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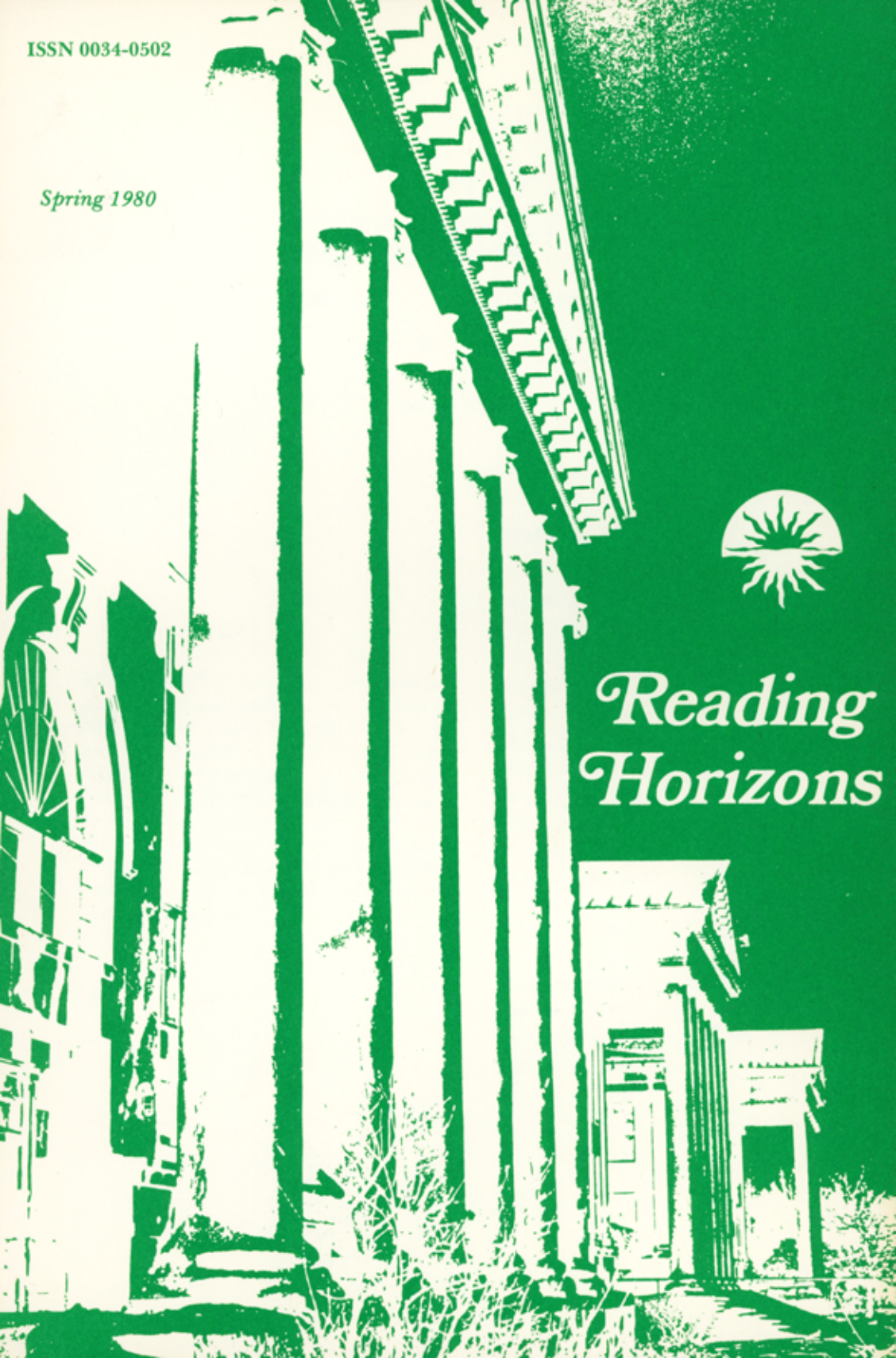


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Kenneth VanderMeulen

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EDITORIAL COMMENT

1984 IS NOT JUST A NUMBER

A young teacher called long distance to tell us that the results of her Gates-McGinitie indicated her students had made no progress during the previous semester. We protested, saying she couldn't make such assumptions on the basis of one-shot test results. She said her federal aid money is tied to the progress shown by reading classes in her charge. "If the government says progress must be measured," She asked, "what can I do?"

Have we put ourselves into the position of discouraging good teaching by this sort of purse-string regulatory activity? A good teacher is a guide, an inspiration, and an influence on a child's attitude. If our governmental agencies perceive the teaching of reading as only decoding and recall, teachers and students of this generation are in deep trouble.

Reading *must* be thought of as experiencing print, and students *must* be helped to live that experience with regard to human relations. As we examine and reflect on experiences, we develop our system of values. Wisdom and good judgment come from informed comparisons and guided evaluations of the lessons of experience, both real and vicarious.

Parents, taking their cues from perceived government policy, are spreading the trend toward adversarial relationships. A sad little event of a few years ago remains stuck crossways in memory. Al, a sixteen-year-old, needed help in reading, and the reading teacher offered to work with him during school time. The parents wanted to know why their son had "lost his study hall period." Explaining that Al was reading three years below expectancy, the teacher said that with help during study hall, Al could make significant gains. The parents refused permission to let the young man leave study hall, claiming their son would be "labeled as retarded." Al eventually left school without graduating, still reading below his mental ability.

Enlightened parents and controlling agencies should know that teaching reading and reading improvement is a job of human relations, of friendly, positive endeavor. Agencies, parents, and administrators must be educated to understand that teaching reading cannot be effective unless young people are guided to a point of *readiness* in their attitude, for active learning. They have to trust their teacher. They have to be taught to trust in themselves. Only then can reading help the young person to mature, to find his directions, to relate to others, and to make realistic plans for the future. Constructive human relations, humanism in education, must precede the study of sentence meaning and comparison of ideas in print. A test to measure a teacher's influence on students' willingness to learn has not been devised. Repeated efforts to measure student progress in percentile points can only lead to the loss of the very elements required for teaching reading: optimism, mutual trust, and positive atmosphere.

Kenneth VanderMeulen
Editor

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CHILDREN'S LITERATURE AND BACK TO THE BASICS

Dr. W. John Harker

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The comprehension of literature places different demands upon children than the comprehension of non-imaginative prose. This is because, in order to comprehend literature, children must enter and understand the highly imaginative worlds of literary creation. Although these worlds are charged with delight for the child, they are at the same time essentially unreal — they are the imaginative productions of their creators.

Despite these different demands, the current so-called “back to basics” movement — entrenched as it has become in a growing number of competency-based reading programs — asserts that it doesn't matter what is being read; as long as children are taught to apply a highly structured sequence of individual skills, comprehension will result.

Many teachers intuitively resist the skills approach, however. They feel that teaching skills alone does not account for how children learn to read, especially when reading involves literature. But teachers need more than intuition as a basis for their resistance; they need a well-documented rationale. The purpose of this paper is to provide one. Through an exploration of how children think and learn to comprehend literature, it will be shown that many practices which teachers now use successfully, but which are at variance with the skills approach, are in fact consistent with how children learn to read literature. It is this consistency which accounts for the success of these practices in the classroom, which explains their intuitive and often long-standing appeal to experienced teachers, and which provides the reason why they should continue to be used in the face of the encroachment of “the basics” on the teaching of literature.

Children's Thinking

A fundamental question in any discussion of reading comprehension is how is knowledge attained? Put another way, if comprehension involves children in a process of gaining information from the printed page, how is this information acquired and organized in the mind?

While definitive answers to these questions are still to be determined, a coherent theory of human cognition and the development of children's thinking has been provided by Jerome Bruner and his colleagues. Bruner maintains that the individual learns about the world through a process of cognitive model building. He theorizes that the individual constructs in his mind a representation of the world founded on his experience which serves as the basis for interpreting his environment. Fundamental to this process is categorization. Bruner defines a category as “a range of discriminably

different events that are treated 'as if equivalent' (1956, p. 213). For example, the category "dog", by which we describe and cognitively represent all four-footed creatures which characteristically bark and wag their tails, may be made up of dalmatians, poodles, cocker spaniels, and so on. However, all dogs, irrespective of shape, size, or color, are categorized as equivalent. In this way, categorization involves "an act of invention" (Bruner, et al., 1956, p. 2) by which equivalence is imposed upon observably non-equivalent phenomena. All dogs do not look alike despite the fact that no one would argue that Fido (a great dane) and Spot (a cocker spaniel) are both dogs. For this reason, another way of describing a category is to call it "a rule of grouping" (Bruner, et al., 1956, p. 45).

Categorization demands the active response of the learner to his environment. The individual selects certain characteristics of the phenomena he encounters as "defining attributes" (Bruner et al., 1956, p. 22) which allow him to assign these phenomena to existing categories or to establish new categories. Reality is never approached in an empty headed manner; the individual brings to each new encounter with the world a set of expectations about what he will find there. Four-footed creatures that bark and wag their tails are likely to be dogs. Moreover, once categorized as dogs, a number of other predictions can be made as well—such as these four-footed creatures can be trained to fetch one's slippers or they are not to be trusted around cats. Thus the complexity of the environment is reduced. Each new event need not be interpreted *ab ova*: the individual's cognitive model tells him what to expect.

Developing the efficiency of this cognitive response to the environment is the key to children's learning. Through increasing life experience, children are able to reduce the complexity of their environment by developing more inclusive categorizations which permit more accurate prediction. In this way, the world becomes more known and knowable; the information load created by the constant bombardment of external sensory stimuli becomes controlled and ordered. Bruner describes this process of cognitive development in children as one of "finding techniques for being simple with respect to information" (1963, p. 141).

Children's Reading

The influence of cognitive psychology on current explanations of the reading process has been both direct and profound. Smith (1978), for example, describes reading as a process in which the reader makes predictions about the meaning about to unfold as he reads, and comprehension as the reader's confirmation of these predictions. Similarly, Goodman describes reading as a "psycholinguistic guessing game" in which the reader "seeks to reconstruct a message encoded by the writer. He concentrates his total prior experience and learning on the task, drawing on his experiences and the concepts he has attained as well as the language competence he has achieved" (1969, p. 15).

The common characteristic of these explanations is the importance placed on the child's store of knowledge of the world—his model of

reality—which he brings to the reading act as opposed to the information he finds on the page or the particular reading skills he may possess. The child does not begin reading as an empty vessel waiting to be filled by the information on the page. Rather, he comes to reading with a model of reality based on how he has categorized his life experience. It is on the basis of the expectations generated by his model of reality that the child actively seeks to make sense of the information before him. Comprehension results when the child finds consistency between the model of reality he expects to find represented on the page and the reality he in fact encounters there.

Children's Literature

But what is the model of reality which the child encounters in literature? Hardly the one he has derived from his experience in the real world. Suddenly, that benign, four-footed, barking, tail wagging, slipper fetching, cat-chasing dog can be transformed into a symbol of ultimate malevolence, a Rowsby Woof, diabolical enemy to a struggling colony of socially ordered, highly articulate rabbits who inhabit *Watership Down*. The world of literature is essentially unreal. The metaphors of reality are upset. Despite its apparent or professed reality, the world of literature is a world of imagination and fancy created in the mind of the writer. It is a world which T. S. Eliot has described as providing "the illusion of a view of life" (1953, p. 53). The manner in which this illusion is created has been described by Tolkien as a process of "sub creation," where the writer "makes a Secondary World which your mind can enter. Inside it, what he relates is 'true': it accords with the laws of that world" (1969, p. 114). Similarly, C. S. Lewis characterizes the process of literary creation as one of seeing imaginary pictures, some of which "have a common flavour, almost a common smell which groups them together" (1969, p. 218). When children's literature is considered in this way, the child's comprehension task becomes one of understanding alternate models of reality created in the minds of writers and represented in their work.

The initial effect of the child's encounter with alternate models of reality is surprise—surprise resulting from defeated expectation (Berlyn, 1960; Charlesworth, 1969). What follows surprise is either confusion and frustration, or discovery and delight. Bruner has postulated that "the triumph of effective surprise is that it takes one beyond common ways of experiencing the world" (1973, p. 212). In order to comprehend literature, in order to go beyond common ways of experiencing the world, the child must restructure, at least momentarily, his model of reality in order to accommodate the new reality he encounters in literature. If he fails to do this, comprehension will not occur and the child's surprise will not serve as a catalyst for the discovery of new, imaginative worlds through literature.

Teaching Children's Literature

How can the teacher develop children's comprehension of literature?

It should be clear by now that children's comprehension will not be developed by teaching a dreary collection of specific reading skills which

have little or nothing to do with reading or literary appreciation, but which have become the unfortunate accompaniment of the back to the basics movement and competency-based reading programs. Not only does the skills approach fail to encourage the process through which children learn to comprehend, but also by virtue of its sterility and lack of interest, it stifles children's receptivity to the imaginative worlds represented in literature.

At the beginning of this discussion, it was argued that many teachers have long been using basic approaches to teaching children's literature which, though at variance with the current emphasis on teaching skills, have proven successful. The reason why these approaches have proven successful is that — even though they have often been derived intuitively and by trial-by-error — they activate the process through which children learn to comprehend and enjoy literature. The remainder of this paper will review some of these basic approaches.

Developing Linguistic Awareness

Too often literature is taught as a process of translating literary expression into conventional expression. The "as if" process of categorization is put into reverse. Children learn that their reading task is to transform the imaginative experiences they encounter in literature back to the language in which these experiences would be represented in the conventional world.

This approach is wrong and has been recognized so by perceptive teachers. For children to grow and develop through their discovery of literature and the imaginative experiences literature provides, they must be immersed in the reading of literature and not in some arbitrarily prescribed program of artificial reading skills. The teacher's role is to encourage the child to engage actively in the process of reading literature so that the child may learn to form bridges between his existing model of reality and the imaginative and fanciful models of reality represented in literature.

Clear support for teaching based on this approach is provided by Bruner's notion of language development and its role in cognition. Bruner (1973) has argued cogently that the child uses language to order experience and through this to discover reality; language is a tool through which reality is manipulated and ultimately understood. When the reality to be understood is an imaginative one of literary creation, the linguistic awareness (Mattingly, 1972) the child requires for understanding is of a very special kind, and it is only by the teacher's providing repeated encounters with the language of literature and the reality which this language represents, that the child will come to understand and enjoy literature.

Oral Language Activities

A first step toward developing this linguistic awareness can be listening and oral language activities. For example, through the simple act of reading aloud to children, the teacher can provide direct exposure to literary language and a growing familiarity with the diverse and fanciful realities which this language represents. At other times, this exposure can be furthered by choral reading. This is particularly appropriate with

poetry. Through listening to the language of literature and through participating in this language orally, the child will gain a growing sense of its style and rhythm, and a greater understanding of the meaning literary language conveys through its combination of sound and sense.

Freedom of Choice

But listening and oral language activities can only serve as first steps toward children's own active participation in reading. This raises the question of what should they read? Children should be encouraged to read the literature they enjoy. Too often we teach what we enjoy ourselves rather than recognizing what is enjoyable for the child. The child still possesses that sense of wonder which we as adults have largely lost, and this explains the often inscrutable (to us) delight which children demonstrate in literature we sometimes find bizarre, obscure, or silly. But, by recognizing the need for children to read literature which they like, we are not encouraging the development in children's minds of some kind of literary slum. Rather, we are recognizing that if children's literature is to serve as the basis for the development of more refined literary taste, it must in the first instance be enjoyable.

Widening Horizons

One way to develop children's literary taste is to encourage discussion of the literature they read both among themselves and with their teacher. Discussion should not focus on dismal comparisons between the events of literary creation and "what really could happen," since what really could happen doesn't matter in literature. Rather, children should be encouraged to explore and extend the full range of the interpretive possibilities literature provides by developing more imaginative expectations and making more creative predictions. In this way, the language of literature becomes the medium through which the worlds represented in literature become part of the child's model of imaginative reality, and through which extensions of these worlds can be made.

Conclusion

If one common conclusion emerges from current concepts of the reading process and successful teaching practices, it is that children learn to read by reading. It is only in this way that reading becomes joyful—that children want to read and continue to want to read. The more experience they have with constructing meaning from the interaction of their own experience with the experience they find represented on the printed page—no matter how fanciful—the greater will be their understanding and enjoyment. This is particularly true of literature. Poetry must be read as poetry and not as some deviant form of prose that must be translated to be understood, and imaginative prose must be accepted at face value as representing worlds which, though detached from reality by virtue of being imaginary, are still perhaps possible, at least for one joyful moment. In these ways children's delight in the fanciful and imaginary can be nurtured,

and their sense of wonder enriched and developed. Over one hundred years ago, in a utilitarian society preoccupied like our own with the teaching of facts and skills, Charles Dickens in *Hard Times* recognized the need for this sense of wonder. In the words of Mr. Sleary, "People mutht be amuthed. They can't be alwayth a learning, nor yet they can't be alwayth a working, they an't made for it."

