) contribute immensely to our understanding and teaching of comprehension. Psycholinguistics puts concepts from the two areas together and supplies, thereby, insights and understandings that have major significance to what is involved in language learning and teaching.

One must hasten to point out, however, that there is no psycholinguistic *method* of teaching reading nor is there a psycholinguistic program of reading materials. Rather, it is a growing body of principles, insights, and understandings that a teacher may use regardless of the particular method or program of instruction being followed. In other words, psycholinguistics is not a panacea for all our reading problems. Unfortunately, however, what I seem to hear some reading people say is that most of what reading teachers have done in the past is now outmoded. If only one were to apply psycholinguistic constructs, reading success would be assured. If I am correct in this perception I greatly fear that psycholinguistics will take on all the characteristics of a cult, and like many cults of the past will be relegated to a page in a future history of reading instruction. It is the intent of this paper to point out some of the ways that psycholinguistic thinking may be woven into the fabric of what is already being done in reading.

Psycholinguistics On The Pre-School Level

Psycholinguistic thinking attaches particular significance to the language development that takes place before a child enters school. In fact one could make a defensible statement that the development that takes place toward the reading process in the years prior to the learner's entrance into school is as important as that which takes place after school entrance. Evidence coming from studies of children who learn to read by themselves before going to school is convincing and substantiates this contention. For example, all aspects of oral language development have a bearing on the reading act. Children who can communicate orally only with simple sentences, are handicapped in comprehending written sentences showing coordination and subordination. If the child cannot *think* a sequence of ideas in logical order, or *reason* a possible conclusion from a given series of events, and demonstrate these cognitive abilities either by words or overt behavior, it is going to be difficult to *read* a story whose comprehension calls for these competencies. Reading is built on a foundation of oral language and as a consequence the pre-reading activities must be rich in all kinds of experiences that give children a chance to talk, to explore language, and to respond and react to the teacher and to each other.

Because psycholinguists contend that a human being demands meaning from environment, reading, then must be an activity where the overriding purpose is to construct meaning, assuming, of course, that a meaning relevant to the reader is present to be constructed. Because word symbols serve only as stimuli to meanings (concepts) that have been established in the nervous system of the reader, it is incumbent on all teachers, but particularly teachers in the prereading program, to assume as a major responsibility the building of concepts. First, are those concepts that teachers use in giving directions *over, under, first, last, draw a line under*, etc. Teachers frequently fail to understand that many children do not have a clear idea of the meaning of commonly used words.

In addition to the concepts mentioned above are those that relate to stories read by the teacher and later the stories which the children read.

Examples of such concepts are *elf*, *wolf*, *party*, *friend*, *family*, *red*, *blue*, *apartment*, and *escalator*. Teachers must always remember that concepts are not built by giving definitions but through experiences and activities both direct and vicarious (pictures, films, etc.). Suffice it to say that unless listeners or readers have clear concepts to be "triggered off" by words, spoken or written, meaning will be either faulty or void.

Through informal activities children should also have the opportunity to experience written words and sentences as conveyors of meaning. Labels about the room - coat hooks, desks, supplies - tell children that words stand for meaning. Of course, for this purpose, nothing surpasses stories and poems read by the teacher with an opportunity for children to respond to questions which prompt recall of main ideas, the prediction of possible events, and active participation in all the thinking and reasoning processes that their own reading will demand eventually. Pupil-dictated teacher-written chalkboard "stories" and notices - the daily participants in housekeeping activities, the daily "newspaper," and the plans for the day contribute immeasurably to the growing concept of the reading process and an understanding of its importance. When all is said and done the success of the pre-kindergarten and kindergarten programs, along with the contributions made in the home, will determine the success that children will have as they move from Pre-reading to initial reading.

Psycholinguistics Word Identification

Once reading begins, one of the most important instructional tasks is that of developing competencies in the area of word identification. From the days of the Horn Book the assumption has been that word identification is the process of turning printed symbols into spoken words and spoken words into meaning. Since printed words are made up of letters which stand for sounds, the act of word identification became that of "sounding out." This "sounding out" required teaching all the letter-sound relationships along with the "rules" for determining the sounds for which letters stood, particularly vowels, as they occurred in words. Primary and elementary teachers know from experience that the teaching of phonics is not only a laborious process for both teacher and pupils but one having limited value since research shows that there are so many exceptions to the so-called phonics rules that the whole process becomes trying and confusing. Even if learned, clinics and special reading programs are filled with children who can sound out the words but still can't construct meaning.

Furthermore, psycholinguists point out that readers, young children included, bring to the reading act a group of understandings inherent in oral language which, when used for the identification of unfamiliar written words, make unnecessary the sole dependence on phonics. First, children are aware that words must go together in a prescribed order. Though the reader is unfamiliar with the rules of syntax or word order they know they must say, "The frightened boys hurried back to the tent," rather than, "Tent boys the back frightened hurried the to." They need no formal instruction on parts of speech to come to this conclusion. Yet they "know"

that adjectives precede nouns and that nouns precede verbs. Children know also that it would not make sense to read nor say, “The fried boys hurried back to the tent,” or “The frightened boughs hurried back to the tent.” Thus words must both fit the structure of the sentence and make sense. Such concepts about language, intuitively acquired in the process of learning to talk, may now be applied to the identification of unfamiliar words in the act of reading. Hence in meeting the sentence, “Jerry sat down on the _____ to his house.” The strategy that the reader applies is, “What word would fit and make sense in the sentence.” The word, *steps*, seems to meet both criteria, but the reader might conclude that the words *walk* or *porch* would also fit and make sense. A third understanding about words that the teacher will help children generalize is that words must also conform to the spelling-sound (graphophonemic) pattern of the word; therefore, noting that the word begins with *st* and the *st* sound eliminates *porch* and *walk*. Note that the reader did not “sound out” the unfamiliar word but combined three bits of information about language. Since so many words begin or end with consonants, simple graphophonemic information, chiefly in relation to consonants eliminates the necessity for learning and applying unreliable phonic “rules.”

In developing the strategies to be used in the identification of unfamiliar words as described above, the teacher must permit, in fact encourage, the reader to take chances, to try out various possible words until one is found that meets the criteria: “fit, sense, and sound.” “Read to the end of the sentence,” the teacher suggests, “and see if you can figure out what the word must be.” The teacher is asking the child on meeting something unknown in print not to randomly guess, but to infer on the basis of known language understandings.

In discussing strategies that the reader uses for the identification of unfamiliar words one might ask, “Just how important is it that the reader come up with the identical word that the author has used.” If in the illustrative sentence above, the reader thinks *home* for *house* or *porch* for *steps*, have unpardonable reading errors been committed? Neither of the substitutions would change the inherent meaning of the paragraph which described Jerry’s problem that he was trying to resolve. Hence sitting on the porch of his home makes as much sense as sitting on the steps to his house. Meaning is the important consideration in reading not word pronunciation!

Psycholinguistics - Oral vs. Silent Reading

In talking about meaning as the important consideration in reading, the issue of oral vs. silent reading arises. The two types of reading serve two entirely different purposes. Silent reading is for the purpose of constructing meaning; oral is for transmitting the meaning to interested listeners. Since meaning is the primary consideration, as psycholinguists stress, more emphasis should be given to silent reading on all levels of instruction. Oral reading (interpretation) should be used when need arises to transmit to others an interesting part of the story or to dramatize an exciting incident.

But the teacher asks, "How am I to know if the child perceives the words if I don't listen to him read aloud?" The teacher is asking the wrong question. The question should be, "How do I know if the child is constructing the meaning?" To discover this the teacher might ask the reader questions about incidents in the story or ask him to tell the story. If the teacher *must* find out if the reader knew the word, *steps*, when he said that Jerry sat on the *porch* to try to solve his problem, all that is needed is to ask the child to read aloud the one sentence in which the word appears. Now that the reader's attention is directed to a particular sentence, the chances are strong that he will say the word as it was written. But again the important matter is not where Jerry sat but whether he solved his problem.

Psycholinguistics – Voluntary Reading

It may appear unprofessional to say that good readers are not so much the result of what the teacher does during the reading period as to the amount of voluntary reading that the children do. As adults most of us could attest to this generalization. It was not the thirty minutes spent in a reading class that contributed to our growing proficiency in reading, but the amount of reading we did on our own from books and magazines in the home or school library. Psycholinguists contend that all individuals have an innate drive to make sense of their environment, to discover, to find answers to relevant questions, to attain a "state of equilibrium." Reading, then, becomes one of the major avenues through which problems are resolved, interests are met, and predictions verified. Accordingly teachers' responsibilities are to raise questions, create interests, and see that books and magazines are available to meet them. Children learn to read by reading!

Psycholinguistics – In The Content Areas

Creating a need, or in psychological terms creating a state of disequilibrium, has relevance for all kinds of reading, but particularly for reading (study) in the content areas. Frequently an assignment is made: "For the next time take to the end of the chapter." The only purpose for "taking" is to meet the teacher's requirement. No real need for information is created and motivation for problem solving is not developed. Contrast that assignment with this one: "In the last few days we have been studying life in colonial times— how people lived and worked. For tomorrow we will be studying about crime in colonial times and the types of punishment that were administered. Our problem will be to compare the kinds of crime committed and the kinds of punishment used in colonial times with those of today. In particular, 'why do you think the method of punishing criminals has changed?' " With this assignment a need is created and a problem is faced. Students use the textual material to think their way to a solution and to compare their judgments with others in the class. Study-type reading should be problem solving. Merely regurgitating the details of an assignment or telling the facts of a story is neither study nor a demonstration of comprehension.

Psycholinguists – The Nature of Words

One other psycholinguistic concept with implications for reading relates to how words are taught and learned. Words, psycholinguists contend, have relevance only as they appear in context with other words. A word is only a symbol that stands for meaning, and meaning can be attached to it only as the reader can perceive its relation to other words. Frequently words have been taught in isolation with word drill as a teaching practice. Regardless of any other consideration the teacher is giving pupils an extremely difficult task to perform since the readers must rely on sheer rote memory alone, and rote memory can be very unstable. In the second place, it is not until the word appears in context that it becomes a meaning unit. So the least the teacher can do if she feels impelled to give word practice is to place the word in a short contextual sentence or phrase. The word *from* may be confused with *farm* or *form* until it appears as, "The bird fell from its nest." The teacher will be amazed to discover the number of words, unknown in isolation, that will be known when placed in context. Words are not learned through repetition but by being met in predictable situations in content that has relevance and meaning to the reader.

Psycholinguistics And Meaning

Possibly one might summarize the relevance of psycholinguistics to reading in one sentence: Reading is the act of constructing meaning, first, foremost, and always. Whatever is done in reading should be done with that end in mind whether it is on the pre-school, primary, elementary, or secondary level. So on Monday morning it will not be necessary to make a radical change to a new reading program to capitalize on psycholinguistic concepts. One needs only to ask – "Am I helping readers enjoy the plateau of meaning or am I requiring them to struggle through the underbrush of words?"

SUGGESTED REFERENCES FOR ADDITIONAL READING

- Goodman, K. and Fleming, J. *Psycholinguistics and the Teaching of Reading*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association, 1969.
- Goodman, Y. and Watson, D. "A Reading Program to Live With: Focus on Comprehension." *Language Arts*, 54:868-879 (November-December 1977).
- Hoskisson, K. "Reading Readiness: Three Viewpoints." *Elementary School Journal*, 78:45-52 (September 1977).
- Kavale, K. and Schreiner, R. "Psycholinguistic Implications for Beginning Reading Instruction." *Language Arts*, 55:34-40 (January 1978).
- Smith, F. *Psycholinguistics and Reading*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1973.
- Smith, F. *Understanding Reading*, Second Edition. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1977.

