



Reading Horizons: A Journal of Literacy and Language Arts

Volume 19
Issue 4 July 1979

Article 17

7-1979

Reading Horizons vol. 19, no. 4

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. 4. *Reading Horizons: A Journal of Literacy and Language Arts*, 19 (4). Retrieved from https://scholarworks.wmich.edu/reading_horizons/vol19/iss4/17

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.

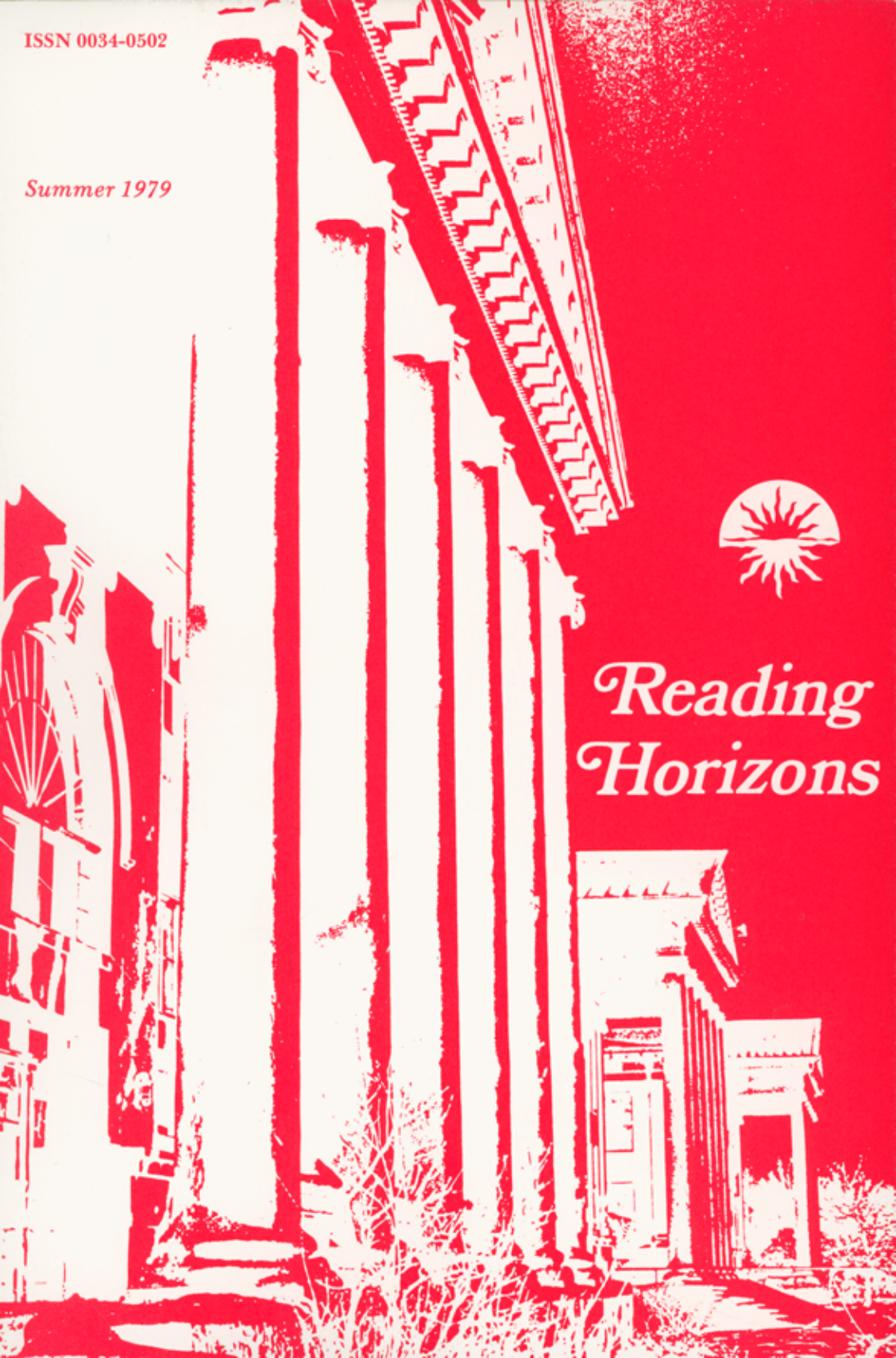


ISSN 0034-0502

Summer 1979

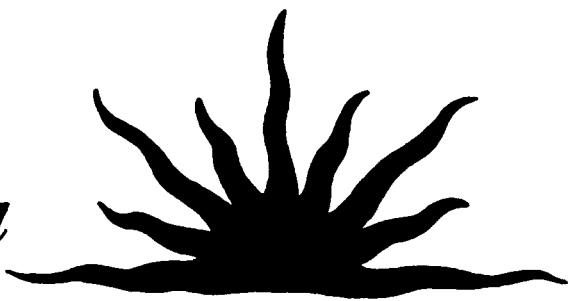


Reading Horizons



Reading

HORIZONS



VOLUME 19

NUMBER 4

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 \$6.00 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

RHTM

*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

KENNETH VANDERMEULEN	265	The Real Energy Shortage
RICHARD D. ROBINSON	267	Reading Research—What Difference Does It Make?
KATHLEEN M. NGANDU	272	Elementary Students' Definitions of Reading
SHARON DUNN	276	The Gifted Student in the Intermediate Grades
NANCY GALEN AND JOHN PRENDERGAST	280	Selling Reading
MICHAEL C. McKENNA	284	Inferential Aspects of the Cloze Task
MARY JANE GRAY	292	Bringing Children and Books Together
JOHN D. STAMMER	298	The Science of Reading
DUANE R. TOVEY	302	Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Reading Miscues
MARTHA C. AND EARL H. CHEEK	308	Diagnosis—A Part of Content Area Reading
TIMOTHY R. HORNBERGER AND JACK CASSIDY	314	A Foot in the Door: The Annotated Checklist
DONALD C. CUSHENBERY	320	Principles for Establishing Effective Secondary Reading Programs
BARBARA C. PALMER AND LAWRENCE E. HAFNER	324	Black Students Get an Edge in Reading
R. BAIRD SHUMAN	329	Professional Concerns: Collett B. Dilworth, Jr. — "Literature, Competency Testing, and The Basic Skills"
ELEANOR BUELKE	332	Book Review: <i>Feelings: Our Vital Signs</i> by Willard Gaylin
RH STAFF	335	Quick Reviews
	338	Volume 19 Index— Author
	340	Volume 19 Index— Title



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



THE REAL ENERGY SHORTAGE

Probably no greater facility for raising the level of a society exists than the public library, where information and vicarious experience which can lead to personal knowledge and wisdom are readily available to all. But observable in terms of national trends, we have turned to commercial entertainment during our leisure hours. As a result, now that energy for gratifying our entertainment needs has begun to dwindle, people can't seem to think of anything to do except whine and quibble.

As teachers of reading, we ought to be taking advantage of this occasion, letting everyone in on what amounts to a rediscovery of the great life. We should be shouting with fervor about the thousands of excellent volumes in our libraries, each volume a means of turning the energy shortage into personal profit. By becoming readers, we will find ways to avoid further difficulty over the shortages, the inflation, the international bickering, and even our individual disappointments in job, family, and uncooperative weather.

As reading teachers, we must talk to students young and old about the wonders of our libraries throughout our country. One doesn't have to have anything more than the energy to go to the library, to have all the doors of education opened. What we may lack in reading background can be overcome in a short period of looking through basic materials. It is a genuine mystery that every library is not constantly crowded with people taking advantage of the shelves full of mind building, interesting stories and factual materials. Can it be that we as a people have lost our curiosity and our will to grow in intellect and wisdom? Very few people have the desire to conquer worlds, but everyone should have the initiative required to improve oneself.

Perhaps it will take an upheaval the size of a major depression before we become aware of the riches that exist for the taking, right inside the doors of the local library. The marvelous phenomenon is that one doesn't have to be an important somebody to utilize the knowledge that is carefully arranged in row-upon-row of stacked information.

Do you have a little problem with questions about the way your mind is running? Study the basics of the wonderful world of psychology. Begin with the easy-to-read books, work up at your own pace, and find answers to your questions with bonus information that no one can tax or price-gouge you for. Want to travel in a foreign country? It is easy, through books. In fact, real mobility in time and space and culture are possible *only* through books. Through modern technology, the best lectures are available on microfiche readers to the serious scholars. Basic courses in reading improvement are also available, to those whose schooling was not completed. There is almost no place more suited to helping a person grow than one's own local library.

Ken VanderMeulen
Editor

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 _____

READING RESEARCH— WHAT DIFFERENCE DOES IT MAKE?

Richard D. Robinson
UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI-COLUMBIA

Scene: A workroom in an elementary school where we find two teachers, Mrs. Smith and Miss Jones, discussing the events of the day.

Miss Jones: "During my break this morning I noticed you seemed to be having less trouble with your reading lesson."

Mrs. Smith: "How right you are- I had been having some difficulty with the teaching of comprehension skills in my middle group, but I seem to have found the answer."

Miss Jones: "That's great—but how and where did you find this information?"

Mrs. Smith: "I knew my background in the teaching of comprehension skills was weak, so I quickly reviewed my last several years of *The Reading Teacher*, *Journal of Educational Research*, and *Harvard Educational Review*. These gave me some valuable insights into the problem, but I was still unsure of what course of action to follow. I then went to the local university and checked the ERIC files and the most recent copies of *Dissertation Abstracts*. One study seemed promising until I noticed a problem with the selection of the sample population . . ."

(Fade out.)

This brief scene illustrates one teacher's attempt to solve a classroom reading question through the use of existing research. Yet, if we are candid, most would probably agree this portrayal is an unrealistic description of the problem solving approach used by the average teacher. What we are confronting here is the dilemma of implementation—how can the results of reading research be utilized in a meaningful way by those who are given the responsibility of teaching children?

Why the Research-Practice Gap?

Many possible reasons could be identified as to why reading research seems to be having such little effect on current teaching practices. Frequently, both those doing the research and those who are to apply the results in their classrooms seem not to understand the aims, limitations, or even professional language used by the other group. The researcher views the practitioners as provincial, conservative, and unwilling or unable to incorporate into their teaching even the most obvious results of reading research. In rebuttal, "Many decision makers see educational researchers as the intellectuals, the eggheads of the educational profession; a group of

rear echelon soldiers enjoying their privileges but providing little help for the front line troops, the teachers.” (Gallagher, 1975, p. 13).

This breakdown in communication is perhaps most apparent when discussing the areas of relevancy and applicability. Teachers often believe most current reading research has little relation to the problems they must solve each day in the real world of their classrooms. Instead of theory or generality they want specific answers which are easily obtainable and can be implemented despite lack of time, materials, and professional knowledge of how to put them to work in class.

The Change Agent

In attempting to deal with the dissemination and effective utilization of research findings, increased interest has been directed to the activities associated with those designated as change agents or linkers. According to Carlson, (1965), the role of these persons can be defined as one which “. . . influences the advocacy and introduction of innovations into practice” (p. 4). An example of a noneducational system which historically has relied on the use of change agents has been agriculture with its dependence on the county extension agent. These persons were responsible for bringing to the local farmer, in the most usable format, the latest research findings on crop and livestock development.

In contrast, education has never had as clearly a defined person to transmit new knowledge from the researcher to the practitioner—this despite the fact that some of these linking roles have traditionally been carried on through advanced university training, in-service programs, and research findings conveyed by journals, textbooks, and library retrieval systems.

Guba (1968) has identified a taxonomy of six activities which he suggests an educational change agent or linker could use in bringing to a practitioner the results of current research. They include telling, showing, helping, involving, training, and intervening (p. 48). While this division is a particularly useful organizational pattern, a major problem is identifying the person or persons in most local school districts who would be willing and able to assume this responsibility.

One possible solution might be found within the existing educational organizations of most districts. There are persons currently teaching who because of their interest and training in the area of reading education might very likely accept the role of change agent. As most schools have the services of a reading specialist, this teacher is in a primary position to encourage the dissemination of new reading knowledge to his or her peers—primarily, in the sense of having basic understanding of conditions and problems unique to their own teaching situation. In addition, the teaching staff with which the local reading teacher works may be much more receptive to recent reading developments coming from a person they know rather than from another source.

It is important to note the context in which the reading teacher becomes a change agent for the reading program. This should not be thought of as a

teacher/pupil relationship, but rather one between colleagues. The object of the linker's role is not necessarily to point out the flaws and mistakes in what others are doing in their teaching of reading, but instead to share new information and research findings concerned with common problems and interests.

The degree to which a particular reading teacher may be successful in bringing new ideas into the reading curriculum is largely the result of factors such as available time, professional training, and personality variables. While some of these problems may seem formidable, this should not rule out a modest beginning. The results of even a limited effort on the part of one reading teacher may have significant results in determining the eventual consequences of their total reading program.

Suggestions for Implementation

The following guidelines are listed here as only general descriptions of activities which local reading teachers might consider in bringing the results of language arts research to a teaching staff. The previously mentioned diffusion taxonomy developed by Guba (1968) is used as an organizational basis for these suggestions. Each suggestion can easily be modified or expanded depending on local teaching conditions and problems.

1. *Telling.* These activities are often considered to be of least importance because of their informal nature but frequently are the most effective due to the personal interaction required between teachers.

Share information gathered from recently published professional books, journals, and other written sources on the teaching of reading skills.

Report on the findings of reading research presented at national meetings and suggest implications for the local instructional program.

Recommend sources of new supplementary reading material and their appropriate use in the classroom.

2. *Showing.* Suggested activities listed here involve the change agent in demonstrating through a variety of approaches recent developments in the area of reading instruction with the classroom teacher as primarily an observer.

Invite other teachers to visit your class when reading activities of interest to them are being presented.

Prepare bulletin boards and other material displays reflecting new reading concepts and ideas.

Demonstrate current approaches to evaluation of reading skills with particular emphasis on the importance of these techniques for classroom teachers.

3. *Helping.* Helping includes those situations in which the change agent works directly with the teacher in the classroom on the basis of a specific indicated need of that practitioner.

When invited, visit classrooms to teach demonstration lessons presenting the material in a manner which will aid the teachers in improving their own reading programs.

Assist the classroom teacher in developing a remedial program which

reflects recent knowledge on grouping, material selection, evaluation, etc.

Provide specific information on current research related to a particular classroom reading problem.

4. *Involving*. Involving brings the teacher and the change agent together to work on a common problem as a team.

In cooperation with the classroom teacher introduce new reading methods and materials.

Suggest changes in the current classroom reading curriculum based on both formal and informal testing procedures administered by both the teacher and the change agent.

5. *Training*. Training includes most of the techniques presented but differs as to the degree of formal commitment.

Act as liaison representative between the local school and university staff in the development and planning of reading in-service activities based on the needs of the teachers.

Be willing to participate in PTA meetings and other community groups explaining the reading program of the school.

6. *Intervening*. Intervening consists of those activities which most directly reflect the interests and partiality of the change agent.

Take an active role on reading textbook selection committees.

Make your opinion known to the administration about the school's current reading curriculum and other related problems such as priorities on purchase of new materials, etc.

Should these guidelines be implemented, perhaps the opening scene might sound this way as Mrs. Smith responds to Miss Jones about the problem in teaching comprehension skills:

Mrs. Smith: "I knew my background in the teaching of comprehension skills was weak so I asked Mrs. Jordan if she could come and visit during one of my classes. She was so helpful, suggesting several new materials to try and some different questioning techniques from a recent journal article. This made it easier for me to see how these comprehension strategies would work each day in class. In addition, I borrowed several papers on comprehension she had picked up at a recent national reading meeting. I think Mrs. Jordan has started me answering some of my questions. She is willing to share her ideas—she's probably someone you need to get to know better."