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READING COMPREHENSION IS CRUCIAL BUT NOT CRITICAL

James W. Cunningham

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Reading and English teachers are often aware that many adults who dislike reading in general and literature in specific learned their dislike through being required to memorize and parrot the teacher's interpretation and evaluation of pieces of writing. Countless articles and books have reported this phenomenon and called on teachers to foster democratic principles by encouraging individual responses and divergent thinking in their classes. These same teachers, however, see many of their students unwilling or unable to offer *any* response to what they have read. The resulting dilemma requires that teachers either make negative value judgments about the thinking of their students and risk turning them off to reading, or make no attempt to stifle their students' individuality and risk allowing them to get nothing from their reading. Most teachers are unable to allow the latter and insist that students obtain something even if it is the teacher's ideas. The misunderstanding which unites reading comprehension and critical reading leaves the teacher little choice but either to ignore inaccurate and insufficient comprehension to prevent suppressing critical reading or to suppress critical reading to improve reading comprehension.

A Philosophical Task Analysis

Philosophers have subdivided all knowledge and pursuits of knowledge under several headings. Reading comprehension belongs in the division called *epistemology* which is the study of how any and all knowledge is acquired. One comprehends to the extent that he or she comes to know the meaning(s) of what is read. Critical reading, on the other hand, belongs in the division called *axiology* which deals with the question and assessment of value and with sets of values. One reads critically to the extent that he or she comes to assess the value (ethical and aesthetical) of what is read. By subsuming critical reading under comprehension, its true nature, is misunderstood. Comprehension is gaining meaning(s) from the page, while critical reading is evaluating the meaning gained and its implications. Critical reading assumes comprehension as comprehension assumes decoding and all three occur almost simultaneously.

A Strategy

Because the misunderstanding has caused the dilemma, the dilemma may be resolved by correcting the misunderstanding. If reading comprehension and critical reading are divorced and seen as two distinct but related processes, the teacher can then remediate and extend the students'

comprehension *and* urge them to arrive at their own divergent interpretations and evaluations.

A lesson which is designed to improve students' abilities to respond critically to a piece of literature or journalism or even to part of a content-area textbook should have two phases. The first phase should result in the students having the fullest understanding possible of the meaning(s) of the text, including both literal and inferential comprehension. Knowledge of word meanings, knowledge of the relationships between concepts as cued by grammatical information, and the use of reason to follow the logical progression of ideas of the discourse are all required for comprehension to occur. Whether using the Directed Reading Activity (Betts, 1946; Pietras, 1976), the Guided Reading Procedure (Manzo, 1975), the Directed Reading-Thinking Activity (Stauffer, 1969) or some other comprehension-oriented lesson plan, the teacher should be sure that the students fully understand what they have read. Final decisions about what is said in a piece of writing should be based on the text itself and the rigorous exercise of logic on the part of teacher and students. Here the teacher has the responsibility to make value judgments about the quality of the students' comprehension of the selection. Here the teacher has the duty to lead students to an understanding of the material. Ideally this process would be an inductive one for the students, but, in the case of a difficult piece, students may very well have to be given an explanation of the meaning and then be asked to accept or reject it based on the text and their knowledge and logic.

The second phase of the lesson would be the traditional critical-reading or response-to-literature lesson plan. This phase should be more successful, because steps have been taken to build a solid understanding of the piece to which students will now react and respond in a critical fashion. Moreover, the teacher can be tolerant of a full range of opinion as to the value and implications of the piece, confident that the students know it from a comprehension standpoint.

Sample Lesson Plan

Using a short story or other selection which can be read by the students in 20 minutes or less, teach the selection to the students the first day using Stauffer's (1969) Directed Reading-Thinking Activity:

1. Students are asked to read the title of the selection silently and to examine pictures and illustrations (if any).
2. Students are then asked to volunteer guesses or predictions as to what the selection will say or be about. (Books should be closed during predictions—use bookmarks.)
3. The teacher records each prediction on a chart or on the chalkboard (putting the name of the student who made the prediction in parentheses after the prediction, if desired).
4. When there are no more predictions being made, the teacher asks the students to read from the beginning of the selection to some stopping point which the teacher chooses. When a student reaches the stopping

point, he or she is expected to close the selection or book with the book-mark and look up at the teacher until everyone finishes.

5. When everyone reaches the stopping point the group examines each prediction in light of what has been read. Taking the predictions one at a time, the students are asked to say whether or not each was a good prediction.
6. When a student expresses the opinion that a prediction was or was not a good one, he or she must read a part of the text which everyone has just read which supports or refutes the prediction. The text itself is the only source of verification or refutation of predictions. Some predictions will be verified and marked as such by the teacher; some predictions will be refuted and erased by the teacher; still other predictions will remain possible but unproved and will be marked with a question mark by the teacher.
7. Based on what they have already read, students are then asked to volunteer new predictions about what the rest of the selection will say or be about.
8. Beginning with Step 3 (above), continue the reading/verification/refutation process. For some selections you may choose to have only one stopping point for evaluating old predictions and making new ones. For other selections you may choose to have several stopping points throughout the selection.

If the selection can be read by the students in 20 minutes or less, the full lesson should be completed in less than 45 minutes. The students can then be asked to reread the selection as review before the next class.

In this next class, a critical reading lesson of the type described in *Cunningham, Arthur & Cunningham* (1977) will be taught:

1. The teacher begins a class discussion by asking the students if they liked the selection they read the day before. It is assumed that some will have liked it and some will not. After some argument between the holders of these two positions, the teacher should ask how one can know whether a selection is good. (In the rare instance where the students unanimously like or dislike the selection, the teacher should describe a hypothetical attitude toward the selection which is at odds with that of the students and ask them how they could prove their attitude is correct and that the other is not.)
2. To continue the discussion, the teacher asks several questions: "Is the quality of a book just a matter of opinion?" "Is everyone's opinion as good as everyone else's?" "Is it enough to say you like or don't like a book?"
3. Each student in the class is asked to choose two selections other than the one being discussed which the student has recently read. One of these should be a selection that the student liked very much and one of these should be a selection which the student disliked very much.
4. Each student is asked to give the name or source of the two selections and to give the major differences in them which the student feels make

one likeable and the other not. The teacher records the characteristics or standards the student claims to have used in developing a like or dislike for one selection relative to the other. (The teacher should not question or criticize a standard or allow the other students to do so.)

5. When all the standards which students have suggested have been recorded on a chart, the chalkboard, or on an overhead projector, the task is for the students to rank the standards in their order of importance. To do this, each of the standards is applied by the class to the selection taught the day before using the DR-TA. If, for example, a standard is *quality of illustrations*, each student is asked to rate the quality of the illustrations. It is expected that there will be students whose ratings of the quality of illustrations for the selection will differ from their overall opinion of the selection. How many students have conflicting judgments and how certain they are of their opinions of the selection will determine how well the standard of *quality of illustrations* will eventually fare in the rankings.
6. After each standard has been applied by each student to the selection being studied, the students will be asked individually to rank all the standards as to their relative importance in determining the value of a piece of writing of that type.
7. The students can be asked to reconsider selections of that same mode of discourse which have been studied previously in light of their rankings of the standards. It does not matter what standards a student uses as much as that students become *aware* of the standards they are using to evaluate pieces of writing.

Of course, a large number of other possible lesson plans could be developed by combining an appropriate comprehension technique with an appropriate critical-reading or response-to-literature technique. With this approach, a teacher can require rigorous, convergent thinking about the meaning of the text while allowing imaginative, divergent thinking about the value of the text. Many good teachers have already been able to juggle these two types of reading in the same lesson. Unfortunately, the linking of critical reading with reading comprehension in courses, books, and articles has caused other teachers to select between them rather than teaching them both. Critical reading and reading comprehension should be divorced then reunited in a two-part lesson plan to insure that students learn both to understand and to evaluate pieces of writing.

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APPRECIATION OF READING THROUGH THE FIVE SENSES

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While the definition of reading remains an elusive one for reasons pointed out by Edmund Huey (1908) more than seventy years ago, there is one component of the reading process which surely deserves attention. That component is the appreciation gained in reading through the five senses. How is this accomplished? An examination of reading and its relation to the five senses should help to make this clear.

Reading and Hearing

There is a great deal of similarity between reading and conversation in that a good book is like a good friend. One chooses friends at least partially on the basis of common interests. The same thing is true of choosing books. One is not likely to read something unless there is information of interest to the reader, entertainment, or a combination of these. Perhaps one of the major reasons some children face difficulty with reading in the classroom today is that they are frequently asked to read materials which are not of interest to them, which do not entertain, and which are far removed from their experiences.

While the reader does not have direct contact for a personal conversation with the writer, he does interact with the writer's words, or rather with his message. Each reader brings to his task his own unique background. If there is a match between that background and the material which is being read, he is likely to meet success in his reading and to want to continue. Even without a close match, if there is keen interest, the reader is likely to be able to handle the material satisfactorily. When the book is of great interest, the reader can move ahead rapidly, or more slowly if he wishes to savor some of the passages or the language.

Radio

An excellent example of one means of obtaining information and entertainment through hearing or listening is the radio. For today's children, radio listening is likely synonymous with music, news, sports, and weather. Not so for those of a generation or more ago. Until the late 1940's and early 1950's when television began to take its place, radio provided much more for both children and adults.

There were serials for children (Jack Armstrong and Captain Midnight); mysteries (The Shadow, Inner Sanctum, and The Green Hornet); comedy (Burns and Allen, Baby Snooks, Jack Benny, and Bob Hope); drama (Lux Radio Theater and Kraft Theater); quiz programs (Dr. I.Q.); even soap operas with some of them continuing into a new medium of television.

A look at what went on in homes during the evening program hours would likely find many of the family members sitting around the radio. Why? Surely it was not necessary to gather around to be able to see, and the volume could be adjusted so that it could be heard over the entire room. It seemed, however, that coming from that radio were the voices of friends and that appeared to be the best way to share the pleasure as a group. Certainly what was desired and what television provides for us is the picture, yet in that sense it has deprived us one of the pleasures of the radio which is also one of the pleasures of reading, doing our own visualizing. It was just as easy to get chills up and down one's spine from hearing the creaking door of Inner Sanctum as it is to get chills when viewing the door actually creaking on a television mystery theater presentation. In addition each listener formed his own image of just what was behind that creaking door. This is also true when one reads a book. This extra involvement of visualization required on the part of someone listening to that radio as opposed to that person viewing television placed it a step nearer to what is required in reading. Even sound is not necessary if a writer is skilled in his choice of words.

A passage from Wilder's *The Long Winter* (1940) describes an experience familiar to all of us who have spent many winters in the North.

The constant beating of the winds against the house, the roaring, shrieking, howling of the storm, made it hard even to think (p. 292).

No sound effects are necessary; it is only necessary to reach back into one's memory to bring these sounds clearly to us.

Reading and Sight

Although it is true that reading is at least partially a visual process, it cannot be said with certainty that unless one's sight is impaired one will learn to read. Why is this so? If we take a look at another visual means of presenting information perhaps the reason for this can be clearly understood.

Television

Possibly to better understand television and how it relates to reading we should answer the question, "Why do children view television?" Are the reasons the same as those for which they read?

The major reason for viewing television is entertainment. A second reason why children view television is to learn something. They prefer incidental learning, however, with entertainment still the major interest.

Can a writer through skillful use of words bring before the reader's eye the same vivid pictures which television provides? The next passage from another of Wilder's books, *Little House in the Big Woods* (1953), provides an affirmative answer to that question.

Each one by herself climbed up on a stump, and then all at once, holding their arms out wide, they fell off the stumps into the soft,

deep snow. They fell flat on their faces. Then they tried to get up without spoiling the marks they made when they fell. If they did it well, there in the snow were five holes, shaped almost exactly like four little girls and a boy, arms and legs and all. They called these their pictures (pp. 65-66).

In addition to appealing to the sense of sight, this also should evoke memories on the part of children who have engaged in such an activity of the feel of the soft, cold snow as they fell headfirst into it.

Reading and Taste

The teacher who reads to his class for a short time each day does much the same thing as supermarkets or bakeries which offer their customers a sample of one of their products. Whether it is a piece of sausage or a square of coffee cake, the purpose behind the free sample is to provide concrete evidence that the product is a good one. Usually one small taste encourages the customers to buy the total product. The teacher's purpose in reading to children should serve to lead them to want to complete the books independently after the first taste.

Moving beyond the taste as a sample which encourages further reading, authors are also able to provide readers with a literal taste from their descriptions.

A not entirely palatable feast from the standpoint of human beings, but nonetheless very real, is the one enjoyed by Wilbur in *Charlotte's Web* (White, 1952).

It was a delicious meal—skim milk, wheat middlings, leftover pancakes, half a doughnut, the rind of a summer squash, two pieces of stale toast, a third of a gingersnap, a fish tail, one orange peel, several noodles from noodle soup, the scum off a cup of cocoa, an ancient jelly roll, a strip of paper from the lining of the garbage pail and a spoonful of raspberry jello (p. 75).

Reading and Smell

A closely related example to that of tasting is that of smelling. Once again just a small sniff may be enough to sharpen the desire for whatever is providing the delicious aroma. A child coming home from school for the day may open the front door of his home and be greeted by the smell of fresh cinnamon rolls, chocolate cake, or apple pie which his mother has just baked. While these items might have been far removed from his thoughts before entering the house, the delicious smell should appeal to the child's desire for a sample of the product.

You may be thinking that this is one area which cannot be adequately described through words. Two examples provide the opportunity to determine whether or not this is true.

Wilder's *Little House in the Big Woods* (1953) supplies the first sample.

It smelled good. The whole house smelled good, with the sweet and spicy smells from the kitchen and the smell of hickory logs burning with clear, bright flames in the fireplace and the smell of a cloverapple beside Grandma's mending basket on the table (p. 135).

There is a most appealing use of smell in this passage. Both the spicy smells from the kitchen which could be gingerbread, pumpkin pie, applesauce cake, or any other of a wide range of choices, along with the pleasant smell of wood smoke from the fireplace, make this a scene a reader would like to enter and enjoy.

To anyone who has experienced smelling a rotten egg, the description by White in *Charlotte's Web* (1952) could only serve to stir up the unpleasant memory and the desire to remove oneself from the vicinity of the offending item.

The trough tipped up and then came down with a slap. The goose-egg was right underneath. There was a dull explosion as the egg broke, and then a horrible smell. Fern screamed. Avery jumped to his feet. The air was filled with the terrible gases and smells from the rotten egg. Templeton, who had been resting in his home, scuttled away into the barn.

"Good night!" screamed Avery. "Good Night! What a stink! Let's get out of here!" (p. 72).

Avery has expressed for all readers their very own heartfelt desire to be up and as far away as possible from the terrible odor.

Reading and Feeling

Finally, through reading it is possible to recapture a delightful moment, a thrilling moment, or a very sad moment and actually feel again the same way as when the event was originally experienced.

This last example is again from *Charlotte's Web* (1952).

"Good bye!" she whispered. Then she summoned all her strength and waved one of her front legs at him.

She never moved again. Next day, as the Ferris Wheel was being taken apart and the race horses were being loaded into vans and the entertainers were packing up their belongings and driving away in their trailers, Charlotte died. The Fair Grounds were soon deserted. The sheds and buildings were empty and forlorn.

Countless readers have mourned the death of Charlotte and without realizing it have learned from it a great deal about life itself.

A Final Comment

It should be apparent by now that the best reading material can offer far greater experience than any other single medium. The major

ingredients necessary are the writer's skillful use of words in communicating his message and the reader's interaction with that message.

I feel Robert Burns would approve of paraphrasing some of his words to most effectively express this interaction.

Oh what a power the author gives us
As his words display new worlds before us!
He widens our horizons for us,
And thus we grow.

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READ A BOOK IN AN HOUR

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Why not use a wholistic technique to introduce a novel? Why not tear the chapters out and discover, not only a novel, its plot, themes, characters, but also deal with those elements as a group discovery? The technique should resemble a treasure hunt where the process of "getting there" is as exciting as arriving.

I still see the wide-eyed horror and disbelief come on the eager, waiting faces as I calmly tell students that we will read a book in the next hour and just as calmly tear out the nineteen chapters of Theodore Taylor's *The Cay*, handing each participant a chapter. Within an hour the nineteen chapters are read, the plot, themes, characters and significant events are summarized, analyzed, thoroughly discussed and initial shock replaced with enthusiastic promise.

Torn to Pieces

The technique is simple enough, the student reads a portion of the whole. Responsible for a chapter, several pages, or a few key paragraphs, the student is asked to summarize what is read and relate it to the class. In this manner the novel, short story, or essay takes form.

Individual students are given the responsibility of a unique portion of the narrative. A sense of having a meaningful contribution is developed. Only the individual knows what content was read. Shy students have something to say; and extroverted students have some limits put upon them. Yet each must participate to establish a totality.

