



Reading Horizons: A Journal of Literacy and Language Arts

Volume 19
Issue 3 April 1979

Article 17

4-1979

Reading Horizons vol. 19, no. 3

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



Part of the Education Commons

Recommended Citation

(1979). Reading Horizons vol. 19, no. 3. *Reading Horizons: A Journal of Literacy and Language Arts*, 19 (3). Retrieved from https://scholarworks.wmich.edu/reading_horizons/vol19/iss3/17

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

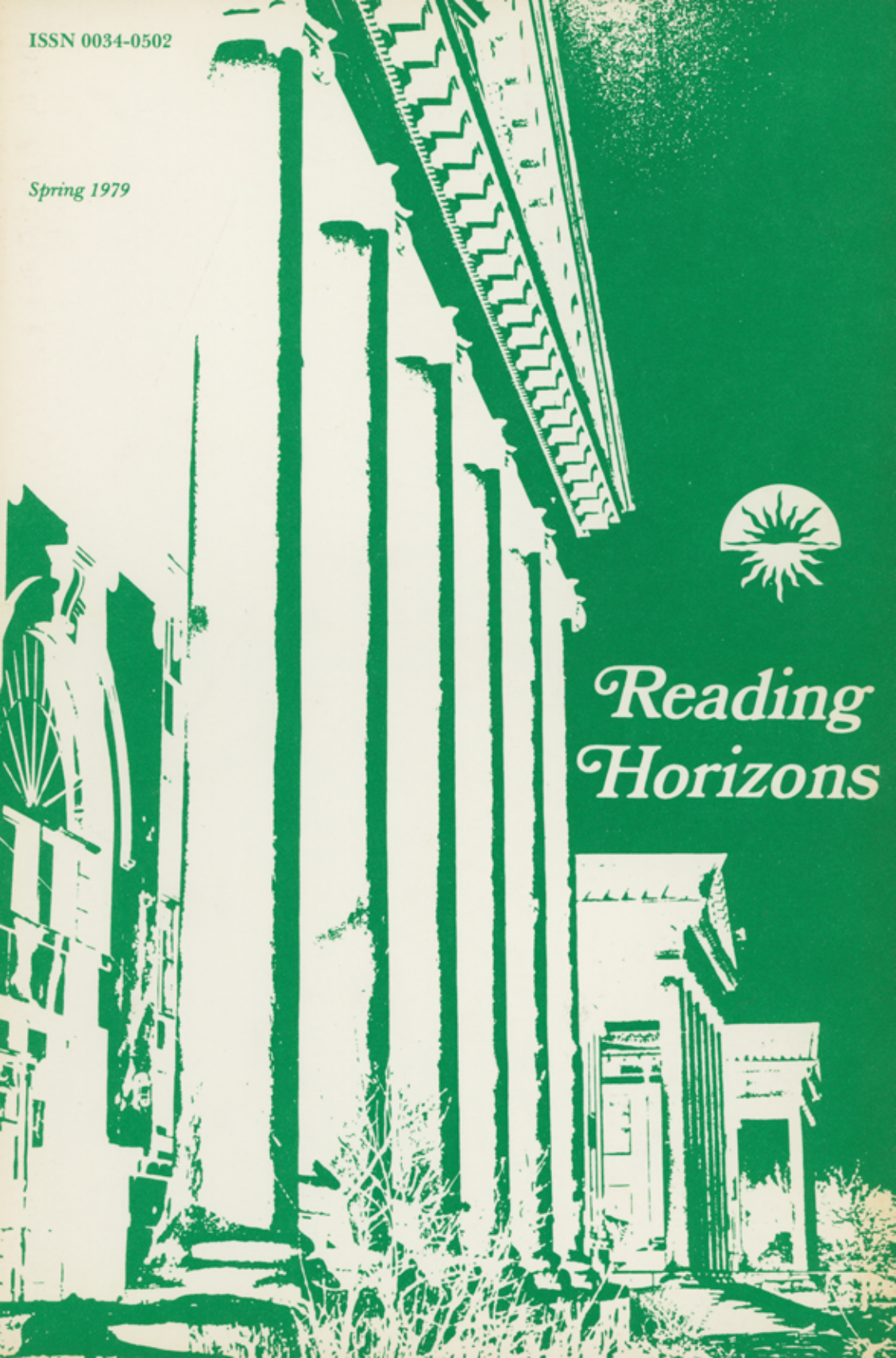


ISSN 0034-0502

Spring 1979



Reading Horizons



Reading **HORIZONS**



VOLUME 19

NUMBER 3

EDITOR :

Kenneth VanderMeulen

ASSOCIATE EDITOR :

William L. Holladay

EDITORIAL BOARD :

Jerry L. Johns
Northern Illinois University

Thomas F. Ryan
Western Michigan University

Lucille Hammond
Carter Council President

Dr. Howard G. Ball
Alabama A&M University

FEATURE WRITERS :

Eleanor Buelke
Reading Specialist
Portage, Michigan

Donald C. Cushenbery, Professor
University of Nebraska, Omaha

R. Baird Shuman
Director of English Studies
University of Illinois, Urbana

Mark E. Thompson
Department of Human Resources
State of Kentucky

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



-
- READING HORIZONS** A professional journal of the College of Education and the Homer L. J. Carter Reading Council. HORIZONS is published quarterly by the Western Michigan University Press. Copyright 1979, 2nd class postage rate paid at Kalamazoo, MI.
- SUBSCRIPTIONS AND CHANGE OF ADDRESS** Subscriptions are available to all persons interested in reading at \$5.00 per year. Address all correspondence and change of address to READING HORIZONS, College of Education, Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo, Mich. 49008.
- MANUSCRIPTS** Manuscripts, books, and any other materials for possible publication or review can be sent to Kenneth VanderMeulen, Editor, READING HORIZONS, Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo, MI 49008. Author's guides and publication policies are available on request.
- MICROFILM** Microfilm copies are available from University Microfilms, 300 Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, MI 48106. Back issues, while available, can be purchased from READING HORIZONS, Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo, MI 49008.
- ADVERTISING** Advertising rates, policy, and information can be obtained from the Advertising Manager, READING HORIZONS, Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo, MI 49008.
- EDITORIAL POLICY** The contents and points of view expressed in this journal are strictly those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the opinion of the editorial board of READING HORIZONS.

Copyright 1979
by Reading Center and Clinic

RH
TM

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

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DIANNE HUNTER		Guest Editorial — Enlarging the Perspective
JOAN B. GRADY	193	Science Fiction: The Future in the Classroom
ELEANOR BUELKE	197	Worlds of Language Within the Classroom
MARTHA RAPP HAGGARD	200	What Administrators Actually Know About Reading Programs
JANE WARREN MEEKS		
SANDRA McCORMICK	208	A Reading Lesson Checklist for the Principal
DOROTHY GARMAN	212	Reading—Do We Need to Know What it is Before We Try to Teach It?
W. JOHN HARKER	217	Implications from Psycholinguistics for Secondary Reading
PATRICIA CUNNINGHAM	222	Beginning Reading Without Readiness: Structured Language Experience
ROBERT F. CAREY	228	Cloze Encounters of a Different Kind
JERRY AXELROD	232	Word Analogies: An Overlooked Reading Aid
JERRY L. JOHNS	235	Reading Assessment—The Third Dimension
HELEN HOWELL	237	Peer-Tutoring: Learning Boon or Exploitation of the Tutor?
R. BAIRD SHUMAN	240	Professional Concerns: William S. Palmer — “Beginning Reading: A Continuing Debate”
DONALD C. CUSHENBERY	245	Effective Procedures for Teaching Reference Study Skills
MARK E. THOMPSON	248	Remedial College Freshmen English Students: Description and Characteristics
BONNIE C. PLUMMER		
RH STAFF	256	Quick Reviews



EDITORS-AT-LARGE

- A. STERL ARTLEY Professor of Education
Curriculum and Instruction
University of Missouri-Columbia
- EMMETT A. BETTS Research Professor
University of Miami
- LEONARD BRAAM Associate Professor of Education
Reading and Language Arts Center
Syracuse University
- BEN BUTTERWORTH Headmaster
Higham-on-the-Hill
C. E. Primary School
Nuneaton, Warwickshire
England
- JEANNE CHALL Professor of Education
Director, Reading Laboratory
Harvard University
- WILLIAM DURR Professor of Education
Department of Elementary and Special Education
Michigan State University
- ROBERT KARLIN Professor of Education
Coordinator
Graduate Programs in Reading
Queens College
- ERIC THURSTON Professor of Education
Louisiana State University

EDITORIAL COMMENT



ENLARGING THE PERSPECTIVE: WHOLE TEACHER, WHOLE STUDENT, WHOLE READING

Dianne Hunter

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION, IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY, AMES, IOWA

EDITOR'S NOTE—Dianne Hunter's article, "Enlarging the Perspective: Whole Teacher, Whole Student, Whole Reading," is being highlighted this issue as a guest editorial due to the important message it has for teachers. The author points out that the nature of teaching and the pressures schools are subject to make it easy to forget the axiom that the sum is greater than its parts. Readers will find many cogent reasons in this article for remembering that "Reading is a whole-person enterprise."

"In all the schools I attended I felt as if I were in some way taking part in a theatrical performance in which I had a role to play and had to find actors to take the other parts." (Margaret Mead, *Blackberry Winter*, p. 80.)

Margaret Mead's metaphor of a theatrical performance is a serviceable means of perceiving contemporary school life. Schools and classrooms are the theaters. Instruction and other events which comprise the school day are plots, while teachers and students are the players. For directors, there are teachers and administrators. They share responsibilities for directing the plays—carrying out the curricula and supervising daily routines.

Today, classrooms and schools are settings for plays that are more complex than they were in the period of Margaret Mead's schooling. Teachers and school administrators are not as free to interpret the scripts for their productions. Instead, they must respond to demands from the community, state and federal governments. Those demands are numerous, and they are often conflicting. An example of conflicting requirements is the expectation to "return to the basics." Consensus on what exactly comprises "basics" is lacking; nevertheless, the notion of "returning" remains. "Returning" connotes conservatism, which when combined with "basic," would seem to rule out other sets of concurrent demands which are made of elementary and secondary curricula. Does "basic" exclude instruction which is multicultural, multiethnic, and nonsexist? What are teachers to do? How should they plan (that is, direct) instruction?

It is difficult for teachers to feel confident that they are adequately directing their casts of classes. It is easy for school personnel to lose touch with the whole play and to respond instead to school life as a series of disparate acts.

Stepping Back From the Stage

There are times when it is beneficial to step back from the external demands which are made on teaching and learning at school. It is important for teachers and school administrators to step back from the school-classroom stage and acquire or renew a feeling for the entirety of the play. On such occasions it is appropriate to formulate an inner sense of purpose, of student development at school, of how to make each moment of the school day meaningful to teachers and students. Teachers then can develop their abilities as capable directors of the classroom drama. They can recognize and follow a winding, thematic thread. They can be reminded of the scope of a school year and the breadth of a succession of school years.

Considering the Characters

One aspect of stepping back from the stage is taking another look at the characters. It is abandoning stereotypic notions of the teachers and students and seeking those characters from a more inclusive perspective. Teachers and students are persons. They are members of society, a production which is larger than schooling or institutionalized education. Hence, many dimensions of students and teachers are acknowledged outside the school setting. These dimensions get carried to school, too, although once persons assume their roles of "teachers" and "students," the richness and breadth of the whole person are often overlooked. Whole persons are intellectual, as well as emotional, physical, and spiritual. They are intuitive and rational, imaginative and practical (Roberts and Clark, 1976).

Teacher-directed classroom activities are frequently directed only to intellectual dimensions. The exchanges which occur among students and teachers during school days contribute, either by commission or neglect, to more than one aspect of the person.

A Scenario—Instruction in Reading

Reading is a whole-person enterprise. Reading has affected children's lives even before they receive formal instruction in reading at school (Goodman, 1978). Reading continues to affect their lives outside the school environment in ways that seem very different from phonics drills or exercises on "who, what, where, when, or how." Reading is understanding a scout manual, getting messages from television commercials and shows and following stories in comic books. Likewise, teachers read in order to grow personally. Teachers read for recreation, to pay taxes, to cook meals, and to buy insurance. Most aspects of person—intellectual, emotional, spiritual, intuitive, rational, imaginative and practical—can be affected by messages which are conveyed through print.

How can teachers direct reading at school so that it is whole reading for whole students? How should instruction in reading be perceived in a holistic perspective? Reading should be thought of as a means to an end. We read for recreation or in order to work or in order to solve problems. It should be thought of as getting messages from print—messages which facilitate not only intellectual growth, but also physical, emotional, or spiritual

development. Neither phonics, nor word analysis, nor conventions of written language actually comprise messages. They do comprise systems of instruction but they do not comprise reading.

Sense of Message and the Director

For at least the past decade, teachers of reading have been made aware of a medical model for examining students' reading. According to that model, the teacher, like a physician, looks for signs for poor health—symptoms. The first symptom is mispronounced words during oral reading. According to this model, accurate pronunciation is good, and inaccurate pronunciation is bad. A second category of symptoms is failure of the patient to adequately answer questions based on the content of a passage. When unhealthy readers are identified, they receive prescriptions (lessons) and the illness (mispronunciations and inadequate responses to questions) is cured.

In the context of the perception of reading as a whole-person learning activity, the sickness-health model of reading seems far removed from real multi-dimensional persons who use reading to understand printed messages. The teacher who perceives herself or himself as a whole person interacting with whole, developing students will interpret how effectively students understand messages. Word analysis and sight words will be taught, but they will be differentiated from reading. Comprehension—getting meaning from messages—will be a first priority concern in reading instruction. Reading will not be perceived as a solitary subject. All subject areas will be considered reading lessons as well as instruction in specific content.

The capable teacher-director sees himself or herself as a whole person. He or she is able to weave cohesion from the separate events of the school day. All the parts of the school day, all the acts and parts of acts are meaningful learning experiences for his or her students. The capable teacher-director masterfully creates a setting wherein students and teachers can thrive.

REFERENCES

- Goodman, Yetta. Kidwatching: an alternative to testing. *National Elementary Principal*, 57, 4, pp. 41-45.
- Mead, Margaret. *Blackberry Winter*. New York: William Morrow and Company, Inc., 1972.
- Roberts, T. B. and Clark, F. V. Transpersonal psychology in education. In Hendricks, Gay and Fadiman, Names (Eds.), *Transpersonal Education*. Englewood Cliffs, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1976, pp. 3-23.

Announcing A Special Pre-publication Offer for . . .

READING HORIZONS: SELECTED READINGS

Soon to be released, a 400 page book of the best work that has appeared in **READING HORIZONS** over the last four years.



SELECTED READINGS is in itself a complete inservice program for new and established reading teachers and specialists. Every school administrator should have a copy for reference and resource. We sincerely hope you will find it worthwhile to reserve your volume **NOW**, at the lower cost. To do so, simply return the tear sheet with your check.

*PLEASE RESERVE (no._____) of copies of **READING HORIZONS:
SELECTED READINGS** at \$8.00 per copy _____

AMOUNT ENCLOSED _____

SIGNATURE _____

ADDRESS _____

SCIENCE FICTION: THE FUTURE IN THE CLASSROOM

Joan B. Grady

LAREDO MIDDLE SCHOOL, AURORA, COLORADO

Science fiction is a literary genre that has gained more respectability in the past few years than it had experienced previously. One can remember trying to find examples of this genre to read. Jules Verne and H. G. Wells could be found if one were educated enough in the genre to seek out these authors. When pressed, a librarian might try to foist Plato's *Republic* or More's *Utopia* off on the neophyte science fiction seeker. For the most part, those interested in this genre had to seek outside the confines of the public library to find examples of science fiction to consume. Science fiction for young readers in this period could become expensive. Magazines and short story collections existed, but one was apt to acquire a potpourri of good and bad fiction. Comic books abounded during this pre-television era and Buck Rogers was in great demand. Time marched on and the future became the present and atom bombs were detonated and the nuclear era became a reality. Aircraft were constantly redesigned, rockets had been invented, John Glenn went into orbit and on an historic day men actually walked on the moon. The world of Buck Rogers and Flash Gordon was reality and science fiction reached out to explore new ideas.

What exactly is science fiction? Generally it is presently considered to be a literary genre consisting mainly of short fiction and novels. There have been some examples of poetry and one play which has been published in so many anthologies that it has become very well known; this is Karel Capek's *R.U.R.* In order to give serious consideration to the special genre of science fiction, one must accept certain precepts. The first and most important one was stated by Janet Kafka in a recent article, "Consider it as a literary sub-genre rather than a sub-literary genre" (7). It is important to science fiction that one assume Ms. Kafka's premise as a basic tenet. This becomes important to the student of science fiction because of the poor repute the genre held in the minds of many teachers and librarians. As important writers discovered the genre, or as young writers evolved into experienced authors of craftsmanlike talents, the genre took on new respectability. During the sputnik era Americans turned in increasing numbers to things scientific and in the process science fiction burgeoned and grew into maturity.