DIFFERENTIATING TEXT ASSIGNMENTS IN CONTENT AREAS: SLICING THE TASK

John R. Readence and David Moore

UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA

There are several ways to accommodate content reading assignments with students' varied reading levels. Rieck (1977) reported that many times content teachers simply do not expect their students to read the text. She found that tests given in content classrooms often covered only material from lectures and class discussions rather than text reading. In addition, students were rarely required to discuss their assigned readings.

Completely neglecting the text is a very limited way to accommodate students' abilities, however. Forcing students to rely on lectures and discussions for information makes them dependent upon others for information. In addition, there is much material available in textbooks, and guidance may be provided to help students comprehend it.

Teachers can vary the amount of guidance students receive. For example, students can be told to read a chapter and then answer the questions at the end of it. These questions ostensibly highlight the major concepts, but little guidance is provided before or during the reading. At the other extreme, near-complete guidance can be provided. Cunningham and Shablak (1975) advocated the "Guide-O-Rama" as a means to help students selectively process text. With this method, students are carefully directed to each bit of information which the teacher considers important.

The use of study guides as described by Herber (1978) falls between the extremes of guidance mentioned above. Study guides are designed to enhance students' comprehension by focusing their attention on relevant information in the passage. They consist of questions, statements and directions interspersed throughout the text.

Post-chapter questions, guide-o-ramas and study guides can be powerful tools to enhance comprehension of text. However, the authors are aware of few sources that deal with differentiating these tools to accommodate students' divergent reading abilities. Of note is a discussion by Earle and Sanders (1973) which suggests some excellent ways to individualize certain aspects of content assignments. The authors intend to elaborate upon their discussion of dealing with a single text by developing a technique called "slicing" (Pearson and Johnson, 1978). Slicing refers to reexamining the tasks required of students in text assignments and then recasting them to ease their demands. What follows is a discussion of differentiating reading guidance for students by employing a slicing technique.

Scope of Information Search

Content textbooks are laden with facts. Since it is not feasible to teach students every concept presented, decisions regarding their relative importance are generally made. The number of concepts for which students are then held responsible determines the scope of information search.

If the concepts to be mastered are few, a limited information search is necessary; as the concepts become more numerous, the scope of the search becomes more exhaustive. An exhaustive search generally requires better reading skills than a limited one, and its negative effects on attention, motivation and retention seem fairly obvious. Therefore, teachers should slice the scope of the search according to students' abilities and work habits.

The number of concepts for which students are responsible can be readily varied by adding or deleting the number of assigned tasks on their study guides or end-of-chapter questions. Some students may be responsible for 15 concepts while others may deal with only five. These concepts may or may not be exclusive from each other. Whatever the case, whole-class discussion should follow the directed reading so that all students are exposed to the desired information.

Contrary to a common assumption, limiting the scope of information search does not mean that only literal level thinking be involved. Rather, the number of understandings is shortened and not the level. Since it seems best to involve all students at the interpretive and applied levels of comprehension (Herber, 1978), limiting higher-order reading in an attempt to reduce the scope of the search is especially misguided. In fact, slicing the scope of the search seems to enhance students' higher level reading since it focuses their thought processes on only a few topics.

Additionally, varying the scope of the search is different from varying the length of the passage to be read. Some students may be responsible for several concepts on a certain page while other students are responsible for only a few. This way, the number of assigned concepts is varied, but the length of the stimulus passage is identical.

Length of Passage

Subject matter reading assignments do not always have to cover one chapter at a time. In many cases, reading disabled students become overwhelmed by assignments covering more than five pages, no matter how limited the actual scope of the search may be.

Once the teacher identifies the important concepts of a passage, resulting assignments should balance the number of concepts with the length of text to be dealt with at a single time. Slicing reading assignments to a paragraph or section at a time might be appropriate for certain students to insure concept mastery.

Pictorial aids should also be considered as a unit of text for assignments. Authors use graphs, charts, pictures, etc. to express what might take hundreds of words. Focusing on a single pictorial aid may be an appropriate task for certain students while others may focus on the running text which elaborates upon the aid.

Information Index

Dealing with end-of-chapter questions provide teachers many opportunities to slice students' reading tasks. Interspersing questions throughout the text is one method. That is, students are directed to mark question numbers at appropriate points in their textbooks and then deal with the question at the time its number is encountered. This is often the first step content teachers will take as they begin using and developing study guides.

If students are not provided interspersed help, then an alternative in the form of an information index may be provided. Questions may be keyed to the page, section, paragraph and/or sentence where one can find literal answers or information on which answers may be based. The degree of question interspersing and information indexing may be varied according to the importance of the concept reflected in the question, the level of thinking required and students' reading ability.

Type of Vocabulary

Content textbooks include specialized, technical vocabulary as well as terms with meanings peculiar to their subject matter area. Students must be able to deal with these terms since they are the labels for the concepts being considered. Strange and Allington (1977) recommended that content teachers base their intervention in vocabulary instruction upon estimates of the decoding ease and conceptual difficulty of terms. The authors have modified Strange and Allington's classification scheme in an effort to provide further criteria for slicing reading tasks. Once new terms are classified, they may be presented to students with an instructional emphasis upon the special difficulties of each word.

Four categories of vocabulary terms are suggested. Category I words are easy to decode and easy to understand. "Barter" and "warfare" exemplify this category. They are easily decoded because they present no sound-symbol irregularities; they are easily understood because a familiar word or phrase can be supplied (e.g., barter = trade).

Category II words are easily decoded but are difficult to understand. "Recession" and "franchise" are examples of this type. While there are no phonic irregularities, it is difficult to supply a common word or phrase for these terms. Somewhat lengthy explanations of these terms are required.

Category III words are those which are difficult to decode but easy to understand. Examples of such words are "initiative" and "buoyancy." Spelling irregularities exist in both words ("tia" in initiative and "uo" in buoyancy). Nevertheless, a common word or phrase may be supplied for each word (e.g., initiative = beginning).

Finally, Category IV words represent the most difficult type of vocabulary. "Chivalry" and "nostalgia" exemplify this category. They are difficult to decode because of their phonic irregularities. Additionally, it is difficult to supply a familiar word or phrase that explains the concept each word represents. Again detailed explanation of the term would be necessary

for it to be understood. An accompanying table is provided to illustrate the categorization scheme proposed here.

	Easy Decoding	Difficult Decoding
Easy Understanding	I barter, warfare	III initiative, buoyancy
Difficult Understanding	II recession, franchise	IV chivalry, nostalgia

Categorizing words this way allows teachers to slice the task which students face when dealing with new vocabulary. By using this gauge of the difficulty of words, study guides and questions may be constructed that accommodate students' abilities to deal with the decoding as well as the conceptual aspects of terms. Words in Categories I and II allow students to concentrate on meaning since they are easy to decode. Emphasis is placed on decoding with Category III as they are easy to understand. Finally, because of the difficulty Category IV words represent, emphasis must be given to both their decoding and conceptual aspects.

Response Mode

Many questions, statements and directions designed to guide students' comprehension of text often fail because they are too diffuse. Slicing such comprehension aids can be based on a task analysis approach as suggested by Harker (1973) among others. Provided below is an example of how a diffuse question can be made more specific, thereby slicing the task.

Diffuse: What were the causes of the Civil War?

Specific: List five reasons why the South seceded from the Union.
List four reasons why the North did not want the South to secede.

It should be noted that the text from which the above question comes does not literally state the causes of the Civil War, but it does literally state the reasons called for by the specific, sliced directions. Once those reasons are listed, students can more readily infer that they were the causes of the war. Recasting higher-order questions to a literal level this way is an effective method of slicing comprehension tasks.

Another way of dealing with diffuse tasks is to rewrite higher-order questions at the same level of thinking but to require smaller amounts of information. For example, rather than asking for all the causes of the Civil War, only three may be required of poor readers and seven of good readers. This limits the scope of the search as discussed earlier.

Converting recall items to a recognition mode is another method of slicing the task. Little structure and guidance is provided by recall tasks; on the other hand, recognition items call for verification and are generally

easier to answer (Herber and Nelson, 1976). It should be emphasized that simplifying questions this way does not mean that students will deal with less important concepts, but rather, that they will be dealt with in a different way.

Recognition items may be constructed in numerous formats. First, a matching task might be considered. Students are asked to match two columns of items which may be equal or unequal in number. Using equal columns slices the task considerably; unequal columns provide more of a challenge to students.

Multiple choice items are another form of the recognition format to be considered. There is considerable structure provided by this format to help students master important concepts. Below is an example of how a recall question can be changed to a multiple choice, recognition item covering the same concept.

Original: What new problems arose in American life in the second half of the 1800's?

Multiple Choice: What new problems arose in American life in the second half of the 1800's? Place an "X" next to the correct statements.

- ☐ Trade with other nations increased.
- ☐ Much Southern property was destroyed.
- ☐ Cities became smaller.
- ☐ Few Northern soldiers had been killed.
- ☐ European countries interfered with the United States.

Multiple-choice and essay questions can require students to deal with the same concepts, but multiple-choice items present those concepts in more manageable proportions. In addition, multiple-choice questions can be sliced even further by providing an information index and by varying the number of distractors provided according to students' abilities.

Another type of recognition task is the true-false question. The multiple choice task presented above could easily be converted to true-false by changing the directions to read, "Place a 'T' for true and an 'F' for false by each statement below." Such directions often increase students critical attention to each statement.

Fill-in-the-blank, cloze-type tasks can be readily sliced. Reading passages may be taken verbatim from the text or else paraphrased and then reproduced with selected words deleted. Good readers may be assigned this as a recall task; that is, they must provide words on their own to fill the blanks. Other readers may be provided a list of correct words plus distractors to fill the blank. Poor readers may receive a randomly ordered list of correct words which equals the number of blanks in the passage.

Finally, recall questions may also be sliced by providing possible statements to be verified. Difficult, diffuse questions can be changed into statements for the students' reaction and subsequent defense. An example is provided below to demonstrate this alternative.

Original: Why was little accomplished during the administration of President Grant?

Statement: President Grant was dishonest and crooked. He was experienced in politics and able to tell good advice from bad.

In conclusion, there are numerous variables which teachers may vary while making text assignments. The variables described above, scope of information search, length of passage, information index, type of vocabulary, and response mode, may be adjusted individually or in combination to fit students' abilities. Although many students cannot master all the information in their textbooks, they can acquire some of the information with proper guidance. This is preferable to completely neglecting the textbook. Slicing comprehension tasks is suggested as an effective way to differentiate the guidance students receive as they deal with content area reading assignments.

REFERENCES

- Cunningham, D. and Shablak, S. L. "Selecting Reading Guide-O-Rama: The Content Teacher's Best Friend." *Journal of Reading*, 1975, 18, 380-382.
- Earle, R. A. and Sanders, P. L. "Individualizing Reading Assignments." *Journal of Reading*, 1973, 16, 550-555.
- Harker, W. J. "Teaching Comprehension: A Task Analysis Approach." *Journal of Reading*, 1973, 16, 379-382.
- Herber, H. L. *Teaching Reading in Content Areas*, 2nd ed. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1978.
- Herber, H. L. and Nelson, J. B. "Questioning Is Not the Answer." *Journal of Reading*, 1975, 18, 512-517.
- Pearson, P. D. and Johnson, D. D. *Teaching Reading Comprehension*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1978.
- Rieck, B. J. "How Content Teachers Telegraph Messages Against Reading." *Journal of Reading*, 1977, 20, 646-648.
- Strange, M. and Allington, R. L. "Considering Text Variables in Content Area Reading." *Journal of Reading*, 1977, 21, 149-152.