Reading With A Purpose

As the task is outlined to the student, several guiding principles can be applied. Suggest to the students that the report to the class might concentrate on one element of the author's intention: (1) a retelling of the plot—the ability to sequence events after reading them is necessary, and the outcome is the retelling of the story line; (2) a retelling of character development—details of the major characters, and sometimes key minor characters, force the student to look closely at protagonist and antagonist behavior and make a judgment; (3) a critical reaction to themes—a level or so removed from plot, the student is forced to come to grips with internal meaning, allegory, symbolism and the other abstract concepts having to do with the ultimate purpose of the work; or (4) other typical purposes for literary analysis.

By using questions, the teacher can keep the series of summaries on target. This forces the student to recapitulate and relate a chapter to a previous chapter. This is especially important for analysis of character

development or thematic denouement. It is equally helpful for establishing the prediction of future developments. Discovery is based upon the ability to anticipate or to hypothesize. Other techniques also seem appropriate in developing these same habits, DRTA (directed reading-thinking activities), reciprocal questioning, even SQ3R.

Extensions of the Technique

Some teachers report that tearing the book apart, while dramatic, offends their sensibilities concerning books. So they suggest several alternatives:

1. Have a book for each student and portion out the readings. This has the added advantage of already having the book in hand so the students could *read* the book for themselves after this quick summary. The technique aids motivation.
2. Pass the book around or orally read portions of the book.

These suggestions defeat, for me, the purposes of getting a full picture of a long work in a short period of time.

But applications to other reading situations seem to be easily generated as the technique is discussed. Some teachers see the technique as a modern version of round-robin reading; others view it as a panacea to their *Silas Marner* frustrations. In a dialogue with a grammar teacher, we agreed that it may be appropriate, as review, to make each student an expert on one structure (one chapter in the grammar text). Some other suggestions include:

1. Portioning chapters to one student or small groups for retelling would provide for a good overview of the material or review if used after class reading.
2. This technique seems ideally suited to motivating students to read an entire book.
3. Concentrating the technique for the first half of the book, followed by class retelling and sharing, would really prepare the students for the reading of the rest of the book on their own.
4. It may be suited for supplemental reading in a content area, health for instance, so that a biography might be shared by someone in the history of health (Salk, Pasteur, etc.). This is equally true in social sciences in dealing with several biographies of the same person. A quick comparison of interpretations of the crucial individual in history would probably be very exciting and stimulating to further reading.
5. Several teachers have suggested that this technique is appropriate with slow reading students who seldom achieve a total concept of their reading.
6. The technique enables students to concentrate on specific elements and grasp deeper insights into how imagery, character development, main ideas, or significant details operate in a limited task. Sharing their insights with others confirms or challenges their own perceptions.
7. Forcing the student to condense the retelling sharpens that ability. The

sharing assists self-esteem as the students have something of value to relate to classmates.

8. Simply, it is a technique which can engage the entire class or a portion of it as either a teacher directed or student directed activity.

Some Cautions

On the other hand, a few cautions have been noted. The time for retelling should be specified and adhered to. Too much telling allows for boredom, so a reasonably rapid tempo needs to be maintained. An attempt should be made to fit the reading and retelling and discussion into a single class hour to maximize the dramatic effect. Reasonable care should be taken with the text material selected. Material which has thematic coherence seems to work well. Some concern has been expressed in books (material) in which each chapter is self-contained, i.e., *Body Language*. Concern has been expressed over the students who, exposed to a book by this technique, feel that they know the book well enough to get by without reading it fully. I am afraid that will happen even with the best of techniques.

Try It You'll Like It

This approach to getting students into a book is really an attempt to look at the form of the work. Some have even elevated the purpose as an attempt to look at the process of reading. If the technique succeeds in bringing a student closer to the author's meaning through careful attention by which he gains an insight to the whole book in a minimum amount of time, it is successful. If it forces that student to read the entire work with a greater appreciation, with more critical response, or with greater understanding, I could ask for nothing else.

NURTURING INTELLIGENCE IN THE CLASSROOM

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There is a fine balance, a significant subtlety, for a teacher to sustain in order to be a functional force in the classroom nurture of intelligence. Keenly sensitive perceptions are required if teachers are to “*follow along*, so to speak, ahead of the children, helping them to clarify, organize, and extend meanings as they reach out for understanding.”¹ Teachers’ roles in this process demand a high degree of knowledge about our language and an active, creative part in its use. Pervasive habits of observing and listening should be enmeshed in the whole approach to teaching. More than that, as children seek constantly to organize their knowledge into conceptual structures, their efforts must be met by teachers with responsible steps to support, to stretch the scope, of these understandings. Challenges and choices facing teachers in designing programs for classroom learnings then become the crucial fulcrum in understanding and counter-poising the differing aspects of what children *do* know, *can* know, and *should* know.

The quantity and quality of skills, information, and behaviors children *do* know and possess at the time they begin regular schooling are astounding! Unfortunately, these are often disregarded, or discounted, by teachers. This is a grave mistake. It indicates a lack of knowledge, or restricted understanding, of the components and character of intelligence. It is unjust to children. It is equally unfair to those who function at a superior level and to those who operate at, or below, what is arbitrarily determined as “average” for their groups. Implications from documented observation and research are that mature capacity for thinking grows through an evolutionary, developmental process.² From the moment of birth, some believe even during the gestation period, human individuals start learning, imprinted and influenced by genetic and environmental factors, as well as cultural patterns and practices and humans around them. All of these influences affect future physical and mental development. They also help to determine psychological accommodations under conditions of stress or deprivation. How a child functions at any given period in this continuum is most germane in planning for further knowing and growing.

At the age of five or six years, children already are experts in oral language. Through experiencing a large variety of language utterances during these first years of life, they have usually acquired the complex patterns of their language, and are able to speak and understand thousands of sentences they have never previously heard. All this takes place with no formal teaching, sequencing, ordering, or programming in any particular way.³

Longitudinal studies of elementary children through the sixth grade

show that the positive relationship between general language ability and reading ability evident at an early age continues throughout each succeeding year of elementary school life, and expands to include writing skill as well.⁴ While many teachers accept this as being true for young speakers of standard English, classroom teaching practices have reflected ignorance, or incertitude, concerning divergent speakers. Their language, when they enter school, is equally grammatical and systematic, within the norms of their dialects, with that of other children.⁵ It is a recent fact, and a tragic one, that the courts have had to force the truth upon some schools, to adjure administrators and teachers alike to acknowledge this vital link between all children and the world of humans and learning.

In addition to the more obvious, observable language skills, children began formalized learning in schools in possession of varied potentials for conceptualization. Those who have acquired early in life an abundant accumulation of perceptual patterns and verbal labels have a tendency for greater facility in constructing more complex patterns and new labels required for later conceptual thinking.⁶ Directly related, also, to genetic and previous environmental factors are their numerous response patterns which have been innately structured into "schemas," used by young learners in progression towards more objective, abstract thinking, and basic to individual, autonomous learning.⁷

Individual "will to learn," the foundation for autonomous learning, is intrinsic in the human species. Young children possess it in varying degrees and intensity. Some members of any typical class will have been allowed to exercise it freely and creatively in their pre-school years. Others may have been repressed in its use. It is a motive for learning "that finds both its source and its reward in its own exercise." It consists of "natural energies that sustain spontaneous learning—curiosity, a desire for competence, aspiration to emulate a model, and a deep-sensed commitment to the web of social reciprocity."⁸ Again, early environmental forces, as well as genetic constitutions, exert great, differing influences upon children's attitudes towards problem solving. This, in turn, affects use of free will in making choices and decisions.⁹ Emotions, too, play their part in igniting and directing "will." The study of affect in its relationship to social behavior and social structures indicates its centrality to learning which takes place within a social milieu.¹⁰

At least one powerful emotion can be considered prerequisite to the "will to respond," the core of learning activity. It is the feeling that something, or someone, outside of the self really matters. It is called "care." About the time that children commence formal education they are moving out from gross egocentricity towards recognition of others like themselves. They feel and respond in identification with feelings of others. It is this conscious caring which is inseparable from valuing and willing some actions over others. It is a source for motivation which catches children up in the excitement of learning.¹¹

All of these things that pupils *do* know—their internalized language systems, concepts formed from perceptions and verbal labeling, their wills

to learn and respond, and the ways they manifest caring about themselves and for others – can be used by discerning, responsive teachers. Knowing children in the classroom well enough to be aware of their competencies is a good starting point for pacing and determining teacher strategies. Such knowledge enhances evocative teaching, to inspire children's efforts for excellence. It becomes the basis, and the life, from which all further movement toward what *can* and what *should* be learned on the way to intellectual maturity can proceed.

Intelligence is no longer considered to be a fixed, finite, pre-determined property of an individual. The mind and intellect can continue to expand and grow as long as the brain remains healthy and active. Most people never approximate their total capabilities. Many members of the scientific community, and the general public as well, have concluded that people use only a very small fraction of their intellectual capacities, perhaps as small as ten per cent.¹² From working with computers and other technological devices, scientists have discovered that, wonderful as machines can be, abilities of the human mind are superior to them and can far surpass what anyone has dreamed. They know that:

. . . the number of possible interactions within the brain alone is beyond the current skill of our best mathematicians to compute in a meaningful manner. The best way of expressing the total creative capacity of the human central nervous system in layman's language is that for all practical purposes it is infinite.¹⁴

Experimentation and research in other areas have led to the belief that humans may have a mind resource to control their physical structures and mental processes. There is much still uncertain about the limits of mental control of mind and body, but exploration to discover what brain waves and their patterns mean to human mental activity has only just begun.¹⁵ These findings present a paradox of both onus and opportunity for educators.

Not all that *can* be taught *should* be taught. It has been stated that, "Any idea or problem or body of knowledge can be presented in a form simple enough so that any particular learner can understand it in a recognizable form."¹⁶ But, it is also cautioned that curriculum material must not be prepared without regard for "the inherent structure of the material, its sequencing, the psychological pacing of reinforcement, and the building and maintaining of predispositions to problem solving."¹⁶ Teachers would save themselves and their students much anxiety and wasted energy if they developed a strong, empirically based awareness of what *can* be known by the age group they teach. Many judgments asked of children require maturity and objectivity which ". . . the meager and highly subjective experience that forms the world of the child does not permit . . ."¹⁷ Affirming that *all* children, not just the elite few, need to be stimulated, to be encouraged, to be allowed to develop and use their potential abilities, teachers must assume the responsibility of when and how

to present what *should* be known, according to the ages, backgrounds, and behavioral/cultural styles of the groups to be taught.

Taking this responsibility means knowing when to wait, when to move cautiously, and when to pursue boldly. It includes knowing how to expand areas of learning, both horizontally and vertically, and allowing children time and freedom to construct their own knowledge. It requires teachers to strive always to strike that delicate balance between their will to show and children's will to know, the proper mix that nurtures academic success, intent participation, and self-motivation for continued learning.

Under pressure from various sources for positive action, many school districts are developing special programs for children labeled as "especially bright," "gifted," and "talented." However, most classroom teachers face teaching heterogeneous groups throughout the school year. All children need intellectual nurture; that is the reason for the existence of public education. There are some practices, though, that can help teachers accomplish this better than others. One great teacher in the area of creative power has classified three types of effective learning:

1. *Experience-learning*: it leads directly into effective behavior. "Knowledge without a good behavior outcome is apt to remain sterile;"

2. *Research-learning*: it is based upon a genuine desire to accomplish something; it can be done by groups or individuals; and

3. *Creative-learning*: it is the individual outcome of what is done with mind/hand expression of individuality; it is not capable of being copied or imitated exactly.

(The first two usually cover larger areas of knowledge than texts; they are brought about through a *sharing process*, one of the most powerful motivators and builders of positive self-concept.)¹⁸

Another teacher, with expertise in the development of human potentialities, has listed these qualities of the productive learning environment:

1. *Freedom from role*: Role-taking is depersonalizing, distancing, fragmenting to the whole person, restrictive to the impulse life, and limiting to creativity.

2. *Serenity and inner peace*: Greater growth can form internal drives that emerge from inner peace. The need to believe that conflict is the only road (or even a major one) to creativity is produced as a rationalization by conflict-prone modern man.

3. *Interdependence*: It is not enough to be free, to do what I want, to *allow* others freedom. The essence of the human condition is to be *with* others, to grow with them, to be aware of the dependency we share with all men, to love with, to care for, and to respond together.

4. *Delight in another's joy*: The ability to experience sustained

and uncontaminated joy and the ability to delight in another's joy are correlated . . . with the attainment of human potential.

5. *Trust in self and others*: The barriers to person potential are all variants of fear, derivatives of distrust: alienation, hostility, impotence, psychological distance, indifference, loneliness, and competitiveness.¹⁹

Some more specific things that teachers can do best in their own personalized styles are to:

1. *Observe children's questions*: to assist in assessing their individual learning styles;

2. *Anticipate the wide range of language development to be found in any one classroom*: to reduce unproductive anxiety and frustration;

3. *Respect children's rights to fluent speech, according to their internalized rules of grammar*: in order to respect the thought/intelligence behind what they say;

4. *Beware of regarding adult social expectations as typical and appropriate for the range of children's interests in thinking, speaking, and writing*: to aid in appropriate planning/valid evaluation;

5. *Give "superior offerings" the advantage of a conspicuous setting*: to promote inspiration, discrimination, and information of values;

6. *Capitalize on childhood's complete receptivity to new stimuli and new situations*: to keep enthusiasm for learning high; and

7. *Provide conditions for enlarging children's range of choices*: to enable them to learn how to exercise free will, so basic to motivation for growth.

The nurture of intelligence is not easy. As a profession, it might even be considered hazardous. To do it well demands great amounts of time. It takes much more effort than day-after-day page-flipping of teachers' manuals; more planning than distributing, collecting, and sorting reams of prepared seatwork and prescription sheets; more concentration than assigning one exercise after another to all, alike, in a workbook, however "teacher-proof" these materials are planned to be. It so immerses the heart and mind that there may be a constant tugging back to the problems of the day outside of regular teaching hours, and beyond classroom walls. It requires deep thought and tremendous energy.

Above all, it takes courage: personal courage, to accept disappointment, but, to continue to affirm daily the commitment to what seems best for all children; social and moral courage, to stand up for convictions when facing parents, colleagues, and administrators; and creative courage, to extend oneself beyond the usual, the routine, and the expected. Most of the rewards will be intrinsic. When the teacher steps back to view and assess

the delicate balance, the satisfactions will be found in classroom enthusiasm to enhance experience; individual artistry for all to appreciate; beauty to behold in language, thought, and action; and increased intellectual power to propel each toward lifetime learning.

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CAN WE UPDATE EXPERIENCED TEACHERS' BELIEFS AND PRACTICES IN READING?

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A recent review charting the impact of educational research on classroom teaching found that teaching practices, particularly in reading, were rarely modified to reflect current research findings (Clifford, 1973). Clifford chronicled the fragmentary, "one shot" nature of much of the educational research produced and reported over the last fifty years. He suggested that a more unified body of cumulative research findings in a cohesive area of investigation might stand a better chance of influencing change in the classroom.

Psycholinguistics, spanning the last 15 years of reading research represents such a cumulative, unified research enterprise that should be a pivotal force in updating and modifying our past beliefs and practices in the teaching of reading. Indeed, persuasive data banks exist in miscue analysis that directly challenge our prior beliefs and practices on a number of fronts (Allen and Watson, 1976). For example, miscue research has cogently demonstrated the reconstructive, top-down nature of the reading process. Synonym substitutions are valued since they rarely disrupt meaning, phonic skills are downplayed as an aid to fluent reading, and "armchair" hierarchies of reading rules and sub-skills are viewed with suspicion by most psycholinguists. Given that we have such a persuasive body of empirical data to challenge our past practices in the teaching of reading, to what degree do experienced teachers subscribe to a psycholinguistic view of the reading process?

A recent cross-cultural survey explored the degree to which experienced and preservice teachers in America and England reported agreement with some of the tenets of psycholinguistics (Robinson, Goodacre, and McKenna, 1978). The researchers constructed a self-rating scale based on a verbatim list of statements introduced by Smith (1973) in an article entitled "Twelve Easy Ways to Make Learning to Read Difficult." Table 1 presents the self-rating scale.

A teacher who subscribes to a psycholinguistic view of the reading process would be expected to respond negatively (i.e., select "No" or "Slight Emphasis") to the 12 items on this scale. Robinson et al. (1978) predicted that experienced teachers, steeped in traditional reading dogma would tend to concur with Smith's 12 statements. Thirty-seven experienced teachers in America completed the rating scale. Indeed, the researchers' expectations were confirmed. Experienced American teachers exhibited little agreement

TABLE 1

Robinson et al. (1978) Rating Scale

Directions: Place a check mark ( ) under the statement that best represents your teaching emphasis for each of the 12 items.