Television came forth with series such as "Star Trek" which was dropped over five years ago and still claims the imagination of fans who have formed clubs, pay five dollars a seat to see reruns in McNichols arena and other places and clamor for a movie that is being made currently based on the series. A trip to any local bookstore gives evidence of its continued popularity in books based on the scripts, log books, plans of the space ship

Enterprise and all manner of poster, puzzles, coloring books, etc. Other series such as "Space 1999," and "Lost in Space" had a great deal of exposure and gained many fans. Movies such as Clarke's "Space Odyssey-2001," "Logan's Run," the "Planet of the Apes," the animated film, "Wizards," and two that are on the screen, "Star Wars" and "Close Encounters" help to keep science fiction in everyone's conscious mind.

If one accepts science fiction as a true literary form, one becomes confused when consulting a variety of authors as to definitions. Robert Heinlein, a noted science fiction author, defines it as follows:

. . . science fiction is speculative fiction in which the author takes as his first postulate the real world as we know it, including all established facts and natural laws. The result can be extremely fantastic in content but it is not fantasy; it is legitimate and often tightly reasoned-speculation about the possibilities of the real world (11, p. 369).

Hanor A. Webb defines science fiction as . . . "(a) prophetic, (b) descriptive of the social impact of science, (c) set in a novel, imaginative, possible fantastic situation" (11, p. 366). Another writer, Janet Kafka, defines it as a . . . "commentary on people and societies as we find them today, as well as extrapolating from this to give us a view of some possible alternative futures" (7). The final definition comes from Sylvia Engdahl; science fiction serves to . . . "shape attitudes toward the future, and toward some of the possibilities the future may hold, as well as toward the universe that waits to be explored" (6, p. 252). For the purposes of this discussion the following definition of science fiction will be used: speculative fiction which takes into account life as it presently exists and provides the reader with possible alternatives which might exist at some future time based on ideas generated by contemporary problems or concerns.

In considering the use of science fiction as classroom reading material there are several concerns which must be dealt with. One concern deals with the language that the characters use and another deals with the role that sexual activity plays in the story itself. Janet Kafka refers to science fiction as "action oriented, sexless and simplistic" (7, p. 47). It is true that some four letter words do tend to creep into the most recent paperback stories and novels, any concerned teacher should preview books before assigning them. Sex, as Kafka indicates, is not a major concern in most science fiction and is not alluded to in many stories and novels. An important concern of many teachers is: will the students be able to read the work or will it be too difficult. Basic vocabulary is an important consideration. Quina and Greenlaw suggest that much of science fiction is appropriate for middle and secondary school students. This includes such prominent works as *Stranger in a Strange Land* by Heinlein and *Dune* by Herbert. Elementary students, they suggest, would be able to read Suzanne Martel's *The City Under Ground* or Madeleine L'Engle's *A Wrinkle in Time* as would older students reading at this level (12, p. 105). Science fiction can have several important

functions as a teaching tool. It can teach content learning in science, give students a feel for the way science operates, teach attitude and values, and educate students for the future (8).

One advantage that science fiction has over other literary genres is that "Since material is concerned with the student's future, relevance is built-in and motivation is high" (10). Students tend to see science fiction as extremely relevant to life today. The students in the classrooms of the seventies have seen Future Shock come into reality in their own short lifetimes. The present energy crisis is real science fiction now and for the future. The problems of water conservation brought forth in *Dune* are becoming a reality in those parts of the country with severe water shortages. The fragility of the environment, the problems with smog and pollution, over-population and a myriad of other present problems dealt with by science fiction writers in the future societies which they propose are problems pondered by today's youth beginning in elementary schools. Today's youngsters are aware and concerned. The problems of the world are brought daily into their homes through the science fiction of one era's dream, the television set. Children must learn to consider alternatives, there are no set solutions to today's problems that face all of mankind and that will ultimately have to be dealt with in some future time.

Science fiction has as one of its goals the preparation of individual minds to accept the variety of solutions that their works propose. Unless society is prepared to deal with novel solutions to new problems that arise, it may not be able to cope with them at all.

No science fiction writer expects to live to see the day when his ideas will be accepted by society. He hopes . . . that the seedlings he plants in society's ground will be nurtured by the next generation of writers and readers and, if his ideas grow and have vigor, by generation after generation until they bear fruit (11, p. 366).

Today's children are more aware, more concerned, and more informed than any preceeding generation of youth. This is an exciting genre for them. It meets their needs to verbalize societal concerns. "Science fiction for children reflects the implications of technology and the possibilities for the future. Through it can be provided a method of developing an awareness of some of the alternatives of the world's future" (5, p. 201). Bearing in mind the scientific savvy of today's youth, authors of science fiction utilize themes in their works that . . . "reflect the concerns . . . for the continuation of man and the life he has known within this century" (5, p. 197).

The final indication that science fiction has come into its own in children's literature is the fact that several juvenile science fiction works have received prestigious awards. Juvenile science fiction has come a long way since the first American juvenile science fiction work by Robert A. Heinlein was published in 1947. The book is titled, *Robert Ship Galileo*. Madeleine L'Engle's *A Wrinkle in Time* is cited in almost every article on

juvenile science fiction as an outstanding example of the genre. *Mrs. Frisby and the Rats of NIMH* by Robert O'Brien won the Newberry Medal in 1972. This book deals with animal experimentation and the creation, by the super intelligent rats experimented on by National Institute of Mental Health, of a utopian society. There is much food for thought, for the concerned youthful reader, in this juvenile novel. A third novel of proven literary merit is Ursula le Guin's *The Farthest Shore* a fantasy which won the National Book Award for children's literature in 1972.

The genre has travelled far from Plato's *Atlantis* to Well's *War of the Worlds* from Tom Swift and Buck Rogers to *Rendezvous with Rama* and *Dune Children* from the Frank Reade, Jr. series to picture books like *The Humans of Ziax II*. The realities of the world are part of every person's life if there is a library nearby and an index to find the science fiction that can open the vistas of ideas that need to be considered, mulled over and at some future time acted upon.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Allen, David L. *Science Fiction an Introduction*, Lincoln, Nebraska: Cliff Notes, 1973.
2. Allen, Dick, *Science Fiction: The Future*, New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1971.
3. Barron, Neil. *Anatomy of Wonder Science Fiction*, New York: R. R. Bowker Company, 1976.
4. Friend, Beverly. "Reaching the Future Through Paperback Fiction," *Media & Methods*, November 1974, p. 35-37.
5. Greenlaw, M. Jean. "Science Fiction: Impossible! Impossible! or Prophetic?" *Elementary English*, April 1971, pp. 196-202.
6. Haviland, Virginia. (ed.) *Children and Literature Views and Reviews*. Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1973.
7. Kafka, Janet. "Why Science Fiction?" *English Journal*, May 1975, pp. 46-53.
8. Lamb, William G. and Bartholomew, Rolland B. "Science Fiction — A Unique Tool for Science Teachers" *The Science Teacher*, March 1975, pp. 37, 38.
9. Pincus, Richard Eliot. "Science Fiction" *English Journal*, November 1975, pp. 104-111.
10. Rand, Charlette and Verner, Zenobia. "It'll Never Happen" *English Journal*, April 1976, pp. 65, 66.
11. Robinson, Evelyn R. *Readings About Children's Literature*, New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1966.
12. Quina, James and Greenlaw M. Jean. "Science Fiction as a Mode for Interdisciplinary Education" *Journal of Reading*, November 1975, pp. 104-111.

WORLDS OF LANGUAGE WITHIN THE CLASSROOM

Eleanor Buelke

Many present-day writers who have studied interdisciplinary approaches to mental health and efficient living and learning have presented irrefutable evidence of strong links among thought, language, and a rational grasp of the real world. They believe that successful venture into the world and stable viability within it depend upon the use of language to establish personal verification of reality. Denial or restriction of a child's language in the learning process is considered disavowal or restraint in the assimilation of enriching experiences. The ability of young learners to think symbolically becomes a prerequisite for true language learning, including the mastery of reading and writing. During the growth of a normal, healthy individual, from active transactions with environmental features and persons toward persistent, independent, cognitive strategies for organization of experience, language assumes an ever more central role in the processes for learning. The artful, skillful teacher, then, is one who recognizes and maximizes the worlds of language within the classroom.

Within a typical classroom, categorical, operant worlds of language may be observed and utilized for learning. *The child's world of language* derives originally, in face-to-face encounters, from what might be considered nonlinguistic features, such as facial expression, eye contact, posture, and gestures. This is extended to include stress, intonation, and inflections, without much regard to referential verbal meaning. Recognition of these factors occurs under conditions of reciprocity and constitutes first forms of the "expressive mode" of language usage.¹ As expressive talk becomes increasingly a vehicle for shared experience, it maintains its characteristically relaxed, self-revealing, narrative nature, but becomes part of a larger goal, that of understanding the experienced event, or feeling. Thus, individuals not only "represent" the encounter, but, also, ascribe meaning to it with their language.

Early in the child's life, language usage of all kinds is closely attached to immediate action. Later on, young language-learners adopt more of a "spectator roles."² As this role is extended and its function is refined, language becomes more an ordering of experience for personal meaning. Narration becomes secondary to the importance of conveying this meaning to others. Ensuing language development enables children to move on to more objective modes. At this point, they are capable of incorporating symbols of both direct experience and spectator experience into their

¹Arthur N. Applebee, *The Child's Concept of Story*, p. 6. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1978.

²*Ibid.*, p. 30.

representations. Both ways of knowing remain closely linked, with new individual knowledge being assimilated and accommodated into a larger social context. Only through a sequential, gradual process do learners come to recognize alternative views of the world with a free and open acceptance. Good communication between teachers and learners, built upon teachers' perceptive sensitivity to patterns of growth and appreciative assessment in the areas of language development, can make this happen.

In addition to such appreciative, sensitive awareness, the *adult's world of language* in the classroom encompasses a number of specialized skills. Included are language competencies involved in knowing the difference between expository writing and literature; understanding the symbolic representation inherent in the arts; being able to test ideas against realities; using varied cognitive levels of questioning for inquiry and clarification; and appropriately evaluating ideational and creative language. Trends toward reliance upon prescribed instructional materials adopted by a school system as a total reading and language program signal an urgent need for teachers, themselves, to initiate their own development of language expertise, building increased language power to use and share with children.

The meaning of the *child's world of language* and the *adult's world of language* constitutes a very real *classroom world of shared language power*. When used appropriately, the child's language expands knowledge, furthers quick disposal of routine matters, facilitates communication, contributes to cooperative relationships, solves problems, becomes a means for appreciation of others and enhancement of self, and expresses individual creativity. Used inappropriately, it can serve to denigrate learning, or others; to confuse others' thinking; to destroy faith, trust, and friendly feelings; to avoid getting involved; or to restrict/restrain creative expression. It is the responsibility of the adult, the teachers, to promote the positive power of children's language. Teachers who *care* are teachers who *share* their language power. Some ways of doing this are by:

1. Structuring real learning experiences, where both cognitive and affective knowing are accompanied by discussion/verbal interaction;
2. Making opportunities for expanding ideation through creative writing, imaginative as well as expository in nature;
3. Skillful, open-ended, value-oriented questioning, requiring responses using varying degrees of abstraction;
4. Involving children in planning for instruction and evaluation;
5. Confronting children often with challenges and questions, permitting them time to search for answers, and to follow up on hunches;
6. Introducing alternatives, and clarifying issues raised;
7. Presenting/exploring information in a way that involves children in simultaneous, silent thinking, using class response to explain and summarize as needed; and
8. Stimulating hypothesizing, and demonstrating expert search techniques for finding the truth.

Through use of strategies like these, shared control of classroom language power is shared responsibility for expanding competence in the language process. Increased power is generated for reading, communicating, and thinking together, power for the individual to use to control his own fate in the world.

Whether the individual has a rich, sensuously rewarding world with wide horizons and dynamic and stimulating relationships with it, or a colorless, dwarfed world depends to a large degree on whether language growth is confirmed, enriched, encouraged, and whether the individual is able to reach out and extend himself into the world through language.³

³E. Brooks Smith, Kenneth S. Goodman, and Robert Meredith, *Language and Thinking in School*, p. 8. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1976.

WHAT ADMINISTRATORS ACTUALLY KNOW ABOUT READING PROGRAMS

Martha Rapp Haggard

NORTHERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY

Jane Warren Meeks

OLD DOMINION UNIVERSITY

The purpose of this survey was to determine the extent and depth of public school administrators' attitudes, knowledge and concepts about reading programs. Surveys were sent to 100 public school administrators in a mid-western metropolitan area. The results were tabulated from fifty-nine respondents; six superintendents, twenty-one secondary principals, and thirty-two elementary principals. No special supervisors (language arts curriculum, personnel, etc.) were included in the study.

Personnel

The personnel section was positioned first in the survey because the investigators felt that reading programs must be discussed primarily in terms of people. The focus here was not on existing situations, but on what the administrators felt to be ideal for their particular school or system.

IDEALLY, HOW MANY READING PERSONNEL WOULD YOU LIKE TO HAVE IN YOUR DISTRICT OR SCHOOL? HOW MANY STUDENTS ARE IN THIS DISTRICT OR SCHOOL?

It was expected that this question would yield a teacher-student ratio which would indicate the ideal scope of the reading program as seen by administrators. It was deliberately worded to read "reading personnel" rather than "reading specialists" or "reading teachers" in an attempt to avoid limiting responses to only one portion of reading programs.

Teacher-Student Ratio

	1:75- 1:100	1:101- 1:200	1:201- 1:300	1:301- 1:500	1:501- 1:1000	1:1001- 1:2000 +
<i>Supt.</i>	0	0	1	4	1	0
<i>Sec. Prin.</i>	2	6	3	1	4	3
<i>Ele. Prin.</i>	3	6	7	9	5	1

Two conclusions could be drawn from these rather discouraging ratios. First, the term "reading personnel" may not have been, in fact, as unbiased as had been expected. It may have directed the thinking of administrators toward traditionally accepted remedial reading or small-scale developmental programs, thereby deceiving, to some extent, the people being surveyed. This may explain the 0:1300 ratio given by one secondary principal. However, the other conclusion could be that no misin-

terpretation occurred; that administrators really do equate "reading personnel" with "reading teacher," and that they do not perceive a need for all teachers to be proficient in teaching reading. Three exceptions did occur. One elementary principal commented that all of his teachers were reading personnel, and another indicated an ideal ratio of 1:15. One secondary principal stated that the entire English department should be reading personnel.

WHAT LEVEL OF EDUCATION WOULD YOU LIKE THE READING SPECIALISTS TO HAVE?

This question was constructed to direct the administrators' attention to reading specialists and to determine whether or not they felt that level of education is related to teaching competency.

Of the fifty-nine administrators, forty-four felt that reading specialists should have a Master's Degree in reading. Nine indicated that post-graduate courses should be required; however, four responded that state certification was adequate, and two felt that only a B.S. Degree was necessary.

HOW MANY HOURS IN READING SHOULD THE CLASSROOM TEACHERS HAVE?

Superintendents felt that classroom teachers should have a minimum of nine hours. Secondary principals indicated that six to nine hours would be adequate; however, one secondary administrator expressed a desire that teachers have fifteen hours in reading, and another specifically stated that he would prefer English teachers alone to receive nine hours of course work in this field. This could be compared with the two high school principals who indicates that no hours in reading were necessary. Over half of the elementary principals indicated that a minimum of twelve hours should be required for classroom teachers, and thirteen of those desired certification. As a group, elementary principals had considerably higher reading education requirements for teachers than superintendents or secondary principals.

WHAT TEACHING EXPERIENCE WOULD YOU LIKE THE READING SPECIALISTS TO HAVE?

Classroom teaching experience was felt by almost all administrators to be important. The average length of teaching desired ranged from two to five years; however, one superintendent indicated that the experience should include varying age and grade levels. Three secondary principals wanted the reading specialist to have elementary experience. The administrators, then, overwhelmingly agreed that classroom teaching is a prerequisite to successful performance as a reading specialist.

WHAT DO YOU THINK THE JOB OF THE READING SPECIALISTS SHOULD BE? THAT IS WHERE SHOULD HIS OR HER EMPHASIS BE?

The superintendents' responses were fairly evenly distributed over the three major areas. One superintendent commented that the reading specialist's role as resource person depended on the individual's rapport with teachers. Secondary principals indicated emphasis should be placed on

teaching remedial classes and functioning as a resource person. One principal commented that the specialist should work with above average groups. The elementary principals also felt that the job priority of the reading specialist should be remedial teaching and resource person. Only half responded that emphasis should be placed on testing. Comments made by elementary principals indicated that the reading specialist should establish the reading program, combine developmental and remedial teaching where the need arises, diagnose and relay practical information in order to establish remediation programs within the classroom, and work in a team situation with the classroom teachers. This, along with the many multiple responses, led to the conclusion that the general trend of administrators was to view the reading specialist as a sort of "person for all seasons."

Job of Reading Specialists

	Testing	Teaching		Resource	Other
		Dev.	Rem.	Resource	
Supt.	3	2	4	3	1
Sec. Prin.	6	7	13	12	1
Ele. Prin.	11	4	18	23	7

Content

The question to be answered by the content section of the survey was, How do administrators define "program"? It was felt that responses such as "SRA" or "Scott Foresman" would indicate a rather narrow concept of what constitutes a reading program. The emphasis here was on existing situations rather than desired ones.

WHAT ARE THE COMPONENTS OF THE READING PROGRAM IN THIS SCHOOL?

An attempt was made to categorize most widely recognized components. It was assumed that single responses would limit the scope to a specific area, while multiple responses would indicate increased depth and flexibility throughout the program.