Miss Jones: "I should—I think I'll ask her about . . ."

(Fade out.)

REFERENCES

- Carlson, Richard O., *et. al.* "Barriers to Change in Public Schools" in *Change Processes in the Public Schools*. Eugene, Oregon: Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, University of Oregon, 1965, pp. 3-8.
- Gallagher, James J. "The Prospects for Governmental Support of Education Research." *Educational Researcher*, 4, (July-August, 1975), pp. 13-14.

Guba, Egon C. "Development, Diffusion and Evaluation" in *Knowledge, Production and Utilization in Educational Administration*, Terry S. Eidell and Joanne M. Kitchel, eds. Eugene, Oregon: Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, University of Oregon, 1968, pp. 37-63.

ELEMENTARY STUDENTS' DEFINITIONS OF READING

Kathleen M. Ngandu

UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA-LINCOLN

Many reading education authorities (i.e. Smith 1978; Stauffer 1975; Thorndike 1973) discuss reading as a meaning identification process in which the reader actively thinks about what s/he reads. Similarly, most classroom teachers include this relationship between reading and meaning in their definitions of reading (Green, Macaul, & Wood 1978).

Little research, however, has been done on children's perceptions of reading (Tovey 1976). How do children view reading? Do they also view reading as a process emphasizing meaning, or do they view reading as something else? The purpose of this study was to investigate children's definitions of reading, with a special concern for their view of reading as a meaning identification process.

Method

A total of 418 students in grades one through six participated in this study. Nineteen schools in five small Great Plains communities and one major city were involved. An attempt was made to balance the number of students from each grade level, as well as the number of males and females, and the students' performance levels. Classroom teachers rated students as above average, average, or below average readers.

During an individual interview each student was asked, "What is reading?" Children's responses were transcribed and later classified according to three definitions. These definitions were derived on the basis of a content analysis of all responses:

Definition 1 — Reading as a general activity

Statements classified as a general activity indicated that reading was viewed as something to do, just another part of the regular school day. Students typically told about their basal texts, where reading was taught, when it was scheduled, grouping procedures, or involvement with games, workbooks or commercial kits. Sample student responses included: "It's doing a lot of hard work at the center." "I guess it's something to do in school." "You have to use those books and go up in a group." "Reading is what we have in the morning." "That's when I get to work with Mrs. Fletcher."

Definition 2 — Reading as a word identification process

These statements focused on the use of sight words, contextual clues, phonics, and structural analysis skills used to identify specific words.

Sample student responses included: "It's putting letters together to know the words." "Well, if you don't know the word you can see if it looks like another word you know. Then you can say it." "It's looking with your eyes and hearing the letters talk." "Well, you pronounce the big words right and know the vocabulary." "Reading is looking at the other words to figure out new words you don't know."

Definition 3—Reading as a meaning identification process

The final definition focused on reading as an active search for meaning. The reader viewed reading as a thinking procedure, as s/he attempted to make sense from what was read. Sample responses included: "Once I get started I get really involved, and I feel like I'm there." "You travel to another world with a book." "Reading is understanding what somebody else is trying to tell you." "It's learning about different things." "Reading is really knowing what a story is all about."

Each child's response was classified according to these three definitions. In cases where students gave more than one definition, they were asked to identify their most important response. Graduate students enrolled in a reading specialist program also classified a random sample of the children's statements to establish the reliability of the researcher's categorizations.

Results

A 6 x 3 chi-square analysis was performed to investigate the effect of grade level on reading definition. The data indicate that grade level differentiated between students' definitions of reading ($\chi^2 \times 10 = 41.92$, $p = .01$). Figure 1 illustrates that the percentage of students identifying reading as a meaning identification process increases from 12% in first grade to 43% in fifth grade, then drops only slightly to 40% in sixth grade. Conversely, the percentage of students merely viewing reading as a general activity steadily decreases from 70% in first grade to 37% in sixth grade. It is interesting to note that the greatest percentage change in these two definitions occurs between third and fourth grade. The percentage of students defining reading as word identification remains quite stable, at about 19% through all six grades.

The data was further analyzed within each grade level according to the variables of sex and reading performance. No trend was evident considering sex. As figure 2 indicates, however, a greater percentage of above average readers defined reading as a meaning identification process, compared to below average readers. The percentage span between above average and below average readers also increases greatly from a 10% range in third grade to a 30% range in fourth grade. This increased range is observed at fifth and sixth grade, too.

Conclusions

The data indicate that as students progress from first through sixth grade they increasingly view reading as a meaning identification process.

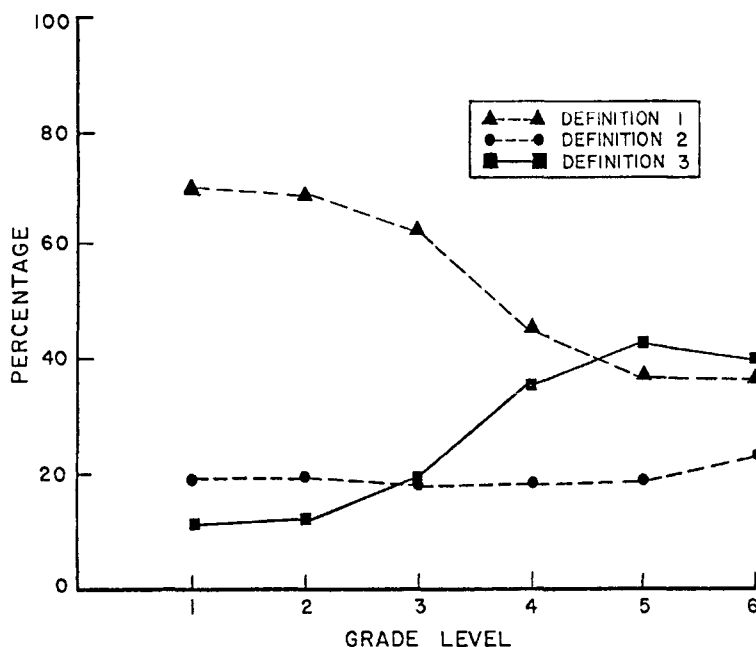


Figure 1. Percentage of elementary students identifying the three reading definitions.

More intermediate students defined reading as meaning identification compared to primary students. This is reasonable considering the typical stress on "learning to read" in lower grades and "reading to learn" in upper grades. Probably because most children are already adept at basic word identification procedures, intermediate teachers are able to emphasize the meaning identification function of reading.

Students progressing at below average reading levels, however, are often recycled through introductory level skill activities. Typically these children are given corrective instruction in word identification strategies. It is therefore understandable that they are less likely to think of reading as meaning identification. On the other hand, those who have already mastered these beginning skills, the above average students, more frequently define reading in this manner.

A question may then be raised. "If students do not think of reading as meaning identification, can their abilities be improved by instruction highlighting this viewpoint?" Psycholinguists (Cooper & Petrosky 1976) would answer "yes," since they maintain that the search for meaning is an essential strategy of a skilled reader. Certainly it may be argued that some prerequisite word identification skills are first needed before fluency can be attained. But, these skills should function only to enable students to search for meaning. This must be the ultimate goal of all reading programs,

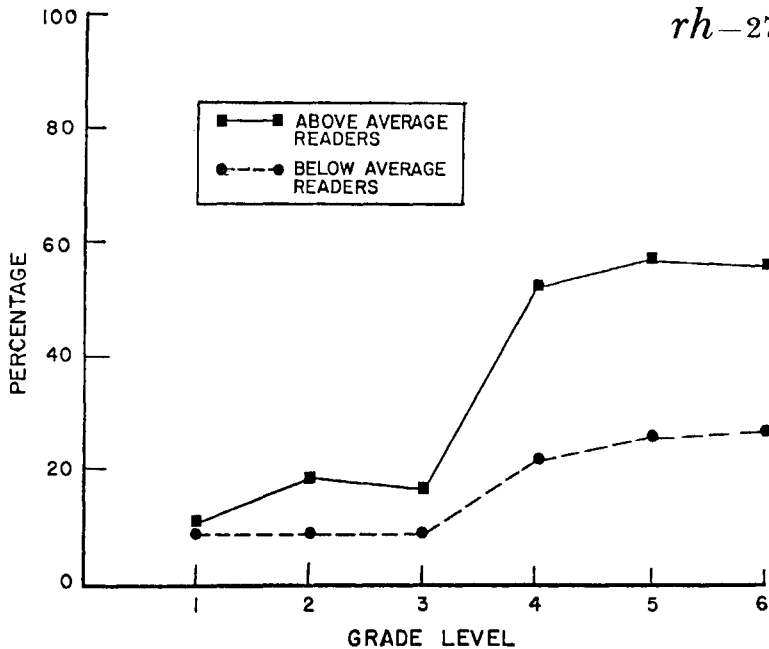


Figure 2. Percentage of above average and below average readers defining reading as a meaning identification process.

especially those for the below average child, who tends to think of reading as something else. Suggestions such as those provided by Stauffer (1968) and Pearson and Johnson (1978) offer practical methods to implement this outcome.

REFERENCES

- Cooper, D. R. & Petrosky, A. R. A psycholinguistic view of the fluent reading process. *Journal of Reading*, 1976, 20 (3), 184-207.
- Green, J., Macaul, S. & Wood, W. *What is reading? Teacher's perceptions*. Paper presented at the I.R.A. International Convention, Houston, May, 1978.
- Pearson, P. D. & Johnson, D. D. *Teaching reading comprehension*. Chicago: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1978.
- Smith, F. *Understanding reading* (2nd ed.). Chicago: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1978.
- Stauffer, R. *Directing the reading-thinking process*. New York: Harper & Row, 1975.
- Stauffer, R. *Teaching reading as a thinking process*. New York: Harper & Row, 1969.
- Thorndike, E. L. Reading as reasoning. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 1973-74, 9, 135-147.
- Tovey, D. R. Children's perceptions of reading. *The Reading Teacher*, 1976, 29, 536-540.

THE GIFTED STUDENT IN THE INTERMEDIATE GRADES: DEVELOPING CREATIVITY THROUGH READING

Sharon Dunn

LA HABRA CITY SCHOOLS, CALIFORNIA

There is no consensus on what makes a child gifted. Certainly it is a combination of a multitude of factors. The child's natural heredity sets an upper limit to his possibilities, but giftedness is not a package given at birth with no hopes of change. It is a growing, becoming process that constantly creates, elaborates and refines itself by selecting, comparing, and organizing life experiences (Strang, 1960).

Because language is a creative, innovative process and in the gifted child even more so, he must be given every opportunity to use the skills already owned and develop them further. It is the responsibility, even duty, of the teachers of these children to see that they are given the skills to do so. This is important at all grade levels, however, the intermediate grades are particularly well suited to this kind of activity. Smith (1974:53) states "students in the intermediate grades have a greater wealth of background experience than primary grade students and are not so inhibited in regard to divergent thinking as older students often become." At this age they have enough maturity and ability to benefit from a program designed to develop their creativity.

Creative Reading

Creative reading is the highest form and most neglected of all the reading skills. Frequently, teachers will be unaware of the need for it and the methods with which it can be accomplished. Generally, reading is taught through methods which stress lower level skills of reading. The creative reader should be capable of more than this. Most gifted children have the capacity to become creative readers, given proper instruction. The creative reader possesses the ability to examine relationships among facts and interpretations. He will, however, need guidance to achieve full use of this ability. Isaacs (1974) feels that without guidance, creative reading may never happen. Randomly selected materials will not provide the maximum benefits.

Gifted children generally have the basics of reading well in hand by the time they reach the intermediate grades. They need other things besides "basics" instruction. Barbe (1971:21) believes "intellectually superior students must be challenged if learning is to take place and interest in learning maintained." He identifies nine specific needs for the gifted in

their reading program: differentiation of instruction; regular and careful evaluation of the child's reading ability and achievement; proper grouping for instruction; active involvement of the student in his reading instruction; differentiation of reading style according to the type and purpose of material read; an ever-increasing range of reading material made available; guidance in critical reading; continuity in reading instruction throughout his school career; and superior teachers.

Research by DeBoer (Barbe, 1971) found five specific aspects of creative reading operating in varying degrees in a number of elementary programs. The first, creative inquiry, deals with learning how to ask the right questions. Creative interpretation involves an intensive effort to reconstruct reading material using clues and symbols found in the original writing. Creative integration combines words, concepts and images of a story into new moods or perceptions in the reader's mind. Creative application involves looking for various situations in the reader's experience that may relate directly or indirectly to what has been read. The last one, creative criticism, deals with the process of separating fact from opinion and drawing tentative conclusions that may differ from the author's.

The consensus in the research is that a gifted child's program must be individualized to provide for his needs and to provide for the development of creativity. Gifted students are not always speedy workers, therefore, they must be allowed to work at their own pace. They should have parameters, but should be free to select within those parameters. There should be adequate opportunity to talk with the teacher, for these children especially need this dimension in order to grow and learn. There should also be a time provided for them to put their reading and learning into action, through drama, speech-making, simulation games and projects.

Simulation activities for groups can be created on almost any topic. Once the activity is started, the children could be asked to contribute problems to be solved as it progresses. After reading several different plays by authors whose styles vary widely, they could be asked to write the ideas that make a good play and then write their own and produce it, thus combining several different areas of learning. As for projects, after reading several different sources on one subject, the students could be asked to brainstorm their own projects.

Techniques such as brainstorming, role-playing, buzz sessions, and group discussions are effective ones to use with the gifted. Brainstorming is an especially effective one, allowing the students to stretch their creativity to the fullest without any threat of repression. Gallagher (1969) gives several important rules for this technique: no criticism allowed; the more ideas the better, the more likely a really good one will occur; integration and combinations of ideas welcomed; evaluation and discussion of pros and cons only after all ideas have been presented.

Using Literature

When using literature, the teacher needs to be certain that the material is well chosen, with interesting characters and situations, vivid descriptions

and good vocabulary. Also, that the related activities will focus their thinking skills. Smith (1974:55) has prepared guidelines for the construction of questions and tasks designed to stimulate students to think creatively as they read:

1. They ask for information that is not in the material.
2. They ask for the reader's personal ideas.
3. They do not attempt to evoke responses that can be judged as correct or incorrect.
4. They focus on what the reader can add to the material.

Intermediate grade students can learn quickly to recognize questions that send them on a thoughtful, purposeful trip beyond the boundaries of the story into unfamiliar territory. Using the above guidelines, teachers can construct appropriate questions for any material used.

If a book report is called for, the following example is a suggestion for one that uses Bloom's Taxonomy as a guideline, having a question for each level of difficulty. Each question should have adequate space provided for answers.

1. Was this book hard or easy?
2. What made it hard or easy?
3. Could you tell what was happening all the time?
4. Did you want to keep on reading or quit?
5. Write 6 facts in the story that you remember and that are important to remember.
6. Tell what you think about any one of the characters in the book. Give your reasons.
7. Predict what will happen after the book ends. Be specific and detailed and make sure it fits with what has already happened.
8. Summarize what the book is about in not more than 6 sentences.
9. Write a different ending to the story.
10. Compare 2 characters in the story. Decide which one is best of the two and tell why you think so.