	No Emphasis	Slight Emphasis	Uncertain	Moderate Emphasis	Heavy Emphasis
1. Aim for early mastery of the rules of reading.					
2. Ensure that phonic skills are learned and used.					
3. Teach letters or words one at a time, making sure each new letter or word is learned before moving on.					
4. Make word-perfect reading the prime objective.					
5. Discourage guessing; be sure children read carefully.					
6. Encourage the avoidance of errors.					
7. Provide immediate feedback.					
8. Detect and correct inappropriate eye movements.					
9. Identify and give special attention to problem readers as soon as possible.					
10. Make sure children understand the importance of reading and the seriousness of falling behind.					
11. Take the opportunity during reading instruction to improve spelling and written expression and also insist on the best possible spoken English.					
12. If the method you are using is unsatisfactory, try another. Always be alert for new materials and techniques.					

with the 12 statements. Similar response patterns were noted for experienced English teachers and preservice teachers in both countries. The researchers concluded that the basic principles of psycholinguistics were either unknown to this sample of teachers or in marked contrast to their deep-rooted beliefs about reading instruction.

The present study was designed to explore the degree to which a one semester graduate level course in Psychology of Reading might update experienced teachers' beliefs and practices in reading. The self-rating scale reported by Robinson et al. (1978) was used as the criterion measure. The 11 students enrolled in the course were elementary and secondary teachers of reading pursuing either a California reading specialist credential or a master's degree. The core text for the course was Frank Smith's *Understanding Reading* (1978) with supplementary readings in cognitive psychology but Smith's (1973) article was not read by these students. The course involved a blend of psycholinguistic theory and practical teaching strategies that would be supported by a psycholinguistic view of the reading process. For example, the "ReQuest" procedure (Manzo, 1969), emphasizing prediction and applied level thinking was introduced and implemented by members of the class. It was reasoned that a combination of intensive exposure to psycholinguistic theory and its practical application would yield statistically different results from the Robinson et al. (1978) sample.

Method

Eleven students completed the 12 item rating scale on the last evening of class. The accumulated data for experienced American teachers in the Robinson et al. (1978) study and the present study were compared statistically in an analysis of variance. Table 2 presents the raw percentage data for the two samples on each item of the rating scale.

In order to statistically compare the data from the two studies, two main categories were formed reflecting agreement or disagreement with Smith's (1973) psycholinguistic principles. That is, "no emphasis" and "slight emphasis" responses were combined to form a "no/slight" category. And, "moderate emphasis" and "heavy emphasis" responses were collapsed to form a "moderate/heavy" category. Uncertain responses were not included in the analysis of the data. Percentage scores reflecting agreement or disagreement with Smith's 12 psycholinguistic principles were computed for the two samples (Table 2).

Results

Two separate analyses of variance were conducted. The first F-test contrasted the Robinson et al. (1978) sample with the Psychology of Reading group in terms of agreement with psycholinguistic tenets as portrayed in Smith's (1973) statements. The mean agreement score for the Robinson et al. sample was 25 percent and the Psychology of Reading group evidence 54 percent agreement ($F [1,23] = 5.80, p .05$). This statistically significant difference suggests that the Psychology of Reading

TABLE 2
Percentage of Teachers Agreeing or Disagreeing
With Traditional Reading Beliefs

	EMPHASIS			
	No/Slight		Moderate/Heavy	
	*I	*II	I	II
1. Aim for early mastery of the rules of reading.	22	54	68	9
2. Ensure that phonic skills are learned and used.	18	62	78	27
3. Teach letters or words one at a time, making sure each new letter or word is learned before moving on.	48	100	38	0
4. Make word-perfect reading the prime objective.	72	100	18	0
5. Discourage guessing; be sure children read carefully.	43	82	45	0
6. Encourage the avoidance of errors.	24	90	72	1
7. Provide immediate feedback.	5	1	89	82
8. Detect and correct inappropriate eye movements.	18	54	72	18
9. Identify and give special attention to problem readers as soon as possible.	5	18	94	82
10. Make sure children understand the importance of reading and the seriousness of falling behind.	32	54	62	36
11. Take the opportunity during reading instruction to improve spelling and written expression and also insist on the best possible spoken English.	22	36	70	54
12. If the method you are using is unsatisfactory, try another. Always be alert for new materials and techniques.	2	0	92	100

* I. Robinson et al. sample (n = 37).

** II. Psychology of Reading sample (n = 11).

course did have an influence on the degree to which experienced teachers reported agreement with psycholinguistic principles. The results of the second *F*-test lend further support to this finding. The mean score for the Robinson et al. (1978) sample was 66 percent, reflecting an emphasis on these traditional beliefs and practices. In contrast, the Psychology of Reading group evidenced a mean score of only 34 percent "moderate/heavy" emphasis on traditional beliefs and practices in reading instruction ($F(1,23) = 6.72, p .05$).

Discussion

The findings of the present study strongly suggest that graduate course work in the Psychology of Reading can be instrumental in helping experienced teachers update their beliefs and practices in the teaching of reading. Furthermore, this study points to the need for curriculum at the master's level that goes beyond a "grab bag of tricks" approach to the reading process. Substantive, challenging experiences with recent linguistic and psychological research findings must be an integral part of our graduate curriculum. Only in this way can we begin to counter Clifford's (1973) contention that classroom teachers are historically victims of inertia, operating in a kind of vacuum that ignores the findings of educational research. The cumulative body of information from psycholinguistics holds much promise for improving the teaching of reading. Let's not play "I've got a secret" with this wealth of knowledge for too long.

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ADAPTATIONS OF MANZO'S GUIDED READING PROCEDURE

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In 1975 Manzo described the Guided Reading Procedure, which was designed to "improve reading comprehension by stressing attitudinal factors-- accuracy in comprehension, self-correction, and awareness of implicit questions, as well as cognitive factors, unaided recall and organizational skills" (pp. 291). As developed by Manzo, the Guided Reading Procedure (GRP) is to be used after the reading of a common selection. However, the GRP can easily be adapted as a *pre*-reading activity and as a post-reading activity when students have read different materials.

The original Guided Reading Procedure involved seven steps:

- (1) The students are told to read the selection in order to remember everything.
  - (2) The students dictate to a recorder (usually the teacher) all that they can remember. This information is recorded on the chalkboard, without correction.
  - (3) When the students can remember nothing more, they may return to the reading selection in order to correct inconsistencies and add important information that was not recalled spontaneously.
  - (4) The class reviews all recorded recalls and organizes them into an outline, pattern, or other format that shows the relationships of the ideas.
  - (5) The teacher asks questions only as needed to develop full understanding
- (1) The students are told to read the selection in order to remember everything.
  - (2) The students dictate to a recorder (usually the teacher) all that they can remember. This information is recorded on the chalkboard, without correction.
  - (3) When the students can remember nothing more, they may return to the reading selection in order to correct inconsistencies and add important information that was not recalled spontaneously.
  - (4) The class reviews all recorded recalls and organizes them into an outline, pattern, or other format that shows the relationships of the ideas.
  - (5) The teacher asks questions only as needed to develop full understanding of the selection. These questions should usually be beyond the literal level and serve as a model to the students of questioning techniques.
  - (6) Short-term memory is tested by using a matching, multiple-choice, essay, or unaided recall format. This step is important for the students' own feedback and reinforcement.

- (7) (Optional) After studying the material further, medium and/or long-term memory is assessed.

As a Pre-Reading Activity

To adapt the GRP as a pre-reading assignment, the teacher should identify a unit or topic of study that is fairly narrow in scope, such as *photosynthesis*, *the Constitution*, or *spiders*. Following the original GRP, the students tell the recorder(s) everything they already know about the topic, before any lecture or reading assignments have been made. After the unedited bits of information have been recorded, the students identify conflicting information and also identify areas in which no information has been provided. ("Hey, we don't know what spiders eat!") At this pre-reading stage no effort is made to resolve the conflicts or to provide missing information. Next, the outline is created. Conflicting information is listed side by side: "have 6 legs/ have 8 legs." Areas in which no information is known are listed by headings in the outline. (See Figure 1.) Both kinds of problems are keyed by question marks. The teacher may wish to suggest sub-topics so that full coverage of the major topic is ensured. The outline is either put on permanent display or is reproduced so that each student has a working copy.

FIGURE 1

Outline for GRP as Pre-Reading Procedure

Spiders

- I. How They Look
  - ?A. Have 6 legs/have 8 legs
  - B. Have 2 body parts
  - ?C. Antennae
- II. How They Live
  - ?A. What they eat
  - B. Spin webs
    - 1. Made of silk
    - 2. Lots of different kinds of webs
    - 3. Sticky
      - ?a. What makes them sticky
      - ?b. Why doesn't the spider get stuck

Using the GRP as a pre-reading procedure has many advantages for the students. One advantage is that clear purposes for the unit of study are identified by the students before study begins. The class becomes aware of the gaps in their understanding of the topic. They also become alerted to areas of misconceptions and conflicting information. Far from being a discouraging factor, misconceptions may actually serve as a positive force as individual students seek to prove that their own information was accurate.

Supplying the missing information and untangling conflicting information become the purposes and motivation for further study of the topic. The students have the responsibility for creating a complete, accurate outline by the end of the unit. Their task has been set based on *their* needs and level of information.

On a more abstract level the pre-reading GRP can help provide ideational scaffolding for the new concepts to be presented in the unit (Ausubel, 1964). By bringing to mind what the students already know about the topic and by organizing this information into an outline, the pre-reading GRP builds a framework to which new ideas can be attached. Without this framework in mind, new concepts are likely to be quickly forgotten because they do not fit into any overall scheme of information.

This procedure also has many advantages for the teacher who is truly interested in teaching to identified needs rather than to assumed needs. The pre-reading GRP allows the teacher to assess the level of background knowledge of the class. He or she may find the students lack even the most basic concepts about the topic or are very confused about these concepts. If this is the case, the teachers can then plan to make sure these building-block concepts are presented to the class, either through lecture or through reading assignments before more sophisticated ideas are introduced. Much as it may hurt, the teacher may have to abandon plans for teaching the techniques of the giant slalom and move back to the bunny slope. Otherwise the risk of casualties, either in terms of frustrated students or of compounding misconceptions, is too great.

The pre-reading GRP may also identify the opposite problem to the one described above. That is, the class may *already* know nearly everything the teacher planned to present about photosynthesis or the Constitution. If the GRP is done enough ahead of time or if the teacher has a repertoire of potential reading assignments on hand, he or she can then make reading assignments at a higher level of sophistication than those originally planned. Rather than bore the students with "everything you already know about photosynthesis," the teacher can move on to the more difficult concepts, secure in the knowledge that the students already possess the necessary background of information.

Of course, in most instances the students' backgrounds will fall somewhere between the two extremes. They will have some gaps in their knowledge, but the class will not be a *tabula rasa*, and they will have some incorrect information. The pre-reading GRP can aid the teacher in identifying precisely the needs of the students and lectures and reading assignments can be prepared to take care of these problems.

As A Post-Reading Activity

The GRP was originated for use when all the students read the same selection. However, the post-reading GRP can also be very effective when students have gathered information from a variety of sources.

Many teachers resist making individualized assignments in the content

areas because they are concerned that all students will not develop an understanding of certain core concepts. In addition, they are often afraid that information from a wide variety of sources will be so diverse that students will be unable to synthesize the bits and pieces into a useful whole. The post-reading GRP can help overcome these concerns.

When used as a procedure after students have searched a variety of information sources, the GRP should proceed as Manzo has described it through Step 5. However, the learning outcomes, both for the students and the teacher, will be slightly different. For example, rather than being limited to a specific set of details and generalizations, the class can draw on a large body of diverse information in supplying recalls. Because not everyone has read exactly the same material, *each* student can contribute something to the outline, not just the Sam or Sally Sunshines who think the fastest or speak the loudest. If, as Johnson (1977) has urged, each suggested source of information, regardless of readability level, has a unique piece of data (instead of just being a watered-down version of the “grade level” assignment), all students can have the status of being a contributor. The high school junior who has read the sixth grade science text may be the only one who knows why spiders don’t stick to the web themselves.

Another important outcome from using the GRP with different sources of information is that students will learn to deal with the fact that everything in print is not necessarily true. When attempting to reconcile conflicting information during Step 3, both contributors may be able to point to exact quotations from their own sources to back up their information. When this happens, the teacher may introduce some of the important aspects of critical reading, such as investigating the qualifications of the author, the date of the publication, and the audience for whom the material was written. Such conflicts can also point out the value of seeking information from several sources rather than relying on a single source. Using the GRP after several different materials have been consulted almost ensures that opportunities to teach critical reading will arise naturally in response to a real need.

As with the original GRP, the GRP based on different sources can serve as a review and summary. The value of the GRP as a summarizing activity when used at the end of an entire unit is even greater than when used after the reading of a short, common selection. The students can use this activity as a self-assessment of their understanding of the unit. They can fill in the gaps resulting from their own limited reading by referring to the class outline; they can identify misconceptions they have, due either to their unclear understanding of what they read or to conflicting information. They can organize and synthesize the various pieces of data they have into some sort of a meaningful framework.

The teachers can also use the GRP for assessment. Rather than identifying the students’ missing concepts and misconceptions by a test which half the students fail, the teacher can use the GRP to identify concepts that need to be re-taught *before* the test.

The teacher also gains two other important and related advantages by

using the GRP in this way. First, the teacher is free to individualize assignments because he or she knows that each student will not be limited only to the concepts in the individual assignment. A student who simply cannot handle the grade level text is not doomed to the frustration and embarrassment of facing an assignment he or she can't read (and therefore learning next to nothing), or the frustration and embarrassment of learning just the "babyish" ideas. Furthermore, the teacher no longer needs to be concerned that the students will develop only partial concepts and learn isolated pieces of information. The GRP draws together the pieces and organizes them. The major headings (the Roman numerals and capital letters in the traditional outline format) can be identified as the important pieces that *all* students must learn. The minor headings can be viewed as "icing" — either information that is interesting but not necessary or that is necessary for a grade of *A* on the unit but not for a *B* or *C*.

Summary

Manzo has identified an important instructional aid in the Guided Reading Procedure. By adapting the GRP as a pre-reading activity and as a post-reading activity when individualized assignments have been made, teachers can treble the usefulness of this effective procedure.

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RAPID COMPUTATION OF THE SPACHE REVISED READABILITY FORMULA

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Many people who use readability formulas avoid using the Spache Revised Readability Formula (1974) because, they say, it takes too much time. Others claim that the math is too complicated for them.

Since the formula is supposed to be more precise at the primary levels than some of the other formulas, it is believed that many people would use it if the operations to determine the estimated readability level could be done quicker and with fewer calculations.

The purpose of this paper is to provide tables to be used with the Spache Revised Readability Formula in order that those persons who desire to use the formula but do not want to do all the calculations may do so.

The steps for using the revised formula tables are:

1. Count the number of words in the sample.*
2. Count the number of sentences in the sample.*
3. Count the number of "hard words" in the sample.*
4. Using Table I, find the intersection of the number of words and the number of sentences in the sample.
5. Using Table II, find the intersection of the number of words and the number of "hard words" in the sample. (It should be noted that even with no "hard words", it is still necessary to use Table II.)
6. Add the numbers from steps 4 and 5 to determine the reading level of a particular sample.

An example for using these tables with a sample of 117 words, 8 sentences, and 4 "hard words" follows:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 117 \text{ words and 8 sentences} & = & 1.770 \\ 117 \text{ words and 4 "hard words"} & = & + .939 \end{array}$$

Readability Score 2.709 or 2.7

Hopefully, those persons who use or would like to use the Spache Revised Readability Formula will find the tables helpful.