THE ROLE OF READING SPECIALIST IN DEVELOPING IEP's (INDIVIDUAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS)

Shirley B. Merlin
JAMES MADISON UNIVERSITY

Sue F. Rogers
AVERETT COLLEGE

Everywhere, supervisors, teachers and education specialists are busily engaged in inservice meetings and workshops in an effort to become familiar with writing, implementing and revising Individual Education Programs (IEP's) for children eligible or enrolled in a Special Education Program. The provision in The Education For All Handicapped Children Act, Public Law 94-142, requiring an IEP for each handicapped child has caused a great deal of activity and development in the field of Special Education.

In contrast, hardly a ripple is heard concerning IEP's in reading education forums despite the fact that reading difficulties are often a significant problem among handicapped children, particularly those diagnosed as learning disabled (LD). Informal discussion with many reading teacher/specialists reveals that while they have been informally consulted in reviewing and making suggestions for revising already developed IEP's in the area of reading, the reading teacher/specialist is not usually called upon to participate on the evaluation team which develops the IEP.

Recent changes in Health Education and Welfare Department regulations related to the diagnosis of learning disability specify the possible inclusion of remedial reading teachers on the diagnostic team. This change points to a different role for the reading teacher/specialist in the development of IEP's. Hence, reading teachers will need to become familiar with the purpose and scope of the Individualized Education Program and their role in the total effort to improve reading instruction for the handicapped.

This article will provide background information about the Individualized Education Program (IEP) requirement of Public Law 94-142 and discuss the changing role and responsibilities of reading teacher/specialists in helping to plan and implement IEP's.

IEP What Is It?

The Individualized Education Program, IEP, is a written statement developed for each handicapped student which details an individualized plan of education and the specific special and/or regular education services to be provided the handicapped student, (Education Of Handicapped

Children, August, 1977). As of October, 1977, and in the beginning of each school year, each public agency must have an individualized education program in effect for every handicapped child who is a recipient of its special education services.

Public Law 94-142 regulations specify the content of each IEP. Each must be in writing and contain statements with the following information:

- a. A statement of the child's present levels of educational performances;
- b. A statement of annual goals, including short term instructional objectives;
- c. A statement of the specific special education and related services to be provided to the child, and the extent to which the child will be able to participate in regular educational programs;
- d. The projected dates for initiation of services and the anticipated duration of the services; and
- e. Appropriate objective criteria and evaluation procedures and schedules for determining on at least an annual basis whether the short term instructional objectives are being achieved. (Education Of Handicapped Children, August, 1977).

Appropriate evaluation procedures are detailed in the regulations. The evaluation is to be performed by a multi-disciplinary evaluation team, a group of professionals, including at least one teacher or other specialist, with knowledge in the area of suspected disability.

Following the evaluation process, the individualized education program is developed in a meeting by a representative of the local education agency who is qualified to provide or supervise the provision of instruction designed to meet the special needs of the handicapped child. Included in this meeting are the child's teacher, the parents or guardian, and, where appropriate, the child.

It is evident that the procedures and content of the individualized education program differ from previous placement practices in special education or remedial programs. While the evaluation procedures and development of long term goals and short term objectives are a familiar procedure, the involvement with a multi-disciplinary team, and meetings with parents, teachers, and child to develop a written individualized educational program are practices infrequently seen in the past. Currently, special education is changing its operational procedures to comply with the law.

Changes In The HEW Regulations

Of particular concern to reading personnel are the Health, Education, and Welfare regulations published in December, 1977. These regulations specify the additional team members who can be involved in evaluating a child with a suspected specific learning disability. To be included on the multi-disciplinary team there shall be:

At least one person qualified to conduct individualized

diagnostic examinations of children such as a school psychologist, speech-language pathologist or remedial reading teacher. (Assistance to The States For Education Of Handicapped Children, December, 1977.)

Since many learning disability children have associated reading problems, it can be assumed that reading teacher/specialists will now be called upon to add their competencies in the development of the reading instruction component of IEP's. It seems evident that the role of the reading teacher/specialist will change from the predominant remedial reading teacher model in practice today.

The Changing Role Of The Reading Specialist/Teacher

The role of the reading teacher/specialist will be that of an evaluation team member where it is felt that his/her expertise will add to the competencies of the various specialists. The reading teacher/specialist will initially meet with the other team members (L.D., psychologist, principal, etc.) to help plan the diagnostic process or review the results of diagnostic testing and other pertinent information. The reading teacher will contribute knowledge in integrating reading test results with the total evaluation data. She/he will assist in developing realistic goals and in planning long range and short term objectives in reading and language arts for the child to accomplish.

The reading teacher's interpretation and plans will need to be flexible to incorporate the child's special learning problems, unique learning style and behavioral pattern that were discovered by other team members during diagnosis. It is vital for the reading teacher and all team members to understand the diagnostic findings of each team member and not to view the results within his/her own field's interpretation. This is necessary because the child may have a learning difficulty which has resulted in a reading problem. The reading problem may be remediated by adjusting instruction to accommodate the learning difficulty. Teaching techniques may need to be planned which are unusual or clinical in nature in order to help the child overcome the problem.

In summary, reading teachers will act as either diagnostician or consultant to an interdisciplinary team offering insights into the interpretation of the reading skills abilities of the student and in planning the IEP. Also, the reading teacher will be a receptive team member accepting suggestions from other team members who offer specific teaching and learning techniques.

Writing An IEP In Reading and Language Arts

The reading teacher/specialist's first step in helping to write the IEP in reading will be to discuss with the evaluation team the child's level of performance on his estimated instructional level. In addition, the child's specific reading skills strengths and weaknesses at the instructional level will be reviewed. This information will be a guide to planning the long and

short term reading objectives or what the child should be expected to learn in a specified period of time, possibly a semester. When developing long and short term objectives, the reading teacher and other members of the evaluation team will need to keep in mind the child's previous rate of learning or his basic learning capacity. In developing a specific long term objective such as "The child will learn 50 Dolch Basic Sight Words" this semester, the reading teacher would suggest that learning 3-5 Dolch words each week would be an appropriate short term objective. The same process would be applied for each major reading skill area, perceptual skills, word attack and reading comprehension, and in language arts areas, listening comprehension, spelling, alphabet and writing.

In addition, the reading teacher would include long and short term objectives on motivation or attitude towards reading and physical behavior during reading instruction. An example of a motivation and attitude objectives would be: "To increase his desire to improve his attitude." The short term objective would be "To have the student mark a chart showing his daily progress and the skills he learned as well as those he needs to improve." This shows the child what he is accomplishing and enhances his self-concept. An example of a long term physical behavior objective would be: "To hold his writing paper stationary with his free hand when writing on it." A short term objective would be "To hold the writing paper with the free hand when writing one out of three times with only one reminder."

Below is an example of an IEP for a diagnosed LD child with a reading disability. Included are long term (semester) objectives and an example of short term (weekly) objectives for each long term. Daily lesson plans with activities to use to accomplish each short term objective can be drawn up at a weekly planning session by the reading teacher.

Individualized Education Program (IEP)

Long Term Objectives for a semester (skills to improve are underlined):

1. To increase reading level in *comprehension*, *vocabulary* and *speed* by 6 months as measured by alternate forms of the initial screening tests.
2. To increase flash recognition of the *Dolch Basic Sight Words* by 50.
3. To improve *oral reading* at the student's independent reading level by pausing and using correct voice intonation at *punctuation* and increasing his *eye-voice span* to 3 words when checked.
4. To identify when heard and apply knowledge when analyzing an unknown word all single *consonant sounds*, *phonograms* as measured by the Botel Phonics Inventory and in teacher prepared tests.
5. To be able to write all lower case *letters in cursive* in sequential order.
6. To improve *eye-hand coordination* and *L-R orientation* by copying correctly (note words, punctuation, beginning capitals, etc.) a short passage from a textbook on grade level daily within a specified period of time.
7. To increase motivation and attitude towards reading and language arts by having the student mark his daily progress in each area on charts; by having him set skill and other performance goals on the charts.

8. To hold his writing paper/booklet stationary with his free hand when writing.
9. To hold the book 12 inches from his eyes when reading.

Short term (Weekly) Objectives based on the above long term objectives.

Comprehension and Speed

1. To complete all comprehension exercises with a grade no lower than with 70% accuracy within the allotted time.

Vocabulary

2. To recognize and pronounce the new vocabulary in his reading exercises.
3. To learn 3-5 Dolch Basic Sight Words.
4. To note all periods by pausing at them when reading orally.
5. To complete all phonic exercises in the *bl* and *ch* blends at an 80% mastery level.
6. To learn to write in cursive 3 new small letters *d*, *e*, and *f* by memory and to practice writing by memory *a-f* correctly and with ease.
7. To copy 10 words in 3 minutes from his textbook. All writing must be from the left to the right side of the paper.
8. To mark progress on charts after each skills exercise is completed.
9. To remember to hold reading material approximately 12 inches from his face with no more than 3 reminders daily.

Evaluation of the above long and short term objectives is built in. If the reading teacher notes that the short term objectives are too easy/difficult, she/he can adjust the objective's requirements; hence, the long term objectives would be adjusted according to the short.

The reading teacher may be involved as a team member in the planning and implementation of IEP's for diagnosed LD children. The team will be writing detailed long and short ranged objectives for each child in order to alleviate baby-sitting and basketweaving teaching situations. The specialized educational needs of these children calls for every second of time at school to be spent in structured and specific individualized programs. For this type of program, the reading teacher's expertise in the team's efforts in writing and implementing IEP's is necessary. Training for reading teacher/specialists concerning IEP's is just as essential as it has been for LD specialists.

REFERENCES

- Public Law 94-142, Education For All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, Final Regulations U.S. Office of Education, 1977.
- Education For the Handicapped: Implementation Of Part B Of the Education Of the Handicapped Act, Rules and Regulations, *Federal Register*, Vol. 42, No. 163—Tuesday, August 23, 1977.
- Assistance To States For Education Of Handicapped Children: Procedures for Evaluating Specific Learning Disabilities, Rules and Regulations, *Federal Register*, Vol. 42, No. 250, Thursday, December 29, 1977.

A MODEL FOR FACULTY IN-SERVICE IN THE SECONDARY READING PROGRAM

George M. Usova

OFFICE OF EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D.C.

The issue of developing effective in-service education within the secondary reading program is a concern for most curriculum supervisors and principals. While the reading program in the secondary school may be limited or partial in scope, the consequences of effective reading instruction extend into the content areas; consequently, all teachers need to become involved in the improvement of instruction in so far as reading affects their discipline.

All too frequently the mention of in-service evokes a negative reaction from most secondary teachers. This aversive reaction is easily understood when considering the usual procedures of in-service that have been and still are employed in most schools.

Initially, it must be pointed out that the primary objective of in-service education is for the improvement of instruction. To be certain, in-service must meet the instructional needs of the faculty; and it must be on-going.

Why then do most in-service programs fail in achieving their purposes? There is a variety of reasons which may include the following:

1. The central office decides the instructional needs of the teachers without teacher input.
2. A university specialist is hired as a consultant who delivers a half-day or day-long speech which is meaningless to most teachers.
3. In-service is held at unsuitable times, i.e., release time is not provided, sessions are too long or too short.
4. Faculty meetings are called without advance notice or planned agendas; too often trivia is discussed that might be settled by memo.
5. Instructional problems are beyond completion in the time allotted.
6. In-service education is relegated to three days before the opening of school and several teacher workshop days throughout the year.