Comments of Reading Program

	Basal	Dev.		Remedial		
	Series	Reading	Hardware	Reading	Library	Other
Supt.	5	3	3	5	3	6
Sec. Prin.	3	6	4	14	11	7
Ele. Prin.	31	14	19	17	20	10

Interestingly, it was the additional comments that yielded the most insight into administrators' views of the reading program. Superintendents added such components as parents, counselors, classroom teachers, learning disability teachers, diagnosis, "everything we do," and "the best teaching device is a good teacher." Each one of these suggest that

superintendents rank quality staff as being the most important component of the reading program. Secondary principals stated that remedial reading and library facilities comprised the reading program in high schools. Three principals noted the classroom teacher as the core of the reading program; one principal named "Paperback Power" as the only component; and two had no idea what question was being asked. The basal reading series were the primary response by almost all elementary principals, supplemented by many of the other components. The most heartening response was the number of administrators who considered the library facilities to be an integral part of the reading program.

TO WHAT GRADE LEVEL DOES THE READING PROGRAM EXTEND?

Traditionally, systematic reading instruction has terminated at the end of elementary school and has not been considered to be a concern of secondary school curricula. This question was asked to determine whether or not administrators are holding with tradition in the face of contrary in-school and research evidence.

Grade Level

	Six	Seven	Eight	Nine	Ten	Eleven	Twelve	Other
Supt.	2	1	1	0	0	0	2	0
Sec. Prin.	1	3	4	5	2	2	3	2
Ele. Prin.	25	0	4	0	0	0	0	3

Superintendents and secondary principals indicated that reading programs extend through grade twelve; however, when this answer is compared with personnel responses, it seems reasonable to conclude that they meant that *remedial reading* programs were available through grade twelve. Elementary principals felt that the formal reading program terminated at grade six, even though one stated that, "Reading isn't taught above second grade—beyond that, it's just going through the motions."

Evaluation

Since evaluation must be an initial and continuous consideration for any school program, it was felt that administrative knowledge of evaluative procedures in reading would determine their awareness of instructional needs, not only for the individual, but for the total program as well.

WHAT DO YOU CONSIDER TO BE THE MAIN GOAL OF THE READING PROGRAM IN THIS DISTRICT?

Because goal-stating is important to the implementation of any program, this was considered one of the key questions in the survey: the desired end directly affects that which is actually produced.

One of the most striking observations which can be made about the answers to this question is that one-half of the total responses were in the "reading independence" and "other" categories. Especially interesting were the "other" comments which heavily emphasized such goals as "successful functioning in society," enjoyment, happiness, love of reading and gaining in self confidence.

Goal of Reading Program

	Functional Literacy	Reading Gr. Level	Reading Maturity	Reading Independence	Reading Other
Supt.	2	0	1	1	4
Sec. Prin.	5	6	5	5	5
Ele. Prin.	4	8	6	10	11

WHAT METHODS SHOULD BE USED TO EVALUATE THE ATTAINMENT OF THAT GOAL?

This question was used to discover whether or not the methods of evaluation were commensurate with the stated goals.

Methods of Evaluation

	Observation	Ach. Tests	Survey Tests	Skill Tests	Diag. Tests	Basal Tests	Inform. Survey
Supt.	1	2	0	1	0	0	2
Sec. Prin.	8	7	1	2	2	2	1
Ele. Prin.	12	21	2	3	5	6	8

Classroom observation and achievement tests received fifty-one of the eighty-six responses, with achievement tests showing a slight lead. Three superintendents suggested using library circulation as one means of evaluation; however, two superintendents called for the use of intelligence tests. Surveying graduates, watching the drop-out rates, talking to the child, and evaluating school performance comprised most of the additional comments. These methods seemed, with the exception of intelligence tests scores, to adequately evaluate the stated goals.

TO WHAT EXTENT IS THERE COORDINATION OF READING INSTRUCTION THROUGHOUT THE SCHOOL SYSTEM?

Including this question in the evaluation section of the survey was done with the assumption that greater coordination would, among other things, increase communication between personnel concerning such basic questions as, What are the goals? How will they be attained? and How will they be evaluated? It then, represents a means for self evaluation by the people responsible for implementation of the program.

Coordination of Reading Program

	Comm. Teachers	Ind. Meetings	Sporadic Meetings	Reg. Sch. Meetings	Inservice Training	Reading Coor.
Supt.	0	1	0	1	4	
Sec. Prin.	6	2	1	6	7	
Ele. Prin.	7	6	2	5	18	

A surprising number of administrators indicated that their programs were guided by a reading coordinator. This had not been anticipated, but is perhaps an encouraging trend. A little discouraging were the number of "communication between individual teachers" responses combined with

such comments as, "no coordination of texts," "very little," and two "no answer" responses.

IS A SYSTEM-WIDE TESTING PROGRAM UTILIZED TO MEASURE GROWTH AND DEFICIENCY OF READING LEVEL? IF SO, WHAT SPECIFIC TESTS ARE USED?

This question was used to ascertain whether testing was considered important in assessing reading progress, and to determine the most popular tests.

	<i>Test Used</i>						
	Yes	No	Don't Know	ITBS	CTBS	Stan. Ach.	Other
Supt.	4	2	0	2	2	1	1
Sec. Prin.	16	5	5	5	2	1	3
Ele. Prin.	29	3	0	22	0	1	6

An overwhelming majority of administrators indicated that system-wide testing programs did exist; however, five secondary principals did not know what tests were used. The *Iowa Test of Basic Skills* was named by twenty-nine administrators as the test used, which may or may not be explainable in terms of regional preference.

Priorities

The final section of the survey was based on the investigators' beliefs that, in schools, priorities are demonstrated mainly by three things. First, and probably most critical, is the amount of money a district is willing to spend for a program. Second is the amount of time allowed for instruction, and third is the degree to which inservice training programs are underwritten by the district.

ARE THERE PROVISIONS MADE FOR INSERVICE TRAINING IN THE AREA OF READING AT ALL LEVELS?

Since inservice training involves released teacher time and/or payment for attendance, it was felt that provisions for such programs would partially indicate the importance attached to reading instruction.

	YES	NO	OTHER
Supt.	4	1	0
Sec. Prin.	10	10	1
Ele. Prin.	23	7	2

Of the administrators surveyed, thirty-seven indicated that provisions for inservice training in reading were made in the district. However, a breakdown of the "yes" answers seems to show a greater proportion of programs at the elementary level than at the secondary. Additional comments led to the conclusion that these are sporadic, vaguely defined "occurrences" rather than systematically planned district procedures. Three principals stated that inservice programs were available at the elementary level only; one comment, "If there is, it's minimal" was echoed

variously as "only for new programs," "not a yearly thing," "some," "not much," and a twice-voiced enigmatic, "not really." One superintendent heavily emphasized the fact that *provisions* for inservice training were made in the district, but left the impression that no further steps had been taken.

WHAT PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL BUDGET GOES FOR THE READING PROGRAM?

There is probably no area more indicative of priorities than the pocketbook, whether it be in individuals, businesses or schools. And, after all the administrative handbooks, curriculum guides, and teacher memos have been written, it all narrows down to one question: How much money will be spent?

Percentage of Budget

	0-5%	6-10%	15-30%	35-100%	Don't Know	No Answer
Supt.	2	0	1	0	1	2
Sec. Prin.	9	2	1	0	3	6
Ele. Prin.	1	0	15	9	2	5

Analysis of the answers to this question is particularly difficult due to the range of estimates and the extraordinarily large number of "no answer" and "I don't know" responses. Nineteen administrators were unable to answer; however, several indicated that they could not estimate because it was impossible to isolate costs of the reading program from the total budget. Elementary principals who did respond tended to group in the 15-30% bracket and comprised all but two of the seventeen responses there. The 0-5% choice received twelve of the total responses and was heavily weighted by secondary principals.

WHAT PERCENTAGE OF TIME SHOULD BE DEVOTED TO READING INSTRUCTION AT THE PRIMARY LEVEL?

This question was asked to discover whether or not administrators considered reading instruction in the primary grades to be sufficiently important to warrant special attention in the form of large time allotments.

Percentage of Time

	0-25%	25-50%	50-75%	75% +	No Answer
Sec. Prin.	0	3	0	3	0
Sec. Prin.	3	4	6	1	7
Ele. Prin.	3	14	12	3	0

Most administrators indicated a middle-of-the-road attitude toward the time allotment for reading instruction at the primary level. The 25-50% and 50-75% choices received thirty nine of the total responses, with the 25-50% choice showing a slight margin. Three elementary principals and three secondary principals indicated that reading instruction should receive no more than 25% of total instruction time in the primary grades, while seven administrators felt that it should receive 75% or more of the total

instruction time. Of these, one superintendent commented that "everything is taught with reading development." Interestingly, seven secondary principals had no opinion concerning the question, and one stated that the question was "not applicable" to him.

HOW MANY ACADEMIC HOURS HAVE YOU HAD IN READING?

This question was included in an effort to more clearly understand and interpret responses of the administrators; it was expected that greater training in the field of reading would lead to responses which would emphasize depth and scope of reading programs, and that little or no training would yield the opposite. The question was placed at the end of the survey to minimize any feelings of anxiety or threat which would cause administrators to answer questions defensively or attempt to make their responses "correct."

Hours in Reading

	None	2-6	7-12	13-15	16-20	21 +
Supt.	3	2	1	0	0	0
Sec. Prin.	13	6	0	1	1	0
Ele. Prin.	2	13	11	3	2	1

The responses here show a marked discrepancy between training received by elementary and secondary principals. Most noticeable is the fact that almost two-thirds of the secondary principals have had no classes in reading education, while three-fourths of the elementary principals have had between two and twelve hours. This discrepancy appears to be reflected, in at least a general sense, in the quality of answers on this survey. For the most part, elementary principals tended to give responses which were more empathetic toward, and knowledgeable about, reading programs than did secondary principals. When unusual or unknowledgeable responses were made, they were most often made by secondary principals.

Conclusions and New Questions

Especially encouraging was the high level of responses concerning goals, program components, and quality teaching. Somewhat more predictable, but none-the-less discouraging, was the tendency of administrators to confine their concept of reading programs to specific components, i.e., remedial reading, and the high number who were either unable to answer or were unwilling to emphasize reading through time or budget considerations.

One final question could be raised. Is it possible that only half the study has been done, that the answers given here would be of much greater significance if they were compared with answers given by reading specialists and classroom teachers?

A READING LESSON CHECKLIST FOR THE PRINCIPAL

Sandra McCormick

OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY

The checklist presented below is a follow-up to the article in the last issue of *Reading Horizons* entitled "Assistance for the School Principal: Evaluate Classroom Reading Programs." The checklist is designed to provide additional assistance to the elementary school principal.

The checklist is easy to use and therefore will save the administrator time. In addition, since it presents objective information which can be discussed with teachers after classroom observations, the checklist could be used by reading supervisors as well.

The checklist consists of three sections. Part I of the checklist assesses those activities or situations which should exist every time group reading instruction occurs. Areas to be evaluated include both those procedural aspects of classroom management which precede or make possible good instruction, and those situations which reflect a teacher's knowledge of basic concepts underlying good reading instruction in general.

Part II lists good teaching procedures that should occur when a basal reader approach to reading instruction is implemented correctly. Although many types of reading programs are currently being used nationwide, the basal reader approach to reading instruction continues to be most prevalent. For this reason, the checklist was prepared for use in evaluating classroom programs using a basal reader approach, but it may be modified for use with other types of programs.

Part III of the checklist contains only one item – an important item that should be carried out periodically in a high quality reading program.

Although the following information and checklist are for use when the teacher is using a basal reader approach to teaching reading, it should be noted that within this approach procedures may vary. This checklist represents generally accepted methods for accomplishing the purposes of such a program.

Parts I, II, and III of the checklist may be read by the principal before entering a classroom in order to be prepared to take note of information required by each item. In some cases, the administrator may use the checklist while in the classroom rather than completing it following the observation. Some items can be answered by discussion with the teacher but for most items direct observation is preferable.

No numerical scoring criteria is used. Instead, a simple checking of a "Yes" or "No" answer is all that is required. The administrator is strongly advised to use the completed checklist as a focus for discussion in a conference with the teacher following the observation.

Part I

1. Does the teacher have the class divided into small ability, skills, or interest groups for reading instruction?
Yes_ _ _ _ _ No_ _ _ _ _
2. Has the teacher planned for worthwhile activities, that is, activities which do promote academic learning for students who will not be participating in the reading group? (Example: Coloring a picture of a squirrel on a dittoed worksheet would provide less input to academic learning than reading a short, easy, interesting library book.)
Yes_ _ _ _ _ No_ _ _ _ _
3. Has the teacher given sufficient direction to students who will not be participating in the reading group so as to minimize interruptions?
Yes_ _ _ _ _ No_ _ _ _ _
4. In order to waste little time and to minimize interruptions, does the teacher have an organized set of procedures so that students know exactly what they should bring to the reading group, what they should do upon arriving there, etc.?
Yes_ _ _ _ _ No_ _ _ _ _
5. Are the teacher and students in the reading group seated near a chalk-board or chart paper so that these may be used during explanations or exercises?
Yes_ _ _ _ _ No_ _ _ _ _
6. Does the teacher have the attention of all the students in the group?
Yes_ _ _ _ _ No_ _ _ _ _
7. Does the teacher seem to have the students reading material that is at the correct instructional level for those students?
Yes_ _ _ _ _ No_ _ _ _ _
8. Is the teacher having the students read material that seems to be of the correct interest level for the students in the group? (Example: Reading a story about a new swing set may be less interesting to sixth grade boys than a story about baseball.)
Yes_ _ _ _ _ No_ _ _ _ _
9. Does the teacher insist that other students give a student who has been called upon time to think, and to answer, without shouting out responses themselves?
Yes_ _ _ _ _ No_ _ _ _ _
10. Does the teacher give kind, constructive help when a student is having difficulty?
Yes_ _ _ _ _ No_ _ _ _ _
11. Does the teacher give praise to good work?
Yes_ _ _ _ _ No_ _ _ _ _
12. Does the teacher provide objective feedback to students on their progress? (Example: Use of charts and graphs that are seen only by that student and the teacher.)
Yes_ _ _ _ _ No_ _ _ _ _

13. Does the teacher provide for reading instruction for his/her students everyday?
Yes____ No____
14. In grades one and two, does the teacher provide for two reading sessions each day for students in the lowest reading group?
Yes____ No____

Part II

Teaching Procedures that Should Occur When A Basal Reader Approach is Being Used

To teach a thorough reading lesson, it is usually necessary to work with the students for more than one session. Therefore, a teacher may not be following all of these procedures in one session. It is not possible to predetermine how many of the procedures would occur in any given lesson since this will depend upon time, the lesson objectives, and the students. Over a period of two to three days most of these activities should take place.

1. Does the teacher take a few minutes to prepare the students before having them read a story?
(Examples:
a. Setting a purpose for reading, such as "Read to find out why Tom lost his snake on the bus."
b. Presenting background, such as using a map to locate the setting of the story.)
Yes____ No____
2. Does silent reading precede oral reading?
Yes____ No____
3. Does the teacher ask the students questions about what has been read?
Yes____ No____
4. Do the questions asked include all levels of questions, i.e., literal, interpretive, and evaluative and creative?
Yes____ No____
5. As an aid in assessing some aspects of student's growth in reading, does the teacher frequently provide for oral re-reading of the story or of selected parts of the story?
Yes____ No____
6. Is guided practice given to promote recognition of new words introduced in the story?
Yes____ No____
7. Is guided practice given in the use of decoding skills and strategies such as phonetic analysis, structural analysis, and use of context clues?
Yes____ No____
8. Does the teacher periodically provide for work with word meanings either through incidental discussion when necessary or through structured lessons?
Yes____ No____

9. Does the teacher periodically provide practice in various needed areas of comprehension?
Yes _____ No _____
10. Were other types of reading skills or understandings taught during this lesson? (For example, the teacher might teach lessons on reference skills, literary understandings, etc.)
Yes _____ No _____
11. If the teacher has noted specific weaknesses in a group or with a specific student, does the teacher include planned activities in that area as a part of the lesson on some days, either for the group or for individuals?
Yes _____ No _____
12. Does the teacher discuss with the students, or occasionally check individually, any work that had been previously assigned for the students to complete independently?
Yes _____ No _____
13. Does the teacher assign follow-up activities for students to carry out independently that will provide reinforcement of newly learned skills, strategies, or concepts?
Yes _____ No _____
14. When assigning seatwork, does the teacher discuss one or two examples with the students before expecting them to complete the work independently?
Yes _____ No _____

Part III

Formal Assessment Activities

The following procedures should be carried out periodically:

1. Does the teacher test students when they have completed materials at each reading level in order to (a) determine if the students are ready to progress to the next level; (b) determine areas of weakness for a group or for individual students in order to plan future instructions?
Yes _____ No _____

READING—DO WE NEED TO KNOW WHAT IT IS BEFORE WE TRY TO TEACH IT?

Dorothy Garman

READING SPECIALIST, FRANKLIN PARK, ILLINOIS

If, for a brief moment, we could look into a child's mind while he or she were reading, would we find the child's approach to reading compatible with the teacher's approach to teaching? The answer would probably depend upon how the teacher views the reading process. If the teacher believes that reading is a process of identifying individual letters or individual words, then the teacher will probably not be inclined to teach in the way that the child is inclined to read.