* As described in Spache (1974)

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TABLES FOR COMPUTING THE SPACHE READABILITY SCORES

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Table I Sentence Length

Number of Words in Sample

100	1.729	1.746	1.763	1.780	1.798	1.815	1.832	1.850	1.867	1.884	1.901	1.919	1.936	1.953	1.971	1.988	2.005	2.022	2.040	2.057	2.074
7	1.729	1.746	1.763	1.780	1.798	1.815	1.832	1.850	1.867	1.884	1.901	1.919	1.936	1.953	1.971	1.988	2.005	2.022	2.040	2.057	2.074
8	1.513	1.528	1.543	1.558	1.573	1.588	1.603	1.618	1.634	1.649	1.664	1.679	1.694	1.709	1.724	1.739	1.755	1.770	1.785	1.800	1.815
9	1.344	1.358	1.371	1.385	1.398	1.412	1.425	1.439	1.452	1.465	1.479	1.492	1.506	1.519	1.533	1.546	1.560	1.573	1.586	1.600	1.614
10	1.210	1.222	1.234	1.246	1.258	1.271	1.283	1.295	1.307	1.319	1.331	1.343	1.355	1.367	1.379	1.392	1.404	1.416	1.428	1.440	1.454
11	1.100	1.111	1.122	1.133	1.144	1.155	1.166	1.177	1.188	1.199	1.210	1.221	1.232	1.243	1.254	1.265	1.276	1.287	1.298	1.309	1.320
12	1.008	1.018	1.029	1.039	1.049	1.059	1.069	1.079	1.089	1.099	1.109	1.119	1.129	1.139	1.150	1.160	1.170	1.180	1.190	1.200	1.210
13	.931	.940	.949	.959	.968	.977	.987	.996	1.005	1.015	1.024	1.033	1.042	1.052	1.061	1.070	1.080	1.089	1.098	1.108	1.117
14	.864	.873	.882	.890	.899	.908	.916	.925	.933	.942	.950	.959	.968	.977	.985	.994	1.003	1.011	1.020	1.029	1.038
15	.807	.815	.823	.831	.839	.847	.855	.863	.871	.879	.887	.895	.903	.912	.920	.928	.936	.944	.952	.960	.968
16	.756	.764	.771	.779	.787	.794	.802	.809	.817	.824	.832	.839	.847	.855	.862	.870	.877	.885	.892	.900	.908
17	.712	.719	.726	.733	.740	.747	.754	.762	.769	.776	.783	.790	.797	.804	.811	.819	.826	.833	.840	.847	.854
18	.672	.679	.686	.692	.699	.706	.713	.719	.726	.733	.739	.746	.753	.760	.766	.773	.780	.787	.793	.800	.807
19	.637	.643	.650	.656	.662	.669	.675	.681	.688	.694	.701	.707	.713	.720	.726	.732	.739	.745	.751	.758	.764
20	.605	.611	.617	.623	.629	.635	.641	.647	.653	.659	.666	.672	.678	.684	.690	.696	.702	.708	.714	.720	.726
21	.576	.582	.588	.593	.599	.605	.611	.617	.622	.628	.634	.640	.645	.651	.657	.663	.668	.674	.680	.686	.691
22	.550	.556	.561	.567	.572	.578	.583	.589	.594	.600	.605	.611	.616	.622	.627	.633	.638	.644	.649	.655	.660
23	.526	.531	.537	.542	.547	.552	.558	.563	.568	.573	.579	.584	.589	.594	.600	.605	.610	.616	.621	.626	.631
24	.504	.509	.514	.519	.524	.529	.534	.539	.545	.550	.555	.560	.565	.570	.575	.580	.585	.590	.595	.600	.605
25	.484	.489	.494	.499	.503	.508	.513	.518	.523	.528	.532	.537	.542	.547	.552	.557	.561	.566	.571	.576	.581

TABLES FOR COMPUTING THE SPACE READABILITY SCORES

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Table II "Hard Words"

Number of Words in the Sample

100	101	102	103	104	105	106	107	108	109	110	111	112	113	114	115	116	117	118	119	120
0	.659	.659	.659	.659	.659	.659	.659	.659	.659	.659	.659	.659	.659	.659	.659	.659	.659	.659	.659	.659
1	.741	.740	.739	.738	.737	.736	.736	.735	.734	.734	.733	.732	.732	.731	.730	.730	.729	.728	.728	.727
2	.823	.821	.820	.818	.817	.815	.814	.812	.811	.809	.808	.807	.805	.804	.803	.802	.800	.799	.798	.796
3	.905	.903	.900	.898	.896	.893	.891	.889	.887	.885	.883	.881	.879	.877	.875	.873	.871	.869	.867	.864
4	.987	.984	.981	.977	.974	.971	.968	.966	.963	.960	.957	.954	.952	.949	.947	.944	.942	.939	.937	.932
5	1.069	1.065	1.061	1.057	1.053	1.049	1.046	1.042	1.039	1.035	1.032	1.028	1.025	1.022	1.019	1.016	1.012	1.009	1.006	1.001
6	1.151	1.146	1.141	1.137	1.132	1.128	1.123	1.119	1.115	1.110	1.106	1.102	1.098	1.094	1.091	1.087	1.083	1.080	1.076	1.069
7	1.233	1.227	1.222	1.216	1.211	1.206	1.201	1.195	1.190	1.186	1.181	1.176	1.172	1.167	1.163	1.158	1.154	1.150	1.145	1.137
8	1.315	1.309	1.302	1.300	1.290	1.284	1.278	1.272	1.266	1.261	1.255	1.250	1.245	1.240	1.234	1.229	1.225	1.220	1.215	1.206
9	1.397	1.390	1.383	1.376	1.369	1.362	1.355	1.349	1.342	1.336	1.330	1.324	1.318	1.312	1.306	1.301	1.295	1.290	1.284	1.274
10	1.479	1.471	1.463	1.455	1.447	1.440	1.433	1.425	1.418	1.411	1.404	1.398	1.391	1.385	1.378	1.372	1.366	1.360	1.354	1.342
11	1.561	1.552	1.543	1.535	1.526	1.518	1.510	1.502	1.494	1.487	1.479	1.472	1.464	1.457	1.450	1.443	1.437	1.430	1.423	1.414
12	1.643	1.633	1.624	1.614	1.605	1.596	1.587	1.579	1.570	1.562	1.554	1.545	1.538	1.530	1.522	1.515	1.507	1.500	1.493	1.479
13	1.725	1.714	1.704	1.694	1.684	1.674	1.665	1.655	1.646	1.637	1.628	1.619	1.611	1.602	1.594	1.586	1.578	1.570	1.562	1.547
14	1.807	1.796	1.784	1.774	1.763	1.752	1.742	1.732	1.722	1.712	1.703	1.693	1.684	1.675	1.666	1.657	1.649	1.640	1.632	1.614
15	1.889	1.877	1.865	1.853	1.842	1.830	1.819	1.809	1.798	1.787	1.777	1.767	1.757	1.747	1.738	1.729	1.719	1.710	1.701	1.693
16	1.971	1.958	1.945	1.933	1.921	1.909	1.897	1.885	1.874	1.863	1.852	1.841	1.830	1.820	1.810	1.800	1.790	1.780	1.771	1.752
17	2.053	2.039	2.026	2.012	1.999	1.987	1.974	1.962	1.950	1.938	1.926	1.915	1.904	1.893	1.882	1.871	1.861	1.850	1.840	1.820

Number of "Hard Words"

APPLYING THE CLOZE PROCEDURE TO CHILDREN'S BOOK SELECTIONS

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This study was designed to determine at what level, as measured by the cloze procedure, sixth grade children selected trade books when a wide selection of books was available.

The sample consisted of one sixth grade class from Springdale, Arkansas. There were thirty subjects which included fourteen boys and sixteen girls. The study was conducted at the end of the school year. The sample was primarily selected on the following criteria:

1. A heterogeneous group that had access to a wide selection of trade books from the school library at least once a week.
2. A heterogeneous group that recently completed the SRA Assessment Survey: Reading, 1971 Edition, from which total reading scores were available for use in ranking.

The principle of self-selection suggests that the child will select books of an appropriate level of difficulty. Therefore, in applying the principle of self-selection to children and their trade book selections, children are able to recognize their own needs, thus selecting trade books they will understand (Olson, 1945).

The cloze procedure was the instrument utilized to determine the level of difficulty (frustration, instructional, or independent) at which the sample selected trade books (Bormuth, 1968). The cloze procedure is a technique implemented by systematically deleting words from a prose passage. The responses, given in the place of the deleted words, are then evaluated, thus reading levels can be assessed (Taylor, 1953).

On three different occasions, the sample of subjects selected trade books from the school library. Before the children read their trade books, they were collected in order that a cloze test could be constructed for each of them. A cloze test for each selection utilizing the every fifth word deletion was constructed. The cloze test was administered and then evaluated. Each cloze test contained fifty deletions. Correct responses out of fifty were totaled and multiplied by two in order to obtain a percentage score. The cloze test lends itself to the identification, through the percentage score obtained, of the functional reading levels. Percentage scores obtained from the subjects' performance on the cloze tests suggested one of the following classifications (Bormuth, 1968):

Frustration level:	below 37 percent
Instructional level:	between 38-57 percent
Independent level:	above 57 percent

Specifically, answers were sought to the following questions in order to fulfill the major purpose of the study:

1. What proportion of sixth grade children selected trade books at frustration, instructional, and independent level when provided with a wide selection of books?
2. Was there a difference between boys and girls in the difficulty level of trade books selected?
3. Was there a difference between high and low achievers in the difficulty level of trade books selected?
4. What types of literature were selected?
5. Were specific authors chosen frequently?

Focusing on the first question, Table I presents the data obtained from the sample of thirty subjects on cloze tests Nos. 1, 2, and 3. The data revealed that more than half of the sample selected trade books at the independent level. Almost all of the remaining sample selected trade books at the instructional level. A very small number (2 subjects) selected books at the frustration level, which only occurred on cloze tests Nos. 1 and 2. The sample tended to be very consistent in selection of trade books at the instructional and independent levels. Cloze tests Nos. 2 and 3 revealed a fluctuation in the sample to progress toward the independent level. The increase could be attributed to a practice effect in performance on the three cloze tests.

TABLE I
Number of Subjects at Each Level on
Cloze Tests Nos. 1, 2, and 3
(N = 30)

Test	Percent of Correct Responses			Total No. of Subjects
	Frustration Below 37%	Instructional Between 38% and 57%	Independent Above 57%	
1	1	13	16	30
2	1	9	20	30
3	0	10	20	30

Table 2 presents the data related to the second question which reveals distinctly that there was no significant difference between boys and girls in the difficulty level of books selected. Both groups (fourteen boys; sixteen girls) tended to progress toward the independent level on cloze tests Nos. 2 and 3. The SRA mean reading grade placement score for the boys was 8.20

TABLE 2

Boys and Girls at Each Level
(14 boys; 16 girls)
(N = 30)

Test	Sex	Frustration Below 37%	Instructional Between 38% and 57%	Independent Above 57%	Mean Percent Score	Standard Deviation	t-test
1	Boys	0	6	8	54.28	11.49	
	Girls	1	7	8	56.00	11.33	
2	Boys	1	6	7	58.00	14.50	
	Girls	0	3	13	64.75	12.51	
3	Boys	0	5	9	62.71	11.30	
	Girls	0	6	11	61.87	12.70	
							!
							-.5338

¹Not significant at .05 level, 28 df (critical value 1.701).

SRA mean grade placement score: boys, 8.20; girls, 7.95

SRA standard deviation: boys, 1.95; girls, 1.99

and for the girls was 7.95 indicating a very small difference in the area of reading achievement. Both groups tended to remain very consistent in selecting books at instructional and independent levels.

Data relevant to the third question is presented in Table 3 showing distinct differences between high and low achievers (8 high; 7 low) in trade book selections at each level. The high group remained consistent in scoring independent level on cloze tests Nos. 1, 2, and 3. The low group fluctuated. On cloze tests Nos. 1 and 2, two subjects were at frustration level. The low group remained primarily at instructional level with three subjects progressing toward independent level on cloze tests Nos. 2 and 3. The high group had a mean grade placement reading score of 10.1, while the low group had 5.5. These scores also revealed a wide range of reading ability between the two groups. Each group had a low standard deviation which indicated little variability in the grade placement reading scores within each group.

In answering question four, the data revealed that out of the ninety books selected by the sample during the study, the majority was fiction. The boys tended to select a wide variety of modern fiction mostly dealing with sports, especially baseball (during the time frame of the study it was

TABLE 3
High and Low Achievers at Each Level
(8 highs; 7 lows)
(N = 15)

Test		Frustration Below 37%	Instructional Between 38% and 57%	Independent Above 57%	Mean Percent Score	Standard Deviation	t-test
1	Highs	0	0	8	64.00	3.85	
	Lows	1	6	0	41.71	5.90	
2	Highs	0	0	8	74.25	6.54	
	Lows	1	4	2	48.00	10.51	
3	Highs	0	0	8	75.25	6.13	
	Lows	0	6	1	49.14	6.30	
							11.35*

*Significant at the .05 level, 13 df (critical value 1.77).

SRA mean grade placement score: highs, 10.1; lows, 5.5

SRA standard deviation: highs, .92; lows, .37

baseball season); girls selected trade books mostly in the area of family chronicles and regional literature. Six Newbery winners were selected at least once. Three Newbery runner-ups were selected at least once. Mystery and Newbery books were among the frequent selections made by both boys and girls.

In answering the fifth question, out of the total of the ninety trade books selected by the sample during the study, the authors chosen frequently and considered popular were Matt Christopher, Laura Ingalls Wilder, and Lois Lenski. Within the sample's total selection of trade books, boys selected predominately those written by male authors while girls selected predominately those written by female authors.

In conclusion, it is reasonable to assume that teachers and librarians can free the child to select trade books on his own for the majority of the sample selected on independent level. The interesting finding in this study is the fact that so few children selected trade books at frustration level. Here again, fears that adults may have, whether they be parents, teachers, or librarians, that children will hinder their reading development because of unwise choices of books appears to be unjustified.

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TEACHING METHODS UTILIZING A FIELD THEORY VIEWPOINT IN THE ELEMENTARY READING PROGRAM

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The trend in reading instruction during the past few years, has strongly focused on the whole child, his individuality, his feelings, beliefs, and goals as well as his cognitive abilities. All of these constitute the child's life space and are the "parts of the whole" that teachers must deal with. Consistent with this learning theory, the teacher's role has changed. Teaching now consists of the promotion and enrichment of the interactive learning process between the child and his environment. The teaching environment of the reading program is most important to the young reader's success. The acceleration of the reading process depends on the ability of the teacher to create an environment that both challenges and facilitates this interaction.

All of the articles concerned with reading and used for this report (see Annotated Bibliography), are in some way linked directly to the basic principles underlying the Cognitive-Field Theory of Learning. Throughout these articles the terminology most prevalent is significant of this learning theory, for example: "self-concept, perception of self, his world, needs, goals, individual, values, perceptions, insights, field of understanding, level of experience, learning environment, significant other, generalization, enrichment, and enhancement." The authors of these articles also emphasize the individual learner. They speak of the teachers as primarily a facilitator of learning rather than simply a dispenser of information. The teacher is in the "background" and the total individual child is in the "foreground." A child learns through interaction with the immediate environment and gains knowledge through these experiences. The importance of a *rich and stimulating* reading environment is stressed time and again.

The overall theme of the articles emphasizes the importance of the individual learner. The authors discuss the child in terms which depict his/her unique qualities, e.g. Priscilla Vail in "My Book." They further stress the absolute importance of an intimate, friendly, and enthusiastic teacher-student relationship. To be a successful reading teacher, one must know the child and "his world." The authors agree that self-concept is a major factor in the success of a beginning reader. The teacher, as a significant other, occupies a central role in nurturing and enhancing the young person in development. Mary Ann Henderson's article, "Reading While Becoming: Affective Approaches," suggests, for example, many

usable ways in which this may be accomplished. Know the child. Then match a method of teaching and learning that will facilitate success in reading as the "key" according to many of the authors. A very innovative example of this procedure is Zina Steinberg's "Batman Books: Homemade First Reader." This method she chose met the needs she identified in her individual students and thus enabled them to successfully enter the adopted program. Another article, "Let's Suppose Personality Interacts With Reading Instruction Methods," by Edwin Farrell, advises the teacher to consider the personality type of the child before deciding on the method to use. Similarly, all of the articles stress the importance of knowing and understanding the child before any teaching and learning can occur.

From analysis of these articles it is obvious that the role of the teacher is more important than the particular method used. The teacher makes the difference! However, the teacher's role is no longer considered to be primarily the information center in the classroom. It is now as an organizer, manager, and evaluator of the entire learning environment. The work is behind the "scene," challenging the child, not threatening nor coercing. The child is designated as the selector, learner, presentor, and self-evaluator of his own accomplishments. The teacher now occupies the role of advisor and facilitator of individualized teaching as required. Most of the articles illustrate what the child, not the teacher, will do in any learning setting. Such a creative way of utilizing children's eagerness to "help the teacher" is explored for example, in "A Program to Enhance Peer Tutoring," by Nancy Boraks and Amy Roseman Allen. This field-tested method was found to improve both reading achievement and school attitude. It provides responsible roles for children and creates a greater sense of community within the group. A new role-reversal unit was included which offset the undesirable superior-inferior relationship which might develop between the two children involved.

Many of the articles deal directly with the language experience approach to beginning reading. Once again the focus is on the child and the use of his/her own language as a vehicle to reading success. The teacher's role is to aid children in writing their own stories to read and share. Guy T. Bushwell's "A Limited Reading Program For Grades One Through Six," for example, states that "the teaching of beginning reading should grow out of and be intimately related to the oral language experiences of the child." Bushwell believes that if the initial material used for reading were limited to words from the child's own vocabulary there would be no problem of learning meaning, since "reading is basically a process of recognizing printed word symbols in the same way that the child has already learned to recognize spoken word symbols." This holistic approach has proven to be an effective/affective program of reading instruction.