The list of malpractices might go on. The overall central issue for sound in-service is effective leadership. Effective leadership may be assumed by any educator, but typically, it is assumed by the building principal or the curriculum supervisor. The support and leadership of the principal is essential for the success of the reading program, or for that matter, any program (Usova, 1976).

The most fruitful and beneficial form of on-going in-service must take place at the building level. It is here where instructional concerns are unique and a commonality of goals can be established. The principal must be involved with the teachers to lend support and direction. The reading

---

Note: This article was written by George M. Usova in his private capacity. No official support or endorsement by the U.S. Office of Education is intended or should be inferred.

consultant or supervisor, too, must be involved initially to establish the format for the *Structured Discussion Approach*, which is a structured framework designed to enlist faculty support and enthusiasm for sharing information and solving instructional problems.

The *Structured Discussion Approach* may be defined as an on-going in-service program where faculty members mutually decide upon the attempt to solve common instructional problems.

The S.D.A. follows a sequential five-step procedure which may be implemented by any faculty member familiar with the process. Typically, it is initiated by an educator in a leadership role – the principal, supervisor, or consultant; however, once implemented, the leadership roles may be assigned to the faculty members, either on a permanent or rotational basis.

The procedural steps of the S.D.A. are as follows:

Step 1

Identify the major instructional problems felt by the faculty. Faculty, depending upon purpose, may include the entire building faculty, content teachers and reading teachers, specific grade levels teachers, or any combination of the above. The concerns of the faculty may be solicited in a number of ways, but it is critical to the process to receive their concerns in writing. An open or structured questionnaire distributed to each faculty member can easily accomplish this purpose.

After the questionnaires are collected, the supervisor must tally the most frequently mentioned concerns, refine them into meaningful language, and rank them in order of priority. The list of concerns should contain 8-10 of the most critical problem areas; this list will therefore serve as the basis for monthly faculty meetings throughout the year.

An example of such a list appears below as a simulation.

At our first faculty meeting, the faculty of secondary reading specialists and content-area teachers identified major problem areas which were interfering with the reading-instructional process. While the problem areas were solicited individually, there was certainly a commonality of concerns for all teachers. In order of frequency, the following problem areas were identified:

1. How can the principal become involved in the reading program?
2. How can secondary students be motivated to read?
3. How can reading skills be simultaneously taught within content areas?
4. What methods of grouping can be used in the classroom?
5. What are the materials available for teaching secondary remedial readers?
6. How can the personal problems and frustrations of students' inability to cope with reading/learning be overcome?
7. How can secondary reading problems be diagnosed effectively?
8. What are the "survival skills" and how should they be taught?

The beautiful aspect of presenting such a list is that the problems

identified are those of the faculty. It is the faculty's list which allows them to feel committed to solving the problems.

Step 2

Discuss with the faculty the framework behind the S.D.A. The S.D.A. is a technique where a group of teachers attempt to solve an instructional problem primarily through the sharing of information. An agenda is prepared to guide the participants in the resolution of a designated problem. The agenda is prepared to allow participants an opportunity to prepare information to bring to the discussion. For a discussion to be fruitful and to be a learning experience, it is important for each member to be prepared to provide new information to the discussion; otherwise, the discussion becomes a sharing of ignorance.

Each discussion group or topical problem area must have the following roles assigned: leader, consultant, observer, recorder, and group members. Furthermore, each role must enact definite responsibilities.

Leader. The leader is usually elected by the group because of his/her knowledge of a topic or because of intrinsic leadership characteristics. (Initially, however, the leader would be the reading supervisor or principal who will introduce the faculty to the S.D.A. process) The roles that the leader plays are many and varied; however, to highlight the more important ones, the leader is responsible for (1) preparing the agenda, (2) keeping the topic in focus, (3) encouraging the group to make decisions, (4) avoiding the answering of questions, i.e. not in a "teaching-telling" role and (5) bringing the group to a consensus. In essence, the leader leads the group toward problem solving action through a democratic approach.

Consultant. The consultant is usually a member of the faculty (although he/she may be an invited member from outside the building) who assumes the role of having additional information above and beyond the members of the group. The consultant (1) offers added research information when necessary, (2) clarifies areas of confusion and (3) avoids dominating the discussion through "teaching-telling." In essence, the consultant is a resource person who provides valuable and pertinent information when necessary.

Observer. The observer is a member of the faculty whose primary goal is that of process observer. The observer pays secondary attention to the content of the discussion and primary attention to the how and why of the group's progress. Specifically, the observer (1) clarifies where bog-downs in the discussion occur, (2) does not allow the group to stray upon hidden agendas and (3) keeps the group on the designated time limits. In summary, the observer is concerned with preventing problems that arise in the process of the discussion.

Recorder. Every faculty discussion must have a recorder who writes, without editing, the contributions of the group members. The recorder may be called upon by any member of the group to summarize points made along the way of the discussion. While the recorder may be a participant, his/her primary goal is to write and report to the group. It is additionally

important that the recorder summarize in writing the accomplishments made by the group; the written summation gives the group a sense of tangible production and achievement.

Group Members The members of the group involve everyone in the discussion process. Briefly, each member is responsible to be prepared for the discussion, to contribute, and to ask questions on unclear points. Essentially, the participation of the group members are the central core of the discussion.

Step 3

Prepare for the outside reading phase of the S.D.A. Now that the faculty have been given a list of their problems (Step 1) and have been shown the framework of how the S.D.A. operates (Step 2), they are ready to begin reading upon the topic of their first concern.

The supervisor or principal must now take the topics and prepare a library of readings relative to the topics. These readings are the basis for faculty growth in the solving of their instructional problems. The best place for establishing a professional library may be either in the teacher's lounge or the library. After the location is decided and given the first two topics as an example, the following sources may be made available to the faculty for preparation for the respective topics:

Topic 1: How can the principal become involved in the reading program?

Fitzgerald, Increasing Communication Between Administrators and Reading Personnel. *Reading Horizons*, Fall 1977, 19-22.

Usova, High School Reading Failures: Problems and Concerns. *Reading Improvement*, Winter, 1976, 251-254.

Trubowitz, The Principal Helps Improve Reading Instruction. *Reading Horizons*, Spring, 1978, 186-189.

Usova, Avoiding Dangers in the Secondary Reading Program: The Principal's Role. *Reading Horizons*, Spring, 1978, 186-189.

Topic 2: How can secondary students be motivated to read?

Allington, If They Don't Read Much, How They Ever Gonna Get Good? *J. of Reading*, October, 1977, 57-61.

Gentile, Why Won't Teenagers Read? *J. of Reading*, May, 1977, 649-653.

McIntyre, Survival Kits for Stragglers. *J. of Reading*, May, 1977, 661-668.

Crisuolo, Convincing the Unconvinced to Read: Twelve Strategies, *J. of Reading*, December, 1977, 219-226.

Haimowitz, Motivating Reluctant Readers in Inner-City Classes, *J. of Reading*, December, 1977, 227-230.

Usova, Techniques for Motivating Interest in Reading for the Disadvantaged H.S. Student, *Reading Improvement*, Spring, 1978, 36-38.

In addition to providing the above sources, the suggested agendas below should be given the faculty members involved to guide their reading. The suggested time allotted for each item is indicated parenthetically.

Topic 1: How can the principal become involved in the reading program?

- (5) What types of reading programs are there? Describe them.
- (10) What people are responsible for program development and operation of the program?
- (15) Role-playing situation.
- (20) What are the roles of the following in a *remedial* program:
  - Principal
  - Reading teacher
  - Content teacher
- (10) What are their roles in the “reading in the content areas” program?
- (10) How can the principal become more knowledgeable about reading?
- (10) What general guidelines should be made in developing a program?

Topic 2: How can secondary students be motivated to read?

- (10) What are the values in reading?
- (20) Why do students avoid reading?
- (5) What effect does the teacher have upon negative attitudes toward reading?
- (25) What specific techniques can be used to motivate student reading?

Sufficient time should be given to the faculty members to prepare themselves for the scheduled discussion—no less than two weeks.

At this point, too, the Supervisor may wish to identify a Consultant, Observer, and Recorder to the discussion.

Step 4

Trial procedure of the S.D.A. upon Topic 1. Since the date and time for the first S.D.A. faculty meeting would have been established in advance, all faculty members involved will have had ample opportunity to prepare. The ideal rationale behind the preparation issue is that the faculty members themselves are reading up on their identified problems. This creates in their minds a commonality of goals, a mutual problem, an *esprit de corps*. The topic was not imposed but rather one that involved everyone’s input.

The discussion should progress as per agenda with the leadership roles assigned. Usually 1-1½ hours of time are needed for immersion into the topic. Tuesdays or Wednesdays appear to be the better days for holding faculty meetings (McHugh, 1972). This meeting should be relaxed and informal but coupled with a business-like atmosphere.

Step 5

Evaluate the process and understandings gained. After the discussion has ended, time should be allotted for a review of the process and an overall evaluation. The observer might be asked to respond first. The leader should attempt to elicit responses from the group members as to how they felt the meeting progressed. The two important criteria for evaluation are (1) was progress on the topic made? and, (2) were understandings gained in the discussion applicable to the program’s improvement in terms of direct classroom implementation or overall program development?

The evaluation process is a healthy one which provides a foundation for

improvement in the subsequent S.D.A. meetings scheduled throughout the remainder of the year. At times, during meetings, the group may determine other problems not covered in the agenda. Further study and exploration may be needed. Sub groups might develop to study these areas. Perhaps, too, the assigned topic may not have been adequately covered to the satisfaction of the group members. In these cases, it is necessary to either form subcommittees or continue upon the same topic at the next meeting. The key term here is *flexibility* in that the group decides whether they are satisfied or not. The group makes the decisions based upon the two criteria mentioned above.

The S.D.A. has many advantages for curing the negative reactions associated with in-service education. The approach is ideally adapted for the building level in-service but can easily be modified for the district level; the processes are the same.

The values are as follows: the faculty determines their own problems democratically, they solve their problems through outside reading and research, and they grow professionally as they become independent in determining and solving their own problems.

The Supervisor or Principal leads them through the approach several times until the faculty itself can elect its own emergent leaders. The Supervisor then may "fade gradually from the picture" allowing the faculty to work independently. The Supervisor may, from time to time, serve as a Consultant or Observer to the process. The faculty, however, is achieving independence to progress on its own.

The S.D.A. does not necessarily eliminate the expertise provided from outside consultants where necessary; it does, however, provide a framework for on-going productive in-service where the faculty has the opportunity to enhance their professional knowledge and growth to instructional problems of immediate concern.

REFERENCES

- McHugh, Walter. "Stimulating Professional Staff Development" in *Administrators and Reading* (New York: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich, Inc., 1972), p. 178.
- Usova, George M. "High School Reading Failures: Problems and Concerns," *Reading Improvement* (Winter 1976), p. 253.

NONVISUAL ASPECTS OF READING

Dr. Duane R. Tovey

THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY MANSFIELD

Psycholinguistic research has recently characterized reading as a communicative process whereby the reader predicts the thoughts of an author by sampling as little of the visual display (print) as possible (Goodman, 1967). How is it possible for a reader to predict an author's thoughts accurately without processing every segment of print? In addition to minimal visual cues, readers utilize both their oral language abilities and past experiences to predict an author's intentions assuming they share common language patterns and experiences. For example, read the following cloze passage.

The boy ran and ----- into the pool. The ---- problem was that he ---
--- to take his clothes ---. His mother was really ----- with him for
getting --- new clothes wet.