Materials and Ideas

There are prepared kits and materials that can be used by the teacher who wants to challenge her students, but does not quite know what to do or where to start. *Push Back the Desks*, by Cullum, is full of challenging and interesting units in all different areas with which to motivate students. It is a small paperback book which should be available in most bookstores. *Interaction* publishes an excellent series of simulation games that are challenging and interesting. Science is an area in which creative thinking can be used effectively. MSG materials are good. Other sources, identified by Gowan (1971) are: *Curriculum Planning for the Gifted*, Fliegler, 1961; *Teaching Science Creatively*, Washton, 1967; materials developed by Dr. T. H. Sands of Illinois State College which contain kits of science material; and discovery learning materials by Dr. Crutchfield of the University of California at Berkeley, consisting of fifteen units about a boy and his sister who work as detectives.

Isaacs (1974) shares an abundance of general activities suggested to her by graduate students. A few of them are listed here, with supplemental comments.

1. Keep a diary describing memorable experiences. (This could be done in conjunction with a unit, or simply as a private writing experience.)
2. Chair a committee to discuss a good book which all have read. (Some advance discussion with the teacher necessary.)
3. Catalog books in the class library.
4. Set up evaluative criteria, evaluate children's magazines, and make a recommended list for the library.
5. Check reading rate: then use materials designed to improve rate, chart progress.
6. Construct crossword puzzles which utilize specific vocabulary (including adequate clues).
7. Interview an adult or pupil from an upper grade with a specific purpose in mind.
8. Portray a character role in a monologue. (This would entail considerable background reading.)
9. Convert a short story into a short play, then lead in its production.
10. Write and give commentaries for silent movies or slide showings.

The ideas presented here are just the beginning. There are a multitude of activities that can be used with these children, for their capacity for learning is so much more than the average child's. Perhaps gifted children were named as such because they have indeed been given a gift that few have the opportunity to receive. It is their responsibility to use that gift wisely and for the benefit of the world in which they live. But they cannot do it without proper training and education. If it is their responsibility to use their gift wisely, it is the responsibility of the teachers of the world to give them every possible resource with which to develop that gift. We cannot do otherwise.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Barbe, Walter B. "Innovative Reading Program for the Gifted and Creative." In *Reading for the Gifted and Creative Student*. (P. A. Witty, Ed.). Delaware: IRA, 1971.
- Gallagher, James. *Teaching the Gifted Child*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1969.
- Gowan, John. *Educating the Ablest*. Illinois: F. E. Peacock, 1971.
- Isaacs, Ann F. "Creative Reading Can be a Balance and an Anchor in Guiding the Gifted." In *Creative Reading for Gifted Learners, A Design for Excellence*. (Michael Labuda, Ed.). Delaware: IRA, 1974.
- Smith, Richard J. "Using Reading to Stimulate Creative Thinking in the Intermediate Grades." In *Creative Reading for Gifted Learners, A Design for Excellence*. (Michael Labuda, Ed.). Delaware: IRA, 1974.
- Strang, Ruth. *Helping Your Gifted Child*. New York: E. P. Dutton, 1960.

SELLING READING

Nancy Galen
John Prendergast
NORTHERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY

Reading teachers hope all their students will become lifelong readers. Students who can successfully propel themselves through print and who view reading as a worthwhile activity are most likely to form this type of permanent attachment to reading. Thus, there should be two ultimate goals of all reading instruction: the evolution of both *competent* and *avid* readers.

The first of these goals is generally emphasized in most classrooms. Yet in the pursuit of competence, some well-meaning teachers may drill students on various reading skills, only to deny them the opportunities to practice these skills in a meaningful application of reading. Without sufficient practice, it is difficult for students to develop or even maintain skills taught in the classroom. To become competent readers, students must be encouraged to transfer their abilities to the ultimate goal—reading on their own. Simply put, it is difficult to become a proficient reader without lots of practice in reading.

Besides its utility in developing competent readers, practice in reading also can be valuable in the promotion of positive attitudes toward reading, a goal which may be ignored in some reading programs. Students' attitudes about reading are at least as important as their ability to read, for the value of reading lies in its use rather than its possession (Estes, 1971). For the classroom teacher, this means that students must know how to read and must also want to read before they can become lifelong readers. Fostering positive attitudes about reading should be a vital part of all reading programs. Making books available, providing time to read them, and demonstrating that reading is worthwhile are essential to the encouragement of reading as an acceptable and desirable activity.

Making Books Available

Every classroom should have a library of reading material. The library should contain at least three or four books per student, as well as other reading material of interest to students: magazines, newspapers, travel brochures, catalogs and the like. Materials should vary in topic and difficulty so that each student will be able to find something interesting and appropriate to read.

A section of the classroom devoted to reading can also encourage reading. Attractive bulletin boards and book displays can serve to advertise the joys of reading. If possible, soft furniture and carpeting can make this part of the classroom a desirable place in which to read. Thus reading can be physically appealing as well as visually attractive.

Resourceful teachers can maintain class libraries rather easily and inexpensively. Students, parents, and faculty members can be encouraged to donate old books and magazines to the library. A visit to a travel agency, airport, or car dealer can also result in interesting reading material for the classroom library, as can trips to garage sales, church bazaars, or second-hand stores.

Students should help establish and maintain the class library. In addition to giving individual students a chance to own their own books, paperback book clubs also provide dividends. These books could be added to the library. The class might select a committee to search paperback book catalogs and suggest titles for purchase. Another group of students might accompany the teacher to a book store in order to purchase books. Periodically "scavenger committees" can check want ads and other likely sources for used books. Student assistants might also serve as librarians, recording books that are checked out and keeping the library attractive. Involving students in the selection and maintenance of class library materials should encourage their interest in and acceptance of reading.

Providing Time to Read

Personal acceptance of reading and refinement of reading skills can be developed simultaneously through successful practice in reading. In 1970, Lyman Hunt described a reading technique directed toward this end. Hunt labeled his technique USSR (for *uninterrupted, sustained, silent reading*): similar techniques have been suggested by others (Oliver, 1970; McCracken, 1972; Allington, 1975). USSR was designed to provide students with a span of uninterrupted time for silent reading. The technique, if properly developed by following several well-defined steps, may supply the missing link between competence and the positive attitude so vital if students are to become lifelong readers. The following steps could be used to initiate USSR in the classroom:

1. Each student selects something to read: book, magazine, newspaper, pamphlet—whatever interests him/her. As long as material is not blatantly offensive, no comments should be made about the choice of reading material.
2. The teacher places a "Do Not Disturb" sign on the classroom door.
3. The teacher explains the technique to the students: "USSR stands for *uninterrupted, sustained, silent reading*. Each of you has something to read. When I say 'go,' begin to read silently at a pace that is comfortable for you. If you encounter a word that you don't know, try to figure it out yourself or just skip it. If anyone interrupts our reading by talking or moving about, the USSR period will stop and we will return to our other work. Are there any questions? (Clarify directions, if necessary.) "Go." These directions should be repeated each time until the teacher decides that the students understand the technique.
4. The teacher sets a kitchen timer for five minutes, a suggested length for the first USSR period. If the students are able to sustain their reading for this time, USSR should be gradually increased, perhaps in one or

two minute increments. If there are any interruptions, the USSR period stops. In that case, the next period should be of the same length.

5. No formal reporting should be required. However, the teacher may wish to ask questions like, "Did you enjoy your reading today? Is anyone reading something interesting that he or she would like to share with us?" (Hunt, 1970)
6. It is very important that everyone, including the teacher and any classroom visitors, spend the USSR period engaged in silent reading. If the time is spent in grading papers or planning, the students could easily conclude that reading is not valued by the teacher or that it is not that important. This directly counteracts the purpose of USSR.

One important objective of USSR is the promotion of positive attitudes about reading. This implies the creation of an atmosphere conducive to silent reading. Because USSR time is uninterrupted, students are encouraged to become deeply involved in their reading. However, both external and internal forces could interfere with USSR. To control external forces as much as possible, the teacher should take precautionary measures, such as placing the "Do Not Disturb" sign on the door and scheduling USSR for a period of relative quiet. (Some teachers have found that a "Testing" sign is more effective in preventing interruptions.)

Peer pressure can be used to control internal disruption. If any student disrupts USSR time, the period should be stopped and students should return to regular class work. Students will probably be disappointed if the USSR period is suspended and they may make their displeasure known to the offender(s). Because of pressure from peers not to interrupt, even normally "troublesome" students might begin to pay more attention to their reading.

Demonstrating that Reading is Worthwhile

Initiating USSR as a part of daily activities should help convince students that reading is worth school time. As USSR becomes part of their daily schedules, students should begin to realize that reading is *not* just a time filler to be used when the lesson is shorter than anticipated. Rather, students should begin to view free reading as an important, vital part of their class time.

An objection to USSR that may be heard from classroom teachers and administrators is that "The teacher isn't *teaching*; s/he is *just* sitting there reading." However, it should be remembered that the teacher's example is a powerful method of instruction. Furthermore, how often do these same teachers or administrators complain when math or science teachers "just sit there and watch" while students do math problems or science experiments? The teacher's enthusiasm for a practice or program may be a key ingredient in attitude change (Alexander and Filler, 1976). The teacher's actions should always demonstrate the belief that reading is a highly valued activity. In other words, it is very important for teachers to provide a good model for students. In some cases, the teacher may be the only adult

students can observe who demonstrates the enjoyment and usefulness of reading.

As a good model, the teacher should read while students are reading and should reach for books to find information. The teacher should also have some knowledge of materials pertaining to the interests and ability levels of his/her students. Teachers should share opinions about books they've read with their students. Interesting, innovative ways to react to books can be encouraged (Mavrogenes, 1977).

Another way to demonstrate that reading is worthwhile is to read aloud to students often. Students of any age enjoy listening to a well-read, appropriate story. Tape recorded stories can also be used, with students either listening alone or following along in a book as they listen. Mueller (1973) maintains that instruction reflects the teachers' attitude and that students are affected when the teacher shows enthusiasm or apathy toward reading.

Permanent attachments to reading will most likely develop in students who are both competent and avid readers. As they experience success in reading, students will begin to view reading as an enjoyable activity. Like most enjoyable activities, it will be continued. The more students read, the more competent they will become and the more enjoyment they will derive from reading. To sustain this cycle of competence and interest, teachers should recognize the need to develop positive attitudes about reading and the need to reinforce these attitudes by teaching the skills necessary for successful reading.

REFERENCES

- Alexander, J. E. & Filler, R. C. *Attitudes and Reading*. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1976.
- Allington, R. L. Sustained approaches to reading and writing. *Language Arts*, 1975, 52, 813-815.
- Estes, T. H. A scale to measure attitudes toward reading. *Journal of Reading*, 1971, 15, 135-138.
- Hunt, L. C. Jr. The effect of self-selection, interest, and motivation upon independent, instructional, and frustrational levels. *The Reading Teacher*, 1970, 24, 146-151, 158.
- Mavrogenes, N. A. 101 ways to react to books. *English Journal*, 1977, 66, 64-66.
- McCracken, R. A. & McCracken, M. J. *Reading is Only the Tiger's Tail*. San Rafael, California: Leswing Press, 1972.
- Mueller, D. L. Teacher attitudes toward reading. *Journal of Reading*, 1973, 17, 202-205.
- Oliver, M. E. High intensity practice: the right to enjoy reading. *Education*, 1970, 91, 69-71.

INFERENTIAL ASPECTS OF THE CLOZE TASK

Michael C. McKenna

WITCHITA STATE UNIVERSITY

The central assumption underlying the cloze procedure is that context can be used inferentially to predict deleted words (or other graphic units). The importance of this assumption suggests that an adequate understanding of the cloze task is impossible without an analytical knowledge of the role inference must play. The present discussion embodies a stepwise analysis of this role, from the point at which the context is read to the point at which the reader is able to distinguish acceptable responses.

1. *Inferring Constraints*

An intriguing question common to logic and to reading is the classification and explication of inferential thought. Within the field of reading, efforts have been made to identify the types of information which make inferences possible about the meaning of an unfamiliar word (Artley, 1943; McCullough, 1958; Ames, 1965). The case of cloze deletions is analogous in that subjects must draw upon the same sorts of clues in an attempt to constrain the meaning of the missing word, and thus the number of alternatives, as much as possible.

For present purposes, it is unnecessary to enumerate these types, and, to repeat, such an effort at this writing would have to be an incomplete one.¹ It is enough here to make three generalizations concerning the process of inferring constraints.

First, it shall be assumed that constraints can be inferred from context in such a way that they are countable. That is to say, from the words which surround a deletion, it is possible to enumerate distinct conclusions about the meaning of the deleted word. That such constraints are interrelated will be seen presently.

Second, the inferred constraints are of two varieties: *syntactic* (limitations upon the grammatical class, or "part of speech," of the missing word) and *semantic* (limitations upon the meaning of the missing word).

Third, semantic constraints can, and for present purposes must, be further delineated into *coordinate* and *subordinate* constraints. Subordinate constraints are those which, while identifiable as distinct "conclusions," are automatically combined by the subject because the com-

¹It should be noted, however, that one entire class of clues is denied the cloze subject—those found within the word itself, such as its etymology, inflection, and configuration. Thus, his circumstance is only partially analogous to that of the reader encountering unfamiliar words. For a discussion of differences between recognition and recall, see Glanzer and Bowles (1976).

bination is thought of in a singular sense (stored in association). For example, in the sentence "The ___ injured one of its four legs," it is possible to infer (1) that the deleted word names an animal and (2) that the animal has four legs. But are there two constraints here or one? Since the two characteristics above are typically thought of together as determining the set of four-legged animals, they will be considered here to be subordinate constraints—combined to form a single coordinate constraint. Coordinate constraints, on the other hand, can be combined logically but are not customarily linked. For example, in "His mother named him ___ because she liked monosyllables," two semantic constraints are present: (1) the word must be a boy's name and (2) it must consist of one syllable. Since words with both of these characteristics are not ordinarily thought of together, these are coordinate rather than subordinate constraints.

2. *Accepting Inferred Constraints*

The ability to infer constraints is not the sole component of the inferential stage of the cloze task. Subsequently, the subject must decide whether to accept a constraint in the process of identifying a set of alternative responses. For at least three reasons, he may choose to disregard some conclusion he has reached, even though it may have a demonstrable basis in the text. First, one inference may duplicate another and thus contribute nothing to the accumulation of constraint. This state of events is not limited to the pronounced redundancy of inefficient writing but occurs frequently when context is viewed at full scale. Ramanauskas (1972a, 1972b) has demonstrated that even for poor readers constraints operate between, as well as within, sentences, and it is natural to assume that many of these are duplicated as short range. Second, and in the same vein, one constraint may *imply* another without precisely duplicating it. In the sentence, "He lives in Europe, in the French city of ____," the phrase "in Europe" is rendered useless by the narrower constraint inferable from "the French city of." Third, an inference may be viewed by the reader as nonessential but as possible nevertheless. He must decide whether to honor it and thus whether to place an added restriction on his target set. In so doing, he may attempt to estimate the probability that the author's meaning was accordingly constrained. But only a knowledge of the exact word can settle the issue. In the sentence, "The woman carried her ___ outdoors," it is arguable that the missing word names an object customarily found out-of-doors, but the argument can never be made conclusive. In fact, the reverse can be contended with equal vigor. The problem is that the cloze deletion has created an artificial ambiguity which causes the subject to demand too much of the remaining text. He will often be aided by the broader context, but not always.

In sum, it is not enough to infer constraints. The cloze subject must then judge the strength and distinctness of his inferences and to decide accordingly whether to lend them credence. And yet even at this point the inferential process is not complete.