Teachers are the guardians of the reading environment and the focus is on the individual. Four of the articles—by Freeley, Ley, Madden, and Meints—discuss self selective individualized reading programs and how they may be implemented in the classroom. They stress the need for a rich environment, a good variety of reading materials, and an abundance of

books at various levels, for the children to choose from. The child must be allowed to choose the book he wants to read and then be given uninterrupted time to do so. Individual work should be at the learner's level of competency; it should be distributed at his pace; and should be chosen by the teacher, with the child's interest taken into account. The accent is on brief lessons, conducted by an enthusiastic teacher, zeroing in on specific skills identified for review and evaluation.

This focus on the individual child, the modified teaching role, and an amelioration of the learning environment, should according to these articles, enhance learner motivation with a positive attitude toward reading. The child interacting within such an environment will be prepared for both independence in reading and the genuine pleasure he will gain from his experience. Accordingly, continued interest in personal reading as a natural, rewarding activity is the overall goal of the Cognitive-Field oriented teacher.

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Boraks, Nancy and Amy Roseman Allen, "A Program to Enhance Peer Tutoring," *The Reading Teacher*, 30:5 (February, 1977), 479-484.

A peer tutoring program was developed and field-tested to determine if elementary school children could actually utilize certain behaviors in an unstructured tutoring situation. Teaching the students to tutor their own classmates improved the reading achievement of both tutor and tutee.

Bushwell, Guy T., "A Limited Reading Program for Grades One Through Six," *Reading Improvement*, 13 (Spring, 1976), 10-13.

Two aspects of the reading program in grades one through six, vocabulary and silent reading, are discussed in the light of the overall principle that the teaching of beginning reading should grow out of and be intimately related to the oral language experiences of children.

Dank, Marion, "What Effect do Reading Programs Have on the Oral Reading Behavior of Children?" *Reading Improvement*, 14 (Summer, 1977), 66-69.

The article analyzes oral reading errors made by twenty children

during their second year of formal reading instruction. Readers in Ginn Reading 360 produced an average of 14.09 percent of oral reading deviations that did not alter the author's message, while those in McGraw Hill's Programmed Reading produced only an average of 7.01 percent. The experimenter attributes the difference to the formal reading instruction. Reading 360 places more emphasis on understanding what the author is communicating while Programmed Reading focuses on processing written symbols.

Farrell, Edwin, "Let's Suppose Personality Interacts with Reading Instruction Methods," *Journal of Reading*, 20:21 (November, 1976), 104-106.

The success of a particular method of teaching reading may be influenced by the personality type of the student. In the Jungian framework (one way of classifying personality types) the thinking type person would best be taught by the decoding-phonics method; the feeling type person by the language experience method; the sensation type by programmed instruction; and the intuitive type of the "look and say" method.

Freeley, Joan T., and Blanche Rubin, "Reading in the Open Classroom," *Language Arts*, 54:3 (March, 1977), 287-289.

The children approach their learning tasks in a businesslike, confident way. Reading instruction is both incidental and directed. The accent is on the individual learner, with the teacher accepting the responsibility for providing the learning environment and direct, functional, individualized teaching as it is required.

Henderson, Mary Ann, "Reading While Becoming: Affective Approaches," *Journal of Reading*, 20:4 (January, 1977), 317-326.

Programs have been initiated to develop reading competence, and others have focused on enhancing self-concept. This article delineates instructional practices which simultaneously advance the two.

Ley, Terry C., "How to Set Up and Evaluate a DIR Program," *Media and Methods* 15 (April, 1979), 20-28.

Directed Individualized Reading allows students to select books they want to read, gives them uninterrupted time to do the reading, and provides a format for feedback and evaluation. An essential component is the individualized teacher/student conference. The program also affords teachers an excellent opportunity to assess the interests and skill levels in their classroom.

Madden, Lowell. "The Learning Package Approach to Individualized Reading Instruction," *Reading Improvement*, 15 (Winter, 1978), 257-260.

A reading learning package is an instructional program which guides students' reading activities and development. It consists of self-contained sets of learning materials developed around selected children's books or stories. The children use the materials independently in a continuously progressive and self-paced manner.

Meints, Donald W.. "The Task System in an Individualized Reading Class," *Journal of Reading*, 20:4 (January, 1977), 301-304.

The article discusses how a teacher, committed to individual instruction, can structure a class so that students will be working at their own levels, paces, and interests, and yet receive instruction in reading as well as other facets of language arts and English.

Pienaar, Peter T., "Breakthrough in Beginning Reading: Language Experience Approach," *The Reading Teacher*, 30:5 (February, 1977), 489-496.

In a Canadian language experience approach study, conducted in both an English and a French-language school, primary pupils shared and read each other's lively writings. This open-ended, eclectic approach to learning to read and write revitalized both learning and teaching.

Smith, Deborah Deutsch, "The Improvement of Children's Oral Reading Through the Use of Teacher Modeling," *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 12:3 (March, 1979), 39-42.

The influence of the classroom teacher's reading orally before the child reads was investigated. Three learning disabled students participated in the study, and in every case the correct and error rates for oral reading improved remarkably. The data indicate that modeling could be an appropriate intervention to select when children are not yet proficient in oral reading.

Steinberg, Zina, "Batman Books: Homemade First Readers," *The Reading Teacher*, 29 (April, 1976), 676-682.

Through a most innovative way a first-year, first-grade teacher taught twenty-seven, non-English speaking immigrant children how to read. She utilized a "universal" children's hero Batman to create hand-made books that taught basic vocabulary. These books

enabled the children to successfully enter the formal reading program.

Vail, Priscilla, "My Book," *Instructor*, 86:7 (March, 1977), 66-69.

The purpose of the "My Book" is to reinforce the links connecting a child to his world and the written word. It affirms the child's unique qualities, and gives importance to his personal facts. Each individual child writes and illustrates his own book and shares it with his classmates.

Wulz, S. Vanost and John H. Hollis, "Word Recognition: A Task Based Definition for Testing and Teaching," *The Reading Teacher*, 32:7 (April, 1979), 779-785.

Six tasks for beginning readers define the act of comprehending printed words. Each can be tested and taught, utilizing any teaching procedure. The tasks are defined so the teacher can present any one or all of them as components of a teaching program.

MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS IN SECONDARY READING CLASSROOMS

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One outcome of federal, state or district funding of reading programs has been the development of a competency based curriculum with the inclusion of a classroom management system. This management system is the structure for the implementation of the goals, guidelines and behavioral objectives of the program. Each program with its management system is developed and written by teachers in consultation with school and/or district level cooperation.

The management system in use in the secondary reading classroom should also reflect the teacher's theoretical approach to the teaching of reading. The teacher needs to know what approaches are soundly based in research and how to go about selecting an approach which fits into his teaching style and methodology. The management system would then be a natural outgrowth of a well defined theoretical base. The system therefore would not be randomly selected from samples available and artificially implemented in the classroom.

The teacher's management system and the district's management system do not need to be mutually exclusive. The selection of structural components from each system can reflect the teacher's position and the district's position at the same time.

A Wholistic Approach

The purpose of this paper is to present a management system which reflects a wholistic (reading-language arts) approach to the teaching of reading. Only the management system and the wholistic approach will be discussed. The suggested materials for the teaching of reading both teacher made and commercially prepared which are listed on the sample contract are not discussed due to limited space. However the teachers in the program did use traditional reading materials in a carefully controlled wholistic approach in an innovative setting in the teaching of reading. They avoided assigning individual practice of a hierarchy of skills. The management system and wholistic approach was developed and implemented in an ethnically mixed urban junior high school over a period of four years.

Teachers and researchers who espouse the wholistic approach, view reading as a unitary act. The act should not and cannot be subdivided into bits and pieces of a hierarchy of reading skills. Rather it incorporates the various natural linguistic systems of the reader into a wholistic interrelationship of the graphophonic, syntactic and semantic cues of graphic language.

Reading strategies should involve the students' natural internal tendencies to reconstruct meaning from the writer's written message. In performing this process the student utilizes his natural predicting, confirming and comprehending strategies. These strategies are utilized in listening, reading, writing, and oral language activities through cooperative teacher planning between the classroom and the reading laboratory situation.

Wholistic (reading-language arts) strategy lessons are then based on the diagnostic assessment of individual needs of the students. Diagnostic assessments include the *Reading Miscue Inventory*, criterion referenced tests, standardized reading tests, and informal diagnosis. Contracts and record keeping can then be devised for each individual student in the classroom and reading laboratory with compliance with any existing federal, state or district guidelines.

A Wholistic Management System

The following management system was implemented in a Title I reading/English program at Charles Maclay Junior High School in Los Angeles. The Title I program, involving five seventh and five eighth grade classes, focused on the wholistic approach. This approach was selected after careful assessment of the students' reading status which indicated a need to strengthen their graphophonic, syntactic, and semantic cue systems in all the language arts (reading, writing, oral language and listening). The management system became an integral part of the reading/English program for each Title I student.

The teachers agreed that a successful wholistic reading program must implement three goal areas. These goal areas would be personalized through the implementation of the affective and cognitive areas of growth. Three cognitive-affective goal areas were identified and developed to: (1) provide for reading, both for pleasure and information; (2) provide for personalized skill development in listening, reading comprehension, writing, and oral language; and (3) improve the students' attitudes toward themselves, each other, and the school.

In order to meet these goals efficiently, a complete management system was devised. The management system includes: (1) a reading/English classroom/reading lab rotation schedule, (2) reading lab contracts, (3) goals and objectives for lab and classroom, and (4) pupil profile charts.

Classroom/Reading Lab Rotation Schedule

The reading/English classroom and reading lab management system is based on a five-week rotation, see Chart 1. The reading/English classrooms, of approximately 30 students, are divided into two groups of equal size. The 15 students in Group I go to the reading lab four days during Week 1 and four days during Week 2. Friday of each week is spent with the entire class in the classroom. The students in Group II follow the same schedule of going to the lab during Weeks 3 and 4 while Group I remains in the classroom.

CHART 1

	Week 1 & 2		Week 3 & 4		Week 5
	M-Th	Fr	M-Th	Fr	M-Fr
Classroom A CGAI CGAII	CGAII	CGAI CGAII	CGAII	CGAI	CGAI CGAII
Classroom B CGBI CGBII	CGBII	CGBI CGBII	CGBI	CGBI CGBII	CGBI CGBII
Reading Laboratory	CGAI CGBI	Lab Closed	CGAII CGBII	Lab Closed	Lab closed for new contracts and Learning Center Production

CGA = Classroom Group A

CGB = Classroom Group B

During Week 5 all 30 students remain in the classroom. On the following Monday the rotation begins again with Group I. The lab is closed on Fridays to allow time for correcting students' work and is closed during Week 5 to provide time for preparing new contracts and new learning stations.

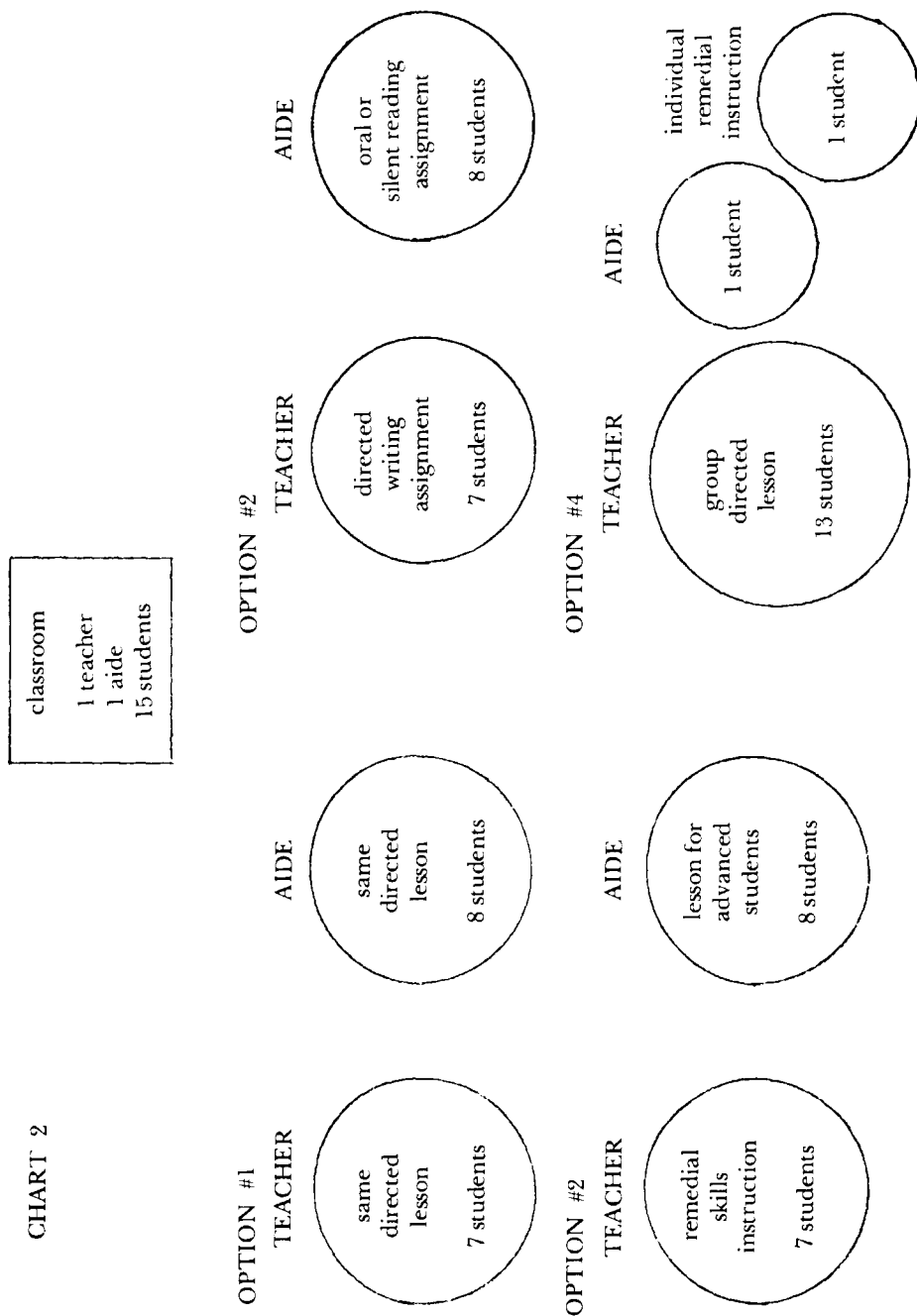
Classroom Organization

On the days that the student remains in the classroom he/she works with approximately 14 other students, a teacher and a teaching assistant on individualized reading, skill development, vocabulary, spelling, reading comprehension, writing and any other special project the classroom teacher has devised. As previously stated, Friday is spent with the entire class in the classroom. This day can be used for unit testing, introduction of new material, review, group presentations, etc.

Record keeping of daily attendance, classroom grades, and reading level grades are the responsibilities of the classroom teachers. The reading laboratory teacher gives her reading lab grades to the classroom teacher at the end of each 5-week period to be incorporated into the student's total grade.

This rotation system, Chart 2, offers the classroom teacher many op-

CHART 2



tions for managing the classroom. Some special advantages for the teacher and the student develop as a result of this management system.

1. The teacher may group students in various ways within one classroom.
2. The teacher can work with small groups of students giving her the opportunity to watch students work and to observe their thought process in operation. This enables the teacher to see mistakes in progress, thereby allowing her to make instant corrections.
3. The teacher plans her lessons for a two-week block of time which fits the time one group is in the lab. This lesson is repeated once again for Group II. By doing this, the teacher's preparation time is minimized.
4. The teacher has more time to deal with individual differences between students.
5. Student work can be immediately corrected for instant feedback.
6. Students have a choice of personalities. They don't have to work with the same person everyday. The teacher and teaching assistant alternate working within the groups.
7. The student has a two week period of time to intensively work through a unit. This gives the slower student a better chance to advance at his own rate.
8. Students can read both for pleasure and for information during a concentrated period of time.

Reading Lab Organization

Thirty students are in the lab at one time, approximately 15 seventh graders and 15 eighth graders. The responsibility for personalized skill development is with the lab teacher. In the lab, each student works on a personalized contract based on skill areas. Students are given their first contract based on the results of the *Stanford Diagnostic Reading Test*. Subsequent lab contracts are based on the student's achievement on the completed contract. Eighth grade students are given a contract based on work completed in seventh grade. The lab is staffed by the reading coordinator and two teaching assistants. Additional help is provided by ninth grade tutors.

The basic management tool in the lab is a student contract. Since the program's philosophy is wholistic in nature, each contract covers various skill areas incorporating listening, reading, writing and oral language activities. Student contracts are monitored and revised as students become more proficient. The materials covered in the contract are arranged in various learning centers so the students move around the lab from one center to another as directed on the contract. Correcting of work is done by the lab teacher and the teaching assistants and is done, as often as possible, as soon as the student completes the assignment.