Reading is not a process of identifying individual letters or individual words. To understand why children and adults do not read in this manner, let's carry out an experiment suggested by Frank Smith (1975). Look at the line of letters below for just one second, and then try to recall as many letters as possible.

B P R E I L Q U X C G J O S V A H M T Y F K N S D

Chances are you were able to remember four or five letters. If reading is a process of identifying individual letters and we can only identify four or five letters in one fixation, then we would read at a rate of about one word (four or five letters) a second, or sixty words a minute. Adults read about 250 words a minute, while second graders read about 115 words a minute (Harris and Sipay, 1975).

Continue with the second phase of the experiment glancing at the next line of print for just one second. Try to recall as many letters as possible.

L I S T W A L K F L O U R R I C H P U T S T I L L

Most likely you were able to recall nine to ten letters. How is it possible that you were able to see twice as many letters this time? The same amount of visual information was available to your eyes for the same amount of time (Smith, 1975). You must not have identified each individual letter, for if you had focused on individual letters, you would only have been able to identify four or five letters. Reading is not a process of identifying individual letters.

Try the last phase of this experiment. After looking at the next line of print for just one second, see how many letters you can remember.

M E N F O U G H T B R A V E L Y F O R F R E E D O M

This time you probably could recall all the letters. How is this possible? You must not have tried to identify each individual word, for if you did, you would only have been able to identify about two words, not five words. If,

when we read, we focused on words one at a time, we would identify about two words per second, which would equal a rate of about 120 words per minute. But our typical reading rate is about twice that speed. Reading is not a process of identifying individual words.

What was the difference between the three phases of this experiment? Why were you able to process more information with each successive line of print? When we read (and when children read), we rely on two sources: visual information, or the symbols on the page, and nonvisual information, or all the knowledge and experience we have (Smith, 1973; 1975). As we read we use the information we receive from the page in conjunction with the information in our head. During each part of our experiment the amount of visual information remained the same but the amount of nonvisual information increased. This was an important difference because the more nonvisual information we can use, the less visual information we need (Smith, 1973; 1975).

One aspect of nonvisual information is knowledge of how our language operates. Although we may not consciously think about it, we probably all know that letters in the English language are combined in certain ways. A participant on a quiz show, asked to guess the next letter of the secret word which begins with "t," is unlikely to guess such letters as "p," "f," or "c." In fact, over half the letters of the alphabet will probably not even be considered, because we have nonvisual information of how letters are joined into words (Smith, 1975).

When you glanced at a line of random letters you could identify four or five letters. When the letters were combined into words, you could recognize nine or ten letters. You processed twice as many letters in the same amount of time because you used nonvisual information, which in turn enabled you to use less visual information per letter. You recognized the words without having to separately distinguish the individual letters. Reading is not a process of identifying individual letters.

Just as we know something about how letters are combined, we have nonvisual information about the way words are combined in our language. If words appeared randomly, reading would indeed be a difficult task. But we know (and children know) that words do not appear at random (Smith, 1975). For example, try reading the following paragraph:

The ____ ran through the _____. ____ was trying to ____ the _____. The ____ ran so ____ that ____ got ____.

Even though about one out of every three words was omitted from the paragraph, you were probably able to read these sentences with understanding. You must have used nonvisual information since you obviously can't be relying only on visual information. You must not have identified each individual word, since the words weren't there in the first place. Likewise, you must not have identified each individual word during the last phase of our experiment. When you glanced at words combined in a meaningful way, you made maximum use of nonvisual information which

allowed you to use less visual information per word. You recognized the entire sentence without having to separately distinguish the individual words. Reading is not a process of identifying individual words.

If reading is not a process of identifying individual letters or words, then how can we define reading? Reading is a process of prediction. When we read we use nonvisual information to make predictions about the visual information. Smith (1975) offers some examples that illustrate this point. First, read the next two sentences aloud: "She winds her watch while she reads the train schedule." "She read yesterday that the winds would die down." How were you able to identify the words "read" and "wind" correctly? Most likely you did not read each sentence twice, first trying one pronunciation and then the other. Instead, you used nonvisual information about the way words are combined to predict the visual information.

Next, try to read this sentence where the visual information is wrong: "The none tolled hymn she had scene a pare of bear feat inn hour rheum" (Smith, 1975, p. 181). You were probably able to comprehend this sentence, not because you relied on the visual appearance of the words, but because nonvisual information enabled you to predict the correct words. Once prediction began you merely sampled the print and consequently processed more information in the same amount of time. Reading is not a process of identifying individual letters or individual words. Reading is a process of prediction.

When we read, we predict and then use as little or as much visual information as is necessary to confirm our predictions. For example, see if you can predict this word:

c _ n _ _ _ v _ t _ _ n

You might not have enough visual information. Note what happens when nonvisual information is provided: "The president will soon propose an energy c_n_v_t_n plan." When you could predict the word, this limited amount of visual information was sufficient to confirm that the word was "conservation." When we read, if the words we predict are congruent with the meaning we are comprehending, we continue to read, to predict, sample, and confirm. If our predictions are not confirmed and meaning is disrupted, then we will use more visual information to try to generate meaning.

Children can and do make predictions when they read, in the same manner as adults. Even beginning readers know a lot about their language, and children can apply this knowledge (nonvisual information) to the reading process. For example, think of how a first grader would read this sentence: "The boy rode his b_____." It's unlikely that the child would predict such words as "been," "big," or "busy" even if those words were included in yesterday's flash card drill. Instead, the child's knowledge of language will intuitively trigger such predictions as "bike" or "bus."

The beginning of this paper posed an important question: Do we need to know what reading is before we try to teach it? The answer is yes. How else can we make judgments about our teaching strategies? We need to

evaluate materials and techniques to complement the reading process.

The teacher who believes that reading is a process of prediction will always use words in context, adapting any instructional activities which call for using words in isolation. When a teacher presents words in isolation, he or she is making the task of word identification unnecessarily difficult for the child. When presented with an isolated word, the reader has a restricted amount of nonvisual information, which limits prediction. For example, when shown an isolated word on a flash card that begins with the letter "h," how can the child efficiently eliminate all the thousands of other words that begin with "h" in order to make a reasonable prediction of what this word might be? Remember, during our experiment, how much more efficient you were at processing visual information when the words appeared in context. Why not give children the same opportunity to use what they know about language? In the natural reading situation, one does not have to identify words in isolation, and the effective reader makes use of nonvisual information to make predictions.

The teacher who views reading as predicting will make a concentrated effort to teach students to use context clues. Activities adapted from the cloze procedure (Bormuth, 1975) might be used. Certain words are deleted from a reading selection, and students are asked to supply words that would make sense within the context. Random deletions can be made, where every fifth word is omitted, or selective deletions can be used, where only verbs, nouns, or just function words are omitted.

Informal procedures will be used regularly by the teacher who emphasizes context clues. When confronted with an unknown word, the teacher might encourage the child to skip the word and read to the end of the sentence. The teacher would then ask, "What word that begins like this word would make sense here?" Words that would not likely be in the children's sight vocabulary can be written on the board while students are encouraged to guess the words, based on an oral context which the teacher provides. Students should be continually reminded to ask themselves these questions while reading: "Does this sound right?", "Does this make sense?"

The teacher who believes that reading is a process of prediction will promote the goal of reading as understanding, not word-perfect oral reading. If we didn't predict when we read, we wouldn't be able to sample the print. We would have to concentrate on individual words, one word at a time. This would probably overload our short-term memory and we would forget the beginning of the sentence before reaching the end of the sentence. When children are made to feel they must read every word perfectly, they will be forced to focus carefully on individual words, making both prediction and comprehension difficult.

If the teacher believes that efficient readers predict, sample, and confirm, then the teacher realizes that mistakes will be made, since predicting and sampling are not precise processes. But the teacher also realizes that not all errors, or miscues, are the same. If the reader's prediction was not a perfect match to the visual information (what some people might call an error), but the predicted word or words were

congruent with the meaning of the passage, there would be no cause for the reader to self-correct. Likewise, the type of error which does not disrupt comprehension, should not be corrected by the teacher or by classmates.

The teacher who places importance on understanding rather than perfect oral reading will teach children how to determine if a miscue should be corrected. Selections can be prepared which contain different types of errors. The teacher can help students make sound judgments about which mistakes should be corrected and which should not.

The teacher who believes that reading is a process of prediction will employ teaching techniques which emphasize comprehension. The language-experience approach to teaching reading might be used. Beginning readers may find prediction difficult when confronted with the artificial language patterns of some basal readers. Through the language-experience approach, children are provided with reading material that matches their oral language. This can promote prediction. The Directed Reading-Thinking Activity (Stauffer, 1969) might be used for its emphasis on comprehension and prediction. The DRTA operates on the assumption that comprehension facilitates prediction, which in turn facilitates word identification. New vocabulary words are not introduced prior to reading, but rather students are encouraged to predict the words through context clues. During DRTA students are not quizzed with comprehension questions but are repeatedly asked to predict, read, and confirm their own predictions regarding story plot.

A definition of reading and teaching strategies which complement this definition have been described. The way a teacher views the reading process can play a crucial role in promoting effective readers. The teacher who believes that reading involves prediction will be easily recognized. He or she will not emphasize individual words, but will place priority on the meaning readers can generate from print.

REFERENCES

- Bormuth, John R. "Literacy in the Classroom," In William D. Page (ed.), *Help for the Reading Teacher: New Directions in Research*. Urbana, IL: National Conference on Research in English, 1975, 60-95.
- Goodman, Kenneth S. "Decoding—From Code to What?" *Journal of Reading*, 14 (April, 1971) 455-462, 498.
- Harris, Albert J. and Edward R. Sipay. *How to Increase Reading Ability*. New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1975.
- Smith, Frank. *Psycholinguistics and Reading*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1973.
- Smith, Frank. *Comprehension and Learning*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1975.
- Stauffer, Russell G. *Teaching Reading as a Thinking Process*. New York: Harper and Row, 1969.

IMPLICATIONS FROM PSYCHOLINGUISTICS FOR SECONDARY READING

W. John Harker

UNIVERSITY OF VICTORIA, B.C.

Over the past decade, increasing interest has been shown in the implications of psycholinguistics for understanding the reading process. Mainly through the work of Goodman (1969; 1970) and Smith (1971; 1975), linguistic and psychological knowledge have been combined to describe the reading process of mature readers and the process through which children learn to read. The educational implications of this psycholinguistic model have been largely concerned with the learning-to-read process of elementary school children. But significant implications for secondary developmental reading instruction are suggested as well. It is the purpose of this paper to identify and explore some of these implications from the point of view of classroom instruction.

The Psycholinguistic Model

A full understanding of the psycholinguistic model demands a careful reading of the writings of both Goodman and Smith. However, the following brief overview of the model can provide the basis for a discussion of its implications for secondary reading instruction.

Central to the psycholinguistic model is the notion that fluent reading results from the cognitive processing of linguistic information. Goodman (1970) characterizes this process as a "psycholinguistic guessing game," while Smith (1971, p. 185) describes it as "the reduction of uncertainty." Both Goodman and Smith denounce the idea that reading results from the application to the reading task of a collection of specific skills of the kind conventionally taught to elementary grade pupils through basal reading programs, and to secondary students through "skills-building" programs. Rather, the reading process is conceived as a hypothesis-testing enterprise where readers use their prior knowledge of language and the reality which language represents (the nonvisual information they bring to the reading task) to test their predictions about the meaning they expect to find in the printed message (the visual information before them). Fluent readers, therefore, are seen as active, purposive participants in the reading process rather than as passive receivers of visual information. They are constantly trying to bring meaning to the printed page as they actively seek to "make sense" (Smith, 1975, p. 12) of the visual information before them.

Implications for Secondary Reading

Although Smith and Goodman (1971) have been unwilling to prescribe specific teaching methods for reading instruction, direct implications can

be drawn from their model for secondary reading. The remainder of this paper will be concerned with examining these implications under the following four headings: Clarifying the Learning Task, Avoiding Information Overload, Encouraging Risk Taking, and The Nature of Feedback.

Clarifying the Learning Task

Given the increasing range and depth of reading tasks encountered in the secondary content areas, many students experience difficulty in understanding the nature of these tasks. They do not understand what is expected of them and, as a direct result, often appear unmotivated and even hostile to learning.

The first responsibility of the teacher is to determine what prior knowledge or nonvisual information students need to bring to the learning task in order for it to make sense to them. The next step is to organize instruction so that students can learn this information. It is only in this way that students will perceive reading tasks as rational undertakings at which they may expect to experience success.

For example, many students have difficulty with outlining because they do not recognize that printed language can represent a coherent expression of a succession of ideas which may be summarized in outline form. These students' previous experience with reading has convinced them that printed language represents ideas and a reality which are unknown and unknowable. The teacher's job is to demonstrate through examples using transparencies, diagrams, and other instructional aids, that reading passages can be rendered into outline form since they do contain coherent, comprehensible messages. In this way, the teacher can build in students' minds the prior knowledge or nonvisual information that they need to bring to the outlining task in order to perform it successfully. Otherwise, students will be faced with an array of visual information on the printed page which makes no sense to them.

Avoiding Information Overload

One danger in developing students' store of nonvisual information is the possibility of information overload. Teachers, in their eagerness to facilitate students' learning, may forget that the amount of information which students can process at one time is limited. Miller's (1956) classic article on the processing limitations of the short term memory is frequently cited by the psycholinguists to illustrate this point.

The teacher's task becomes one of not only providing for the development of students' nonvisual information, but also of ensuring that the input of this information is governed so as not to interfere with learning. For example, in learning how to outline, students will depend on the concept of main idea and supporting details to identify the internal organization of the reading material before them. This is part of the nonvisual information or prior knowledge which students must bring to the outlining task. But they also have to learn how to express their understanding of internal organization in outline form. It follows that if students do not understand either how to identify internal organization or

how to express this identification in outline form, teaching them outlining without first teaching them to identify internal organization will result in information overload. Students will be confronted by too much visual information in terms of their store of nonvisual information. For them, the reduction of the uncertainty presented by the reading task will be impossible; they will become confused, resentful, and unmotivated - typical "retarded readers."

Encouraging Risk Taking

Risk taking is an important element in successful reading. Readers are constantly taking risks by generating hypotheses, making predictions, or, to use Goodman's (1970) expression, making psycholinguistic guesses, about the meaning they expect to find in the message before them. Goodman (1970) and Smith (1971) have both illustrated that even highly efficient readers move their eyes back over the material they are reading in order to correct errors in interpretation when incongruity between what they expect to find in the visual information and what they do find are detected. All of this involves risk - a calculated possibility of being wrong in order to be right.

It follows that students' reading development depends upon a classroom atmosphere which permits and encourages risk taking. Students who are inhibited from taking risks for fear of being wrong will not become fluent readers. Often being wrong is the most efficient way of learning how to be right since by making errors students will unconsciously learn the limits of their information processing capability.

It is a grim irony that students who are not reading successfully are reluctant to take risks. These students are overly dependent upon the visual information on the page. They read slowly and deliberately hoping to find meaning in individual words and word parts rather than reading more quickly and developing hypotheses about the meaning they expect to find. This slow and deliberate reading, because it inhibits the comprehension of meaning, produces further failure and further anxiety which in turn reinforces the failure-producing behavior. Often these students become anxious and compulsive, reading in a totally undisciplined fashion as they recklessly seek to cover reading assignments solely to be rid of them with little attempt to read for meaning. For these students, rather than nothing succeeding like success, nothing fails like failure.

The Nature of Feedback

Success is the best antidote to anxiety and reading failure, and success is largely determined by the kind of feedback students receive from their risk taking. Obviously, the most immediate and powerful source of feedback comes from students' own perceptions of reading success. They know when they are wrong; their problem is what to do about it.

Since reading is a process of hypothesis testing, students need to be given time to test their hypotheses fully. The kinds of comprehension exercises characteristic of directed reading activities are often little more than litanies of one-word responses to teachers' highly predictable, simplistic

questions (Guszak, 1967). Students need more than that. They need time to teach themselves how to perform the reading tasks before them once the nature of these tasks has been clarified by the teacher. In other words, they need time to take risks and to find out whether their risk taking has paid off—whether it has led to success. Simply feeding back to students the immediate information that they are wrong is futile. They need to be given time to find that out for themselves and to make corrections so that they can be right in the future.

Returning to example of teaching outlining, students must be provided with the nonvisual information they need to understand the task. But they must also be provided with the opportunity to bring this information to the performance of the task on their own terms. They must be permitted to read the passage to be outlined, to make predictions about how it will be organized, to test these predictions against the internal organization they identify within the passage, and then to express this information in outline form. But, equally important, they must be allowed time to find out if they are going wrong. They must learn to detect when their outline is becoming disorganized through not following the internal organization of the passage. They must then be allowed to make corrections within the privacy of their own minds. It is only in this way that this self-generated feedback can be put to work and that students can come to experience success and the consequent reduction of both uncertainty and anxiety.

The teacher's task is to encourage this process by providing positive feedback to reinforce success, and by providing non-threatening correction of errors when they go beyond the students' ability to correct. But this cannot be done by rapid-fire declarations of rightness or wrongness before the student has had an opportunity to find this out for himself. Risk taking will inevitably result in students being wrong some of the time. They must learn to expect this and be given the opportunity to detect and correct their own errors since it is only in this way that they will learn how to be right most of the time.