3. *Combining Accepted Constraints*

Once the subject has selected the constraints which bear upon the meaning of the deleted word, he must combine them. In so doing, he establishes a single category of words having several common attributes from several categories each defined by a single attribute. The process is one of concept building. All concepts are characterized by attributes which serve to define examples of the concept, and as the list of required attributes (constraints) is increased, the number of examples which possess all of them diminishes. Thus, the value of individual constraints in the cloze task becomes clear: the application of each new constraint operates to reduce successively the number of acceptable word replacements (i.e., the size of the target set). The subject may first infer that the missing word is a noun. This is a major logical step in that the number of logical choices is reduced by over 50 percent (French, Carter, & Koenig, 1930; Fries, 1952). He may further infer that the word names an inanimate object and thus again reduce the target set. The more constraints he can combine in this fashion, the better his chances of success. At this point, the importance of the coordinate-subordinate distinction becomes clear in that subordinate constraints have been combined *a priori*.

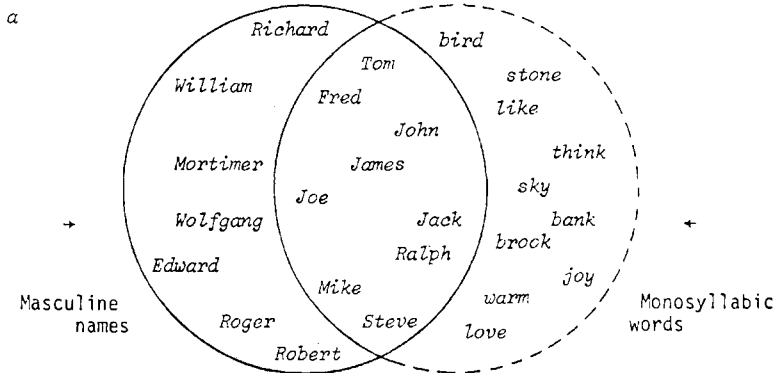
The important realization is that conclusions inferred regarding the identity of the deleted word *can* be combined. The truth of this assertion follows logically from category theory and mathematically from axiomatic set theory. There are two perspectives possible on the manner of combining constraints, and they differ in terms of the degree to which one considers the constraints independent of one another. It will be seen that either perspective leads to the identification of the same target set.

First, two constraints may be looked on as defining two sets of words which "overlap," such that there is an intersection of words common to both sets. The words found in the intersection share two attributes by definition—one required for membership in one of the sets and one for membership in the other. On the other hand, the words found in the set union, but not in the intersection, have only one or the other of these attributes. In the earlier sentence, "His mother named him — because she liked monosyllables," two constraints are inferable, and, accordingly, the set of alternatives which meet both of them can be represented as the intersection of the sets of words which meet at least one. The intersection is, then, the set of all monosyllabic masculine names, and it is the target set for the deletion.²

Second, one constraint may be looked on as defining a *proper* subset of the set determined by another constraint. That is, the set of words delimited by one constraint may be seen to contain *only* words previously identified by another constraint. One begins with a single inference and its word-

²Owing to individual differences in memory content and passage interpretation, the target set will actually vary with the subject. While logic may occasionally make possible certain "absolute" pronouncements like the one above, the matter is in reality much more complex.

set – say, the set of all masculine names – and uses the second constraint to locate a subset of the first viz., those masculine names which happen to consist of one syllable. No consideration is given to monosyllabic words which are not masculine names, as it was in the previous case. The contrast between these viewpoints is portrayed in Figure a, where elements bounded by the broken line are considered only from the first perspective, in which the intersection of two sets is seen rather than a subset of one.

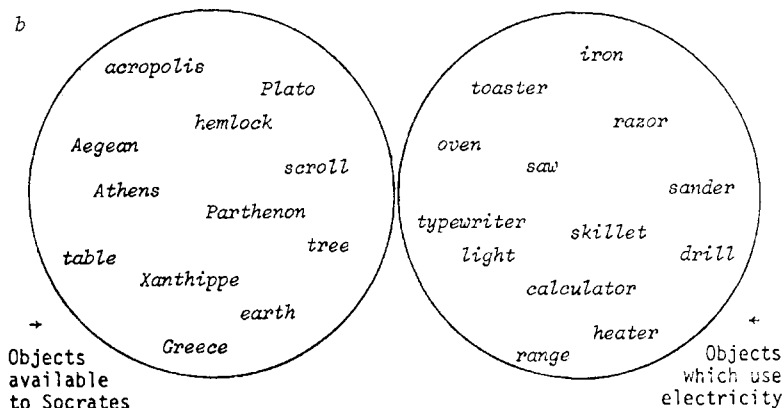


His mother named him _____ because she liked monosyllables.

It is difficult to imagine a set of *functional* constraints which can be viewed in only one of these ways. When one constraint is implied by another, as in the example of the French city, it is, of course, only possible to view their combination from the second standpoint above (since there are no French cities which are not also in Europe). But since only the narrow constraint is functional, it is assumed that the reader will discard the first rather than attempt a formal (and pointless) combination. The important principle is that the target set which is ultimately defined will be the same regardless of how the combinative process is viewed.

Insofar as the *nature* of the target set is concerned, an important variant remains to be considered. Actually, it rarely, if ever, occurs in rational prose, but its implications are far-reaching. This is the case in which two or more constraints define sets of words without a mutual intersection. That is to say, no word exists which possesses the attribute required by each individual constraint. From the sentence, "Socrates plugged in his electric _____," two inferences follow which are seen to be contradictory. The deleted word names an object available to Socrates, and it also names an object which makes use of alternating current. Since nothing possesses both of these attributes, the sets of words corresponding to them are disjoint (Figure b). While this circumstance is not historically acceptable in normal

discourse, it serves to describe what at times is an analogous situation in the mind of the cloze subject. If he is aware of the constraints and simply cannot generate a word from what he well knows to be the target set, his position is no different from the one above. The foreigner who reads "He lives in — Diego" may suspect that the missing word is part of a place name ending with *Diego*, but his lack of familiarity with American geography may prevent his being able to generate the one-element target set, (San).³ J. Anderson (1972) found that the cloze scores of subjects in the process of learning English as a second language are not significantly improved when synonyms are counted correct. This result suggests the economy with which new speakers acquire words— they cannot readily afford the luxury of many alternate terms. When a word must possess a number of attributes, there may simply be none available to the foreign subject whose vocabulary is impoverished to begin with. It is reasonable to suppose that vocabulary deficiencies in native speakers can likewise lead to the production of an empty target set.



Socrates plugged in his electric ____.

But without regard to such limitations in the reader, it may be seen that in normal writing constraints tend to be complementary rather than contradictory and are combined to define nonempty target sets. The last example serves to illustrate the possibility that such a set may contain only one element. Without involving a set-theoretic analysis, Taylor and Waldman (1970) designed such items as "unique." It is not true, however,

³It is interesting to note that there *are* two constraints operating in this sentence. The word *Diego* does not of necessity imply the place name; consider "Zorro's real name was — Diego," the deleted word being *Don*.

that any logical difference exists in how the target set is defined. The fact that it contains only one word is a quantitative distinction, not a qualitative one.

4. *Determining the Target Set*

To identify and combine the characteristics necessary for set membership are sufficient to define a set. But to determine a target set from linguistically inferred constraints does not follow quite so directly. The problem is one of imprecision. The inferred attributes required of all words in the target set are apt to be vague or relative. In some cases, these attributes are sufficiently precise to test any candidate word for set membership, but in many others they are not. In the earlier example, "The woman carried her — outdoors," it is reasonable to infer that the target set must include only words which name objects conveyable by a woman. But although a valid inference, the resulting constraint is imprecise as a defining characteristic. For example, would *desk* be excluded from the target set? Clearly, there are certain women capable of carrying certain desks. The issue is relative to the weight of the desk and the strength of the woman. Relative characteristics were a particular problem for Aristotle in his own attempt to explain categorization (see *Categoriae*), and they appear to be a difficulty inherent in language. Lakoff (1972) has re-emphasized the matter of what he terms "fuzzy" categories, and he has especially noted the tendency of relative adjectives to result in fuzziness—e.g., the set of all large men.

For the cloze subject, this phenomenon can be turned to an advantage. By broadly interpreting "fuzzy" constraints, he is able to increase the size of the target set at such times as he may have difficulty generating a word meeting all of the constraints (i.e., as he initially conceived them). Conversely, by narrowly defining "fuzzy" constraints, he is able to restrict the size of a target set which offers many alternatives and at the same time guarantee a "safe" choice.

Of course, this sort of adjustment is inconceivable with the precise defining characteristics required in mathematics or in logic. But the cloze subject is not often confined by such precision. Byerly (1973) has underscored the advantage one has in the ability to interpret flexibly constraints which are linguistically vague:

A set is well defined only when we can determine whether any definite entity is or is not a member of the set. In natural language vague indications may serve a purpose. It is not always possible to draw distinctions precisely. Nor is it always convenient, as when we tell someone to "put the package down somewhere over there." (p. 329)

On the other hand, it is not difficult to see how vague constraints can pose problems, especially time problems, for the cloze subject. It is enough at this point to observe the possibility of ill-defined target sets and the fact

that cloze subjects must somehow deal with them. At stake is the crucial distinction between target and nontarget words, and it may be that a weakness in boundary contributes to the strength of the idea that subjects search within memory a "target" set which includes words subsequently deemed unsuitable (see Kaplan, Carvellas, & Metlay, 1971; Tuinman, 1972; McKenna, 1977a).

The cloze subject's ultimate goal of generating the one word actually deleted requires that he first establish target set boundaries which correspond to those conceptualized by the author when he selected the word. The relationship can therefore be studied from a set-theoretic perspective, from which it can be generalized that the overlap of the two target sets (i.e., writer's and reader's) is one determiner of the subject's success. McKenna (1977b) used a set-theoretic approach to study the relationships among intended, expressed, and reconstructed meaning in the writer-to-reader sequence. It would appear that the cloze task is a special case of those general considerations.

5. *Summary*

On the basis of context, inferences must be made, accepted, and combined concerning the meaning of the missing word. The strength of such conclusions must be judged and limits set as to the probability and suitability of individual words. All of this is not to say, however, that these steps occur in a rigid sequence or that they proceed at all times under the conscious direction of the subject. The attempt has been to describe certain events which must take place, at least in effect, if a successful response is to be generated. It is important to observe that simply because inferential thought is not *verbalized* (as it has been in these pages) does not imply its absence.

REFERENCES

- Ames, W. A study of the process by which readers determine word meaning through the use of context (Doctoral dissertation, University of Missouri, 1965). *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 1966, 26, 6539-6540. (University Microfilms No. 65-14, 463)
- Anderson, J. The application of cloze procedure to English learned as a foreign language in Papua and New Guinea. *English Language Teaching Journal*, 1972, 27, 66-72.
- Aristotle. *Categoriae*. In W. D. Ross (Ed. and trans.), *The works of Aristotle translated into English under the editorship of W. D. Ross* (Vol. 1). Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1908.
- Artley, A. S. Teaching word meaning through context. *Elementary English Review*, 1943, 20, 68-74.
- Byerly, H. C. *A primer of logic*. New York: Harper & Row, 1973.
- French, N. R., Carter, C. W., & Koenig, W. The words and sounds of telephone conversations. *Bell System Technical Journal*, 1930, 9, 290-324.

- Fries, C. C. *The structure of English*. New York: Harcourt, Brace, & Co., 1952.
- Glanzer, M., & Bowles, N. Analysis of the word-frequency effect in recognition memory. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Learning and Memory*, 1976, 2, 21-31.
- Kaplan, I. T., Carvellas, T., & Metlay, W. Effect of context on verbal recall. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior*, 1971, 10, 207-212.
- Lakoff, G. Hedges: A study in measuring criteria and the logic of fuzzy concepts. *Papers from the eighth regional meeting, Chicago Linguistics Society*. Chicago: University of Chicago Linguistics Department, 1972.
- McCullough, C. M. Context aids in reading. *Reading Teacher*, 1958, 11, 225-229.
- McKenna, M. C. An investigation of the cloze procedure as a memory-search process (Doctoral dissertation, University of Missouri, 1977). *Dissertation Abstracts International* (in press) (a)
- McKenna, M. C. Reading viewed as the result of writing. *Reading Horizons*, 1977, 17, 264-267. (b)
- Ramanauskas, S. Contextual constraints beyond a sentence on cloze responses of mentally retarded children. *American Journal of Mental Deficiency*, 1972, 77, 338-345. (a)
- Ramanauskas, S. Contextual constraints beyond a sentence on cloze responses of cloze readability measures to linguistic variables operating over segments of text longer than a sentence. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 1972, 8, 72-91. (b)
- Taylor, W. L., & Waldman, I. N. Latency and focus methods of cloze quantification. In G. B. Schick & M. M. May (Eds.), *Nineteenth yearbook of the National Reading Conference* (Vol. 2). Milwaukee: NRC, 1970.
- Tuinman, J. J. Speculations on cloze as a search procedure. In F. P. Greene (Ed.), *Twenty-first yearbook of the National Reading Conference* (Vol. 1). Milwaukee, NRC, 1972.

BRINGING CHILDREN AND BOOKS TOGETHER

Mary Jane Gray

LOYOLA UNIVERSITY

The author of good children's books devotes his talents to creating new worlds into which continuing generations eagerly seek entrance. How can teacher help children to discover these new worlds? It has been said that in order to help children develop an interest in reading and a desire to read, the classroom teacher must be familiar with children's books. Much of the literature dealing with the teaching of reading seems to indicate that capitalizing on interests is a relatively recent practice, however, a glance back to the seventeenth century demonstrates that at least one individual would have been an ardent advocate of this procedure.

John Locke presented definite ideas on how children should be taught to read.

When by these gentle ways he begins to be able to read, some easy, pleasant book should be put into his hands, wherein the entertainment he finds might draw him on (Meigs and Others, 1969, p. 54).

His comments sound remarkably similar to recommendations being made today.

In all reading tuition the first aim should be to produce children and adults who want to read and who do read: the second aim should be to help them read effectively. If the second aim is given priority, it is probable that the first aim will never be achieved. In other words, neither recreational nor functional reading can be expected to be the end product of extended intensive instruction in reading skills. Reading must consist of recreational and functional activities from the very beginning (McKenzie in Williams, 1976, p. 53).

Contrast these recommendations with Bettelheim's (1976) comments about the reading materials used to teach reading today. He believes that meaningful reading rarely enters the life of a child before third grade and by third grade the child's basic reading attitudes are fully established. He goes on to say our primers offer no meaning to children, and strongly urges that meaning be placed at the beginning of reading instruction, for this is the purpose of reading - to find meaning (7).

Is it possible to build a good reading program which capitalizes on children's interests? A firm, "Yes!" is the answer to this question. One way to

capture their interest is by reading to the children as a part of the regular school day. An example from my elementary school teaching experience demonstrates the ease with which this may be accomplished.

A short period each day was devoted to reading to my second grade students. One of the authors most enjoyed by this class was Eleanor Estes. Several of *The Moffat* books were read to the group. Although these were children enrolled in a suburban school and about as far removed in actual setting and experience as they could be from the children in the stories, they could not wait for the chapter to be read each day. The feelings and activities of the Moffat children are universally found in each generation. This is one of the qualities which helps to ensure that a book will continue to be popular with children for years.

My own class of college student teachers have been required to spend a short period each day reading to their students. In one of these classes the student teacher found seven children who did not speak much English. The book she chose as the first one to read to the group was one of the *Frances* books by Russell Hoban. Only one little girl did not pay attention at first. By the middle of the story her interest had been piqued, and by the end she was up with the rest of the group at the teacher's end of the table looking over the top of the book to see what the teacher was reading.

In addition to acquainting the children with some of our literature, they also profited from these sessions in other ways including developing listening skills, increasing vocabulary, and becoming acquainted with various language patterns.