The contract provides a detailed schedule of the student's work and progress over the two week period spent in the lab. Each contract, Chart 3, contains important information and instructions for the student, as well as for the teacher. The contract, as indicated by letter, provides:

CHART 3

Name _____ Contract # _____ Period # _____ Teacher _____

SKILLS TO BE LEARNED

7th Grade	Main Idea	Word Attack Sentence Analysis	Comprehension	Creative Writing	Creative Expression	Survival Skills	Multicultural	Prefixed Words
Specific Skills	*		Book	Unit	Unit			
Reading Practice Program		*	Unit	Lesson				
Match Challenge Feedback Spark			*					
Newsab			*	Blue	Green			
Tell a Tale				*				
Word Pictures				*				
What's In a Label?		Do		Exercise	*			
Business Letters		Write		Letters	*			
People Understanding People							*	
Nonsense								
Monsters								*

How did I do on each exercise? ***** Excellent Good, Fair Poor								

Possible Points	20							
Earned Points								

ABSENCES

EXTRA CREDIT

- A. A list of all skills covered on that contract
- B. A list of learning stations
- C. Instructions to the student about levels of difficulty and amount of work to be done
- D. The order in which students should go from one station to the next
- E. A self-evaluation column
- F. A grading column.

After the student completes the contract, the lab teacher and teaching assistants correct the student's work, give a grade to the contract, and give the grade to the classroom teacher who incorporates it with the classroom grades for report card grading purposes. (The classroom teacher is responsible for all official attendance taking and for all final grade recording.) A new contract is written for each rotation period.

Some special advantages exist in the contract system of organizing a reading lab and are as follows:

1. Students have an element of choice while following a structured contract. Each station can provide a selection of activities from which the student can choose.
2. Different learning styles can be accommodated in the same classroom. Students working at different stations can be using different approaches to learning.
3. Students can vary the order in which they finish their assignments. A student need not strictly follow the order of the contract, but can alternate one assignment with another.
4. The teacher using the contract has essentially made a lesson plan for all of the students which will cover a four-week period of time. This requires much concentrated planning at one point, but then frees the teacher for individual work with the students and gives her more time to plan future learning stations.
5. The various skill areas incorporated in teaching reading from a wholistic viewpoint can be presented to many students at various ability levels at the same time.

Goals and Objectives, Pupil Profile Chart

Since the reading program is wholistic and language arts based and incorporates both cognitive and affective areas of growth, the goals and objectives (skills) to be taught reflect this basic theoretical wholistic approach. These goals and objectives for the reading program are developed cooperatively among the classroom teacher and reading laboratory teacher. These lists of goals and objectives are a part of the overall daily planning of strategy lessons and the 5-week overview. Lesson plans for the classroom and the reading laboratory contract are devised and coordinated so that they compliment each other.

In addition to the goals and objectives for the program, individual pupil profile charts are kept in the reading lab. All of the skills taught in the

classroom and lab are recorded on the pupil profile chart, thus keeping a two-year progress report on each student.

Conclusion

There are advantages of incorporating the wholistic approach to teaching reading into a management system. This approach enables many students of many different abilities to study and become more proficient in the areas of listening, comprehension, writing and oral language. The students are better able to receive well-balanced reading instruction and will begin to see the reading process as a "whole." As they achieve success they begin to feel more positive toward themselves, each other and the school. While working as a united team which shares talents and skills, teachers in both the classroom and reading lab can successfully coordinate this wide spectrum of skills into a meaningful program.

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VALUE CLARIFICATION VIA BASAL READERS

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"Now that we've read 'Hansel & Gretel,' I want you to do some thinking about some of the characters in the story," Mrs. Ross told her second graders one April morning. "Copy 'Father,' 'Step-mother,' & 'Witch' from the board. When you go back to your seats, I want you to think about which one of these was the most evil. Write 1 in front of the character you believe was the most evil and 3 by the one who was the least evil. Then write 2 by the other one. Be ready to tell us why you decided as you did."

The next day Mrs. Ross began asking, "How many decided the witch was the most evil? The father? The step-mother?" Then she let several students explain the basis for their decisions, making sure that each character's evilness was explained by at least one child who had ranked the character high and by another child who had ranked the same character low. Throughout it all, Mrs. Ross never disagreed with a child whose reasoning was weak or fallacious but merely asked another child his/her reasons for ranking this character the same way. However, when it appeared that a significant fact wouldn't get mentioned, she asked, "Which character was the only one who actually *did* something evil?"

"Now that we have heard all the reasons, *after* each name on your paper, write 1 & 3 to show whom you *now* believe is most evil and least evil." After a few seconds, she said, "Did anybody change their mind? Do you want to tell us why you changed, Carol?" Carol declined and Mrs. Ross ended the discussion by saying, "If you enjoyed this discussion, maybe we could do something like it again. Now take out your workbooks."

Mrs. Ross was helping her pupils to read and think critically by having them consciously think through what constitutes evilness, by having them thoughtfully weigh alternatives, and by permitting them to decide for themselves what they believe. Simultaneously she was also helping them to clarify their values and beliefs about goodness and evil. She had adapted, to a reading situation, the concept advocated by Raths, Harmin, and Simon in *Values & Teaching* (1978).

Critical Reading via Value Clarification

Value clarification activities are designed to promote many of the same qualities usually associated with critical reading. They typically center on situations where people have an opportunity to decide between or among different possible choices. For example, which do you like best, lectures, discussions, or independent reading? Or, would you shoplift if you knew you wouldn't get caught?

Confronted with dilemmas such as these, values clarification activities attempt to have students discover and examine various alternatives, to weigh each thoughtfully, and to reflect on the consequences of each. This is also the height of critical reading. These are the same strategies that we want children to engage in while reading critically: Not to accept one answer or point of view but to generate and compare plausible choices and to judge them against some set of standards or criteria.

Teachers who, like Mrs. Ross, have adapted value clarification techniques to reading situations report several apparent changes in their pupils' reading and thinking. One, the pupils learn that there may be more than one "right" answer depending upon the point of view—the values—of the reader. When children choose differing answers to one question and then, to some degree, explain or justify their reasons, tolerance grows and diversity is respected.

Two, pupils seem better able to generate more than one alternative or point of view. "She could either say she found it or she could tell the truth and hope Ann wouldn't be angry." Narrowmindedness is decreased and multiple possibilities are encouraged. Such a classroom becomes more like the real world than the artificial one in most schools where the teacher's answer is the "correct" one.

On the other hand, justification and explanation sometimes seem not to grow perceptibly. This is probably because children are limited in their ability to articulate their reasoning, because they cannot adequately express their thoughts, rather than because they really don't become better able to judge their own and others' decisions. Aware teachers will accept "Just because" explanations, recognizing them as expressive language limitations rather than as inabilities in reasoning.

Clarifying Values

But the benefits of this approach go far beyond learning to read critically. If applied to appropriate reading selections, children can also identify, sharpen, and deepen their values and beliefs.

One way to develop values is to project one's self into another's situation, to "walk in another's moccasins." Reading selections in which a character is confronted with several possible courses of action is ideal for helping children compare, weigh, and reflect upon which course is most desirable. While children are considering whether Beth and Amy should befriend their new neighbor, they are simultaneously developing some insights into problems associated with moving to a new location. They can increase their empathy for their own new neighbors and even conceptualize how they might act in such a situation. They are clarifying their values of what a neighbor is and does.

Many selections in basal readers lend themselves particularly well to the clarification of values because they focus on children in decision-making situations. Biskin and Hoskisson (1974) and Harris and Smith (1976) point out that teacher-directed reading instruction is uniquely suited to get

children to think about right and wrong, justice, respect for others and similar aspects of moral development.

Teachers concerned with the moral and values development of their students should take advantage of these ready-made opportunities in basal readers: Developing critical reading/thinking skills and personal values simultaneously.

The remainder of this article illustrates seven simple and practical suggestions, based upon techniques recommended by Rath, Harmin, and Simon (1978). These techniques are: (1) Agree-Disagree, (2) Role Playing, (3) Unfinished Sentences, (4) Rank Order, (5) Forced Choice, (6) Values Voting, and (7) The Value Sheet.

In general, these suggestions are viewed as alternatives to and substitutes for many discussion and written comprehension activities found in basal reader teacher's manuals; they aren't viewed as something else for the busy teacher to do in addition to the myriad suggestions provided in commercial materials.

The examples are based on selections from seven current basal series and range from grades 1 through 6 to illustrate that the techniques have wide applicability. Only two things are required for successful use: (1) a situation in which a character could have acted, thought, or felt differently, and (2) a teacher able to accept and respect student opinions that may be immature, wrong, or even *opposite* his/her cherished lifelong values.

Sample Value Clarification Exercises

Agree-Disagree – “The Donkey Knows,” *Ups and Downs*, grade 1. (4)

One man pays another to ride along on his donkey. When they squabble over who will sit in the donkey's shade, the donkey bolts and runs away.

1. The Donkey Man was wrong to give the donkey some water. A DK D
2. The Walking Man had paid for the right to sit in the shade. A DK D
3. The Donkey Man should not have pushed the Walking Man. A DK D
4. Etc.

Role-Playing – “The Donkey Knows,” *Ups and Downs*, grade 1. (4)

Have the pupils dramatize the story and then have them think about:

What the man could have done with the water.

How else they could have handled sitting in the shade.

Then have them re-dramatize the story showing cooperation and thoughtfulness, not selfishness.

Unfinished Sentences – “A Left-Handed Surprise,” *Tricky Troll*, grade 2 (1)

Jim finds it isn't so bad being left-handed when he discovers his uncle, a professional baseball player, is also left-handed.

1. Jim shouldn't feel bad because . . .
2. Jim's mother should have . . .
3. Like Jim, I'm different from other children in that I . . .
4. Etc.

Rank Order — "Penny's Good Fortune," *Thundering Giants*, grade 3. (2)

As payment for working, Penny selects a treasure worth thousands of dollars. She decides to sell the statue and give 1/3 of the money to the store owner.

Mask the last paragraph on p. 176 and all of p. 177 and have children read to this point.

Have each child rank the following possibilities as to what they believe Penny should do. Discuss.

- _____ Return it to Mrs. Hobbs.
- _____ Sell it and keep the money.
- _____ Sell it and give Mrs. Hobbs \$100.
- _____ Sell it and give Mrs. Hobbs half the money.
- _____ Donate it to a museum.

Forced Choice (Within a Selection) "The New Bike," in *Dreams and Dragons*, grade 4. (6)

Nancy buys a tandem bike rather than a 10-speed one for her paper route so her blind friend Beth can ride along and help her.

1. Nancy's father was unwise to let her buy the tandem. Yes No
2. Nancy should have discussed the situation with Beth before buying the tandem. Yes No
3. Etc.

Forced Choice (Among Selections) — "Walking Alone and Together — Unit Five," *Person to Person*, grade 4. (7)

After reading a unit, have pupils respond to the following questions about selections in it. A discussion may follow.

1. Who do you think faced the biggest problem, "The Fastest Quitter in Town" or "Joey"?
2. Which did you think was most realistic, "Joey" or "Salt Boy"?
3. Which did you like best, "Delilah" or "Goldie, the Dollmaker"?
4. Which did you have to think about most to understand it, "Goldie, the Dollmaker" or "Salt Boy"?

Values Voting — "The Black Stallion and the Red Mare," *Moments*, grade 5. (3)

A stallion heads a band of wild horses which "steal" horses from surrounding farms. The farmers band together and capture the herd. The stallion stays with his blind mare rather than running to freedom.

"If you agree, raise your hand; if you disagree, turn thumbs down and if you are undecided, fold your arms."

1. Donald was wrong to tell his father where the wild horses were.
2. The stallion was dumb to stay with the mare and be caught.
3. Donald's father showed good judgment in letting the stallion and mare stay together in captivity.

The Value Sheet - "The Endless Steppe," *Racing Stripes*, grade 6. (5)

A 10-year-old girl and her family live in exile in a labor camp in Siberia in the 1940's. She and her grandmother take a few of the family's belongings to a village market to trade for food.

Have pupils write responses to the following questions. Then discuss in small groups or teacher can read responses anonymously and without comment.

1. If exiled to a labor camp, what five personal belongings (other than clothes) would you take with you?
2. Which would you be willing to trade for food as Esther did?
3. After being on a restricted diet for several weeks like Esther was, what are 2-3 kinds of food would you trade your belongings for?
4. Is it right for a whole family to be sent to a labor camp when only the father was "guilty"? Why or why not?

These are not the only selections in these books which lend themselves to these techniques; these were chosen merely to illustrate various possibilities. Readers intrigued by the possibilities of stimulating in-depth critical and creative thought via the values clarification approach are encouraged to read thoughtfully the selections in their own series and to adapt any of the above techniques they conclude fit the children they teach. But above all, readers are urged first to familiarize themselves with values clarification as described by Rath (1978), Simon (1972), or Vollmer (1977) because the role of the teacher is as important - possibly more so - than the activities themselves.

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READING RESEARCH AND CLASSROOM PRACTICES

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Research in reading has been voluminous over the years. Whether research has been conducted to satisfy one's doctoral requirements or whether it has been done by university or school personnel to prove or disprove an educational theory, a portion of the research studies done can be disclaimed for three simple reasons: (1) the hypothesis or premise under which the study was launched has been shabbily conceived, (2) the problem was not clearly defined, and (3) research results cannot be replicated or stand up against rigorous examination because of faulty research design.

Research in reading instruction or any other area for that matter can be considered "solid" or "sound" when it presents another concern which leads to a key question: "How much of this research gets translated into actual classroom practice?" As a supervisor who works with classroom teachers daily, I can respond by saying "very little." This is unfortunate, because if reading instruction is to be effective, teachers must keep abreast of current developments in the field and change classroom procedures whenever sound research warrants it.

The emphasis for the schools should be on curriculum—particularly the reading curriculum for in the long run it is the curriculum that will improve academic achievement of students and help a school system mobilize for excellence. Yet so many school systems get bogged down in such issues as discipline and vandalism. These issues, of course, must be considered but they do prevent the schools from devoting more attention to matters related to the curriculum.

The New Haven public school system has made communication concerning its curriculum a top priority. Every third Monday of the month has been designated as Curriculum Monday. School faculties meet to discuss only matters regarding the curriculum, especially the reading curriculum so that teachers and administrators are kept abreast of current developments. Additionally, citywide Curriculum Meetings have been held in various school locations so that parents can ask questions about all phases of the curriculum.

Organizations such as the NCTE and IRA have published a great deal of useful information with sound research behind it in their journals and other professional material. Indeed, many journals devoted to reading/language arts instruction have for years devoted portions of their issues to synopses of current studies. No one can say definitely what the impact has been. It is my hope that the impact has been tremendous, but I am realistic enough to think that the impact has been moderate at best.

How can administrators, classroom teachers and reading personnel—people who deal with children every day—be encouraged to use research results in tangible ways to upgrade reading programs where it counts—in the classroom? Six modest proposals for achieving this worthwhile goal follow:

1. Principals, supervisors, and reading and classroom teachers who conduct significant research, whether it is an individual enterprise or done in conjunction with graduate study, should be encouraged, or even required, to share research results as part of the school system's staff development program.
2. Part of each school system's Superintendent's Bulletin or Newsletter should be devoted to sharing in specific and clear language research studies which have implications for upgrading instruction.
3. Principals and/or supervisors should ask staff members to report, as part of a staff or faculty meeting, on a research article or one describing a promising practice found in such journals as *The Reading Teacher*, *Journal of Reading*, *Reading World*, *The Journal of Educational Research*, *Reading Research Quarterly*, *Research in the Teaching of English* or *Reading Horizons*.
4. If school systems defray the cost for staff members to attend conventions, institutes and other meetings which disseminate current research findings, participants should be asked to write a *concise* report or review on current developments for distribution throughout the school system.
5. Boards of Education should allocate funds for research. Additionally, they should hire a Director of Research and Planning (How many school systems have done so?) who can be instrumental in identifying problems in reading in need of further study, initiating the needed study and disseminating the results. This is a viable idea because it can also pinpoint areas in which money is being spent which are not yielding good results. In essence, this will eliminate waste in already-tight school budgets.
6. School personnel and college personnel can work together in launching needed research. College resources and facilities, i.e., Computer Centers, Data Processing Labs and so on can be used in treating the statistical data compiled. As a Supervisor, I have met with graduate advisors at a local college with suggestions of topics in reading in need research which they could recommend to their advisees for possible theses topics. Results will be shared with local school personnel.

Concluding Remarks

An effective reading program is one which embodies sound research. Since research is an ongoing process, it is incumbent upon school personnel to keep abreast of current research and incorporate the latest research findings in the instructional program. The line between research and classroom practice tends to be too distinct. Proposals outlined in this ar-

ticle, if accepted and acted upon, can make a difference between a quality program and one that is only mediocre. Isn't that reason enough to consider them carefully?