Were you able to tell which words were missing? Were you using your knowledge of language and the world? Ask friends to do the exercise also then compare your results. Were your predictions reliable?

It would appear that readers do not depend solely on the visual aspects of reading, but also make use of their non-visual understandings of language and the world to decode print. Meaning is not found in the ink it is in the minds of readers and writers. Obviously, the reading act is dependent on visual symbols; but, on the other hand, symbols are meaningless if the reader does not relate such print to his past experiences and language. Because symbols are completely dependent on thought to bridge the gap between intrinsically meaningless print and meaning, it would appear that reading is mostly a nonvisual activity.

*Nonvisual Components and Their Implications for Instruction**

If reading is mostly a communicative/nonvisual process, what are the nonvisual components of reading and what implications do they hold for instruction? The remainder of this article deals with a discussion of seven of these components which appear to be prerequisite to successful reader-author communication. Each of the items discussed is followed by suggestions for implementing such ideas in the classroom.

1. *Desiring to Know.* Human beings seem to be born with a desire to know. From the first day of life, babies begin interacting with their environment. By the time children enter school they not only know a great deal about their physical and social world but have also acquired most of

---

*The term nonvisual as used in the following discussion refers to any aspect of reading except the visual sensations received from print and their transmission to the brain.

the significant language patterns of their community. It would appear that most of the language learning that takes place before school entry is acquired informally and motivated by children's real needs whether they be physical, intellectual or emotional.

Effective language learning in school is also dependent on a child's need to communicate with others "face to face" or vicariously in the context of meaningful learning experiences and/or social situations. When a child reads, will he be inclined to predict the thoughts of an author if he doesn't want to know what the author is communicating? Don't children read best when the text relates directly to their perceived needs and interests?

Implications for Instruction: Wanting to know is probably one of the most important factors underlying successful reading. Therefore, provide children with a wide array of children's books based on highly diversified topics which increases the probability of children locating books they want to read. The "magic moment" for the reluctant reader is when he encounters that "special" book which makes reading "come alive" for him. Providing children with motivating materials is critical if they are to succeed—not because such an idea is "educationally in," but because the desire to know is necessary if children are to read/predict the author's message successfully.

2. *Understanding the Nature and Purpose of Reading.* Downing (1970), Reid (1966), Vygotsky (1962) and Tovey (1976) suggests that many beginning readers experience difficulties learning to read partly because they do not understand the purpose and nature of reading. That is, reading is a communicative process whereby the reader communicates with an author by silently viewing as little of the visual display as possible to determine the authors thoughts not "sounding-out" words, talking, spelling, breathing and so on (Tovey, 1976). Children seem conditioned to view reading as an oral activity rather than a silent-visual process (Tovey, 1976). Instruction that stresses the oral-mechanical aspects of reading but fails to emphasize reading as a silent communicative process oftentimes confuses children, which may in turn bring on a sense of purposelessness, futility and/or failure.

Implications for Instruction: An effective way of helping children understand the purpose and nature of reading is through the use of short selections and the "Three Step Format." That is, after giving children short selections of high interest such as comic strips, cartoons, paragraphs from magazines and so on, ask: (Step 1) "Are there any words you don't know? If so, ask and I will help you!" (Step 2) "Read the selection *silently*." (Step 3) "Tell me what the selection was about in your own words."

Soon children learn that they are expected to get meaning from print (Step 3). This process conditions children to search for meaning whenever they view print instead of trying to "sound-it-out." Success will be realized if this approach is used frequently enough and its purpose is understood. These brief and enjoyable reading selections help children overcome their erroneous concepts of reading and discover its real purpose by having many

successful reading experiences. Soon, whenever these children see print they will think of meaning not sound.

3. *Perceiving Oneself as a Reader.* Children who have experienced reading difficulties many times develop negative attitudes toward reading and their ability to read. Doesn't a student's perceptions of his ability to read affect his reading performance?

Implications for Instruction: Many children do not perceive of themselves as readers because they have never found a book they can read and want to read. Contrarily, in graded systems, students are often expected to read materials which are too difficult and of little personal interest. They have been convinced that they cannot read because of the many times they have experienced failure. Reading must be easy. If a book can't be found with print that a child can process easily, use dictation. That is, children learn to read by reading stories they have dictated to their scribe/teacher.

If children have enough successful and enjoyable reading experiences they will begin perceiving themselves as readers. Why aren't books matched to students' interests and abilities to a greater degree?

4. *Reading for Meaning.* Traditional reading instruction has emphasized the learning of sound-symbol relationships in order to "sound-out" words within sentences to produce meaning. Consequently, it seems that many teachers have encouraged their students to "read" by pronouncing each letter and/or word "correctly" and precisely in order to keep the meaning intact.

More recent research findings (Smith, 1975), however, suggest that readers begin with meaning rather than with the pronunciation of words. Smith claims that the pronunciation of many words is not possible before children are aware of their grammatical function and meaning in the text. For example, "How is h-o-u-s-e pronounced?" One really doesn't know until it is in the context of a sentence such as, "John's family bought a new house," or "They can house six people in their travel trailer." Single words are not language. They must be processed with other words before their meaning and/or pronunciation becomes apparent. Reading is intrinsically a meaning-centered activity.

Implications for Instruction: The problems inherent with "sounding-out" words one by one to derive meaning from print (Smith, 1975) seems to negate the value of "round-robin" reading which appears to emphasize the naming of words rather than "zeroing-in" on meaning. In "round-robin" reading children take turns reading aloud to assure their teacher that they know all the words. Not only is such a process ineffective, it seems to condition children to think of reading as an oral activity.

Therefore, silent reading needs to be stressed. Meaning should be valued more than the correct and precise pronunciation of each letter and/or word in the text. Good readers often substitute, add and delete words in the text, but rarely alter meaning significantly. Children can read for meaning if they understand the purpose of reading and are given guidance in selecting books they want to read and can read.

5. *Sharing Common Thoughts and Experiences with an Author.* If

children are to interact with the thoughts of an author, it is critical that they have “lived” the thoughts and experiences reflected in the text. Readers have difficulty communicating with an author regarding thoughts and experiences they have not had. Many times difficulties diagnosed as reading problems are really learning problems. That is, children must internalize the thoughts of the author through concrete and subsequent oral-aural experiences before trying to attach meaning to graphic symbols which represent such ideas.

Implications for Instruction: If reader-author thoughts and experiences are to be matched, a self-selection process for choosing books seems imperative. Materials that interest children will probably reflect their thoughts and experiences also. Students are usually interested in topics with which they are familiar and knowledgeable. Yet, relatively few reading programs seem to be based on these assumptions. Is it likely that every boy and girl in a reading group would choose the same book if given a choice? Each child should have the opportunity of choosing books from a wide range of titles and reading levels. Besides having many books available, young readers should be exposed to newspapers, a variety of magazines and other reading materials of interest.

6. *Sharing Common Language Patterns with an Author.* Reading is facilitated when the language patterns of the text match those of the reader. In a pluralistic society, however, many children come to school speaking various dialects. What happens when these students read Standard English? What effect does divergent linguistic behavior have on a child's reading?

Children, who use language patterns which do not match or complement those of the author, will probably experience some difficulty reading. However, because of the extraordinary linguistic competencies most children possess, the mismatch is not as critical as one might believe. For example, a black child reading, “Henry went to the store,” might read, “Henry, he be going to the store.” Such reading behavior, however, should not be viewed as deficient as it exemplifies second language learners' exceptional linguistic abilities. They not only derive meaning from the text as it is printed but also translate it into their own language patterns.

Implications for Instruction: Every effort possible should be made to match reading materials to children's language patterns. However, if this is not possible, the reading behavior of dialect speakers should be accepted—the reader and author are communicating. Furthermore, such reading behavior needs to be understood and respected as a demonstration of children's highly developed linguistic competencies and not be perceived as deficient reading. The reading patterns of such children will slowly change as they internalize the phonology and grammar of their second language more fully by interacting with Standard English speakers aurally-orally.

On the other hand, for children who speak Standard English, matching materials to their language patterns is not such a problem if they read books that interest them. As stated previously, selections which interest children

usually reflect their thoughts and experiences which in turn are represented by familiar language patterns. Experience, thought and language seem to be interrelated and inseparable.

7. *Predicting an Author's Message.* How many teachers think of reading as a predictive process using as little visual information as possible? How many children are taught to view reading in this way? It would appear that most children eventually become fluent readers/predictors in spite of instruction they receive. Most, however, would probably learn to read faster and more easily if they viewed reading as a silent process of deriving meaning from print without processing every letter and/or word. As stated previously, children are able to predict an author's thoughts without viewing every segment of print because of their implicit knowledge of syntax (rules for combining words into sentences) and semantics (meaning aspects of language). Why aren't children encouraged to view reading as a predictive process?

Implications for Instruction: Predictive abilities can be improved by stimulating children to read books that are of interest and not too difficult. "Not too difficult" refers not only to the complexity of language but also to the amount of print on a page or in a book. When confronted with a "thick book" many children are overwhelmed before they start, even though they could process the material if it were presented to them in smaller units. Children need to read many "thin books" to build their confidence and competencies as readers. Reading must be "easy" if children are to become involved maximally in the predictive process. Otherwise, they become discouraged and resort to "sounding-out" words one by one.

Children can also be conditioned to use their knowledge of language (syntax) and the world (semantics) to predict unknown words they encounter. For example, when children ask, "What word is that?", instead of telling them, ask, "What do you think it is?" This forces them to use their syntactic and semantic knowledge to predict the unknown word. If the child still doesn't recognize a word such as "licked" in the sentence, "The brown bear licked the honey," ask him, "What do bears do with honey?" You might also ask him to read the rest of the paragraph or page to see if he can discover the idea that "l-i-c-k-e-d" represents.

In Closing

This discussion is not presented as a comprehensive treatment of the nonvisual aspects of reading. It does suggest, however, that (1) these nonvisual elements are prerequisite to successful reading and (2) traditional reading instruction has overemphasized the visual and needs to be reevaluated according to the psycholinguistic nature of the reading process.

This point of view is also supported by Kolers (1968) in an article entitled "Reading is Only Incidentally Visual." He recommends

. . . that the teaching of reading move away from the purely visual and purely geometric—even from the symbol-sound relations that are now being taught—and emphasize the clue-search for information-extracting characteristic of reading.

It should not be inferred from this discussion, however, that the visual aspects of reading are unimportant. That would be absurd. Traditionally, however, reading instruction has tended to overemphasize the visual, thus implying that meaning is found in the ink/print. In turn, the function of the eye seems to have been viewed, consciously or not, as receiving and then communicating such meaning to the brain. Eyes can neither receive nor communicate meaning; their role is to receive visual sensations which are transmitted as impulses to the brain where they are processed into meaning. Eye movements are initiated and guided by cognitive activity, not the reverse. Therefore, the symbolic role of the visual aspects of reading (print) should not be confused with the nonvisual reality and dynamics of thought and language which makes reading possible.

REFERENCES

- Downing, J. "The Development of Linguistic Concepts in Children's Thinking." *Research in the Teaching of English*, 4, 4-19, 1970.
- Goodman, K. S. "Reading: A Psycholinguistic Guessing Game." *Journal of the Reading Specialist*, 4, 126-135, 1967.
- Kolers, P. A. "Reading is Only Incidentally Visual." In K. S. Goodman + J. T. Fleming (Eds.), *Psycholinguistics and the Teaching of Reading*. Newark, Del.: International Reading Ass'n., 1968.
- Reid, F. "Learning to Think About Reading." *Educational Research*, 9, 56-62, 1966.
- Smith, F. "The Role of Prediction in Reading." *Elementary English*, 1975, 52, 305-310.
- Tovey, D. R. "Children's Perceptions of Reading." *The Reading Teacher*, 29, 536-540, 1976.
- Vygotsky, L. *Thought and Language*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: The M.I.T. Press, 1962.