A second way to capture interest is to provide for children the opportunity to choose and read books in which they are interested. For this purpose the school library should provide picture books, story books, and informational books along with the opportunity for children to come frequently to the library to make their selections. The librarian can also play an important role by scheduling storytelling sessions for teachers and their classes.

The argument that the core of the reading program must be based on skill development is not a sound one. Huck supplies the best counter-argument.

One of the best kept secrets in education is that children learn to read by reading. Most teachers overteach the skills of reading to the detriment of reading practice and enjoyment. Many primary teachers spend over half of their day teaching children how to read without ever giving them the opportunity for reading (1976, p. 600).

A second argument that there have not always been good books available can also be disproved by an examination of children's books, many of which were attainable early in our country's history. Just a few of the categories—adventure stories, humor and fantasy, family stories, historical fiction and history—provide ample evidence that there has always been something to appeal to each child's tastes.

Adventure

One of the tales which was intended for adults, but which was enjoyed by children was *Pilgrim's Progress*. It is an allegory which describes the Christian soul on its journey to everlasting life, but children enjoy it as a good adventure story.

A second book written for adults, but once again enjoyed by children was Daniel Defoe's *Robinson Crusoe*. It, too, is an allegory, but the theme of it, man against nature, appeals to the adventurous spirit in all children. The story blended fact and fiction into an enticing tale that stimulates a child's imagination.

The third book which was written for adults and taken over by children was another adventure story, *Gulliver's Travels*. It is an allegory which again combines adventure and suspense in a fictional setting. It is similar to *Robinson Crusoe* in that it deals with shipwreck and survival, but unlike *Robinson Crusoe* it deals with more than man's struggle with nature; it deals with man's struggle with man.

Howard Pyle's 1883 publication, *The Merry Adventures of Robin Hood of Great Renoun, in Nottinghamshire*, continues in popularity at least partially because Pyle based his theme upon a struggle that all children understand, the struggle between good and evil. It contains some historical and geographical facts concerning medieval England, yet these are woven into a fabric of adventure and fiction which fascinates children.

Pyle expressed very well the impact that a good book has on young readers.

In one's mature years, one forgets the books that one reads, but the stories of childhood leave an indelible impression, and their author always has a niche in the temple of memory from which the image is never cast out to be thrown into the rubbish-heap of things that are outgrown and outlived (Nesbitt in Meigs & Others), p. 287 from Abbot, C. *Howard Pyle: A Chronicle*. New York: Harper, 1925.

Humor and Fantasy

In 1865 Lewis Carroll's *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland* appeared. This story was first told to children for their entertainment before it was written. It is a story of adventure filled with many improbable characters and situations. Perhaps it was one of the first stories with no other purpose than that of entertainment.

The Tale of Peter Rabbit developed out of a letter written to an ill child. The small size of the book and the very delicate and small illustrations done by Beatrix Potter are extremely well suited to children's taste. It seems strange when one considers the fact that this book has continued in popularity for seventy-five years that initially it had to be printed at the author's own expense.

Another book not favorably received at first was Kenneth Grahame's *The Wind in the Willows*. This book had its origin in bedtime stories Grahame told to his son of a water rat, a mole and a toad.

C. S. Lewis wrote the first of the Narnia series: *The Lion, the Witch, and the Wardrobe*; in 1950. It was followed by six other books. From the first trip through the back of the wardrobe to the Land of Narnia, children are held spellbound by Lewis's stories.

Stories of Family Life

Henry Steele Commager wrote in the Introduction to *A Critical History of Children's Literature* :

. . . Young Louisa Alcott, the spinster who never really understood children, and who wrote perhaps the greatest book to come out of the New World . . . Those little women of Concord have gone all over the world, they have gone into the hearts of children everywhere, giving them a feeling for America that nothing else gives in quite the same way.

Little Women is indeed an outstanding book. Alcott possessed the ability to make characters who live for the reader. She provided for children what they seem to want and need.

The *Little House Books* give to children a picture of life in an earlier time. Wilder's stories which contain an account of the life of the Ingalls family are very realistic. Although they were not written until the author's late middle age, they are very accurate. Details of life during those early times and in such a different setting from that familiar to today's children make these extremely appealing to young readers. Laura Ingalls Wilder, like Louisa May Alcott, was able to impart to children the feeling of love and security found in a strong family unit (Fisher, 1975).

Historical Fiction and History

Allan Wheeler (1971) summed up very aptly the values of using trade books in the classroom.

. . . Good trade books breathe life into people and places . . .
Factual material will never be able to present the joys, sorrows, and problems of other times and people . . .
The quality of writing and the beauty of the illustrations in good trade books will recreate the charm and lifestyle of other times and places. From such quality literature children can build a mental pool of experiences lost to them through purely factual reading materials.

Historical fiction is of great benefit in helping children to understand and appreciate history. It goes beyond the factual presentation found in textbooks and brings events and people to life for the reader.

Using information she had found for her biography of Paul Revere, Esther Forbes wrote *Johnny Tremain* which is very true to life. "It actually is a fictional study of the Boston Tea Party and the events leading up to it (Fisher, p. 162)."

Hendrick Van Loon's *The Story of Mankind* was the first Newbery winner. It, too, did more than present facts; it truly made history real for the reader.

Only a few of the very well known children's books have been included here. Even that small sample provides evidence that there have always been books which hold great appeal for children. The teacher's task is a two-fold one—to become acquainted with books for children and to see to it that children and these books are brought together as a regular part of the school day. To do this is to provide the key to the new worlds to be discovered in books and through such discovery reap the rewards to be derived from reading so well described by Arbuthnot.

Books are no substitute for living, but they can add immeasurably to its richness. When life is absorbing, books can enhance our sense of its significance. When life is difficult, they can give a momentary relief from trouble, afford a new insight into our problems or those of others, or provide the rest and refreshment we need. Books have always been a source of information, comfort, and pleasure for people who know how to use them. This is as true for children as for adults (Arbuthnot & Sutherland, 1977, p. 4).

REFERENCES

- Bettelheim, D. On learning to read. *The National Elementary Principal*. Sept.-Oct. 1976, 56.6-14.
- DePencier, I. *The History of the Laboratory Schools*. Chicago: Quadrangle Books, 1967.
- Ellis, A. *A History of Children's Reading and Literature*. London: Pergamon Press, 1963.
- Fisher, M. *Who's Who in Children's Books*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1975.
- Gillespie, M. *Literature for Children: History and Trends*. Glenview, Illinois: Scott Foresman & Company, 1973.
- Huck, C. *Children's Literature in the Elementary School* (3rd ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1976.
- Huck, C. and D. Kuhn. *Children's Literature in the Elementary School* (2nd ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1968.
- McKenzie, M. Schematic learning and reading in Williams, R. (ed.) *Insights into Why and How to Read*. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1976.
- Meigs, C., A. Eaton, E. Nesbitt, and R. Viguers. *A Critical History of Children's Literature* (rev. ed.). New York: The Macmillan Company, 1969.
- Smith, D. *Fifty Years of Children's Books*. Champaign, Illinois: International Reading Association, 1965.

- Sutherland, Z. and M. H. Arbuthnot. *Children and Books* (5th ed.). Glenview, Illinois: Scott Foresman & Company, 1977.
- Wheeler, A. Individualizing instruction in social studies through the use of children's literature. *The Social Studies*, 1971, 62, 162-170.

THE SCIENCE OF READING

John D. Stammer

UNIVERSITY OF TOLEDO, OHIO

Those who teach children to read are continually seeking answers to several questions that will improve their approaches to helping children learn.

“What is the best *method* of teaching reading?”

“What is the best *curriculum* for teaching reading?”

“What is the best *organizational plan* for teaching reading?”

Unfortunately (or perhaps fortunately) teachers usually discover that there is no *best* method, or curriculum, or organizational plan. There is instead a process that works for them as individuals and, critics of reading notwithstanding, most teachers do a commendable job of teaching children to read. Still, it might be worthwhile to offer a different perspective on the art of teaching reading that can assist teachers in their quest for improvement.

“SCIENCE” is a useful acronym that can be used to evaluate any reading program. It stands for success, curiosity, interest, enthusiasm, nurture, challenge and enjoyment. “SCIENCE” can be used to monitor and assess your own program whether it is traditional or eclectic.

Do children have a feeling of SUCCESS? Glasser (1965) has correctly pointed out that what children learn by failing is how to fail. It follows then, that successful experiences can facilitate the learning process by shaping attitudinal values in a positive manner. It is conceivable that a program the teacher perceives as successful does not encourage feelings of success by the student. The probability though is that teacher perceptions of whether children feel successful are somewhat accurate. The value in assessing a program from this perspective then is in determining relative nature of the success. Programs that marginally foster successful attitudes in the child need to be examined to find where they might be improved.

Is their CURIOSITY aroused? A strong basis for learning is the ability to build on experience, but when what the child is expected to learn is already known, little curiosity is generated. It may be true that children come to school full of curiosity but it seems true also that this curiosity is severely diminished after a brief period.

Does the program maintain a high INTEREST level? Like curiosity, interest in what is being undertaken should be high and should stimulate the interest of children. Certainly there may be times when material to be discussed is mundane, but a critical look at such material often permits the teacher to present it in an inventive and imaginative manner. To paraphrase McLuhan, a dull medium likely means a dull message.

Do children feel ENTHUSIASTIC about reading? Several months ago,

I heard a prominent reading person suggest that what is important in reading is that children learn the skills and that it is of no consequence whether or not children enjoy the act of reading. Such a position is without merit from my point of view. Certainly we learn, perhaps master, a number of skills throughout life but those skills we utilize are used because we value them and are enthusiastic about them. Those skills we do not value fall into disuse and get rusty. It does not seem unreasonable to suggest that people who do not enjoy or value reading read less well, certainly less frequently, than those who are enthusiastic about the activity.

Each of the acronym words build on the other and excepting nurture and challenge for a moment, lead to the final question: *Do children really ENJOY the process?* Encouraging and building on success can help students maintain their curiosity, interest, and enthusiasm for reading. Elkind (1975) speaking of early reading mentions the "... dull and unrewarding process of learning to read" (p. 36). Learning to read, reading itself, need not be a dull process and certainly not an unrewarding one. Simply speaking, when we enjoy some activity, we tend to repeat it. It seems this should be a primary reading goal.

Including the elements of nurture and challenge in the acronym is important. No philosophy can be predicated on the suggestion that all one has to do is provide a climate conducive to learning. Therefore, the questions: *Are you NURTURING growth in reading?* (and) *Does the activity provide a CHALLENGE?* are important ones. Nurturing growth is an integral part of any program but when one focuses on the attitudes of children there may be a tendency to ignore this aspect. The idea of making things fun or enjoyable should not presume that activities must be within the child's level of mastery. A challenge must be present, an activity that the child is willing to undertake. Previous success in exploring unknown elements can encourage continued effort to master something new thereby promoting growth and nurturing the ability to read.

The following checklist might be an effective self-assessment device to look at your own reading program.

A PROGRAM VALUE CHECK-LIST

	(5) Always or nearly always	(4) Usually most of the time	(3) Sometimes about half of the time	(2) Seldom infrequently	(1) Never not at all
1. Do kids have a feeling of Success?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. Is their Curiosity aroused?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. Does the program maintain a high Interest level?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

4. Do the children feel Enthusi-
astic about reading? _____
 5. Are you Nurturing growth
in reading? _____
 6. Does the activity provide a
Challenge? _____
 7. Do children Enjoy reading? _____
-

If you have a series of checks below the four or five category, it does not mean that your program is poor. It does suggest that children may not be building very positive attitudes about learning to read, or valuing the skill. It would seem warranted then that teachers who objectively rate students' attitudes somewhat low conduct programs that would likely profit from modification. The change might be curricular, methodological, or organizational, possibly a combination of these strands. Junking a program is not the point, facilitating the improvement of an existing program is the goal.

SOME SUGGESTIONS FOR HOW-TO

SUCCESS:

Shape questions and activities to individual abilities, enhancing the probability that a specific child will be able to respond successfully.

- Accentuate those positive accomplishments of the child.
- Keep and share with the child a record of learning growth.

Design group work that permits children to use their particular strengths.

Encourage peer tutoring. Children typified as less able probably have skill strengths they can share with others.

CURIOSITY:

Keep up to date on the interests of children and attempt to gear activities to those interests.

- Indicate the idea of "finding out more" about a topic, and provide the materials to undertake such activity.
- Pose questions that encourage thought rather than a predictable answer.
- Maintain classroom displays: gadgets, collections, puzzles and similar stimuli children can explore.
- Have a wealth of children's literature available and use some time to read aloud to children from such material.

INTEREST:

- Depart from the traditional reading circle organizational approach and encourage children to read about their interests.
- Exhibit curiosity about the child's interest and be receptive to that interest.
- Search for added topical materials that can help to maintain interest.

- Locate resource persons who might stimulate and encourage interest in a topic.
- Attempt to end activities on a high note, before interest ebbs.

ENTHUSIASM:

- Exhibit personal enthusiasm for the topic at hand.
- Provide intangible rewards such as compliments, growth charts, and communications to parents.

NURTURE:

- Know the instructional level of each child and provide opportunities within that frame.
- Identify particular skills whose mastery provide a demonstrable advantage to the child.

CHALLENGE:

- Encourage the child to venture into the unknown to explore some new aspect of the topic.
- Design materials that begin at the child's mastery level and progress to more difficult stages.
- Provide materials that are related to areas of interest, but are unfamiliar to the child.

ENJOYMENT:

- Develop a classroom environment that children look forward to being part of.
- If the task, whatever it might be called, is busy work – junk it.
- Progress toward an organizational approach that is flexible.
- Vary the curricular and methodological approaches used in the classroom.

REFERENCES

- Elkind, D. "We Can Teach Reading Better." *Today's Education*, Nov. Dec., 1975, pp. 34-38.
- Glasser, W. *Reality Therapy*. New York, Harper & Row, Publishers, 1965.

TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF CHILDREN'S READING MISCUES

Dr. Duane R. Tovey

THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY

Many journal articles, scholarly reports and books have been published regarding miscues and the predictive/communicative nature of the reading process. Few teachers, however, seem to be aware of these more recent research findings which hold highly significant implications for instruction. How many teachers are aware of the predictive/communicative nature of the reading process? How do they feel about reading behavior that does not process each word in a precise exacting manner? Unless teachers are aware of such concepts and incorporate them in their teaching, research efforts become inconsequential.

The purpose of this study, therefore was to determine teachers' perceptions of children's miscues. That is, when teachers from a given school district observe children's miscues, to what degree do they accept those that:

Are syntactically and semantically acceptable?

Reflect dialect differences among readers?

Share graphic and/or sound similarities with the text but are not syntactically and/or semantically acceptable?

To generate data related to these questions the following procedures were used:

1. A survey instrument was constructed containing 60 miscue items related to the questions referred to in the purpose statement of this study. Each item included a sentence of text followed by a miscue sentence representing the way a reader might have read the text. For example:

Text: Cry all you want *to*.

Child

Read: Cry all you want.

The miscues used in the survey instrument were not obtained from readers especially for this study but were patterned after observed responses reported by Goodman and Burke (1972).

2. After reading each item, teachers were asked to judge the acceptability of miscue sentences by checking one of three columns entitled "Acceptable Reading Behavior (Okay)," "Unacceptable Reading Behavior (Not Okay)," or "Sometimes Acceptable Reading Behavior (Sometimes Okay)."