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CHARACTERISTICS OF READING PROGRAMS IN MICHIGAN COMMUNITY AND JUNIOR COLLEGES

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A study of the characteristics of reading programs offered to students in the thirty-three publicly supported community and junior colleges in the State of Michigan indicates that there are areas in which great strides have been made and other areas in which much work needs yet to be done. A mailed questionnaire adapted from the instrument used by Dr. Ted K. Kilty in his study of *Reading Programs in Penal Institutions* was utilized to gather the information. Twenty-two of the institutions, or exactly two-thirds of the sample, returned the questionnaires which asked for information on eleven characteristics of the reading programs offered to their students. The characteristics included: levels of instruction, training of the reading instructor, method of teacher involvement, method of student involvement, placement testing, reading materials available, the characteristics of the program, comparison of number of students involved versus number of students eligible, record of students progress, availability of further reading programs, and the funding source.

Levels of Instruction

All but one of the responding institutions (96%) reported that reading instruction is offered to the students at their institutions. The responses also indicated that there is a descending frequency in the difficulty levels of the reading instruction provided. Twenty-two (100%) of the institutions reported that they offer reading instruction at the 7th grade level and above; nineteen (86%) also offered reading instruction for grade levels 4 through 6; and twelve (55%) provide reading instruction in basic skills at grade levels 1 through 3.

Training of Reading Instructor

Although almost all of the people presenting reading instruction are employees of the institution (91%), six of the institutions also reported using para-professionals, volunteer tutors and student teachers from teacher-training colleges.

Methods of Student Involvement

With the exception of one institution which did not answer the question, all of the respondents reported that students may receive reading instruction by requesting it. In an unexpected but encouraging trend, it was also noted that eight (36%) of the institutions further require that some students receive reading instruction. However, the criteria varied widely. All eight of the institutions noted that such assignment was based upon test results. In deciding which level and type of instruction should be presented, eighteen (82%) reported the use of a diagnostic test, nine (41%) used informal reading inventories, five (23%) used trial lessons, and eight (36%) utilized other methods. It should be noted that these types were not mutually exclusive; that is, an institution which used diagnostic testing may also use informal reading inventories and/or trial levels in combination.

Materials Available

Three types of materials were reported by more than three-fourths of the institutions responding. Most frequently used were workbooks, noted by twenty (91%) of the institutions. Separate reading devices of the controlled reader type were reported by eighteen (82%) of the institutions, and programmed materials with difficulty levels of the S.R.A. type were noted by seventeen (77%). Materials reported by 50% or more of the responding institutions included tachistoscopes (Tach-x type)—59%, books for free reading—59%, and sight-sound projection (Aud-x)—50%. Not being utilized by at least half of the institutions were magazines—46%, newspapers—41%, and graded materials of the classroom series type—18%.

Time Requirements of the Program

As would be expected, the average length of time that the students stayed in the program was one term or one semester depending upon the school calendar. Typically, the time required amounted to approximately three classroom periods per week. Some institutions noted that the classroom structure through which the reading was presented was one session per week for a three hour block, whereas other institutions noted one fifty minute class period per day three times a week. It should also be noted that some of the institutions reported that the instruction was provided on a walk-in basis whereby students could avail themselves of an instructional or tutorial laboratory as they wished.

Comparison of Student Involvement to Student Eligibility

The number of students involved compared to the number of students eligible was approximately one to sixty. The average number of students enrolled in the programs was reported to be 100 and the average number of students enrolled on the campuses of those reporting was slightly over 6,000.

Records of Student Progress

All of the responding institutions reported that they kept records of the students' progress.

Availability of Future Reading Programs

Only five (28%) of the respondents reported the existence of a second reading program.

Funding Sources

Three (18%) institutions indicated that a portion of their funding was from federal sources. Eleven (52%) cited state funds as a source of their funding, and eight (38%) received funds from city-county monies. However, twelve (57%) noted that at least a portion of their funds came from tuition and their own operating budgets. Again, as was the case for placement testing, the numbers were not mutually exclusive, and funds were reported to be from a combination of varying sources by several of the respondents.

Interpretation and Recommendations

The fact that the overwhelming majority of community and junior colleges respond that reading instruction is offered to the students is indeed encouraging. However, the open-door policy that most community and junior colleges pursue indicates that the lack of reading instruction in almost half of the institutions at the basic skills levels could effectively bar students who, for one reason or another, have completed their formal training in the public schools and who nevertheless lack enough reading ability to engage in work offered at the community and junior colleges. It is not the position of this writer that students should be encouraged or even allowed to attend classes offering college work without possessing basic skills, but the lack of the availability of basic skills instruction makes it quite certain that the individual who needs such instruction will have to obtain it elsewhere if in fact it is available at all. The recognition that the people in charge of the reading program should have formal training in the teaching of reading and should also be a certified teacher is evidenced by the high percentage of positive responses received on both questions and is commendable. Apparently community and junior colleges recognize the need to employ their own teachers for reading programs as evidenced by the 90% of institutions reporting that their reading teachers are employed by the community and junior colleges. The involvement of student teachers and para-professionals in delivery of those services is also a positive step.

One of the weaknesses focused by the findings is the number of institutions that require some students to receive reading instruction. Although all but one of the institutions noted that a student may receive reading instruction by requesting it, it is most unlikely that the total number of students who need reading instruction is being adequately

identified. Although approximately one-third of the institutions utilize one criteria or another to require that students below a certain level receive reading instruction, it is strongly suggested that all of the institutions administer a standardized reading test which would permit identification of students whose measurable skills would not predict success in the courses offered in that institution and who would be required to take reading improvement courses that could provide the basis of success before the student could be registered for courses involving reading.

The major number of institutions who reported the use of diagnostic tests to establish the kind of reading project to be presented is not only positive but correlates well with the high number of institutions reporting reading program personnel who have formal training in the teaching of reading. However, the findings obtained from the respondents are curious in that less than 50% of the institutions included informal reading inventories and trial lessons as means of determining the instruction to be presented. It is far more likely that teachers with reading instruction would be trained in using the latter two methods than it is that they would be competent to administer diagnostic tests.

The high number of institutions reporting the utilization of workbooks with exercises to be completed as well as the speed reading and programmed materials apparently demonstrates a desire on the part of the reading teachers to provide instruction for the various reading levels of students incorporated within any class. It is also noted that the use of newspapers and magazines is not as great as would be anticipated and that the graded readers of the classroom series type with which many students have probably had unsuccessful experiences are seldom used.

A second area in which there appears to be room for growth is the time characteristics of the program. The length of the program, one term or one semester, with the reported three class hours per week will be successful only in instances where that amount of instruction will provide the difference between the degree of success the student is initially experiencing and the level that he needs to be successful. It is unlikely that three class hours per week for fifteen to eighteen weeks, a total of forty-five to fifty-four hours, would in itself strengthen the reading skills of students successfully to permit them to compete in community and junior colleges. It is recommended that not only should the reading be required but that the amount of instruction should be increased to the point at which success in achieving the needed reading skills is a reasonable expectancy.

It is encouraging that all of the respondents note that they keep records of the students' progress. Although only five (28%) of the institutions state that there is a continuing reading program available, it may be that the reading program in existence can be repeated and continued as long as the student needs it; and, therefore, a need for a second program would not necessarily be indicated.

The fact that more than 50% of the institutions report that tuition and the general operating budget provide funds for the institution for the reading program is a trend in the right direction which nevertheless needs

much growth. Although twelve (57%) of the institutions report such financial sources, ten (43%) do not. The scope of the program is not likely to be successful without the financial support of the institution in addition to the federal, state or city-county funding that is provided.

Finally, the ratio of one student out of sixty who is receiving reading instruction is almost certain to be far below the number of students who need it. Without the testing to identify students with reading problems, the increase in the amount of time engaged in reading instruction, and the further increase of supportive funding, the number of students receiving reading instruction cannot reach the goal of providing adequate reading instruction to every student enrolled at community and junior colleges who needs it.

PROFESSIONAL CONCERNS:

R. Baird Shuman, EDITOR

READING AND THE VOCATIONAL/ INDUSTRIAL ARTS TEACHER

Michael T. Conroy

STATEN ISLAND, NEW YORK

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.

In most industrial arts and vocational education classes, there are students who have a high desire to design, create, and make a project. Simply stated, they want to learn. The student's built-in motivation can be used as a springboard to introduce reading into the shop area.

A few years ago, it was not uncommon to hear industrial arts and vocational educators respond to the idea of teaching reading skills with replies such as: "Who, me? I'm an industrial arts teacher, not a reading teacher."

Today the prevailing attitude seems to be that specific reading skills must be taught. Comprehension of printed material must be assured, and the industrial arts and vocational educator is the person most qualified to teach specific reading skills related to printed materials used in the shop. The teacher's knowledge of the industry, professional teacher training, skill with tools, machines, materials and processes, combined with an understanding of the students' individual strengths and weaknesses, enable him/her to teach the necessary reading skills. In addition, the teacher has first hand practical knowledge of the manner in which the printed items should be read, understanding of the concepts and technical terms, intimacy with the nuances of the trade, and a knowledge of the proper procedures and presentation of manual skills.

The physical plant, design, and layout of the shop enables the teacher to interact with students both formally and informally. The shop organization and instructional procedures lend themselves to teaching reading skills to a class, small group, or individuals. Students can be instructed in reading as they perform manual activities based upon instructional sheets at the work

bench or machine. In this way, the direct person-to-person type of instruction has immediate practical application.

Terminology

As one reads the printed pages used by industrial arts and vocational education teachers, it becomes obvious that the terminology is unique. The words are different from those used in other educational areas, in that technical terms relate directly to the language of a trade or industry. It is a language that must be learned and mastered before one can fully comprehend the printed words. For example: "The cut is locked up in the chase on the stone near the furniture."

Generally speaking, unless one is familiar with the vocabulary associated with letterpress printing, the sentence is not easily comprehended.

The words *cut*, *locked up*, *chase*, *stone*, and *furniture* are meaningful in a special way to the printer, as part of this technology's vocabulary. The industrial arts and vocational education teacher uses trade terms in the same manner in which others use familiar, every-day words.

Students benefit greatly from the teaching of reading skills by the industrial arts and vocational educator. When the teacher relates the skills taught directly to specific printed assignments, concrete gains can result. The shop teacher is providing the student with (1) the opportunity to learn or review a specific reading skill, (2) personal experience of the relationship between reading and shop work, (3) an opportunity to use reading in a practical situation, and (4) the opportunity to read, and immediately implement the instructions on printed pages with regard to the completion of a project.

A negative attitude toward school and reading may be replaced by a realization of the practicality of specific reading skills. The industrial arts and vocational educator can assist his students by identifying difficult or unfamiliar technical terms and by explaining new concepts in detail. The reading of words that have different meanings in different settings can be a stressful experience for students. Problems encountered in reading technical literature can be reduced by defining such terms in advance.

The instructor's careful planning (analysis of reading skills required to understand the material, concepts, technical terms, objectives) can result in an educationally worthwhile reading assignment. To achieve this end, the appropriate reading skills must be introduced into the lesson in a pre-planned, organized manner.

The Teacher—Opportunities to Teach Reading

Teachers of industrial arts and vocational education encounter many situations in which various reading skills can be taught.

1. *Labeling.* Wherever practicable, plastic, adhesive backed labels should be attached to the exterior parts of machines the students are learning to operate. Appropriate descriptions and names should also be placed near tools in the tool closet.

2. *Display Boards/Process Boards.* Shops frequently display process

boards as instructional aids. These learning devices should be so designed as to contain the technical terms related to the mock-up or illustration displayed.

3. *Instructional Sheets.* These instructional aids are usually written by the teacher. Reading skills which can be taught through the use of instructional sheets are: drawing conclusions, getting the meanings of words from context, arranging details in order, and following printed directions.

4. *Textbooks,* used in industrial arts/vocational education are important tools. They offer background material pertinent to an industry—its tools, machines, processes, occupations, products, and terminology. Safety considerations are also frequently treated. Here word attack skills emphasized by the student's language arts/reading teacher are utilized and refined.

5. *Research Reports.* The shop teacher frequently assigns research reports on famous people known for their contributions to a specific industrial field. If such an assignment can be made to coincide with the language arts teacher's exploration of biography in general, the student's work will be doubly beneficial. The potential for cooperation between teachers of other departments and those in the shop field is great.

6. *Safety.* The importance of the safety factor in shop work is paramount. In order to reinforce certain safety precautions and procedures, the industrial arts/vocational teachers rely on the use of instructional sheets, tests, posters, and signs. The student who encounters difficulty in reading frequently makes an extra effort in this regard in the shop area. S/he realizes that certain tools and machines cannot be used if the operator is unable to comprehend and follow directions. The shop teacher can capitalize on this extra motivation by working with students in the design and execution of appropriate directions, signs, posters, and labels. Word recognition skills is one area that can thereby become highly developed.

Conclusion

The teachers of industrial arts and vocational education are in a unique position with regard to the remediation and development of reading skills. In the minds of many junior and senior high school students, "shop" has long been synonymous with meaningful activity culminating in a desired project. Shop work has frequently symbolized success for even the less academically oriented. Using this enthusiasm and motivation to aid students in the perfection of their reading skills is the challenge facing shop teachers.

REVIEWS—CHILDREN'S BOOKS

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I Hate It. By Miriam Schlein, ill. by Judith Gwyn Brown, Albert Whitman, 1978. 28 pp. reinforced binding, \$4.75. Ages 4-7.

This book is a colorfully illustrated account of things young children typically do not like, such as getting dressed up. The text is brief and highly predictable, and should delight young readers. The size of the book itself is just right for little hands. Teachers may want to read the story aloud as a beginning activity for student's writing their own *I Hate It* book.

Everybody Takes Turns. By Dorothy Corey, ill. by Lois Axeman, Albert Whitman, 1980. 29 pp. reinforced binding, \$5.95. Ages 4-6.

Sharing and taking turns is an important concept for young children to learn. The author presents a variety of situations to convey this social lesson to beginning readers. The text is somewhat artificial and stilted, but the topic of sharing is not easily handled when readability level is important. The vocabulary of this book is repetitious and controlled for easy beginning reading.

I'm Busy, Too. By Norma Simon, ill. by Dora Leder, Albert Whitman, 1980. 28 pp. reinforced binding, \$6.25. Ages 3-6.

Early childhood teachers will want to add this book to their read-aloud library. The author skillfully describes a day's activities of three pre-school children and their families. The busy day of the youngsters and their working parents is presented in a delightful, yet realistic manner. The detailed illustrations nicely enhance the text, clearly depicting a variety of activities. In our contemporary society, young children will easily relate to the busy families in the story.

The Hiding House. By Judith Vigna, Albert Whitman, 1979. 30 pp. reinforced binding, \$6.50. Ages 6-8.

This easy reading story tells of two girls who are special friends, and who have a special private place to play. A new girl, who moves into the neighborhood, creates a temporary disaster between the friends. The story ends happily as all three become friends and play together in the hideout. The author presents a realistic account of a child dealing with anger and hurt feelings in a friendship. Each

colorful illustration extends the text. Early elementary readers will enjoy this book as a read-aloud story or as independent reading.

The Skates of Uncle Richard. By Carol Fenner, ill. by Ati Forberg. Random House, 1978. 46 pp. \$4.95.

In this story Marsha dreams of becoming a champion figure skater and longs for her own ice-skates. Her dream is shattered when she receives Uncle Richard's "good old skates" for Christmas. As the story ends, Marsha's first skating lesson brings back smiles and dreams. This "hope-filled" story allows youngsters to relate to a young girls' dreams and frustrations. The black and white illustrations convey the moods of the text. Teachers may want to read this book aloud to the class as an effective discussion starter for creative story writing.

Gorilla Gorilla. By Carol Fenner, ill. by Symeon Shimin. Random House, 1973. 48 pp. \$4.95.

This is an enthralling account of the jungle life of a gorilla, birth to adulthood. The well-researched and accurate details of this animal life present a unique resource for the classroom. The story continues when Gorilla is captured and taken to a Zoo. The animal's difficult adjustment to a new life is depicted in a moving and compassionate way, through text and illustration. This unusual story may appeal most to upper elementary students. However, anyone who reads or hears it will visit the gorilla cage at the Zoo with greater understanding of this animal.

Galaxy I Series. By Harriett S. Abels, ill. by Rodney and Barbara Furan. Crestwood House, 1979. 47 pp. reinforced binding, \$5.95 each; Paperback, \$2.50 each.

This science fiction series of 9 titles presents the interstellar adventures of Captain Druce and his crew, Galaxy I. Each story is a separate, detailed account of the missions of Emergency Ship 88. The author combines a fast-moving plot with a timely topic which results in exciting space adventure. The illustrations, which often show only the characters, may have been more effective depicting the action of the text. According to the publisher, the readability level is from third to fifth grades. However, these and older readers may need additional help with concepts and specialized vocabulary before traveling through space in the stories.