WEIGHTING MISCUES IN INFORMAL INVENTORIES: A PRECAUTIONARY NOTE

James V. Hoffman

THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT AUSTIN

Pretest

Analyze this transcript of a student's oral reading and then respond to the four questions that follow.

Oh   Showed
"Look, Jack!" *shouted* Tom.
                             these   would
"Look at *those* wheels! It *will* be easy to move the snowman on them."¹

1. How many miscues did the student make? _____
2. How many errors did the student make? _____
3. Given a continued pattern of performance, does this level of text seem appropriate for guided reading instruction? _____
4. How might instruction be adapted to meet this student's needs?

A Prologue

Even among those who are not readily in agreement with the numerous implications for instruction being put forward in the name of a "psycholinguistic" model of reading, there is substantial support for the constructive dialogue and spirited interactions which have been generated. The enthusiasm of some, however, has, at times, been taken to such extremes that the reality of the classroom has all but been ignored. Recently, for example, my students encountered some difficulty in reconciling certain practical applications of miscue techniques with another fundamental precept of reading instruction; that is, the critical role of successful practice in connected reading toward the development of proficiency. This conflict is disturbing. Whether these concerns are real or imagined, significant or inconsequential is the topic of this brief presentation.

Some Background: Quantitative vs. Qualitative Assessment Techniques

Error analysis as applied to measurement in oral reading has a time-honored history (see Beldin, 1970). Prior to the mid-1960's it tended to focus generally on quantitative aspects. That is, a simple count of the number and frequency of errors in relation to the amount of text read. One application of this form of analysis was the development of the Informal Reading Inventory (IRI). Although the source for criterion levels of per-

---

¹From Friends Old and New (Scott, Foresman) 2¹ Level.

formance is obscure and validating research to support them scant, there is surprising agreement among the experts on accuracy standards for independent, instructional, and frustration levels. Powell and Dunkeld (1971) comment on the remarkable persistence in the reading literature of the Bett's 95% word accuracy score for the instructional level. Of the eleven authorities they examined who had written in this area, only two seemed to stray far from this criterion score: Smith (1959) and Powell (1969) – and then only at the primary levels. There appears to be a somewhat greater degree of agreement on what these levels are than on the more basic question of what to count as an error when computing these scores. The classification of error types into categories is relatively straightforward. Substitutions, omissions, and words supplied are commonly recognized as definite errors, while the treatment of corrections, repetitions, and insertions varies considerably in terms of whether or not they are counted depending on whose guidelines one chooses to follow.

Informal reading inventories have found many levels of application in the classroom ranging from individual clinical diagnosis to placement in practice materials by the classroom teacher. Many authorities regard this latter task as one of the teacher's foremost responsibilities in reading instruction (Harris, 1961; Botel, Brudley, and Kasuba, 1970). Such emphasis has at its source first the awareness that optimum gains in achievement are made by pupils when reading materials are adjusted to their level of ability; and second, the understanding that the selection of inappropriate materials may be in the long run a major contributing cause of reading failure.

Goodman (1967) has defined a miscue in oral reading as an observed response which differs from an expected response. On the surface, the introduction of this term alone added little to the literature other than a new label for what had been previously referred to as an oral reading error. In descriptive, operational terms a miscue and an error are equivalent – an observed response which differs from an expected response. The significance of Goodman's work rests on the theoretical foundation and techniques for qualitative analysis which are applied to these deviations. As Goodman has expressed on numerous occasions, the term miscue is better suited than error to such a form of analysis, because it lacks the negative overtones that the student has done something wrong and also emphasizes that the direction of the analysis is positive, i.e., looking for what the student is cueing on to discover his strengths. The development of the Reading Miscue Inventory (Goodman and Burke, 1972) has extended miscue techniques from the research arena to the classroom. The potential for these qualitative techniques of analysis are far reaching both in relation to instructional programming for individual children as well as providing a new insight into the nature of the reading process itself.

The Problem

It was perhaps inevitable, as a result of their shared focus, that these two forms of analysis – quantitative (IRI) and qualitative (miscue) – would ultimately result in confusion and in some cases conflicting interpretations.

Does such conflict pose a serious problem? Are misguided interpretations leading to counterproductive decision making on the part of classroom teachers? Under careful analysis the potential dangers are readily apparent.

Smith (1971) stresses again and again the primary role of frequent successful practice (i.e., reading in real books) in the development of reading proficiency. Decisions made by teachers as to the appropriateness of materials for such practice are, therefore, crucial ones. For all its frailty, an informal reading inventory is the starting point for a large number of informed, well-intentioned classroom teachers. Those teachers who allow qualitative considerations, such as the appropriateness of meaning, to substantially influence what they score as an error will tend to disregard certain miscues which might otherwise be counted. The net effect will be to inflate percent accuracy levels. Teachers who score on a more rigid basis where each deviation from the text is counted will tend to deflate the percent accuracy score. This process can be illustrated using the transcript presented earlier in the pretest. There is a total of 18 words in this portion of the text. From a rigid, quantitative perspective this student has made four errors (a 71% level of accuracy). If, however, one ignores errors which do not change meaning substantially, it's conceivable that we could judge this student as having made no errors at all (a 100% level of accuracy). While only a small portion of text is given, even in an expanded inventory it would take relatively few such "qualitatively" influenced decisions to move percent accuracy levels from one criterion level (i.e., frustration or instructional) to another (i.e., instructional or independent). There is a parallel phenomenon in the scoring and interpretation of cloze tests. Scoring by synonym replacement will yield higher percent accuracy scores than when an exact replacement criterion is used. While it is generally conceded in the interpretation of cloze test results regarding appropriateness of materials that scoring by synonym requires different criterion levels than scoring by exact replacement (Ruddell, 1964; Miller and Coleman, 1967), no parallel adjustments have been made to the IRI criterion levels when qualitative considerations are given.

If we picture frustration, instruction, and independent levels as on a continuum with respect to a given student's ability level, we will find that teachers who are influenced by qualitative considerations will tend to place students more toward their frustration level. Teachers who operate with more rigid criteria for errors will tend to place students more toward their independent level. To an educator, sensitive to the role of successful practice, the latter seems both more defensible and easier to work with. Granted, for the diagnostic teacher, placement vis a vis an IRI is only a starting place for more complex decisions such as how instruction might be adapted to meet the needs and strengths of individual students. Nevertheless, these decisions are more easily considered in the context of student success rather than frustration surrounding inappropriate initial placement in practice materials.

More support for the adoption of a stringent criterion level is suggested in research underway at the Research and Development Center for Teacher

Education at the University of Texas at Austin. Preliminary findings seem to indicate that students in classes of teachers identified as more effective tended to make fewer oral reading errors than those students in classes of those teachers identified as less effective (Anderson and Everston, 1978). One very strong hypothesis for explaining this phenomenon is that the more effective teachers tended as a group to place their students in practice materials closer to their independent level than did the less effective teachers.

The Future

It is difficult to ascertain how widespread an influence miscue analysis has had on the scoring of IRI's and placement in materials, but there are at least superficial indications that it is growing. More basic textbooks on reading methods (e.g., Guszak, 1970) are suggesting we take into consideration whether a miscue has substantially affected meaning before counting it as an error on an IRI. Pikulski (1974), without providing specific guidelines, suggests the weighting of errors in line with miscue analysis procedures before they are counted and compared with criterion levels. How many readers of this article, after examining the transcript in the pretest, concluded that the student under consideration made no errors? While this increased sensitivity to what the reader is doing right is encouraging, it would be inappropriate to take this observation to its next logical step and conclude that the material is at his independent level.

There is no question that qualitative techniques of assessment such as miscue analysis are a far richer source of information for the discerning teacher than simple error counts. Qualitative techniques are revealing of ways in which instruction might be adapted to meet specific student needs. It would appear advisable, however, that until such time as we are able to demonstrate how qualitative analysis can better meet demands for accurate placement of students in instructional materials than simple quantitative analysis, we should strive to keep the two procedures as separate and distinct as the purposes for which they are used.

REFERENCES

- Anderson, Linda M., and Everston, Carolyn. An experimental study of effective teaching in first-grade reading groups. The Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, The University of Texas at Austin, R & D Report No. 4072, 1978.
- Botel, Morton; Bradley, John; and Kashuba, Michael. The validity of informal reading testing. in William K. Durr (Ed.) *Reading Difficulties: Diagnosis Correction, and Remediation*. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1970, pp. 85-103.
- Goodman, K. S. Reading: a psycholinguistic guessing game. *Journal of the Reading Specialist*, 1967, 4, 126-135.
- Goodman, Yetta M., and Burke, Carolyn L. *Reading Miscue Inventory*. New York: MacMillan Company, 1972.
- Guszak, F. J. *Diagnostic Reading Instruction in the Elementary School*. New York: Harper and Rowe Publishers, 1972.

- Harris, Albert J. *How to Increase Reading Ability*. New York: Donald McKay Co., 1961.
- Miller, G. R., and Coleman, E. B. A set of thirty-six prose passages calibrated for complexity. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Behavior*, 6, 1967. 851-854.
- Pikulski, John. A critical review: informal reading inventories. *Reading Teacher*, Vol. 28, No.2, November, 1974, 141-151.
- Powell, William R. Reappraising the criteria for interpreting informal inventories, in Dorothy DeBoer (Ed.) *Proceedings of the Thirteenth Annual Convention*. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1969, pp. 100-109.
- Powell, William R., and Dunkeld, Colin G. Validity of IRI reading levels. *Elementary English*, Vol. XLVIII, No. 6, October, 1971, pp. 637-642.
- Ruddell, Robert. A study of the cloze comprehension technique in relation to structurally controlled reading material. *Proceedings of the International Reading Association*, 1964, 9, 298-302.
- Smith, Frank. *Understanding Reading*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1971.
- Smith, Nila B. *Graded Selections for Informal Reading: Diagnosis for Grades 1 Through 3*. New York: New York University Press, 1959.

THE READING CENTER: A VALUABLE IN-SERVICE RESOURCE

Nicholas P. Criscuolo

SUPERVISOR OF READING, NEW HAVEN (CONN.) PUBLIC SCHOOLS

As school systems across the country add reading personnel, there is an increasing need for space in individual schools where they can work with children. Older buildings are more crowded than newer ones, since ancillary personnel have increased and the older buildings cannot accommodate them. Newer buildings do have extra rooms where reading teachers can set up reading labs and resource rooms. The situation is not as crucial as it once was, however, as declining enrollments have resulted in unused classrooms which have now been assigned to reading teachers where they can work in adequate surroundings.

In addition to these reading rooms, there needs to be a central facility for the entire reading staff. This type of facility, which should be centrally located in the school district, is often referred to as a Reading Center. It should not be confused with the type of facility operating in some school systems where children go for diagnostic screening. As used in this article, the Reading Center is a place where reading teachers can meet as a staff to discuss their experiences and conduct meetings which help them keep abreast of the latest developments in the field of reading.

In the New Haven public school system, a Reading Center has been set up at the Betsy Ross Middle School. Monthly staff meetings are held for both elementary and secondary reading teachers. Because of the large staff (41 members), it is not feasible to meet as a total group, although occasional meetings of the entire staff are held there.