3. The survey instrument was sent to the 94 elementary teachers, grades one through six, in a local school district adjacent to a midwestern city of 55,000 people. Sixty-one teachers (65%) voluntarily completed and returned the survey.

4. The data was categorized and analyzed according to the questions asked in the purpose statement of the study.

The remainder of this article is a discussion and explication of the findings of this study followed by questions of implication.

Do Teachers Accept Miscues That Are Syntactically and Semantically Acceptable?

For purposes of analysis, the four miscue types given in Table 1 were prioritized starting with those miscues teachers found most acceptable proceeding to those found least acceptable.

TABLE 1
Percentages of Teachers Who Judged Syntactically and
Semantically Acceptable Miscues as Acceptable,
Unacceptable or Sometimes Acceptable*
According to Type and Number

Type of Miscue Items	Number of Miscue Items	Percentage of Teachers Who Judged Miscues as Acceptable Reading Behavior (Okay)	Percentage of Teachers Who Judged Miscues as Unacceptable Reading Behavior (Not Okay)	Percentage of Teachers Who Judged Miscues as Sometimes Acceptable Reading Behavior (Sometimes Okay)
Contractions or Word Order	3	77	4	19
Additions or Deletions	7	53	18	29
Substitutions	11	50	18	32
Tense Changes	3	38	24	38
Averages		55	16	29

*Syntactic acceptability refers to language that is grammatical—sounds like English; semantic acceptability refers to the meaning aspect of language—makes sense.

The first category in Table 1 indicates that when the only difference

between the text and the miscue sentence involved the use of contractions and word order, 77% of the teachers responding accepted such reading behavior. These miscues did not seem to alter meaning to any detectable degree.

Table 1 also shows that fewer teachers (53%) accepted miscues involving the addition or deletion of words than they did the first type of miscue listed—probably because the addition or deletion of single words seemed to change meaning more than contractions and/or word order miscues did.

When miscues involved substitutions, Table 1 shows that only 50% of the teachers responding accepted such reading behavior. This, again, probably indicates teachers' sensitivity to the apparent increase in the difference of meaning between the text and this type of miscue and the first two types listed.

The last type of miscue found in Table 1 included three items involving tense changes ($N=3$). Miscues with tense changes were accepted as appropriate reading behavior by only 38% of the teachers responding—again probably due to the degree that such miscues vary from the meaning of the text. This type of miscue seemed to change the meaning of the text most of all, even though such changes would probably not constitute significant differences in most contexts.

In summary, it would appear that most of the teachers responding (55%) accepted miscues which were syntactically and semantically acceptable to the degree that they did not deviate from the precise meaning of the text—assuming standard usage. Table 1 also shows that a significantly greater number of teachers checked "Sometimes Okay" (29%) than checked "Not Okay" (16%). Why did so many teachers check the "Sometimes Okay" column? Did they have linguistically defensible ideas in mind or did such choices reflect a reluctance to judge the acceptability of such miscues? If teachers were reluctant, why did they feel that way? Finally, how do the teachers who checked "Not Okay" (16%) view the reading process? Do they think of reading as precisely processing each segment of print?

Do Teachers Accept Miscues That Reflect Dialect Differences?

The survey items related to dialect were categorized according to the four types of miscues shown in Table 2.

It becomes quite obvious upon perusal of Table 2 that most of the teachers responding did not perceive of miscues reflecting dialect differences as acceptable reading behavior. Interestingly, items categorized as substandard usage were less acceptable than Black dialect (75% versus 65%). Substandard usage miscue items included substitutions such as don't for doesn't, ain't no for isn't, never for ever and so on.

The third type of miscue in Table 2 (Irregular Pronunciations) included the following four substitutions: pitcher for picture, library for library, git for get, and wit for with ($N=4$). Most teachers (59%) failed to accept these pronunciations as appropriate reading behavior.

TABLE 2
Percentages of Teachers Who Judged Miscues Reflecting
Dialect Differences as Acceptable, Unacceptable
or Sometimes Acceptable According to
Type and Number

Type of Miscue Items	Number of Miscue Items	Percentage of Teachers Who Judged Miscues as Acceptable Reading Behavior (Okay)	Percentage of Teachers Who Judged Miscues as Unacceptable Reading Behavior (Not Okay)	Percentages of Teachers Who Judged Miscues as Sometimes Acceptable Reading (Sometimes Okay)
Substandard Usage	8	8	75	17
Black Dialect	8	12	65	23
Irregular Pronunciations	4	11	59	30
Other Dialects	3	26	40	34
Averages		14	60	26

The final category of Table 2 (Other Dialects) included only three survey items ($N=3$). These miscues included *soda* for *pop*, *idear* for *idea* and *strenth* for *strength*. Forty percent of these teachers judged such items as unacceptable, while 26% approved of such reading behavior. It is surprising that after the apparent status attached to the late President Kennedy's pronunciation of *idea* (*idear*) that 56% of the teachers responding failed to accept that particular miscue item as acceptable reading behavior. Maybe *is* was perceived as appropriate speech but unacceptable reading.

The data in Table 2 clearly indicate that most of the teachers responding did not accept miscues related to dialect as acceptable reading behavior (60%). Only 14% accepted such reading patterns. Again, note the substantial percentage of teachers (26%) who checked the "Sometimes Okay" column. Why did so many teachers fail to accept or reject miscues related to dialect? Are these teachers aware of the role a child's language and past experiences play in the reading process?

Why did the teachers surveyed object so strongly to miscues related to dialect? Could it be that such reading behavior is viewed as inferior or wrong rather than as a demonstration of the reader's uncanny linguistic abilities? That is, in order for a dialect reader to derive meaning from standard text, he must not only process the author's language patterns but seemingly must reprocess them in such a way as to match the language used in his own community. For example, when a child who speaks Black Dialect reads, "John went to the movie," he must first process the text according to the author's grammar rules and then reprocess it according to his linguistic rule system resulting in, "John, *he* went to the movie." These linguistic competencies, however, frequently go unrecognized while such reading behavior is judged unacceptable and interpreted as evidence of the need for additional word attack or word recognition instruction.

Divergent language behavior reflects the traditions and customs of particular language communities and not those ordinarily represented in texts and other published materials. Dialects and their related miscues seem to reflect the social isolation and unacceptability of various socio-economic and racial groups rather than linguistic incompetence. Persons within a given social-racial grouping experience few communication problems, but their way of life, customs and traditions which their language symbolizes are often judged unacceptable by the larger community. It's a matter of social acceptability.

Misconceptions related to dialect and reading, not only prevent children from applying their superb language abilities to the task of learning to read, but may also suggest that children coming from different language communities are unable to learn generally.

Do Teachers Accept Miscues that Share Graphic and/or Sound Similarities With the Text?

Another group of miscue items were included in the survey to determine if any teachers were emphasizing the visual and/or sound similarities between the text and miscues to the degree that meaning was not considered important. The data indicated that a negligible number of teachers (2%) accepted miscues that did not sound like English (syntactically unacceptable) and/or make sense (semantically unacceptable). However, a number of teachers (8%) checked "Sometimes Okay." Are such positions defensible or reasonable? Do the teachers responding in these ways view reading as a communicative process? Most of the teachers (90%), though, did not accept miscues which were similar to the text graphically and/or sound-wise but not syntactically and/or semantically acceptable.

Subsequent Questions

What implications do the findings of this study have for reading instruction? Why were the teachers responding so much more reluctant to accept miscues that reflect dialect differences than those in keeping with standard usage? Why did so many of the teachers responding check the "Sometimes Okay" column? What did these teachers have in mind? Are they confused?

This study, as is the case with many research projects suggests more questions than answers. The one finding of this study, however, that appears highly significant regards teachers' negative perceptions of miscues related to dialect. Is it possible not to accept children's language and still view them as worthwhile individuals? When value judgments are made regarding the acceptability of children's language aren't the experiences that such language represents also being judged? In turn, don't such experiences collectively represent who the child is? Sociolinguistic questions such as these seem to suggest that teachers' negative perceptions of miscues related to dialect might have a much more deleterious effect on children's feelings of self-worth than on their reading achievement.

Do teachers' perceptions of miscues related to dialect pertain more to a concern for how such linguistic behavior affects students' reading or to a subconscious attitude toward divergent life experiences which dialects reflect? If the latter is the case will increased intellectual understanding of how such miscues function linguistically in relation to the reading process change teachers' perceptions significantly? Or will such reading behavior be used subconsciously to classify children socially?

In conclusion, it is hoped that this exploratory study will encourage teachers to view reading as a highly complex communicative/language-processing phenomenon. Such a point of view suggests that most miscues do not cause communication problems but constitute legitimate linguistic behavior. Miscues emerge as a reader becomes involved in the process of predicting the thoughts of an author in light of his own particular thoughts and language patterns. Miscues enable a reader to apply his implicit knowledge of language (syntax) and his perceptions of his world (semantics) to the task of decoding print into meaning. However, if reading is viewed as the processing of each segment of print in a precise manner, reading instruction will be restricted to "perfect reading" not fully capitalizing on children's understandings and implicit language abilities which make learning to read possible.

REFERENCES

- Goodman, K. S. "Reading: A Psycholinguistic Guessing Game." *Journal of the Reading Specialist*, 1967, 4, 126-135.
- Goodman, Y. M. + Burke, C. L. *Reading Miscue Inventory Manual*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1972.
- Smith, F. "The Role of Prediction in Reading." *Elementary English*, 1975, 52, 305-311.

DIAGNOSIS—A PART OF CONTENT AREA READING

Martha C. and Earl H. Cheek

LOUISIANA STATE UNIVERSITY

One of the major trends in education is that of relating reading instruction to the content areas. Middle and secondary school content specialists have been asked to incorporate appropriate reading or learning skills into their content teaching. Many content specialists have recognized this need and are attempting to meet the challenge. Much in-service education is being provided to assist these teachers. Additionally, many state certification standards are requiring that pre-service programs provide new content specialists with necessary instruction in teaching reading in their content areas.

Content specialists see their role as that of a teacher of a specific subject area. However, it is important that these specialists also become aware of appropriate reading skills needed to enable the students to learn the content material. This concept of relating reading skills to the content areas becomes more attractive to the content specialists when they are provided practical suggestions which enhance their content teaching. While many ideas on ways to relate the content and reading skills are often provided in pre- and in-service sessions, little information is provided as to how the content specialist is to determine which students need to develop which reading skills. These are common questions asked soon after the content specialist begins to incorporate the necessary reading skills in the content areas.

In addressing this concern, one must remember that the content specialist often teaches as many as 180 students per day. In addition the prime concern is, and should always be, that the student learn the content material. Thus, when it is suggested that content specialists become involved in diagnostic instruction, the procedures given must be explicit and appropriate to the time constraints of the content specialists. The following diagnostic procedures are suggested for use as needed by the content specialist. At no time would all of the procedures be used with all students. The teacher must use them as appropriate to the situation.

Observation: To use observation techniques as a diagnostic tool, the content specialist must use some structured format such as a checklist or anecdotal records. The checklist is the easiest and least time consuming for use in the classroom. The content teacher can informally observe designated students for a few minutes during the classtime over a period of days to note such things as

- rate of reading assignments
- understanding of material read

- skill in oral reading
- classroom participation in discussion
- desire to read assigned or other material
- types of material read during leisure time
- skill in responding to various types of questions
- ability to recognize new words
- variety of vocabulary used

The observation checklist is a beginning step in determining learning difficulties – the teacher gains some insight as to which students may need further testing or special assistance. Observation, however, is only a first step which can be used in arriving at a diagnosis of a reading difficulty that hinders the learning of content material. This first step may provide the content specialist with sufficient information for adjusting instruction in the classroom, determining the need for additional classroom diagnosis, or requesting a more detailed diagnosis from a reading specialist.

Simplified Reading Inventory: Content specialists must know which students can read the textbook and with what degree of accuracy they can read it. Thus an initial step of “trying the materials on for size” is suggested to provide the teacher with an idea of the students’ reading levels as well as their strengths and weaknesses in word recognition and comprehension. This procedure may be used in conjunction with the observation checklist.

The procedure requires that each student read orally to the teacher a short selection from the textbook. Following the oral reading, the teacher asks some questions over the material. More than one oral reading error per twenty words or less than seventy-five percent accuracy in responding to the comprehension questions indicates that the material is too difficult.

Cloze Procedure: Another informal procedure for determining a student’s reading level as well as diagnosing some possible reading difficulties is the cloze procedure. A cloze test is developed by using the textbook or other available material which is unfamiliar to the student. A cloze test is made and administered in the following manner.

1. Select a passage of 250-300 words which is on a level that the student is or should be reading.
2. Check the readability level of the passage using a readability formula such as the Fry Readability Formula (1977).
3. Retype the passage. Beginning with the second sentence, delete every fifth word. Replace each deleted word with a line – keep each line the same length.
4. Make copies of the test for students to complete.
5. Direct the students to fill in each blank with words that they think best completes the sentences.
6. When the students complete the task the papers are scored by counting as correct only those responses which are exactly as in the original selection.

The appropriate scoring criteria is as follows:

58% -100% correct – Independent level

(The student can read at this level with no problems.)

44%-57% correct Instructional level

(Teacher instruction is needed to successfully read at this level.)

0%-43% correct Frustrational level

(No reading should be done at this level.)

(Bormuth, 1968)

The cloze procedure provides an estimate of the level of the material the student can satisfactorily read. There are other diagnostic uses of the cloze procedure. It is a good way to evaluate the students' comprehension. If the student fills in the blank with a totally irrelevant word then the teacher can be relatively sure that the material is not understood. In addition it indicates whether or not the student uses other words in the sentence to assist in figuring out the omitted word. Students who cannot use these context clues have not fully developed their reading skills.

A third use of the cloze procedure is to determine the extent of the students' vocabulary. The teacher may ask the students to list as many words as they can think of which could complete the blank. This indicates to the teacher those students with a very limited vocabulary who will need additional vocabulary study in order to understand content material.

Utilizing the cloze procedure is a good diagnostic procedure for the content teacher since it can be administered to groups of students, thereby minimizing the loss of teaching time in diagnosing, and maximizing the amount of information gained from an instrument.

Informal Reading Inventory: Another diagnostic procedure which content specialists may wish to use with select students who seem to be having much difficulty in reading the content material is the Informal Reading Inventory (IRI). An IRI is a compilation of reading selections at various readability levels with comprehension questions to accompany each selection. This diagnostic tool is administered individually and enables the content specialist to determine the student's specific word recognition and comprehension difficulties while observing both oral and silent reading habits.

Content specialists wishing to use an IRI should ask personnel in the school district if a local inventory is available. An alternative is to purchase a commercially developed IRI from an educational publisher. Because these inventories do not relate to any one content area, the content specialists may prefer to work with the local reading specialist in developing their own IRI.

The IRI is an individually administered test, thus the content specialists may use it with only a few students per year. It is advisable that the content specialist get specific directions for administration and assistance from a reading specialist or an elementary teacher who uses the procedure more frequently. The IRI is, however, one diagnostic tool which should be at the disposal of the content specialist.

Group Reading Inventory: A Group Reading Inventory (GRI) is a procedure by which specific reading skills that are necessary to the concepts

in the content area lesson are diagnosed in a group situation. To utilize a GRI, the content specialist must first identify the concepts or content to be taught during a specified period of time. Then the reading skills which are necessary in order to learn these concepts must be defined. With this information the GRI can be developed.

The GRI should be used to assess those reading skills necessary to learn a certain portion of the content, for example a unit in social studies. For each of the identified reading skills, the teacher should utilize three to five questions to measure the skills. For example, in a unit on the "Second World War: The Pacific Front" the teacher identified the following information.