Conclusion

The fundamental implication of the psycholinguistic model is that learning to read is essentially a self-directed activity. Students cannot be taught to read more effectively by submitting them to a barrage of external stimuli in the form of skills-building exercises and similar activities. This only produces an overemphasis on visual information which interferes with the use of the nonvisual information upon which students depend for successful reading.

Rather than attempting to teach reading directly, the teacher's task is to give aid and comfort to students as they learn to read on their own. For this reason, instead of providing a panacea for teaching reading, the psycholinguistic model makes the teachers' task more difficult. The teacher's task is clearly one of teaching students how to learn, not directly, but by creating learning environments wherein the natural learning processes of students are encouraged and stimulated. This can be achieved

in the first instance by teachers developing clear insights into the nature of the reading tasks which they assign to students. Equally necessary is that teachers develop clear understandings of students themselves, their needs, aspirations, interests, and motivation, in order to encourage what is in the final analysis the very personal process of reading to learn.

REFERENCES

- Goodman, K. S. "Analysis of Oral Miscues: Applied Psycholinguistics." *Reading Research Quarterly*, 5, 1969, 9-30.
- Goodman, K. S. "Reading: A Psycholinguistic Guessing Game." In H. Singer and R. B. Ruddell (Eds.), *Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading*. Newark: International Reading Association, 1970.
- Guszak, F. "Teacher Questioning and Reading." *The Reading Teacher*, 21, 1967, 227-234.
- Miller, G. A. "The Magical Number Seven, Plus or Minus Two: Some Limits On Our Capacity for Processing Information." *Psychological Review*, 63, 1956, 81-92.
- Smith, F. *Comprehension and Learning: A Conceptual Framework for Teachers*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1975.
- Smith, F. *Understanding Reading: A Psycholinguistic Analysis of Reading and Learning to Read*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1971.
- Smith, F. and Goodman, K. S. "On the Psycholinguistic Method of Teaching Reading." *Elementary School Journal*, 37, 1971, 177-181.

BEGINNING READING WITHOUT READINESS: STRUCTURED LANGUAGE EXPERIENCE

Patricia Cunningham

DIRECTOR OF READING, ALAMANCE COUNTY, N.C.

The language experience approach has for generations been one of the tricks in the bags of versatile reading teachers. Allen (1964) emphasizes the link between speaking, writing and reading inherent in the language experience approach. Hall (1972) supplies seven statements supporting the linguistic soundness of the language experience approach.

For the majority of beginning readers, the language experience approach can be successfully carried out in a manner similar to that suggested by Askland (1973). She suggests that the writing of language experience stories and follow-up lessons include: (1) letting the child talk about the topic, (2) letting the child dictate the story to you sentence-by-sentence, (3) reading each word aloud as it is written, (4) reading the story to the child and letting the child volunteer to read the story, (5) putting favorite words in a word bank and reviewing the store of words already in the bank, and (6) reviewing and rereading the story with the child the following day before writing another story. There are some children, however, who need the experience with print and communication but who lack the basic prerequisite for success in the language experience approach as outlined above. That basic prerequisite is a minimum level of oral language facility. Wayne (not the child's real name) was one of those children. Wayne came to school lacking all the skills and understandings which forecast success in beginning reading instruction. He had not been read to nor had he observed adults engaged in reading and writing activities. He could not name the colors or shapes of common objects and certainly could not name the letters of the alphabet. He did not know that writing and thus reading progress from top to bottom and left to right and had no concept of a sentence or a word. Wayne was a child who "needed" the language experience approach to reading because it was the only approach which builds readiness rather than assuming it. Unfortunately, Wayne was also a child who could not engage in the language experience approach as typically carried out. Attempts at getting Wayne to verbalize about a topic and then dictate a story followed a predictable sequence.

Teacher: "Wayne, this morning we are going to write a story about football. See this picture I cut out of the magazine. Tell me what you see in the picture. We will just talk about it for awhile and then I will write down your story about football."

(Wayne looks at picture, smiles, looks up at teacher.)

Teacher: "Wayne, what do you see in the picture?"

Wayne: "Football."

Teacher: "Yes, you see a football. What else do you see?"

Wayne: "Men."

Teacher: "And what else?"

(Wayne shrugs his shoulders and grins.)

Teacher: "What are the men doing?"

Wayne: "Running."

Teacher: "Good. What else are they doing? What are they going to do to the football?"

Wayne: "Get it."

Teacher: (Showing signs of frustration and defeat.) "O.K. Now I want you to tell me a sentence about the picture. Tell me the whole sentence and then I will write it down for you."

(Wayne doesn't respond.)

Teacher: "Tell me about the picture. What are the men doing?"

Wayne: "Running."

Teacher: "Good, now tell me in a sentence. Tell me who is in the picture."

Wayne: "Men."

Teacher: "What about the men?"

Wayne: "Running."

Teacher: "O.K. Now I will write your sentence here."

Teacher writes: *The men are running*. She reads it several times and helps Wayne to read it. The following day she sits down with Wayne again, takes out the picture and "his" sentence. Wayne has forgotten how to read it. Her attempts to get Wayne to dictate a story about a dog are no more successful. Teacher decides language experience isn't what her professor told her it was and puts Wayne to work in a readiness workbook.

Wayne and children like Wayne *do* need the readiness and print orientation inherent in the language experience approach. The remainder of this article describes a "structured" language experience approach which does not assume basic language fluency but builds that fluency as it builds readiness and reading skills.

Structured Language Experience

These lessons work best if carried out with a group of from three-to-five children. Children like Wayne should certainly be included in the group. Other children whose language skills are somewhat more developed but who need further language development, readiness and orientation to print should also be included. Several teachers who have used this method have discovered that all the children in the class wanted to do the special stories! Their solution was to always include the two or three children like Wayne and to allow two or three others to join the group just for the week's story. By rotating the children who joined the group, everyone had a chance to do the special stories. A bonus of including these roving children in the group was that they provided good language models for the stable children in the group.

Since school weeks and teachers' internal calendars run on a Monday through Friday schedule each language experience story spans a week's time. The unit described here focuses on a topic of interest to all children - FOOD!

Monday:

Have small pictures (cut from magazines, workbooks, etc.) of many different kinds of foods ready for the lesson. Sit down with the children in a circle and display the foods one at a time. As you display each picture, lead the children to talk about it. What is it? What color is it? Do you eat it cooked or raw? For breakfast, lunch or dinner? Is it a fruit? Vegetable? Meat? Bread? Dessert? How big would it be? Does it grow in the ground? Do you like it? are some of the questions which might be asked about each picture. At the conclusion of this first lesson (about 20-25 minutes long) tell the children that tomorrow you will let them choose one of the foods they like and write a story about foods. Leave the food pictures out somewhere so that the children can consider which one they would like to choose. (It is important to be sure you have many pictures from which to choose. For a group of five children, 15 pictures are usually sufficient.)

Tuesday:

With the children in a circle once more, review the names of all the foods. Let each child choose one he likes. (Vary the child who gets to choose first each week to avoid arguments!) As each child chooses a food, tape the picture of the food to a sheet of construction paper. Write the child's name above the food and the name of the food below it. Next, tell the children that they are going to help you write a story so that anyone who comes into the room will be able to read what food each child likes to eat. On a large sheet of chart paper, write the title "Foods We Like To Eat." Explain to the children that each person's sentence will tell what he likes to eat. Pick a child who will set a model for the rest of the children and ask him to start his sentence with "I like to eat" and then tell you what his picture is. As each child in turn tells you his sentence starting with "I like to eat" write the sentences on the chart. Put the child's name in parentheses after his sentence and leave a line between each sentence (for sentence matching later in the week). Your chart might look like this:

FOODS WE LIKE TO EAT

I like to eat chocolate cake. (Robbie)

I like to eat ice cream. (Carolyn)

I like to eat watermelon. (Jerry)

I like to eat peanut butter. (Wayne)

I like to eat fried chicken. (Paul)

As you are writing each sentence, read the words then let the child who

told you the sentence read it and let the whole group in chorus read it. When the whole chart is written, read it to the children and then choose other children to read it. To help each child read the chart, point to the name in parenthesis next to each sentence and ask that child to stand up and display his picture. A sentence such as “Yes, that is Robbie’s name and he likes to eat chocolate cake.” and “Yes, Carolyn is standing up because this is her sentence and she likes to eat ice cream.” will insure success for almost all children. As each child reads, move the child’s hand along the chart to help the child develop the notion of what a word is and top-bottom, left-right orientation. When each child has had a chance to read the entire chart, leave the chart and the pictures out and encourage the children to come back later in the day and read their story to a friend.

Wednesday:

Begin by looking once again at the pictures and identifying the name of the picture and the name of the child who liked that food. Then, following yesterday’s “stand up” procedure, let several children read the chart. Next, show the children some sentence strips and tell them you are going to write their sentences on the strips. No one is to say a word while you are writing but they are to try to guess whose sentence you are writing. When you finish, the child who thinks he knows which sentence you have written will get to tape that sentence under the same sentence on the chart. (This is why you left the space between the sentences yesterday!) Write each sentence on a sentence strip as the children watch. Let volunteers match the strip sentence to the one on the chart, read the sentence and tape it underneath the appropriate sentence. Continue this procedure until all sentences are matched.

When all the sentences are matched, remove them one at a time and cut the sentences into words. Mix up the words and let each child rearrange his or her sentence into the correct order. At the completion of this word matching activity, put all the words in a box. Place this box with the chart and the pictures. Encourage the children to find some time during the day and try to rearrange all the words to tell the same story the chart tells.

Thursday:

Before Thursday’s lesson, prepare mimeographed sheets by printing the story or typing it with a primary typewriter. Make at least five times as many copies as you have children in the group. Leave plenty of space between each sentence for sentence and word matching.

Begin Thursday’s lesson by having several volunteers read the whole chart. Take some time to develop some language concepts with them. Ask questions such as: How many words are in Robbie’s sentence? What’s the longest word in our story? What’s the shortest word? How many times do we see the word *I? eat? like? chocolate?*, etc. What word begins with a *p*? What three words begin with *c*? etc. (Write these letters on the board as you say them, so that the children begin to associate the letter name with the symbol.) How many sentences do we have? Which is the first sentence? The last sentence?

Next, give each child a copy of the mimeographed story and let each child read it. Then, give each child the five sentences cut in strips (from another copy of the mimeographed story). Let each child match the sentences and paste the strip under the sentence on the sheet. For children who do sentence matching easily, cut one or two of their sentences into words and have them rearrange the words and then paste them under the appropriate sentence.

Friday:

Give each child another mimeographed sheet. Have them read each sentence and then cut and paste each sentence on a sheet of drawing paper. Have the children either find pictures of each food or draw each food on the appropriate page. Put the book together and write the title "Foods We Like To Eat" in magic marker on the cover. Let each child take his book and a mimeographed copy of the story home. Put another mimeographed copy of the story in each child's story folder. As the year goes on, the children will have many stories they can read and reread. Put the chart, picture and sentence-strip words together in a box and let children read and recreate the story as often as they like.

The above description of the Foods lesson describes the first experience with story writing for a group of children. As the children do several more stories and become more accustomed to the format of the lessons, the lessons described will take less time and other components can be added. Many teachers like to have the children make word banks with the words from each story as they can read to place in their word banks. (Index cards in cigar boxes work very well for this purpose.) Concrete words can be illustrated or have magazine pictures attached to help children remember them. For abstract words, the child may tell the teacher a sentence with that word which can be written on the back of the card and which also serves as an aid to recall.

Phonics lessons develop naturally from the word banks and charts. When trying to build a sound/symbol correspondence for a particular consonant, blend or vowel, children can be asked to hunt through their banks or story folders for words containing the particular letter. From these known words, phonic principles can be induced.

Conclusion:

Of course, there are infinite number of stories which can be written using the structured language experience approach. Some which have been used by teachers include:

I like to eat _____
 I want a _____
 I wish I had a _____
 My pet is a _____
 When I grow up I will be a _____
 These people are _____
 A _____ has four legs and a tail.
 I can make _____

My animal likes to eat _____
 I want a _____ for Christmas
 _____ will grow in the garden.
 I have a little _____ and a big _____
 This is a can of _____
 A _____ can go fast.
 This is a _____

By the time a teacher has used many of these topics, the children are ready for something else. They have increased their language fluency, can talk in sentences, know what a sentence and a word are, move their eyes automatically from top to bottom and left to right, have a store of basic sight words and have confidence in their ability to learn to read. Readiness has been developed. Reading has begun. The children can now move into the basal or traditional language experience or trade books at and with the teacher's pleasure.

REFERENCES

- Allen, Roach Van. "The Language Experience Approach," in *Teaching Young Children to Read*, ed. Warren G. Cutts (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education, 1964).
- Askland, Linda C. "Conducting Individual Language Experience Stories," *The Reading Teacher* 27 (1973): 167-70.
- Hall, Maryanne. "Linguistically Speaking, Why Language Experience?" *The Reading Teacher* 25 (1972): 328-31.

CLOZE ENCOUNTERS OF A DIFFERENT KIND

Robert F. Carey

INDIANA UNIVERSITY

One evaluation device currently receiving widespread attention from reading educators is the cloze procedure, or cloze test. A variety of recent research reports indicate that, although this interest is probably warranted, some modifications of the technique and its applications may be called for.

The cloze test usually consists of a graded reading passage from which words have been deleted according to some methodical strategy, such as every fifth word, every tenth word, every pronoun, etc. The deleted words are replaced with blanks of a uniform size, and the student is asked to fill in the blanks with the most appropriate word.

With its introduction to educators in the early 1950's, the cloze procedure became the focus of a large body of research. As Jongsma (1971) noted, most cloze research has been concerned with: (1) Cloze as a technique for measuring comprehension, (2) cloze as a measure of readability, and (3) cloze as a method of investigating language variables.

Perhaps the most prolific of these areas has been the first - using cloze as an indicator of literal reading comprehension. The validity of this notion has received especially wide empirical treatment; Jenkinson (1957), Ruddell (1963), and Bormuth (1965), for example, all found significant positive relationships between student performance on cloze tests and standardized reading comprehension tests. Bormuth (1969) stated that "cloze tests made by deleting every fifth word measure skills closely related or identical to those measured by conventional multiple choice reading comprehension tests" (p. 363).

The cloze test has not been without its detractors, however. Weaver and Kingston (1963) for example, concluded that comprehension did not play a significant role in cloze score performance and that what the test measured was a specific factor apart from verbal ability. Coleman and Miller (1968) also questioned the validity of the method, as did Carroll (1972) in assessing the cloze as "too crude" to measure comprehension (p. 19).

In a more recent study however, Bormuth asserted that "it seems clear that cloze tests do measure a person's ability to perform the comprehension processes" (1975, p. 66). Similarly, Horton (1973) postulated the construct validity of the cloze as an index of reading comprehension. Horton's conclusions, drawn from a factor analytic study, suggest that the cloze tends to measure "the subject's ability to deal with the relationships among words and ideas" (p. 250).

Recent Uses of the Cloze

Despite the wide range of authoritative opinions on the device, the cloze test has been growing in acceptance and application until it has become a

fairly common diagnostic and evaluative tool in the reading specialist's repertoire. This proliferation of the technique may be partially attributed to some inherent advantages of the cloze test when it is compared to a variety of commercial standardized instruments. The cloze is made by a relatively easy and mechanical process which can be applied to any passage in ordinary language selected by a teacher. Also, the cloze is considerably less expensive and generally more reliable than other methods of constructing tests on a selected passage.

One important but infrequently heard criticism of the cloze test is its affective impact on the student in the testing situation. In its conventional form, the cloze test can cause anxiety and frustration in a student who is suddenly presented with an unfamiliar reading passage riddled with blanks to be filled in. Even high-ability students, accustomed to performing well on tests, can become uneasy with a test requiring only forty or fifty percent correct answers for a "good" performance. Obviously, the cloze can be an especially threatening kind of test.

A potential solution to this problem is the post oral-reading cloze test, suggested by Page (1975). Using procedures and criteria developed by Bormuth (1975), this newer version differs from the conventional cloze test in that it is administered only after students have orally read the passage in its original form.

This post-reading version of the cloze technique is perhaps most useful in a diagnostic situation. It can be especially effective when used in conjunction with an informal inventory or a miscue analysis. The teacher or clinician simply uses the passage orally read by the student as the post-reading comprehension assessment device.

Besides the obvious advantages of a miscue analysis, the actual oral reading of the passage is important because it ensures the student's familiarity with the material before the cloze task. Since the student has already been exposed to the passage, the post-reading procedure seems to alleviate much of the anxiety and tension surrounding the administration of other cloze forms. The important advantages of the cloze, however, are maintained.

Research Support

Research suggests that the post-reading form loses little of the correlational or construct validity attributed to the conventional cloze tests. Page (1975) found a strong relationship between conventional and post-reading cloze scores. The post-reading scores tended to be about ten percent higher, but lacked any other significant qualitative differences. These results were corroborated by Ganier (1976) in a study using a different sample, a variant design, and much longer passages.

A recent study (Carey, 1978) demonstrates a direct link between student performance on post-reading cloze tests and standardized comprehension tests. The study further suggests a significant and persistent relationship among student performance on standardized tests, post oral-reading cloze tests, and comprehending scores. The comprehending score, a ratio of oral

reading miscues which indicate a successful search for meaning, has been demonstrated as a powerful predictor of the retelling score (Goodman and Burke, 1973).