The meetings held for reading personnel should be varied and planned carefully. Sales representatives can visit occasionally to display and discuss new materials and programs. Reading teachers can demonstrate some successful programs and approaches they have been using. Various school personnel i.e., Superintendent of Schools, Director of Curriculum can also be invited to discuss the reading program and exchange information with the staff. Members of the Board of Education as well as members of the community can also be invited to attend a reading staff meeting.

One technique the author has used successfully with his staff is to assign a journal article from a recent issue to a reading teacher who summarizes its contents. This keeps the staff aware of current issues in the reading world and often leads to a lively exchange of ideas.

The Reading Center is also a depository for books, kits and reading materials. Both classroom teachers and reading teachers visit the Reading Center and borrow the materials for use in the schools. They sign for the materials and are allowed to keep them for an unspecified period of time. All materials are returned to the Center at the end of the school year.

Professional books and magazines are also available at the Reading Center for teachers who are enrolled in graduate courses or engaged in independent research to use. There is also a Reserve Shelf which has single copies of the latest basal series. These materials do not circulate. Additionally, the Reading Center has an extensive file of the latest publishers' catalogues which are used frequently by principals and reading teachers when ordering materials. This file of catalogues is kept up-to-date so that current prices can be quoted.

More than a meeting place, the Reading Center also produces materials for the in-service development of both reading and classroom teachers. This material is written by staff members and published by the New Haven Reading Department. These materials consist of booklets, pamphlets, bulletins, brochures, etc. which are distributed to New Haven's 1,200 teachers. The following types of materials are available:

1. Questions Parents Ask About Reading
2. Enrichment Ideas in Reading
3. Guide to the Secondary Reading Program
4. Guidebook to Tutorial Programs in Reading
5. 120 Ideas to Motivate Reluctant Readers
6. Reading Readiness Activities
7. Reading Recipes for Parents
8. Homework Resource Activities Booklet
9. How You Can Help Your Child in Reading

These materials are popular because they offer specific, concrete ideas for skills development. Many of the titles need to be reprinted annually.

Several members of the Reading Department have been successful, on a competitive basis, in securing Title II Right to Read "mini grants" for reading. These grants carry a stipend of \$1,500 and are awarded by writing an acceptable proposal dealing with creative ways to motivate youngsters to read through a variety of media and subject-matter disciplines.

Reading staff members, who are also recipients of these grants, are now working on producing a filmstrip at the Reading Center which describes the content and conduct of each grant, highlighting its creative elements. The voice of the reading specialist is synchronized with the filmstrip. This filmstrip will be shown to PTA groups as a public relations effort and school staffs so that these elements can hopefully be incorporated into many classroom reading programs.

Workshops are also held at the Reading Center. New materials are displayed and discussed. Additionally, make-it-and-take-it workshops are held where various reading games and learning devices are exhibited and explained. Materials such as construction paper, tagboard, glue, and newsprint are then provided for the teachers to make these devices and take back with them for use with the children in the schools.

Every school system should have a Reading Center, as it serves a real need. Surprisingly, many school systems do not have such a facility. In addition to providing a home for reading personnel which establishes a feeling of group-identity, it produces materials and conducts activities which foster professional growth and in-service development.

READING AND THE WITHDRAWN CHILD

L. D. Briggs

EAST TEXAS STATE UNIVERSITY

Sherri Skelton

GARLAND PUBLIC SCHOOLS, TEXAS

The emotional state of a poor reader may provide important insights into the causes of the child's reading problems. The teacher can attempt to find the source of the reading problems by observing the child's behavior and by determining the child's emotional stability. Once a diagnosis has been made, the teacher can begin a program of remediation with the goals of emotional stability and reading progress in mind.

Children who withdraw from academic activities and social interaction can severely retard their reading development. Many children with emotional problems tend to withdraw; therefore, the teacher must be aware of the causes of withdrawal and the characteristics of the shy, withdrawn child.

Causation

Many children withdraw as a result of happenings in the home. Naturally, the family provides the foundation for the social and emotional development of the children. Parents are interested in helping their children with school work; but "many parents are unskilled in teaching specific reading techniques, and emotional tensions may arise which affect both parent and child" (Russell, p. 579). Consequently, the seemingly insignificant incidents in the home can have lasting social and emotional effects on the young child — perhaps causing her/him to withdraw.

Broken homes have become increasingly common in our society. In fact, more than one million homes were broken by divorce in the United States in 1975 (U. S. Bureau of Census, p. 68). Excluded from this figure, of course, were separations, desertions, and other breakups which did not result in divorce. There is no question that a broken home puts a burden on a young child. As a result of a divorce, the child may lose physical and emotional contact with one or both parents. The effects of this loss are compounded if the child does not understand or accept the reason behind the breakup of the marriage; and, though unfortunate, many children do not understand why they are deprived of natural parents and a normal home.

However, the child from a broken home may be more fortunate than the child who is physically and emotionally abused by her/his natural parents. Statistics of abused children are overwhelming. In 1975 there were 46 million children aged three to seventeen living with both parents; of this number, it was estimated that at some time during their lives, 3.1 to 4 million children were kicked, bitten, or punched, and 1.4 to 2.3 million

were beaten up (Brenton, p. 51). While the physical aspects of this type of abuse are easily recognized, the more serious emotional effects are often difficult to ascertain. Nevertheless, the abuse can have drastic emotional effects that can severely impair the child's ability to function normally in the classroom.

Although not being physically abused, the child may have other problems that produce emotional upheavals. The parents may put excessive pressure on the child to achieve at an unrealistic level. As a result, the child could feel inferior and could withdraw from academic activities and peer relationships.

On the other hand, the parents may have a *laissez-faire* attitude and show no interest in the child's school work. The child may become distressed if her/his parents do not praise her/him for successes or show concern when academic problems are encountered.

The relationship with siblings is also a possible basis for the child's withdrawal problem. Unjust sibling rivalry and the resultant feelings of inferiority and inadequacy may have tremendous effects on the child's emotional stability. Too often, parents praise the child who excels and condemn the child who falls short of academic excellence. Some parents tend to show more love for and greater acceptance of an academically successful child.

Children may become withdrawn as a result of the school setting. Teachers, whether knowingly or not, often show favoritism toward certain children. Whereas, other neglected children may be the ones who actually need the most support from the teacher. Also, the teacher may put undue pressure on children to achieve beyond their abilities. The teacher may "try to force the child to adjust to the curriculum rather than adjusting the curriculum to the child" (Bond & Tinker, p. 139). Therefore, the teacher may be the cause of the problem s/he seeks to eliminate.

Competition from classmates may be viewed as an extension of sibling rivalry, and thus the child's feelings of insecurity continue to be fostered from grade to grade in school. This is certainly true if the teacher allows and encourages unfair competition to take place in the classroom. The teacher should not indulge in "such practices as having all students in a group read the same book at the same time, having all in a group learn the same skills at the same time, and labeling those who do not learn in the specified time as failures" (Wilson, p. 66). The less adept child could feel inferior, unsuccessful, and could withdraw if s/he were forced to compete with academically superior peers.

Society, as a whole, can also cause its younger members to develop deep emotional disturbances. The tempo of modern living in the United States is possibly faster than it has ever been. Everyone is urged to keep up or be lost in the hustle and bustle of everyday life. There seems to be no place for the laggard or the normally slow child.

Today's society is characterized by materialism. The economically disadvantaged child may feel severely inferior when others are praised for their toys, clothes, or other possessions. The child can react in an extreme

manner by withdrawing completely from contact with others, therefore avoiding a comparison with them. If society continues to be materialistic, children from poorer environments will continue to suffer emotional stress.

Being pushed to perform at an unattainable rate and level, the slow learner is unable to bear the pressure put on her/him by parents, teachers, and peers. As stated by Smith and Johnson, "Children who are unable to meet their parents' or teachers' expectations in reading have a reading problem" (Smith & Johnson, p. 33). Therefore, the fast pace of school and society may directly impose additional stress and strain on the already frustrated child. Under these conditions, the child is apt to have emotional problems which can cause her/him to withdraw.

The Withdrawn Child

There are several specific characteristics that identify a withdrawn child:

1. The child feels inferior or insecure, and withdraws from group and other socializing activities.
2. The child indulges in fingernail biting, fidgeting, pencil chewing, and other overt manifestations of anxiety and tension.
3. The child stutters and uses a high-pitched voice when reading.
4. The child has unreasonable fears and feels unsure, rejected, perplexed, and embarrassed.
5. The child feels that s/he has few if any friends; and, thus feeling socially isolated, the child clings to the teacher for emotional support.

After recognizing that the child is withdrawn, the teacher is faced with the task of trying to solve the child's problem. Naturally, the teacher must examine her/his own behavior to insure that s/he is not the source of the child's problem or does not contribute to it. In other words, the teacher should be part of the solution and not part of the problem. Although unable to do anything about the child's home background or the effect that society has on the child, the teacher can change or manipulate the classroom environment to minimize emotional stress and maximize good experiences. There are some definite actions that the teacher can take to deal with the problem:

1. The teacher should be impartial and not show favoritism. Professional responsibility requires that the teacher accept the unacceptable, love the unlovable, and, perhaps, tolerate the intolerable.
2. The teacher should encourage self competition through self-evaluation. The child should use her/his previous performance as a measuring stick to gauge present success; this would be a meaningful, realistic assessment of growth. The child should be aware of her/his academic progress, and the teacher should capitalize upon every opportunity to develop this awareness. A good maxim for this situation would be "nothing promotes academic growth like the knowledge of scholastic achievement."
3. The teacher should not pressure children to achieve at levels beyond

their capacities. Although the teacher should be an eternal optimist in assessing potential, s/he should use discretion in determining attainable levels of academic excellence. However, the teacher must have and express expectations beyond the children's current levels of achievement to activate a rather potent tool in teaching — self-fulfilling prophecy.

4. The teacher should not force a child to perform tasks that could result in feelings of inferiority. A peer audience puts additional pressure on the child. A child who loses her/his status in front of peers could withdraw from future academic and social activities. It would be far better for the teacher to tutor the child before the performance of the task, thus insuring the child's success. Even our best professional athletes get their "act together" prior to a public presentation.
5. The teacher should "reduce frustrations by selecting materials at the child's interest and reading levels and by relating reading activities to the child's goals" (Carter & McGinnis, p. 179).
6. The teacher should determine the impact of the classroom atmosphere on children. If the teacher can create "an atmosphere free of the irritations and critical attitudes which have caused his [the child's] tensions, the disturbed child will usually make progress in his reading" (Gilliland, p. 70). The shy child must be given security. Above all, the teacher must provide warmth and understanding in fair proportions to all children, especially to those children who are withdrawn.

Summary

Many teachers overlook the child who is withdrawn. This is natural because the withdrawn child creates no disturbances, and her/his presence is hardly noticed. But the withdrawn child is not getting full benefit from the educational program, and the teacher must establish a plan for alleviating or eliminating the child's problem. The teacher must have a high degree of patience when working with this child. Moreover, when the child is withdrawn and emotionally unstable, the teacher must build emotional stability by showing a genuine concern for the child's academic growth and personal welfare. Ultimately, through teacher concern and action, the child will make optimum progress in meeting the challenge of becoming a competent reader.

REFERENCES

- Bond, Guy L. and Miles A. Tinker. *Reading Difficulties: Their Diagnosis And Correction*. 2nd Edition, New York, N.Y.: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1967.
- Brenton, Myron. "What Can Be Done About Child Abuse." *Today's Education*, 66:51-53, September/October, 1977.
- Carter, Homer L. J. and Dorothy J. McGinnis. *Diagnosis And Treatment of the Disabled Reader*. Toronto, Canada: The Macmillan Company, 1970.
- Gilliland, Hap. *A Practical Guide to Remedial Reading*. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1974.
- Russell, David H. *Children Learn to Read*. New York, N.Y.: Ginn and Company, 1961.