Concept Generalizations

- To determine the location of Pearl Harbor.
- To understand the meaning of the quote "I shall return."
- To understand the significance of the Battle of the Coral Sea.
- To understand the term "unconditional surrender."
- To realize the impact of the use of the atomic bomb on Hiroshima and Nagasaki.

Reading Skills

- Using the Atlas
- Interpretation
- Cause-effect relationships
- Main idea
- Word meanings
- Prefixes
- Drawing conclusions
- Anticipating outcomes
- Evaluation

For each of the identified reading skills, questions such as the following may be developed.

I. Vocabulary Development

- A. Word Meaning: Directions—Turn to page 30. Write a brief definition of the term "unconditional surrender."
- B. Prefixes: Directions—Turn to page 30. Now that you have defined the term "unconditional surrender," what does the prefix *un* mean?

II. Comprehension

- A. Author's purpose: Directions—Turn to page 25. What does MacArthur mean by the quote, "I shall return"?
- B. Cause-effect relationships: Directions—Turn to page 28. What is the significance of the Battle of the Coral Sea?

- C. Evaluation: Direction— Turn to page 31. How important was the decision to use the atomic bomb on Hiroshima and Nagasaki?
- D. Anticipating outcomes: Directions— Turn to page 32. How has this decision to use the atomic bomb in World War II effected present day relationships between countries?

III. Reference Skills

Using the Atlas: Directions— Turn to the map on page 35.
Locate the Pearl Harbor Naval Base.

Thus the student is asked to read specified materials and to respond to the questions prior to beginning the unit. With information as to each student's knowledge of necessary reading skills, the teacher can determine ways to group to develop the skills and better teach the content.

The GRI should be administered several times during the year as content specialists find it necessary to know the skill strengths and weaknesses of their students. In addition, it is necessary to use materials at varying levels to assess the skills. Usually the textbook may be used with those reading at or above level, a textbook from a little lower level with those who are two or three years below grade level, and an elementary textbook for those much below level. Unless this differentiation is made, the teacher will not know whether the student does not know the skill or just can not read the material!

Criterion-Referenced Tests: The criterion-referenced test is designed to measure what a student knows or can do relative to a specific objective. These tests do not compare one student's performance with that of another. Simple criterion-referenced tests may be developed by the teacher in conjunction with daily class activities. The following procedure may be followed:

1. Specify the objectives or concepts which are to be developed in the lesson. This is the same procedure as outlined in the discussion on Group Reading Inventory.
2. Provide questions and activities which measure the student's understanding of these ideas.
3. Set a specific standard that the students are expected to achieve to indicate a knowledge of the concept.
4. Use these questions and activities in daily teaching exercises.
5. Keep a class checklist containing each student's achievement. Use this as a guide for reteaching.

Content teachers are given large classes of students on many different levels and are expected to teach the students the concepts related to social studies, science, business, or any other area outlined in the curriculum. Many of these students have reading difficulties which prevent them from learning the content material unless some additional teaching is provided. Thus content teachers have been asked to help students learn to read content material. A major step in providing this type of instruction is to know how well the students can read the content material as well as in which areas they seem to be having difficulties. The six informal diagnostic

procedures outlined in this article will assist teachers in becoming more knowledgeable about the specific learning needs of the individual student.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Bormuth, John. "The Cloze Readability Procedure," *Elementary English*, XLV (April 1968): 429-236.
- Fry, Edward. "Fry's Readability Graph: Clarification, Validity, and Extension to Level 17," *Journal of Reading*, XXI (December 1977): 242-252.

A FOOT IN THE DOOR: THE ANNOTATED CHECKLIST

Timothy R. Hornberger

READING CONSULTANT, NEW CASTLE, DELAWARE

Jack Cassidy

MILLERSVILLE STATE COLLEGE, PENNSYLVANIA

The role of the reading specialist has traditionally been perceived as broader in some scope than that of just a remedial teacher. Ideally, the reading specialist becomes a resource upon which all classroom teachers can rely. Some recent evidence (IRA, 1976) seems to support the assumption that this ideal is, at least to some degree, a reality at the elementary level.

Unfortunately, the reading specialist at the secondary level is often unable to function in this resource role. Although authorities in secondary reading generally advocate this resource role (Robinson, 1975; Karlin, 1972), the reading specialist in many secondary schools remains cloistered in a room, teaching small groups of children five or six periods a day.

This situation is particularly unfortunate in the middle school. The middle school student has particular developmental problems in addition to problems associated with the transition from elementary to secondary school (Fillmer, 1975). Undoubtedly these problems have an effect on reading achievement.

In addition, the middle school itself has a number of organizational problems. There is little agreement as to what kind of program the middle school should have. Should it be like the high school? Should it be like the elementary school? Should it be a combination of both? Should it be a distinct program of its own? Besides difference of opinion about a program, there is little agreement as to the grades that should be housed in a middle school. Some schools comprise grades 5 through 8; some grades 6 through 8; some grades 7 and 8; and some grades 7 through 9. Many of these schools, of course, are merely junior highs with changed names (Duffy, 1975).

Reading programs in middle schools also represent a broad spectrum of these organizational patterns and problems. For example, in some middle schools housing grades 5 through 8, one can find a traditional elementary basal program in the fifth and sixth grades and an absence of any formal reading instruction at the seventh and eighth grade levels. In other middle schools, children with reading problems are the only ones to receive reading instruction, and this is all handled by the reading specialist. These differing organizational problems even in the same school coupled with the developmental problems of adolescent youngsters combine to make the role of the middle school reading specialist a particularly difficult one.

Even if the middle school specialist is assigned a resource role, functioning in this manner is often difficult. Classroom teachers and content area teachers often feel threatened by any outside “expert” working in their classrooms. In some cases, involvement of the reading specialist can be facilitated if administrators schedule the reading specialist to work in various classrooms (Cassidy, 1973). More often than not, however, administrators are reluctant to utilize this kind of scheduling. Thus, it is left to the reading specialists to devise their own means of facilitating entry into the classroom.

Annotated Checklist

One way is to distribute an annotated checklist to all teachers describing services that the reading specialist can perform. Classroom teachers then check the services in which they are interested and return the form to the reading specialist. In addition to serving as an excellent entree into teachers’ classrooms, annotated checklists serve other purposes. Certainly, the checklist educates teachers about reading in a non-threatening way. Often, teachers are reluctant to ask questions about reading, fearful that they will sound uninformed or ignorant. Therefore, each item in the checklist is clearly explained in the annotated section of the checklist. Also, all the items in the checklist are practical in nature. Teachers can read the checklist and discover ways to utilize the wide variety of reading activities in their classrooms. Finally, activities on the checklist are designed to benefit all children, not just those students who usually receive extra help in reading.

Figure 1 is a copy of the checklist, and Figure 2 provides a list of references to aid the reading specialist in providing these services. Some of the items on the checklist and bibliography refer to specific tests, but these can easily be replaced with others appropriate for a given situation.

FIGURE 1
ANNOTATED CHECKLIST

Name _____
Room Number _____
Date _____

PLEASE CHECK THE AREA(S) WHERE YOU WOULD LIKE ASSISTANCE FROM THE READING SPECIALIST

- ___1. *Word Recognition Test*
 - a. Individual test. b. takes about 15-20 minutes to administer to each child. c. results will indicate *specific* skills that need to be taught (e.g., blends, short vowels, etc.).
- ___2. *Phonics Inventory*
 - a. Group or individual test. b. takes about 30 minutes to administer. c. results will give you an *in-depth* analysis of specific skills that need to be taught.

- 3. *Word Opposites Test*
 - a. Group test. b. takes about 20 minutes to administer. c. results will tell you where to begin instruction in a *general* way; measures comprehension; will tell you student's *instructional* level.
- 4. *Spelling Inventory*
 - a. Group test. b. takes about 20-30 minutes to administer. c. results will tell you each child's spelling instructional level.
- 5. *Cloze*
 - a. Group or individual test. b. takes about 30 minutes to administer. c. results will give you a reading level in a particular content area (e.g., social studies, science).
- 6. *Standardized Diagnostic Reading Test*
 - a. Group test. b. takes about two hours to administer; should be given in two days. c. results are diagnostic in these areas; auditory vocabulary, phonetic analysis and two levels of comprehension, literal and inferential.
- 7. *Mastery*
 - a. Group test. b. takes about 30 minutes to administer. c. results will tell you if student is ready for the next basal reader in a series.

CURRICULUM

- 1. *Newspaper*
 - a. Group lesson. b. local newspapers delivered to your classroom complete with stock lesson plans and activity cards. c. good for teaching science, social studies, etc. via newspaper. d. good for low students; lots of cutting and pasting activities.
- 2. *Materials*
 - a. High/Interest/Easy vocabulary materials. b. Phonics materials. c. Comprehension materials. d. Other.
- 3. *Directed Reading Thinking Activities (D.R.T.A.)*
 - a. Small group in classroom. b. purpose of D.R.T.A. is to provide motivation for critical thinking during reading.
- 4. *Enrichment Lessons*
 - a. Group lesson. b. games and activities designed to reinforce vocabulary, comprehension and word study.
- 5. *Recreational Reading*
 - a. Group lesson. b. Reading for enjoyment and entertainment. c. will help organize a program; show ways to evaluate and check progress.
- 6. *Survival Reading*
 - a. Group lesson. b. Reading beyond the classroom for "survival" purposes. c. teaches students how to read maps, menus, shop wisely, etc.

- ___7. *T.V. Reading*
 a. Group lesson. b. practical ways to teach reading through television.

GENERAL

- ___1. *Readability*
 a. Means of ascertaining the reading level of your content area materials.
- ___2. *Skills Management System*
 a. Wisconsin, Fountain Valley, etc. b. skills taught in a systematic way. c. skills can be incorporated into any basal series.
- ___3. *Other*
 Please list other ways the reading specialist can assist you.
 A.
 B.
 C.

FIGURE 2

SOME REFERENCES FOR THE ANNOTATED CHECKLIST

TESTING

1. *Word Recognition*
 Botel, Morton. *Botel Reading Inventory*. Word Recognition Test (Rev. Forms A & B) Chicago: Follett Publishing Company, 1970.
2. *Phonics Inventory*
 Miller, Wilma. *Reading Diagnosis Kit*. New York: Center for the Applied Research in Education, 1974.
3. *Word Opposites—Comprehension*
 A. Botel, Morton. *Botel Reading Inventory* Word Opposites Test (Rev. Forms A & B) Chicago: Follett Publishing Company, 1970.
4. *Spelling Inventory*
 Botel, Morton. *Revised Guide to the Botel Reading Inventory*. Chicago: Follett Publishing Co., 1970.
5. *Cloze*
 A. Bortnicks, Robert & Lopardo, Genevieve S. "An Instructional Application of the Cloze Procedure," *Classroom Strategies for Secondary Reading*, edited by W. John Harker, Newark: International Reading Association, 1977.
6. *Standardized Tests*
Stanford Diagnostic Test. Harcourt-Brace Jovanovich, Inc. Test Department, 757 Third Avenue, New York, NY 10017, 1976. Bjorn Karlsen, Richard Madden, Eric F. Gardner.
 Mavrogenes, Nancy A. Winkley, Carol K. Hanson, Earl, Vacca, Richard T. "Concise Guide to Standardized Secondary College Reading Tests" in *Classroom Strategies for Secondary Reading*. Edited by W. John Harker, IRA, 1977.

CURRICULUM

1. *Newspaper*
Chevney, Arnold B. *Teaching Reading Skills Through the Newspaper*. Newark, Delaware: IRA, 1971.
Wilson, Robert M. and Barnes, Marcia M. *Using Newspapers to Teach Reading Skills*, American Newspaper Publishers Association, P.O. Box 17407, Dulles International Airport, Washington, DC 20041, 1975.
2. *Materials* (High/Interest/Easy Vocabulary)
Spache, George D. *Good Reading for Poor Readers*. Champaign, IL: Garrard Publishing, 1974.
3. *Directed Reading Thinking Activity* (D.R.T.A.)
Stauffer, Russell G. *Directing the Reading—Thinking Process*. New York: Harper & Row Publishers, 1964.
4. *Enrichment Lessons*
Forte, Imogene, Frank, Marjorie, Mackenzie. *Kids' Stuff, Reading and Language Experiences Intermediate-Jr. High*. Nashville, TN: Incentive Publications.
5. *Recreational Reading*
Alexander, J. Estil and Filler, Ronald C. *Attitudes and Reading*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association, 1976.
6. *Survival Reading*
Functional Reading: A Resource Guide for Teachers. Volumes 1 and 2, 1975-76. A Publication of the Division of Instruction, Maryland State Department of Education, P.O. Box 8717, Baltimore/Washington International Airport, Baltimore, MD 21240.
Cassidy, Jack. "Survival Reading" *Teacher*, September, 1977, pp. 62-64.
7. *T.V. Reading*
Becker, George J. *Television and the Classroom Reading Program*, I.R.A. Service Bulletin, 1973.

GENERAL

1. *Readability*
Fry, Edward. "Fry's Readability Graph: Clarification, Validity Extension to Level 17," *Journal of Reading*, December, 1977, pp. 242-252.
2. *Skills Management*
The Wisconsin Design for Reading Skill Development, Minneapolis, MN: Interpretive Scoring Systems, 1973.

In the schools in which this checklist has been used an individual conference is scheduled between the reading teacher and the classroom teacher after the checklist has been returned. The purpose of this conference is to answer questions and to arrange a time for the reading specialist to begin.

Results from using this checklist have been encouraging. Of the 50 checklists distributed to teachers in two middle schools, 35 were returned.

Most of the teachers requested assistance in testing and enrichment lessons. Many of these teachers had been unresponsive to previous overtures from the reading specialist. In addition, items on the checklist have served as a base for in-service sessions with classroom teachers.

The Beginning

Certainly, using the annotated checklist is only the first step in the reading specialist's road to functioning as a resource person. Careful follow-through work with all teachers returning the checklist is a definite necessity. However, the checklist does represent a beginning. Perhaps if effective follow-up work is initiated, the middle school reading specialist can become a meaningful component of the entire school's reading program.

REFERENCES

- Cassidy, Jack. "Project C.A.R.E. (Content Area Reading Enrichment)" *Journal of Reading*, 18 (December, 1973): 192-194.
- Duffy, Gerald G. "Current Themes and Problems in Middle School Reading." In *Reading in the Middle School*, edited by Gerald G. Duffy, pp. 2-6. Newark, DE: International Reading Association, 1975.
- Fillmer, H. Thompson. "The Middle School Student and the Reading Program." In *Reading in the Middle School*, edited by Gerald G. Duffy, pp. 16-31. Newark, DE: International Reading Association, 1975.
- Karlin, Robert. *Teaching Reading in High School*. (2nd edition). Indianapolis, IN: Bobbs-Merrill, Inc., 1972.
- Right to Read '76*. Vol. 3, No. 2 (December, 1976). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Robinson, H. Alan. *Teaching Reading and Study Strategies: The Content Areas*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon, 1975.

PRINCIPLES FOR ESTABLISHING EFFECTIVE SECONDARY READING PROGRAMS

Donald C. Cushenbery

UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA-OMAHA

Due to the fact that over 30 states have now mandated competency tests for high school students, there is much general interest across the land with respect to the establishment and maintenance of programs which will help students improve basic reading skills. Understandably, these programs have, and are, taking many forms depending on school finances, leadership, and available time. Unfortunately, in many of these programs there is some evidence that reading is treated as a subject and special reading teachers are hired to teach the students who are considered to be "sick" readers. Frequently, all of the formal reading program activities take place in a single room and content teachers take little responsibility for reading instruction as such since they contend that such teaching is being assumed by the special reading teacher.