These results suggest that the post-reading cloze score is related to both "process" and "product" indicators of reading comprehension. The scores can be used by the reading teacher or clinician to corroborate other assessments of comprehension, or they can be adjusted and interpreted using Bormuth's (1975) grade level equivalency tables.

Conclusion

This growing body of research results points toward the validity of the post oral-reading cloze test. Certainly, normative studies will be useful in interpreting the results of the scores and further research is indicated. But even now the newer post-reading cloze would seem to offer a reasonable alternative to the reading specialist interested in effective and humane methods of comprehension assessment.

REFERENCES

- Bormuth, John R. "Comparisons Among Cloze Test Scoring Methods." In J. A. Figurel (Ed) *Reading and Inquiry: Proceedings of the International Reading Association*. Newark, Del.: IRA, 1965, pp. 283-286.
- Bormuth, John R. "Factor Validity of Cloze Tests as Measures of Reading Comprehensibility." *Reading Research Quarterly*, Vol. IV, No. 3 (Spring, 1969), pp. 358-383.
- Bormuth, John R. "Literacy in the Classroom." In W. D. Page (Ed) *Help for the Reading Teacher: New Directions in Research*. Urbana, Ill.: ERIC/CRCS, NIE, National Council of Teachers of English, 1975, pp. 60-90.
- Carey, Robert F. A Psycholinguistic Analysis of the Effects of Semantic Acceptability of Oral Reading Miscues on Reading Comprehension. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Connecticut, 1978.
- Carroll, John B. "Defining Language Comprehension: Some Speculations." In R. O. Freedle and J. B. Carroll (Eds) *Language Comprehension and the Acquisition of Knowledge*. Washington, D.C.: V. H. Winston and Sons, 1972, pp. 1-24.
- Coleman, E. B. and G. R. Miller. "A Measure of Information Gained During Prose Learning." *Reading Research Quarterly*, Vol. III, No. 3 (Spring, 1968), pp. 369-386.
- Ganier, Ann. "The Post Oral-Reading Cloze Test: Does It Really Work?" *Reading World*, Vol. 16, No. 1 (October, 1976), pp. 21-27.
- Goodman, Kenneth S. and Carolyn Burke. *Theoretically Based Studies of Patterns of Miscues in Oral Reading Performance*. USOE Project No. OEG-0-0-320375-4269. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, March, 1973.
- Horton, Raymond J. The Construct Validity of Cloze Procedure: An Exploratory Analysis of Cloze, Paragraph Reading, and Structure-of-

- Intellect Tests. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Hofstra University, 1973.
- Jenkinson, Marion. Selected Processes and Difficulties in Reading Comprehension. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Chicago, 1957.
- Jongsma, Eugene. *The Cloze Procedure As A Teaching Technique*. ERIC/CRIER and the International Reading Association, Newark, Delaware: 1971.
- Page, William D. "The Post Oral-Reading Cloze Test: New Link Between Oral Reading and Comprehension." *Journal of Reading Behavior*. VII, 1975, pp. 383-389.
- Ruddell, Robert B. An Investigation of the Effects of the Similarity of Oral and Written Patterns of Language Structure on Reading Comprehension. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University, 1963.
- Weaver, Wendell W. and Albert J. Kingston. "A Factor Analysis of the Cloze Procedure and Other Measures of Reading and Language Ability." *Journal of Communication*, 13, 1969, pp. 252-261.

WORD ANALOGIES: AN OVERLOOKED READING AID

Jerry Axelrod

PHILADELPHIA, PENNSYLVANIA

Few cues give a teacher a more valid or quicker insight into her students' thinking abilities than word analogies. The pupils' mental manipulations or lack thereof reveal to the aware and perceptive teacher a usually accurate idea of the extent to which her pupils will be able to perform. Picture analogies for nonreaders and word analogies for literate pupils can be used informally by the classroom teachers to approximate just how much pupils, individually, are capable of learning in an academic situation.

Yet, as important as being able to understand relationships is, there appears a dearth of literature on the subject either in classic texts in reading, psychology and intellect or in recent journals indexed in *Education Index* and *Current Index To Journals in Education*. William James (1890), for example, admits to the importance of this subject but nonetheless dismisses it in a couple of lines: "A native talent for perceiving analogies . . . (is) the leading fact in genius of every order . . . people (who) are sensitive to resemblances, and far more ready to point out wherein they consist are . . . the writers, the poets, the inventors, the scientific men, the practical geniuses." Considering the apparent importance of analogies, it is hard to understand why so many scientific men and practical geniuses are mum on the subject.

Turner (1973) lists and exemplifies fifteen kinds of relationships:

Purpose

Cause - Effect

glove: ball

Part - Whole

race: fatigue

Part - Part

snake: reptile

Action to Object

gill: fin

Object to Action

kick: football

Synonym

Antonym

Place

Miami: Florida

Degree

Warm: Hot

Characteristic

Ignorance: Poverty

Sequence

Spring: Summer

Grammatical

Restore: climb

Numerical

4:12: 9:27

Association

devil: wrong

This article will concern itself with analogies as (1) word attack and (2) comprehension skills.

Analogies deal with words not in the context of a sentence and paragraph. Therefore, if it is assumed that learning words on sight should be made in sentence-context, then the use of analogies as a word analysis skill is limited. After all, pupils can hardly rely on context clues to aid them in figuring out a word if there is no sentence-context for that word. Nevertheless, there is another type of context for words in an analogy and this context can aid the pupil in recognizing that word. The context for a word in an analogy is its companion word. For example, “face” can be a companion word for “head”; “run” for “walk”; “hit” for “knock,” etc. Let’s take an example of how word analogies can be used as a decoding device.

Many pupils confuse minimal-pair words like “horse” and “house” and between “month” and “mouth.” They confuse these pairs of words for a number of reasons: they fail to use context clues; their teachers have not taught phonics elements such as “ou-ow” and “or”; pupils come across contexts suitable for both minimal pairs like “The house is white” or “The horse is white.” But whatever the reasons are for their confusion, the use of analogies can help to alleviate the problem. One suggestion would be for the teacher to teach medial vowel and consonant-controlled vowel sounds and then place on the chalkboard:

h__se: saddle

h__se: home

m__th: year

m__th: cavity

Have pupils first guess at the appropriate words and then at the appropriate missing letters. Ask the learners to justify their answers (e.g. “a horse goes with a saddle”; “there’s an ‘r’ sound in ‘horse,’” etc.). Then place on the board:

horse: home

house: saddle

mouth: year

month: cavity

Ask the pupils why these responses are not congruent (e.g. “A house and a saddle aren’t related” or “A month is in a year and a mouth has nothing to do with a year,” etc.) and have them correct the analogies by juggling around the medial letters in the four encased words causing phonic confusion. The purpose of this analogy activity is to have the pupils perceive two contexts for their responses – a correct and an incorrect one. In addition to spurring them to think logically, they will have engaged in a useful phonics and word attack lesson. (It should be added, however, that in teaching words out of sentence context, the teacher may not know whether the pupil will know these words *in* sentence-context. Thus, teaching words

out of sentence-context is limited in usefulness and should be supplemented by using those words to be learned in a sentence-context situation).

Concerning analogy as a reading comprehension skill, consider the following example:

up: down

West: ____

The pupil who is able to show a pattern of correct responses to analogies like the one above is engaging in one form of reading comprehension. Not all forms or even several forms, to be sure, but in one of them. For example, a student who figures out analogies easily and thereby shows high intellectual potential may not, nevertheless, be able to tell the main idea of a story he has just read or even to reveal some of its important details. But analogy is not *less* than one form of reading comprehension. For when a child shows his teacher that he understands analogies he is revealing that he comprehends the meanings of the words he is able to decode and that he comprehends the relationships between them.

SOME WORKBOOKS THAT INCLUDE ANALOGY EXERCISES

Continental Press, Elizabethtown, Pa.

Mancy, Ethel. *Reading-Thinking Skills* – all levels, pre-primer to 6. 1965. Highest recommendation. All seven booklets excellent.

Scott, Foresman & Co., Glenville, Ill.

Gray, William and others. *Basic Reading Skills for Junior High Use*, 1957. Page 127. out of print

Monroe, Marion and others. *Basic Reading Skills for High School Use*, 1958. Page 101. out of print

Monroe, Marion and others. *Basic Reading Skills*. 1970. Page 90.

REFERENCES

James, William. *Principles of Psychology, Volume One*. New York. Dover Publications. 1880 and 1950. p. 530.

Mancy, Ethel. *Teachers' Guide for Reading—Thinking Skills*. All fourteen guides. Elizabethtown, Pa. Continental Press, 1965.

Turner, David. *Miller Analogies Test—1400 Analogy Questions*. New York: Arco, 1973, pp. XI-XII.

READING ASSESSMENT— THE THIRD DIMENSION

Jerry L. Johns

ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR, NORTHERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY

Assessing a student's progress in reading should be an integral part of every reading program. Most teachers use standardized or informal tests for the diagnosis and evaluation of reading achievement; however, a third means of assessment is available to teachers. This article is intended to help educators legitimize this often ignored method of assessing reading behavior and evaluating reading performance.

Standardized Tests—One method for evaluating reading performance is labeled "standardized." Educators who rely primarily on this method of assessment use standardized tests of all sorts and varieties. These tests are generally made available by publishers who spend a great deal of money developing, refining, advertising, and marketing the tests.

The technical manuals of standardized tests provide norms, reliability coefficients, item analyses, various types of validity, and the like. The tests appear to be very scientific and exact, thereby providing the educator with a false sense of security about the results. For example, a serious misuse of a reading survey test is to equate a grade level score with a graded reading text. It is not correct to assume that a grade score of 4.2 on a standardized reading survey test means that the student should be placed in a fourth-grade reader. The tests were not intended for such a purpose; yet they are regularly misused in this manner.

The results from diagnostic tests are also frequently misused. Perhaps the most common misuse is to base instruction on the strengths and weaknesses suggested by subtest scores. In some cases, the technical manuals of diagnostic tests offer little or no evidence of subtest validity. In addition, the subtests of some diagnostic tests correlate so highly with each other that the *diagnostic* value of any one subtest is of dubious quality.

Educators should also realize that most diagnostic and survey tests fragment the reading process. Such fragmentation may yield false conclusions about the "skills" the student needs to master in order to become an efficient and effective reader. Despite many limitations of survey and diagnostic tests, a diverse group of professionals persists in using them for the evaluation of overall reading achievement and the diagnosis of specific strengths and weaknesses in reading.

Informal Tests—Informal tests are another way of assessing and monitoring reading progress. They generally lack scientific information about test construction, validity, and reliability; however, professionals who design these tests usually exert reasonable efforts to establish what might be termed subjective validity and reliability. While lack of statistical information must not be taken lightly, the basic nature of these tests is informal.

An informal reading inventory (IRI), perhaps the most popular informal reading test, is often constructed by a classroom teacher. The IRI is generally used to help match students with books. This match, however, is not always correct. Through daily classroom instruction, the teacher can determine whether the student needs to be given easier or harder reading material. The method many teachers use to make this decision is the third dimension to reading assessment.

IOT—For years teachers have been using another technique for assessing and monitoring reading progress; the IOT. What is the IOT? It is really a pseudo-scientific abbreviation that may help legitimize something that good teachers have always done: use observation as a means to determine whether their instruction is producing the desired results. They observe students in a variety of everyday situations. In essence, they use the inner-ocular technique (IOT).

When teachers question the validity of tests, workbook, or worksheet scores, they are probably using information that has been gathered through the IOT. In short, the data obtained from a particular assignment or test may not jibe with the bulk of the evidence that has become a subtle part of the teaching-learning process. Teachers who rely on the IOT use their observations to help make instructional decisions. These decisions, in turn, are evaluated from further use of the IOT. Instruction becomes a dynamic process that depends, to a large extent, on the day-to-day observations of the teacher.

A number of teachers, moreover, use systematic methods of recording information obtained from the IOT. They develop checklists, keep notes in folders or on file cards, and/or use other means of recording their observations so that patterns of strengths and weaknesses can be systematically determined. A number of textbooks on the teaching of reading have also provided various methods to help teachers systematize the IOT.

The main point of this article can be made with the following example. Children being taught to read must learn to recognize words. Today's enlightened teachers realize that phonics is an important word attack strategy, but other strategies must also be taught—for example, context and structural analysis. There needs to be a balance among the many methods of word attack. Without balance, the reading process may be short-circuited, resulting in ineffective reading.

In a similar vein, teachers should realize that the IOT is an important means for assessing the effectiveness of reading instruction. Standardized and informal tests should also be used. There needs to be a balance among the many methods of assessing students' reading progress. Without this balance, instruction may become misdirected, which, in turn, may work against helping students become proficient readers. To achieve the necessary balance among methods of assessment, greater attention needs to be paid to IOT. Let's legitimize IOT. Skilled use of IOT can be as valid an assessment technique as either standardized or informal tests.

All teachers observe. There's no way to avoid it. What teachers need to do is place greater credence in their observations and trust the insights that they have gained through their teaching.

PEER-TUTORING: LEARNING BOON OR EXPLOITATION OF THE TUTOR?

Helen Howell

UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA AT OMAHA

The concept of peer tutoring is not new. Its use has been traced back through centuries. Probably all elementary school teachers have used it at some time—usually in the brief, informal situation of having Billy help Jimmy with some specific problem or skill need. In recent years, the idea has expanded and the more formal peer-tutoring or peer-mediated instruction concept has received attention and support. This increased interest in peer-tutoring appears to have been prompted by the need to individualize instruction and to do so as economically as possible.

To give educational legitimacy to the expanding practice of peer-tutoring, justification in terms of learning benefits began appearing. The derived benefits from peer-tutoring are based mainly on two cognitive premises: (1) tutees (those being tutored) will make significant gains in achievement; and (2) tutors will increase significantly their own learning through teaching others. Other premises are in the affective domain and emphasize improved pupil relationships and self-concepts.

Much of the writing about peer-tutoring uses the tutee as the focus for examination and most report this technique as being beneficial for the tutee. Certainly the effects of peer-tutoring on the tutee are highly important, but the effects on the tutor need equal consideration. Studies based on the tutor are fewer in number, but reveal some interesting information.

There have been reports of various practices in the use of tutors. For organizational purposes, these practices can be divided into two main groups. One group concerns the grade level relationship of tutor to tutee—cross-age tutoring and in-class tutoring. The other group concerns the achievement level of the tutor—learning deficient, on or above level for his ability, and gifted.

In studies in which cross-age tutoring was carried on with underachievers as both tutors and tutees, East (1976) found that significant gains were made by both tutors and tutees at the .05 level of confidence. Results from this study further showed significant gains both in reading and self-esteem for the tutors. These results were attributed basically to several main factors. One dealt with cross-age grouping involving three or more years difference in grades. Because of this difference, it was thought that there would be less jealousy and friction and more of a model or image concept. The empathy of one underachiever for another was the basis of another factor. A third was that teaching others enhances the role of learning.

In another report of a cross-age tutoring trial, Lawrence (1975) stated that there was a gain in the communication skills of the tutors. No evidence was given to confirm this however.

Willis and Crowder (1974) reported on a project in which twelve eighth graders who participated as tutors in a seven month tutoring program for deficient readers were matched in terms of achievement and ability with twelve eighth graders in the same school who did not participate in the tutoring program. The participating eighth graders, both tutors and members of the control group, were achieving at or above level for their ability. The project was focused on the amount of achievement made by tutors. Results revealed that while the tutors gained nine months in reading achievement in the seven month program, the control group made a median gain of eleven months during the same period.

Peer-Mediated Instruction (PMI) is based on in-class pairing with each child working as both tutor and tutee in the attempt to provide for individualizing instruction. In his research on PMI, Rosenbaum (1973) reported that effective interaction was hindered whenever a very weak learner and a very strong learner were paired. He stated:

There are, not surprisingly, critical limits to the difference between two students in their ability to execute procedures. When these limits are exceeded, it is as if the learners are suddenly speaking two different languages, with neither being able to get his own needs satisfied or to satisfy his own demands or those of his partner, this often leading to a breakdown of the dyadic relationship (p. 57).

Even though this program seems more learning-partner based than tutor-based, the implications for ability pairing are significant, especially in terms of how gifted children are used as tutors. To overcome problems in interpersonal relations, two suggestions were made; pairings should be made randomly rather than matched, and pairings should be changed each class or session.

In most of the peer-tutoring programs reported, time was needed to train the tutors in how to work with tutees and in many instances in the skills to be taught. As one example, the Tutorial-Community Program (TCP) (Newmark 1976) employed an extensive training program for tutors. This training program contained five to seven sessions of thirty to fifty minutes each. After the initial training period, the tutor spent thirty minutes every day in planning, preparing, or tutoring. Throughout the tutoring program, the teacher worked with the tutors to provide specific directions and materials.

On the surface, some of these programs and practices have great appeal. However, in considering the described tutor time and effort and teacher time and effort expended in peer-tutoring weighed against the results cited in research studies, several questions keep emerging.

If tutors with learning deficiencies made significant gains in their own achievement from the tutoring experience, then:

1. could the same amount of specialized and personalized attention to their needs produce equivalent or greater achievement gains for them?
2. could their self-esteem improve and be more lasting if it is based on self-achievement rather than on a transitory tutor/tutee relationship?