- Smith, Richard J. and Dale D. Johnson. *Teaching Children to Read*. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1976.
- U. S. Bureau of Census. *The U. S. Fact Book*. 97th Edition New York, N.Y.: Gossett and Dunlap, 1977.
- Wilson, Robert M. *Diagnostic and Remedial Reading For Classroom and Clinic*. 3rd Edition, Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1977.
-

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 _____

PROFESSIONAL CONCERNS:

R. Baird Shuman, EDITOR

REMEDIAL PROGRAMS: SOME STRATEGIES FOR CREATING A SUPPORTIVE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

Barbara Fox

CONTRIBUTOR, NORTH CAROLINA UNIVERSITY

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.

Barbara Fox is Assistant Professor of Education at North Carolina State University, Raleigh, North Carolina, where she specializes in Reading Instruction. In the contribution at hand, Professor Fox considers some of the affective factors which must be taken into consideration by anyone who works with students who have reading disabilities. She focuses on the teacher's role in creating learning environments which are conducive to the highest level of learning. She stresses the need for teachers to convey positive expectations to the students with whom they are working, to encourage the students' own perception of their success, and to work toward bringing about maximal individual achievement in them.

Remedial Programs: Some Strategies for Creating a Supportive Learning Environment

Planning and implementing effective remedial reading programs is a complex and often frustrating task. Sound instructional programs can fail to produce significant reading improvement, leaving teachers and students dissatisfied. When remedial programs are designed to meet individual needs, it is assumed that increased reading achievement will result. Programs are designed to meet individual needs by carefully identifying student deficiencies and describing levels of performance expected to result from instruction. Student deficiencies and anticipated performance are considered from a cognitive and affective point of view. The cognitive domain includes abilities necessary for mastering reading as an intellectual task, while the affective domain includes student attitudes and feelings.

This plan appears to be a sound one, at least insofar as student behavior is concerned.

However, successful remedial programs must also consider the contribution and performance of the teachers. The teacher's role can be viewed from a cognitive and affective perspective similar to that applied to the student. Selecting instructional materials and applying instructional strategies are examples of teacher performance which can be associated with the cognitive domain. From the perspective of teacher competence, the acquisition of knowledge and the mastery of teaching skills form the basis for the application of good instructional principles. Methods textbooks and much of the professional literature are devoted to enhancing this type of teacher performance.

But like the instructional program for the student, a successful remedial program must also include the teacher's contribution in the affective domain. It is this dimension, the teacher's influence on the student's emotional response to instruction, that is so often ignored or dealt with in a random manner. The description of many remedial readers as characterized by emotional problems related to learning to read will come as no surprise to teachers. Having previously experienced failure, a student's self-esteem as a reader is likely to be low. From the point of view of the student, learning to read is a potentially threatening experience which may be more negative than positive. It stands to reason that a student's negative emotional response to learning to read can confound the successful application of sound instructional strategies.

One of the teacher's major responsibilities is to provide an affective environment which will be supportive, and therefore contribute to making learning to read a positive experience. Unlike behavior associated with the cognitive domain, changes in student attitudes and feelings toward reading are infrequently measured by standardized tests. Moreover, strategies used to improve attitudes and feelings are not stressed in the professional literature. Nevertheless, teacher expectations for student achievement, student perceptions of success, and comparisons of achievement among students are aspects of the learning environment to which the remedial reader is particularly sensitive. To create a supportive learning environment, the teacher must design the remedial program using strategies which deal effectively with these three affective areas.

Convey Positive Expectations

1. Convey to each student positive expectations for reading achievement. If the teacher views the student as a capable learner, then the student is more likely to adopt this orientation. Expectations should, of course, be realistic. Demonstrate positive attitudes by telling each student that reading achievement can and will improve. Positive expectations conveyed from teacher to student have the potential to improve student self-esteem and to contribute to a self-fulfilling prophecy oriented toward success.

2. Value the contributions of each student accepting with equal pleasure the accomplishments of the most and the least able readers.

Encourage participation by students of all ability levels and distribute any social or tangible rewards in an equitable manner.

Encourage Student Perceptions of Success

1. Plan reading activities which ensure that the student will be successful. One means to accomplish this is to select instructional materials which teach needed skills but are written on the student's independent level. If in doubt about an appropriate level of difficulty, select the easier material. Do not present more difficult materials until the student has developed some self-confidence in reading.

2. Make sure that success is recognized. For success to affect learning positively, each student must appreciate personal accomplishments. Demonstrate success by charting individual progress toward the attainment of instructional goals. In addition, make sure each student's success is known by other students in the school setting.

3. Set goals which can be met on a short-term, as well as a long-term basis. Achieving short-term objectives can provide a sense of accomplishment, and also help the student begin to recognize personal learning potential. Goals can be met in as short a time span as a single lesson or as long a span as a week or two. The important thing is to establish different time spans relative to individual student feelings and needs.

4. Increase praise and decrease criticism. A common miscalculation is to *over-correct* student reading performance. While the student needs knowledge of correct and incorrect performance, over-correction acts as a negative teacher comment on reading ability and undermines the student's sense of accomplishment. Praise student performance which is deserved, especially the achievement of short-term objectives.

Maximize Individual Achievement

1. Emphasize individual accomplishments rather than differences among students or comparisons with the group. Just as a criterion-referenced test compares a student with his/her own mastery of skills, the teacher should use each student's mastery at the beginning of instruction as a basis for comparison.

2. Use flexible grouping patterns which ensure that the lowest functioning students are not always grouped together. Group students along a variety of dimensions, such as interest, special assignments, etc.

3. When reading activities include students with a wide achievement range, make sure these activities are not competitive. Competitive activities frequently penalize the poorest readers thereby reinforcing negative attitudes toward reading. Use competition among students only when everyone has a reasonable chance of succeeding.

Without carefully planning the use of strategies associated with the affective domain, remedial programs may fail to result in significant achievement because of negative student attitudes and feelings. The fact that strategies associated with the affective domain are not emphasized in the professional literature does not prove that this dimension is unimportant. Student attitudes and feelings toward learning to read are critical variables in the successful completion of any remedial plan.

BOOK REVIEW

Eleanor Buelke

Schlosser, Courtney D.

The Person in Education

New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1976. Pp. xiii + 413.

To live means to have courage and to remain strong in the face of adversity and suffering, as well as to have the illusion of complete happiness. Remaining a person when things are bad is not easy; but it may be the truest test of character in that it means being willing to rise above what threatens to reduce one's self to an object or an abstraction. There is no easy way to learn how to become a person except through living, and that means suffering and enjoying, despairing and hoping, hating and loving, and taking one's stand upon the conviction that we are always something more than any of the feelings, threats, or forces of existence that tend to reduce us to the status of objects and things.

In this volume, the author-editor challenges, questions, and deplors many of the "stereotypical, socially acceptable, role-playing modes of behavior, thinking and feeling" currently appearing in schools and colleges, modes which restrict the sense of experience that is required for growth as a person. At the same time, he supports, suggests, and explores ways in which teachers and students, staff and administrators, may "transcend their merely socialized selves and relate honestly, openly, and authentically to one another." This anthology is a humanistic approach to focusing attention upon the *person* in education. The claim that there needs to be a close relationship between educational thought and practice and humanism is supported by vital, significant developments in human knowledge and experience. In recent years, such knowledge has advanced through research and study in varied disciplines, and by appearance of many problem-solving groups among minority and, heretofore, excluded/deprived segments of the world's population. For many, the awareness and experience of themselves as autonomous persons is a new and exuberant feeling.

The concept of *person*, viewed by Schlosser, provides an intellectual and philosophical frame of reference from which to inspect and project a uniquely humanistic way of perceiving learners and education. In Part I of the book, writers of the past and present contribute to the understanding of this concept from historical, philosophical, psychological, and sociological vantages. Part II focuses upon educational contexts: implications for humanistic change. Here, Schlosser has chosen writings which take into account two important functions of teaching; he refers to these functions as *transmissive* and *transformative*. The first assumes that the teacher has

something to transmit to the student, promoting an active teacher-passive student relationship. The second assumes that both student and teacher are active in the learning process, resulting in mutually significant changes and growth as persons.

The section dealing with historical foundations helps to increase awareness that humanism has deep, historical roots, that most solutions to life's problems are neither final, nor ultimate, and that reaching for ideal being and experience is a life-long quest. The section on philosophical foundations attempts to uncover the essential meanings of existence as they may contribute to enlivening and deepening the daily tasks of teaching and learning. As these readings center on the significance and nature of pragmatism, idealism, realism and existentialism, they build understanding and appreciation of humanistic education. Concern for the identity of the individual and its effect upon human potentiality functioning in the here-and-now is emphasized in the section on psychological foundations. Rationale for modern theories of education grounded in the acknowledgement of close, *interdependent* linking of healthy ego and mind with reality and experiences of the body is related, and reiterated. Exploration/education in these areas might well be what one writer here calls "the challenge and promise of our lifetime." On the sociological level, "freedom" of the individual, in any measure, remains viable only as long as the individual, the personal self, exercises some action and thought of his own in actual encounters with his world. The whole person who educates, and comes to be educated, takes his/her individuality in part from his/her history, biological and genetic; in part from his/her philosophy of Being, a definition of the meaning of existence; in part from his/her concept of self, living inwardly and outwardly; and in part from his/her surrounding social environment. To this end, education needs to be actively "co-intentional" and cooperative, rather than prescriptive, passively dialectic, and personally dehumanizing. It must be viewed as a "continuous and interactive process, engaging both student and teacher alike as persons."

In practice, then, humanistic education calls for commitment to the importance of *caring* and *trust* in the interpersonal relationships that occur in the classroom. Education in human relations is the core of humanistic education, and should begin at the teacher-education level, with major emphasis in this area. Teacher educators, themselves, must exemplify humanistic teaching. Prospective teachers, from the beginning of their college education to its end, need to be involved in a continuous, integrative seminar, focusing on "personal development in terms of ideas, beliefs, and attitudes." Ideas and information invigorate and vitalize only insofar as they "animate and enrich the ordinary course of life." A humanistic curriculum takes into consideration the basic biological nature of the child and how the child grows. Vital and personal experiences of the learner and processes by which they are derived and lived become the curriculum. One writer suggests that the humanist in curriculum design ought to "free himself from the bureaucratic school and from the sorting function which it performs for the status system."

At the present time, some dimly discernible changes in favor of more humanistic teaching and learning are being made in the well-established, middle class system of public education. Flexible scheduling, independent study, work-study programs, individualized learning, certain values-clarification techniques, inclusion of almost all aspects of human activity in curriculum planning and discussion—all of these are indicative of movement toward cherishing the *persons* in the classroom. In “A Personal Note” at the conclusion of this book, the author states that, although there is hardly a mass movement toward radical reform in the schools, still he has optimistic, good feelings for the future of mankind. In order to fulfill their responsibilities deeply and meaningfully, those persons engaged in educating other persons must do all that they can “to know and to encounter personal freedom and the love of life” for themselves. Perhaps, then, they can join Schlosser in a poem he has written to a group of his students:

. . . . . You gave to me the experience
of being alive with you
and knowing and encountering
the spirit within us
and between us . . . . .

So, to each of you
I want to say thank you,
thank you for allowing me
to see into your lives
and to experience what
only those whom you love
experience and know.

I shall not forget you
since you have shown me
who you are, in such a short time,
nor can I be the less
for it . . . . .