If, as was recorded, tutors on or above level according to their ability achieved less than the matched control group, then:

1. could the same amount of time as that spent in tutoring activities be used more gainfully if directed to the specific needs of the tutor?
2. could the use of gifted children as tutors hinder or even retard their own learning growth?

If problems exist in tutor/tutee relationships because of ability or other differences, then: could the time spent in matching pairs or in changing pairs be used to better advantage in other experiences in which students are on more of an equal rather than tutor basis?

If there are some ways to use peer-tutoring beneficially, then:

AT WHAT POINT DOES PEER-TUTORING CHANGE FROM AN EFFECTIVE LEARNING TECHNIQUE TO THE EXPLOITATION OF YOUNGSTERS?

REFERENCES

- East, Barbara A. "Cross-Age Tutoring in the Elementary School." *Graduate Research in Education and Related Disciplines*, pp. 88-111. New York: School of Education, The City College, Vol. 8 No. 2, 1976.
- Lawrence, Dolores. "Sparta Revisited." *The Reading Teacher*, Vol. 28 No. 5, (Febr. 1975), pp. 464-465.
- Newmark, Gerald. *This School Belongs to You and Me*. New York: Hart Publishing Company, Inc., 1976.
- Rosenbaum, Peter S. *Peer-Mediated Instruction*. New York: Teachers College Press, 1973.
- Willis, Jerry and Jeane Crowder. "Does Tutoring Enhance the Tutor's Academic Learning?" *Psychology in the Schools*. Vol. XI No. 1, (Jan. 1974), pp. 68-70.

PROFESSIONAL CONCERNS

R. Baird Shuman

EDITOR

William S. Palmer

CONTRIBUTOR

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

William S. Palmer is Professor of Reading and Language Arts at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. He is well known for his contributions to professional journals in the field of reading and English education. He is author of *Teaching Reading to High School Students*.

In his contribution to this column, Professor Palmer points out some of the oversimplification which results from basing reading programs upon the taxonomic model. He carefully explores the stages of beginning reading, and he sets these in a useful historical perspective. In doing so, he avoids the Aristotelian either/or dichotomy in his reasoning and presents suggestions which involve a both/and type of reasoning.

Beginning Reading: A Continuing Debate

In the teaching of reading today, we continue to use one of the earliest models as a basis for our classroom methods—the taxonomic model. In most taxonomic models, reading skills are divided into similar categories, such as word perception, comprehension, reaction, and integration. A taxonomic model, therefore, is purely descriptive, an attempt to tell what happens when one reads. The orderly presentation of these four categories in reading, however, may suggest a greater precision than the classification system possesses.¹ Today, some research in beginning reading has progressed beyond just naming and leveling, suggesting many new implications for use in the classroom. Gibson, for example, delineates the following stages in beginning reading: (1) learning to use spoken language, (2) learning to discriminate between graphic symbols, (3) learning spelling-sound correspondences, and (4) learning to handle larger units of structure.²

1. *Learning to use spoken language*

Children, we know, differ in language control and effectiveness. By the time many young children enter school they can already understand and use a wide range of grammatical structures and vocabulary. Value stems from consistent social reinforcement and sentence expansion opportunities in development, refining, and extending the child's language. Reading difficulties occur when young children do not have a good grasp of the printed language to be read—when there is a mismatch between the way they speak and what is written for them to read. Developing oral language, then, is an important prerequisite to beginning reading.

2-3. *Learning to discriminate between graphic symbols and learning spelling-sound correspondences*

The history of reading instruction in American schools has been characterized by a movement from one extreme to another in regard to phonics. In 1967, Jeanne Chall wrote a rather controversial book: *Learning To Read: The Great Debate*.³ Few books on reading methodology have aroused more comment and discussion. Here are some of her major contentions.

- (a) Basically, approaches to reading have either emphasized a *code* emphasis or a *meaning* emphasis.
- (b) The code emphasis is preferred over the meaning emphasis, for the first step in learning to read in one's native speech is essentially learning a printed code for the speech we possess.
- (c) Early code learning produces better word recognition and spelling.
- (d) Early code learning makes it easier for the child to read with understanding at least up to the 4th grade.
- (e) Children from lower social economic status do better with an early code emphasis.
- (f) There is more than one way to facilitate learning the code such as a systematic phonics program, modified alphabet sequence and the linguistic approach.
- (g) A child's ability to identify letters by name in kindergarten or the beginning of grade one is an important predictor of his reading achievement at various points in the first and second grades.
- (h) The criticism that systematic phonics leads to dull drill is not completely founded.

Here are some of Chall's recommendations to teachers of reading and researchers in reading:

- (1) Research supports the need for a change in methods from the meaning emphasis to code-emphasis. The code-emphasis method she proposes is one that combines control of words on spelling regularity; some direct teaching of letter-sound correspondence, and the use of writing and tracing.
- (2) There is no evidence that certain content in beginning reading programs influence reading achievement favorably or unfavorably. She

challenges the assertion that content of stories stimulate interest in and motivation for reading, in turn, promises the acquisition of reading skills.

- (3) There needs to be a single component list which provides measures of the various subskills of reading mastery.
- (4) Research results need to be put into a form that can be used by school people.

Chall, then, accepts the premise that beginning reading instruction fits comfortably into two categories—one is “meaning emphasis,” the other is “code emphasis.” According to Heilman,⁴ these terms are different names for the older sight-word method vs. phonics method. Current practice and the reading establishment advocate the beginning reading instruction should consist of meaning emphasis. Chall, however, unequivocally recommends code emphasis as a beginning reading method. Beginning readers, of course, should be receiving instruction which helps them crack the code. *However, they become handicapped if they rely too heavily on phonic analysis.* A child who can and does sound every word in a story is not becoming an effective reader.

It is doubtful whether reading instruction can ever become so effective as it might be as long as either code cracking or reading for meaning are presented as alternative rather than as concomitant learning strategies. Beginning reading instruction must produce measurable growth on three very closely related facts. Beginning readers must constantly be (a) mastering and applying letter-sound relationship, (b) enlarging their sight vocabulary, and (c) profiting from context clues while reading. If any one of these skills is overemphasized in beginning reading, students are likely to *overlearn* and overrely on this skill. This mitigates against their maintaining a proper balance between these three essential elements for growth in reading.

4. *Learning to use larger units of structure*

Language development is important to reading specialists because numerous theorists maintain that competence in the spoken word is an essential first step in learning to read. Findings in research show that students differ in language facility. Studies by Loban⁵ and Strickland⁶ indicate that students rated high in language ability tend to draw upon the rich resources of language, extending meaning through the use of complex forms, and by using a variety of words, patterns, and syntactic elements. In contrast, students rated low in language ability tend to use fewer words and fewer complex forms. Their sentences are typically short and simple, instead of extended, embedded, and combined. These studies likewise show a high correlation between students' oral and written language facility and their ability to read. As students with limited language facility interact with print, they are likely to experience difficulty in understanding concepts when they are expressed in unfamiliar and complex grammatical forms.

What, then, are some conclusions we must make based on a comparison of Gibson's and Chall's theories as to how young children learn to

read? First, teacher must remember what Gates told us about reading years ago:

Reading is not a simple mechanical skill; nor is it a narrow scholastic tool. Properly cultivated, it is essentially a thought process. However, to say that reading is a “thought-getting” process is to give it too restricted a description. It should be developed as a complex organization of patterns of higher mental processes. It can and should embrace all types of thinking, evaluating, judging, imagining, reasoning, and problem-solving. Indeed, it is believed that reading is one of the best media for cultivating many techniques of thinking and imagining.⁷

Secondly, teachers of beginning readers, like teachers of reading at all levels of learning or of any subject for that matter, must become language teachers as well, because learning how to learn means learning how to use verbal symbols. Children particularly need to do certain things with language in the defining process, in the generalizing process. Not only is the inquiry process largely a language operation, but all subjects in the school curriculum are language. Reading activities provoked by language and thought-centered situations, then, provide children with practice in communication, thinking, working with others, and creating. Thus, the perceiving of the reading process in these terms makes this activity right from the beginning of instruction an integral part of all learning.

Summary

Beginning reading instruction must not be perceived as an either/or phenomenon—as either strong adherence to the code devoid of meaning—or the reverse. Rather, teachers, who understand that reading is in large part a language process extending thought will teach the code and meaning concomitantly. Such teachers do more than help children master and apply letter-sound relationships. In addition, they help youngsters to extend their sight vocabulary and facilitate their use of context clues. Thus, beginning reading instruction, rather than being viewed as a mere “mechanical skill,” becomes capable of encompassing many facets of both language and thought—and right from the earliest of interactions with print.

REFERENCES

- ¹ Clymer, Ted. “What is Reading? Some Current Concepts.” *Innovation and Change in Reading Instruction*, Ed. by Helen M. Robinson. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1968, pp. 7-30.
- ² Gibson, Eleanor. “The Ontogeny of Reading.” *American Psychologist*, 1970, Vol. 25, pp. 136-143.

- ³ Chall, Jeanne. *Learning to Read—The Great Debate*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967.
- ⁴ Heilman, Arthur. *Phonics in Proper Perspective*. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1968.
- ⁵ Loban, Walter. *A Study of the Use and Control of Language Effectiveness in Communication and the Relationships Among Speaking, Reading, Writing, and listening*. Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1963.
- ⁶ Strickland, Ruth. "The Language of Elementary School Children: It's Relationship to the Language of Reading Textbooks and the Quality of Reading of Selected Children." *Bulletin of the School of Education*, Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University, Vol. 38, No. 4 (June 1962).
- ⁷ Gates, Arthur. *Reading in the Elementary School*. Forty-eighth yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Chicago, Illinois: University of Chicago Press, 1949.

EFFECTIVE PROCEDURES FOR TEACHING REFERENCE STUDY SKILLS

Dr. Donald C. Cushenbery

UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA AT OMAHA

In many elementary developmental reading programs, the areas of word attack and comprehension traditionally receive major attention with respect to reading skills instruction. In some other cases there is much emphasis with respect to phonics and other forms of decoding with less priority given to comprehension. Typically, the skill area receiving the least amount of importance is that of reference study skills since it is assumed by some teachers that if a student is efficient in word attack and comprehension, he/she will naturally transmit these skills to assignments dealing with library resources.

Reference study skills must be directly taught in a sequential, direct, and purposeful manner which will insure that each student can develop competence in *locating*, *evaluating*, *classifying*, and *utilizing* information that is desired regarding specific subjects. The purpose of this article is to provide the reader with specific teaching suggestions for helping various learners to attain appropriate study skills in each of the four categories which were listed previously. These ideas will need to be varied to suit the interests, needs, and level of attention of the students being instructed.

Locating Information

Since in a typical school library there may be as many as 10,000 volumes, the task of finding the one book which contains the exact, desired information is a challenging experience. To accomplish the task requires the reader to alphabetize titles, preview books, use the dictionary correctly, find topics in an index, and utilize the card catalogue appropriately. Those students who lack these skills tend to waste much valuable time and find that they are unable to complete simple assignments involving basic reference works.

In order to help students locate information, the following principles should be remembered by the teacher.

1. Each type of school dictionary is different from all others, thus the unique features of this source (arrangement of words, symbols, pronunciation key) must be demonstrated. Using exercises compiled by the publisher or the teacher, demand that each student demonstrate ability to employ the adopted dictionary in a number of assignment situations.
2. Every student should learn how to preview a book and discover the importance and meaning of such aspects as the table of contents, index, special summaries, and other unique features. Several books could be placed on a desk or table and students could be asked to determine

which one or more of the sources contains specific information on a given topic. Ask selected students to name the section(s) of the book which contains data concerning the location of desired information.

3. The nature and use of a book index should be understood. Sequential instruction should lead each student to discover the types of data contained in the section, the arrangement of the body of information, and the meaning of the various symbols and abbreviations. An exercise could be constructed which would require the reader to determine if a certain topic is discussed; on what page(s) the material is found; and the number of sub-headings which are explained and presented regarding that topic.
4. Unless a precise, well-directed orientation is undertaken, all students need direct help in how to use the various reference sources such as the card catalogue, unabridged dictionaries, encyclopedias, and special source books. They need to understand the meaning of the Dewey Decimal System and how they can find information through the knowledge of what certain letters and numbers mean. While the training in the use of library resources is usually the domain of the English teacher, each content teacher should have mini-lessons in his/her course which emphasize those materials and aids that are unique to that subject. Following the training, a post-test activity should be undertaken to insure that given competencies have been obtained. The following questions may be illustrative.
 - a. Name four different books or sources where you could get information relating to Halley's Comet.
 - b. Has Clyde Adams written a book regarding the Panama Canal?
 - c. What source would you use to find the length of a conventional tennis court?

Evaluating Information

The many books and other specialized sources in a typical library-media center contain thousands of statements and opinions regarding hundreds of topics. Some of these areas are in the subjective realm and the reader is placed in a position of trying to determine which statements are true, what facts are valid, and which material is relevant. The average student has substantial difficulty in sorting through all of this type of printed matter. Obviously, students are going to need help in this area. Every student should be taught to read printed material with the following questions in mind:

1. Who wrote the material and what are his qualifications?
2. When was the material written?
3. How does the information supplied by this author compare with the information supplied on this subject by other writers?
4. Are there any propaganda devices such as "name calling" or "card stacking" which can be noted?
5. Is the material written for a particular class of readers?
6. What is the writer's chief purpose for compiling the material?

7. Where was the selection written and under what circumstances?
8. Are there inferences indicated which are unsavory?
9. Does the writer support his point of view with appropriate evidence?

In summary, the major considerations of the reader should be those of making certain of a recent copyright, the competency of the author(s), and the relevancy of the publication for the purpose in mind.

Classifying Information

Even after a reader has located and evaluated information there remains a significant problem of organizing, summarizing, and understanding the relationships between and among bodies of data. The successful completion of this type of activity leads to conclusions and inferences which are both sensible and justifiable. Involved in this process are the abilities to compare and contrast, understand cause and effect, determine conclusions, and perceive time order of events or procedure steps.

Students can be helped in the realm of information classification by one or more of the following activities.

1. Teach all students how to make an outline related to the construction of a paper or story involving a single topic which utilizes data from several sources.
2. Provide scrambled lists of causes and effects and determine if individual students can make appropriate matches of the items. Demonstrate the "rightness" of two or three examples before asking students to complete the exercise.
3. Supply copies of three or four short selections. List several statements and ask the students to select the item which represents the best conclusion when considering the total content of the article.

Utilizing Information

One of the important goals of any effective developmental reading program is that of providing the student with the skills for making use of information which he/she has found. These conclusions, implications, or thoughts can be communicated through the use of oral and/or written means. Suitable activities for fulfilling this goal might include debates, brief position papers, term papers, stories for the school or city newspapers, and presentations for local radio and television stations.

Summary

Students should obtain proficiency in a large number of reading skills including work attack, comprehension, *and* reference study skills. Unfortunately, too many educators assume competency in study skills if word attack and comprehension skills have been mastered. *All* content teachers are responsible for instructing each student in the important areas of locating, evaluating, classifying, and utilizing information. The teaching suggestions contained in this article should be of help in achieving this goal.

REMEDIAL COLLEGE FRESHMEN ENGLISH STUDENTS: DESCRIPTION AND CHARACTERISTICS

Mark E. Thompson

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, KENTUCKY

Bonnie C. Plummer

EASTERN KENTUCKY UNIVERSITY

This report is an analysis of the characteristics found among students in remedial, freshman English classes at a large, mid-south, regional university. At the end of the 1977 Spring Semester, 187 students from 13 remedial, freshman English classes were analyzed in terms of ability, motivation to attend classes and career choice (declared or undeclared majors). These variables were analyzed and compared to achievement levels (grades).

The subjects in this study were students enrolled in remedial freshman composition classes (designed for students with weak backgrounds in English composition). Students were placed in these special, remedial classes on the recommendation of their instructors while attending a regular English composition class. Early in the semester, regular freshman English composition instructors determine from writing samples that some of their students do not have an understanding of English basics. Those students, identified as being underdeveloped, are transferred to remedial sections of English composition. The remedial sections stress grammar, punctuation and spelling as well as theme writing. The regular English composition classes place more emphasis upon theme writing.

Students receive credit for taking the remedial course, and are allowed to take up to three semesters to complete the required work. The reason for allowing students to take up to three semesters to complete the remedial course is due to the additional time required to master basic concepts of grammar, punctuation and spelling along with theme writing. Remedial students are allowed to repeat any work that does not measure up to a C grade. Students attending the remedial English classes are definitely underachieving in the area of English composition, and they quite possibly have characteristics resembling the academic underdeveloped student population in general. A brief review of the research concerning the underachieving student population will be presented.

Review of Research

Research conducted with college students indicates that academic achievement relates to measured or demonstrated ability and other non-intellectual traits such as self-image, interest or motivation and attaining a sense of control (Coleman, et al., 1966). Successful students tend to plan

their work carefully, think ahead, are conscientious, independent, self-confident and recognize the importance of finding suitable conditions for effective study (Entwistle and Entwistle, 1970). Students in remedial college classes can be described as underachieving due to the lack of ability or some other factor such as motivation. The combination of motivation and ability are thought to be significant factors accounting for academic success, yet it is difficult to explain the interaction of these factors.

During the past 30 years there have been attempts to isolate the causal determinants of over and underachievement. Such variables as inadequate motivation, lack of defined goals, emotional instability, bilingualism in the home, specific intellectual disability, poor study habits, the sex role and susceptibility to boredom have been investigated. Sattler and Neuringer (1965) did a literature review on over and underachievement and found there are no marked trends except for value orientations toward academic success (motivational factors). Overachievers seem to be motivated toward academic success and underachievers are not. Atkinson and Raynor (1974) found that underachievers are underachieving due to motivational problems, and that ability and motivation interact to account for different achievement levels.

Underachieving students tend to be hostile toward parents and associated authority figures (Golburgh and Penney, 1962). Research indicates underachieving students to be insecure, dependent, immature and unable to form warm interpersonal relationships (Powell and Jourard, 1963). Bednar and Weinberg (1970) cited research studies that identified underachievers as being emotionally immature, negative toward authority with limited reading skills and poor study habits. Underachievers are characterized by withdrawal behavior and by less social, work-oriented interaction with peers (Perkins, 1965), and they have negative self-concepts (Shaw, et al., 1960). Maxwell (1971) and Kornrich (1965) suggested that underachievers are self-deprecatory, lack a clear system of goals and values, are vulnerable to disparagement by others, have immature relations with parents, lack insight into their problems and are likely to be anxious and depressed. Evans and Anderson (1973) found that underachievement was related to values and experiences associated with the culture of poverty, specifically low self-concepts of ability, fatalistic, present-time orientation and non-democratic child rearing experiences. Wandowski (1973) found the successful student to be phlegmatic, relatively independent and versatile, unruffled by demands or pressures, and tolerant, though not uncritical of his tutors and peers.

Morgan (1952) found overachievers to be more mature, serious, aware of others, dominant, self-confident and had a motivation to achieve. Underachievers were identified by negativism, less interest in reading, withdrawal from competition, high on the delinquency scale and less interest in academic motivation.

Astin (1964) conducted an interesting study with 6,660 high aptitude college students over a four year period and found that students who drop out of college come from lower socioeconomic backgrounds, have lower

ranks in high school, plan initially to get lower college degrees, and apply for relatively fewer scholarships than do students who do not drop out. When considering personality measures, it was suggested that dropouts tend to be more aloof, self-centered, impulsive, and assertive than non-dropouts (Astin, 1964). Grace (1957), using a personality inventory (the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory—MMPI), indicated that dropouts tend to be more irresponsible and dependent than students who remain in college. Holland and Astin (1962) investigated traits of talented students and found that academic achievement is related to self-control, persistence, socialization and super-ego strength (self-judgmental functions).

Remedial college students most likely will have characteristics similar to the underachieving student. These students will probably be low in measured ability, relatively hostile or negative and unmotivated to accomplish academic tasks. Brown, et al. (1954) found that the low achieving college student is characterized by a lack of decisiveness of action, a tendency to procrastinate and an unwillingness to conform to academic requirements and routine regulations.

Based on the review of research, remedial freshman English students will be analyzed in terms of ability, motivation to attend classes and career choice. It is likely that successful remedial students will have relatively high ability scores, high class attendance rates and will have a declared major. Having a declared major relates to decisiveness of action. Class attendance relates to a willingness to engage in academic activities (motivation), and ability relates to academic potential. The successful remedial students (those who progress) should be motivated to attend classes, relatively high in ability and have a declared major (decisive).

Observed Student Characteristics

Of the 187 remedial, freshman English students, 133 (71%) were males and 54 (29%) were females. Compared to the entire freshman class, males are over represented in the remedial, freshman English classes (Table 1).

TABLE 1
Comparison of Remedial Freshman English Population
to the Entire Male-Female Population in the
Freshman Class (Spring Semester 1977)

	Remedial Classes	Freshman Class
Males	133 (71%)	2,297 (49%)
Females	54 (29%)	2,433 (51%)
Total	187	4,730

Seventy-one percent of the freshman, remedial English class population are males compared to 49% of the entire freshman class. [It has been reported by the Census Bureau that women now outnumber men among university undergraduates (*Phi Delta Kappan*, 1977).] This finding supports the research of Todd, et al. (1962) and Gelso and Rowell (1967) who found that underachievement is much more a characteristic of males than females.

It was decided to compare successful remedial students to unsuccessful remedial students on the dimensions of ability, motivation to attend classes and decisiveness (declared career choice). It has been hypothesized that the successful remedial students would have relatively high ability scores, high class attendance rates and would have a declared major. Successful students are defined as those who complete the remedial composition class with a grade of C or better. An examination of the characteristics of those students earning grades A through F (failure) will also be made. From this analysis it may become apparent that successful remedial students have traits that distinguish them from the unsuccessful students, and these characteristics may be the same ones that distinguish achieving students from underachievers.

Table 2 indicates that successful students are slightly above unsuccessful students regarding ability. It has been found in previous research that the greatest gains in academic achievement with remedial students were produced by persons with relatively high ability (Pressey, 1928; Maxwell, 1963; Lee, 1964; and Tresselt, 1966). On the variable of attendance, successful students attend class a bit more than half the time (55%) compared to 40.8% for unsuccessful students. There are slightly more successful students with declared majors than unsuccessful students. This analysis generally supports our hypothesis, although the relationships are rather weak.

TABLE 2
An Analysis of Successful and Unsuccessful Students
in Remedial Freshman English (N = 187)

	Successful Students (C grade or better)	Unsuccessful Students (D, F or retain for another semester)
ACT Composite*	11.37 (37)	11.61 (111)
Percent Attendance	55% (45)	40.8 % (142)
Percent with Declared Major	86.6 % (45)	81.4 % (142)

* 148 students completed the ACT.

TABLE 3
An Analysis of Remedial Freshman English Students
by Academic Achievement (N = 187)

Achievement (Grade Earned)	A	B	C	D	F	Retained
ACT Composite*	0	12.09 (11)	11.58 (26)	0	12.76 (21)	11.36 (90)
Percent Attendance	0	49.9% (17)	58.1% (28)	51.4% (1)	12.4% (26)	47.1% (115)
Percent with Declared Major	0	82% (17)	89% (28)	100% (1)	84% (26)	80.5% (115)

*148 students completed the ACT

Table 3 indicates that ability is not in a direct relationship with grades. In fact, it is surprising to notice that the highest ability grouping were the failing students. This may be explained by looking at the class attendance rates. The failing students, although having the highest ability scores, had an extremely low attendance rate (12.4%). If attendance can be thought to be related to academic motivation, then the failing students are considerably below average regarding academic motivation. Classroom attendance may be a reactive measure of academic motivation. Attendance rates were greatest for the C students. It is surprising to note that there is little difference between B students and C students. In fact C students had better attendance rates, and there were more C students with declared majors than B students. These two characteristics, better attendance rates (motivation) and more declared majors (decisiveness), may have been critical traits which helped C students compensate for their relatively low ability scores. In regard to declared major, there was little difference between student achievement groupings. This analysis does not support our hypothesis, since the results do not represent linear relationships regarding achievement (grades), the dependent variable, and the independent variables of ability, motivation and career choice. Weiner (1972) said it is likely that low ability students generally perform poorly, regardless of motivational factors.

It is apparent a more generalized type of grouping between successful and unsuccessful students tend to conform to the findings of previous research, although the relationships are extremely weak. However, this particular population has extremely low ability scores and relatively low academic motivation, as demonstrated by class attendance rates. It may be that a homogeneous, low ability student grouping is more erratic when considering the variables of ability, motivation and career choice, as related

to achievement levels. When considering ability and motivation, it is quite obvious that the failing students were not motivated to achieve, although their ability scores were slightly higher than the successful students. The relationship between ability and motivation to attend classes demonstrates that both factors are quite important.

Although it has been suggested that persons who know their objectives are better students (Brown, et al., 1954; Weitz, 1955; Shuman, 1956; Todd, et al., 1962; Kornrich, 1965; Whiteley and Hummel, 1965; and Maxwell, 1971), this was not demonstrated conclusively with a low ability grouping as measured by declared major. A more accurate accounting of student objectives might be made by using an interview technique or a personality inventory.

Conclusions

It is apparent that a homogeneous, low ability student grouping is more erratic when attempting to relate to the research evidence (which used heterogeneous ability groupings). Although the general classifications of successful and unsuccessful students did tend to relate to previous research, a more careful inspection of achievement (grades) produced mixed results.

Low ability students apparently do not have much motivation to attend remedial English classes, as indicated by the extremely low attendance rates. This may be generalized to other remedial classes. Lesnik (1972) said that lack of motivation is expressed in some form of resistance to becoming involved in studies—class attendance represents involvement. This research tends to support the contention that low ability students generally perform poorly, regardless of motivational factors (Weiner, 1972).

Remedial English teachers should be concerned with the problems of motivation when attempting to deal with low ability students. This seems to be a major problem. It was apparent from this study that when students collectively attended classes about half the time, they passed the course (Tables 2 and 3). The lowest attendance rate (12.4%) was found among the failing students.

Methods which address emotional and motivational problems should be emphasized by remedial English teachers. This is a most difficult area to promote and work with; however, it seems to be critical in terms of engaging the low ability student.

English teachers attempting to deal with the remedial, low ability groupings need to be aware of the unique problems these students have. Remedial students have a double problem in that their potential to achieve is low (measured ability) and the motivation to engage in academic activity is diminished. These low ability students, more than likely, have problems with self-esteem which related to motivation. As the research indicates, underachievers are self-deprecatory, lack a clear system of goals and values, are vulnerable to disparagement by others, have immature relations with parents, lack insight into their problems and are likely to be anxious and depressed (Kornrich, 1965 and Maxwell, 1971). Remedial English teachers have more to deal with than just teaching grammar, punctuation, spelling and theme writing.

REFERENCES

- Astin, A. W. Personal and environmental factors associated with college dropouts among high aptitude students. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1964, 55 (4), 219-227.
- Atkinson, J. W. and Raynor, J. O. *Motivation and Achievement*. Washington, D.C.: V. H. Winston and Sons, 1974.
- Bednar, R. L. and Weinberg, S. L. Ingredients of successful treatment programs for underachievers. *Journal of Counseling*, 1970, 17 (1), 1-7.
- Brown, W. F. et al. Motivational differences between high and low scholarship students. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1954, 45 (4), 215-223.
- Coleman, J. S. et al. *Equality of Educational Opportunity*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1966.
- Entwistle, N. J. and Entwistle, D. The relationship between personality, study methods and academic performance. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1970, 40 (2), 132-142.
- Evans, F. and Anderson, J. G. Psychocultural origins of achievement and achievement motivation. *Sociology of Education*, 1973, 46 (4), 396-416.
- Gelso, C. J. and Rowell, D. Academic adjustment and persistence of students with marginal academic potential. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 1967, 14 (5), 478-481.
- Golburgh, M. L. and Penney, J. T. A note on counseling underachieving college students. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 1962, 9 (2), 133-138.
- Grace, H. A. Personality factors and college attrition. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 1957, 35, 36-40.
- Holland, J. L. and Astin, A. W. The prediction of the academic artistic, scientific, and social achievement of undergraduates of superior scholastic aptitude. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1962, 53 (3), 132-143.
- Kornrich, M. (Ed.). *Underachievement*. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, 1965.
- Lee, W. D. Who can profit most from developmental reading at college-adult levels in *Perspectives in Reading: College-Adult Reading Instruction*. Newark, Del.: International Reading Association, 1964.
- Maxwell, M. Evaluation of a self-help reading and study skills program for low-achieving college applicants. In R. Striger and C. Melton (Eds.). *New Developments in Programs and Procedures for College-Adult Reading*. Milwaukee, Wis.: Twelfth Yearbook of the National Reading Conference, 1963.
- Maxwell, M. The role of attitude and emotions in changing reading and study skills behavior of college students. *Journal of Reading*, 1971, 14 (6), 359-422.
- Morgan, H. H. A psychometric comparison of achieving and nonachieving college students of high ability. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 1952, 16, 292-298.

- Perkins, H. V. Classroom behavior and underachievement. *American Educational Research Journal*, 1965, 2, 1-12.
- Phi Delta Kappan*, 1977, 59 (2), 139.
- Powell, W. J. and Jourard, S. M. Some objective evidence of immaturity in underachieving college students. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 1963, 10 (3), 276-282.
- Pressey, L. C. The permanent effects of teaching in methods of study on college success. *School and Society*, 1928, 28, 403-404.
- Sattler, J. M. and Neuringer, C. Personality characteristics associated with under and over achievement. *Journal of College Student Personnel*, 1956, 6 (5), 284-289.
- Shaw, M. C. et al. The self-concept of bright underachieving high school students as revealed by an objective check list. *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, 1960, 39, 193-196.
- Shuman, R. B. College dropouts: An overview. *Journal of Educational Sociology*, 1956, 29 (8), 347-350.
- Todd, F. J. et al. Differences between normal and underachievers of superior ability. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1962, 46, 183-190.
- Tresselt, M. E. A preliminary study of factors in learning in a how-to-study course. *Journal of Psychology*, 1966, 64, 91-93.
- Wankowski, J. A. Disenchanted elite. In C. F. Page and J. Gibson (Eds.), *Motivation*. London: Society for Research into Higher Education, 1973.
- Weiner, B. *Theories of Motivation*. Chicago: Markham Publishing Co., 1972.
- Weitz, H. et al. The relationship between choice of a major field of study and academic preparation and performance. *Educational and Psychological Measurements*, 1955, 15 (1), 28-38.
- Whiteley and Hummel, R. Adaptive ego functioning in relation to academic achievement. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 1965, 12, 306-310.

QUICK REVIEWS

R H Staff

Bean, Rita M., "Role of the Reading Specialist: A Multifaceted Dilemma" *The Reading Teacher*, Vol. 32 (January 1979) pp. 409-13.

"The information gained from this study indicates that specialists perform a myriad of tasks and that they must have administrative and organizational skills as well as teaching and interpersonal skills. Possibly the most interesting . . . finding is the one on teachers' perceptions of the specialist's role and how highly they value the specialist as a resource person."

Blair, Timothy R. and James D. Rath "Reading Comprehension as Making 'Unreasonable' Inferences" *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 71 (Sept./Oct. 1978) pp. 29-31.

Authors Blair and Rath examine the uses of standardized reading tests for measuring student power to draw "correct" inferences, and question the validity of instruments which purport to assign percentiles to the reasoning process.

D'Angelo, Karen and Robert M. Wilson "How Helpful Is Insertion and Omission Miscue Analysis?" *The Reading Teacher*, Vol. 32 (February 1979) pp. 519-520.

The description of a study of insertions and omission in miscue analysis leads to a strong case in their conclusions for dispensing entirely with the time-consuming coding and interpreting of these two aspects.

Johns, Jerry L. and Thomas E. Wheat "Newspaper Readability" *Reading World*, Vol. 18 (December 1978) pp. 141-147.

After reviewing several studies which reported on the readability of newspapers as entire units, the authors differentiate between the political articles and sports articles in their own study. Predictably, sports material is written on a lower readability level than political material.

Kintisch, Lenore S. "Classroom Techniques for Improving Scholastic Aptitude Test Scores" *Journal of Reading*, Vol. 22 (February 1979) pp. 416-419.

Important practical ideas are given in this report of an ex-

periment with a limited number of students. Without “teaching to the test” the author helped students equip themselves to take their SATs at optimum efficiency levels. More research with this approach is urgently needed.

Lundell, Kerth T. and William E. Brown “Peer Tutoring: An Economical Instructional Model” *Academic Therapy*, Vol. 14 (January 1979) pp. 287-292.

In an era of highly sophisticated technology in education, one would expect that the slower or disabled reader would be benefited by teaching “machinery.” Such is not the case, as this article shows. The authors discuss their work in peer tutoring as supplementary instruction, and make suggestions any classroom teacher can utilize.

Prendergast, John F. “Establishing the Reading Consultant As An Agent of Change” *Reading World*, Vol. 18 (December 1978) pp. 123-131.

Tracing the position of reading specialist through the past generation, the author shows the growth of such concepts as *preventing reading disabilities*, and using reading personnel as *consultants* to teachers, as opposed to permanent remedial drudgery.

Sanacore, Joseph “Hiring Qualified Reading Personnel” *Journal of Reading*, Vol. 22 (January 1979) pp. 321-324.

There are intangibles to consider, in addition to the criteria named by the Professional Standards Committee of the IRA, when one is meeting prospective reading teachers. This article is interesting; don't reading teachers always tend to evaluate themselves when they see lists of what “effective” reading personnel need to be?

Stanwood, Les “Mass Mailing Delivers First Class Learning” *Learning*, Vol. 7 (January 1979) pp. 40-41.

The author enumerates the steps involved in having a classroom full of students conduct a survey by mail, a process which seems depressing at best. However, the many beneficial results in student gains in reading and related skills makes such monumental projects worth doing.

Renate Valtin, “Dyslexia: deficit in reading or deficit in research?

(Critical comments on the methodological and theoretical aspects of research on Legasthenie)*, *Reading Research Quarterly*, Number 2, 1978-1979, pp. 203-219.

Because dyslexia has become such a controversial area of interest, Valtin's article examining the possible faults in research methodology is especially germane. She focuses on problems of selection of the sample, the inconsistency of the concept of dyslexia, and the failure to use a theory of the reading process as a model. Of special note is her research showing the inadequacy of using a fullscale IQ score which fails to recognize the potential discrepancies to be found in the verbal and performance scores of readers of differing ability levels.

WALDO LIBRARY
PERIODICALS LIBRARIAN

1911