The purpose of this article is to make recommendations regarding the manner in which an effective, viable reading curriculum should be established. The items are not listed in any particular priority.

1. *There should be evidence that all content teachers are teaching the reading skills which are unique to their particular areas.* Reading is not a subject such as mathematics or science and cannot be taught apart from content subjects. Reading is a body of skills and every secondary teacher must see himself or herself as a reading teacher. Particularly unique to any content area is the vocabulary which deals with that subject. For example, such words as "chlorophyll," "photosynthesis," and "hydrogen" should be taught by the science teacher as part of the regular class session. The skill of understanding and applying sequence of events should be properly promoted by the social studies and science teachers. Critical reading skills such as the identification of propaganda techniques should probably be stressed in both of the areas of language arts and social studies.

Reading skills cannot and should not be taught in isolation. Competencies in all segments of reading should be the responsibility of all teachers who use printed matter as a tool of instruction. A reading specialist should be available to help with those students who have severe learning problems and cannot profit from the usual classroom instruction.

2. *Meaningful in-service should be provided for all faculty members to upgrade their reading instructional skills.* Since all faculty members

have varying levels of ability with respect to teaching reading skills, a careful analysis should be undertaken to determine which teachers need help in such areas as vocabulary, word analysis, comprehension, and study skills instruction. A list of basic competencies could be formulated and each teacher should be helped to determine his or her individual strengths. Modules could be developed in each of the areas for use with groups of instructors who desire aid in a particular area. Any and all in-service should be based on the individual and collective needs of faculty members. Total group instruction with lecture formats should not be emphasized since the instructional needs of teachers tend to vary considerably. A continuous plan of evaluation of the sessions should be in evidence at all times.

3. *The secondary reading program which is established should be a logical part of a K-12 skills and competencies sequence that is applicable for the total school district. Reading instruction should not stop at grade four or grade six.* Students need help with the important developmental skills of such aspects as content clues, use of advanced level dictionaries, interpretative comprehension levels, and specialized study skills. The contents of a well devised school-wide reading curriculum should reflect which competencies should be accomplished at the various learning and grade levels from K-12. All secondary teachers should be very conversant with the elementary skills sequence and develop an understanding with respect to how they can plan their lessons to help students gain competency in desired skilled areas at the secondary levels. Some of these skills are unique to certain subject areas whereas others are common to all subjects.
4. *All secondary reading programs should make instructional provisions for meeting the needs of students with widely varying reading abilities.* A survey of reading achievement test results of any large group of secondary students indicates that the instructional reading levels of students may range from as low as grade four to as high as the university graduate level. Because of this condition, no one textbook or common mode of instruction will be useful or practical for all students. Secondary teachers must make provision for these students by using multi-level textbooks; providing modified study guidebooks; making various reading and writing assignments; and establishing ability track classes for students with very low or very high reading ability levels. A special reading laboratory or clinic should be established for use by those students who are especially deficient in basic reading skill areas. Honors classes and opportunities for enrollment in university classes should be made available for those students who are gifted with regard to reading skill development.
5. *The costs of the program should be reasonable and defensible for the number of students who are served.* A careful cost analysis should be made of the type of reading laboratory which should be constructed for the students who need help in reading skills. Since students learn best through the use of techniques and materials representing many learn-

ing modalities, there should be a direct effort made to provide for a wide variety of materials of both software and hardware types. Emphasis should be given to those aids which are nonconsumable and can be used with many different types of students. High cost hardware items which have very limited instructional objectives should receive intensive evaluation. Attention should be given to the low cost development of reading skills boxes which may be constructed from workbook skill sheets that have been laminated. In all cases the materials and teaching tools should correlate with the exact skill needs of the students who will use the laboratory or clinic.

6. *A well constructed reading program should receive both periodic as well as continuous evaluation to determine if the total offerings are producing desired results in terms of student reading achievement.* Assuming that a list of short-term and long-term objectives is built for the reading program, a series of informal and formal devices should be utilized to evaluate such aspects as reading competencies of students, attitudes of learners, and teacher perceptions of the program. At the beginning of the school year an attitude inventory could be administered to both students and teachers regarding what they expect from an effective reading program. At the close of the school year a follow-up instrument could be administered to determine if progress has been made with respect to positive changes in attitudes. Pre and post reading achievement testing using the *Nelson-Denny* or some similar test could lend data with respect to skill development of students. For preciseness in the evaluative process, an evaluative device should be listed for each program objective.
7. *There should be ample evidence that there has been some type of community involvement in the construction, implementation, and evaluation of the reading program.* Because the graduates of the school system become working members of the local community, the involvement of community leaders in the development and evaluation of reading program objectives would seem to be both natural and practical. For example, the mandating of competency tests by local and state boards of education is a procedure whereby community leaders indicate to both students and teachers what reading and language skills they think are important and necessary. Parents of students should be asked to help to develop objectives in order to insure a close cooperation of both the home and school in moving to common goals. There is sufficient evidence to support the principle that there will be much more support and less criticism of the secondary reading program if there is a common understanding among all parties regarding the total reading curriculum.

Summary

The establishment of an effective secondary reading program which serves the needs of students is based on at least seven basic principles which are described in this article. All programs should give evidence that (a)

reading is treated as a body of skills, not a subject; (b) meaningful individualized in-service is provided for teachers; (c) reading instruction is perceived as a K-12 curriculum; (d) the instruction is prescribed for individual students based on their instructional needs; (e) the costs of the program are logical and defensible; (f) there is continuous program evaluation; and (g) community involvement is a part of the development of the program.

REFERENCES

1. Hafner, Lawrence E. *Developmental Reading in Middle and Secondary Schools*. New York: MacMillan Publishing Company, Inc., 1977. Section 1.
2. Roe, Betty D., Stoodt, Barbara D., and Burns, Paul C. *Reading Instruction in The Secondary School*. Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing Company, 1978. Chapter 12.
3. Shepherd, David L. *Comprehensive High School Reading Methods*. Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1973. Chapter 1.

BLACK STUDENTS GET AN EDGE IN READING

Barbara C. Palmer
Lawrence E. Hafner
THE FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY

The purpose of this article is not so much to report that minority children are having trouble in learning to read – all kinds of children are for that matter – but to point out that with the proper kind of instruction black children can do as well as other children. Consider briefly the findings of a few research studies documenting contentions about the reading acquisition problems that numbers of black children have.

In 1968, Harris, Morrison, Gold and Lerner reported the results of their three-year study (CRAFT Project) of primary-grade reading instruction with 2,000 disadvantaged black children in New York City. At the beginning of first grade the median reading-readiness score was at the 20th percentile on national norms.¹

Downing, et. al., noted that in a junior high school located in a black slum-ghetto section of New York City the mean reading score at the beginning of grade seven was 4.8 grade placement. Only 18 percent of the black pupils were at or above grade level.²

In 1970, Lewis, Bell and Anderson found that blacks of junior high ages (compared to whites) scored lower in several tests of symbol substitution – tests of learning or perceptual-motor speed – and in reading, but higher in the Myklebust Picture Language Story Test.³ The findings of this study imply that perhaps the language of black children is not so deficient as some people think.

Cohen and Cooper have noted the following about the language of black children:

1. It is the school's hostile atmosphere rather than a lack of verbal facility that makes it appear that urban black children are less verbal.
2. Studies show much (rather than little) verbal interaction in the lower class family.
3. Black English is a sophisticated language system, not an inferior form of standard English.
4. The school's requirement that the child translate from black English to standard in order to communicate with his/her teacher results in a communication breakdown.
5. This child's vocabulary is certainly sufficient for initial reading acquisition.
6. Training designed to improve the oral language of these pupils does not affect power in reading.

7. The few articulation and auditory discrimination problems that exist among these pupils can usually be overcome by training.⁴

If it is not language that makes the difference in reading achievement of disadvantaged pupils, what is it? Is it the instructional materials? Is it the methods? Is it the teacher? Bond and Dykstra, in their review of the First Grade Studies of the sixties, concluded that the teacher makes the difference in first grade reading achievement. However, there were indications that there are facets such as the desirability of introducing words at a rapid pace and encouraging pupils to write symbols as they learn to recognize and associate them with sounds that tend to produce children with superior word recognition abilities at the end of grade one.⁵

Teachers are important, as Bond and Dykstra asserted, but first one needs to show what happens to the child who is given systematic, sequential instruction by the teacher but not at a rate nor of the type that permits mastery of the material before having new material introduced. Second, reference will be made to an experimental study that has solved some of the problems that have been raised.

What is happening *in* grade one to the child who does not progress well? (1) Often s/he is the child who has been started in reading before s/he could handle it. (2) Cumulative deficits, so deleterious to self-concept and progress in reading, build up under the following all-too-common, non-mastery conditions:

<i>New Words in Lesson</i>	<i>Number Not Learned</i>	<i>Cumulative Deficit</i>
5	2	-2
3	2	-4
4	2	-6
3	2	-8

So after only four lessons 8 of 15 words are not learned. It is not very long before this child becomes the stigmatized child who doesn't fit, who develops a poor self-concept, and who is so non-fluent that s/he cannot fit the pieces together to develop any meaning whatsoever. This child needs instruction that is meaningful and that is paced so that s/he can handle the tasks systematically.

What happens in grade two? Is the child placed at her/his level? Is the child put into materials s/he has some control of what s/he is learning? Is the child put into materials that have been shown by research to be efficacious? The answer to these questions for too many children is "evidently not" or we would not have so many children in such dire straits and so many older students and young adults who are functionally illiterate.

There are two definitive pieces of research executed since the First Grade Studies to show how black children can learn to read. In 1972, Briggs (Palmer) conducted an experimental study among rural disad-

vantaged black and white children.⁶ The subjects were first and second grade males and females from a rural community in Northern Florida.

During the three-month period of instruction the experimental group used *The Sound Reading Program*,⁷ a set of linguistic programmed materials that consists of a series of eight work texts in which decoding and comprehension books are odd-numbered and even-numbered, respectively.

The experimental groups worked through the materials sequentially, each child at her/his own pace. The control group continued in the regular ongoing reading programs, materials including several basal series as well as work books, ditto sheets, and some teacher-made materials.

Although there was no evidence found in this particular experiment to indicate that the treatment was differentially effective for grade one, the study did support the treatment effect for grade two in both comprehension and word recognition. The first two salient findings were emphasized by Briggs (Palmer) in her original report, but the significance of the third finding had not been underscored previously. The salient findings are:

1. The experimental group had significantly higher scores on the *Sound Reading Test: Vocabulary** than did the control group ($F=8.37$, $df=1, 73$, $p<.01$).
2. The experimental group had higher scores on the *Gilmore Oral Reading Test* (Comprehension) than did the control group ($F=4.18$, $df=1, 72$, $p<.05$).
3. In the experimental group, which utilized *The Sound Reading Program* (SRP), there was a significant disordinal interaction of race and experimental-control treatment ($F=4.04$, $df=1, 72$, $p<.05$). Scores on the dependent variable, the *Gilmore Oral Reading Test* (Accuracy), were significantly greater for black pupils under the experimental condition and for white pupils under the control condition.

In essence, Briggs (Palmer) concluded that *The Sound Reading Program* was more effective with rural disadvantaged children in the second grade than was the eclectic method and that black children did much better than expected.

In 1974 Morgan used the same materials as the core reading program to teach reading acquisition and reading improvement skills to black and white urban disadvantaged youth in a federally financed program in Albany, Georgia.⁹ The program proved to be cost effective; it yielded good results and did so more economically than the programs used previously with those students. This exemplary program, so designated by the U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, is still in operation.

Why could the black children in these two studies relate to the ex-

*All 50 words on the SRP Vocabulary Test are found in the Harris-Jacobson Vocabulary List—49 on the Core List and one on the Additional List.⁸ Since the range of instructional materials in the SRP is from pre-primer to grade four, one would expect a range of vocabulary difficulty. Ninety percent of the words on the test fell between pre-primer level and grade four level, inclusive. The other ten percent were at the fifth and sixth grade levels.

perimental instructional materials? Careful observations point to the following reasons:

1. The language was not quite so formal as in some programs.
2. The cartoon illustrations touched their sense of humor.
3. The stories were about real life family and work-a-day world situations. The two white families and the black family cooperated in many endeavors to improve their families and the community in which they lived.
4. The children could get deeply involved:
 - a. They wrote responses and read responses. (Also, the first grade studies showed that programs that encouraged people to write symbols as they learned them and associated them with sound were more effective.)
 - b. Contrary to the case in many self-instructional programs, the children did not use the materials incorrectly; for example, they did not cheat.
 - c. The children could move as rapidly as they wanted to. (Remember the First Grade Studies that showed the advantage of rapid pacing—where children can master the material, too, as they go along.)
5. The experimental methods/materials are psychologically sound:
 - a. The pupils learned the construction of the word.
 - b. They read through the entire word for cues, not neglecting the middle part of the word.
 - c. They were able to use context cues and graphophonic cues.
 - d. Because of the use of the modified cloze procedure in the comprehension books, the readers were “forced” to demand meaning and, therefore, predict meaning.

The implications of the research cited in this article for curriculum planning are very clear:

1. There is available psychologically and socio-culturally sound reading material that research and hands-on experience show to be effective in teaching reading acquisition skills to culturally disadvantaged—rural and urban—black and white students.
2. Curriculum planners are encouraged to take into consideration in their planning of reading programs the findings and conclusions set forth in this article.

REFERENCES

1. Albert J. Harris and Edward R. Sipay, *How to Increase Reading Ability*. (New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1975), p. 297.
2. *Ibid.*, p. 296.
3. F. D. Lewis, D. B. Bell, and R. F. Anderson, “Reading Retardation: A Bi-Racial Comparison,” *Journal of Reading*, XIII (March, 1970), 433-36, 474-78.

4. S. Alan Cohen and Thelma Cooper, "Seven Fallacies: Reading Retardation and the Urban Disadvantaged Beginning Reader," *The Reading Teacher*, XXVI (October, 1972), 38-45.
5. Guy L. Bond and Robert Dykstra, "The Cooperative Research Program in First-Grade Reading Instruction," *Reading Research Quarterly*, 11 (Summer, 1967), 5-142.
6. Barbara C. Briggs (Palmer), "The Effectiveness of *The Sound Reading Program* with the Culturally Disadvantaged," (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, The Florida State University, 1972), passim.
7. Edwin H. Smith, C. Glennon Rowell, and Lawrence E. Hafner, *The Sound Reading Program* (Waco, Texas: Educational Achievement Corporation, 1972).
8. Albert J. Harris and Milton D. Jacobson, *Basic Elementary Reading Vocabularies* (New York: Macmillan, 1972), passim.
9. Virginia R. Morgan, "A Cost Study Analysis of Measured Gains in a Reading Program Utilizing Individualization of Instruction," (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, The Florida State University, 1974), passim.



PROFESSIONAL CONCERNS

R. Baird Shuman

EDITOR

Collett B. Dilworth, Jr.

CONTRIBUTOR

LITERATURE, COMPETENCY TESTING, AND THE BASIC SKILLS

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

In the contribution which follows, Collett B. Dilworth, Jr., of the English Department at East Carolina University, gets to the very heart of why literature is taught in schools. He broaches the question of how literary study relates to the basic skills, and he ties his rationale in with questions of accountability and its handmaiden, competency testing. Probably the heart of Dilworth's argument is in his statement, "The student of literature is not primarily looking for information, s/he is looking for experience."

Dilworth defends literature – and by extension all of the other arts in the curriculum – on the basis that they "can serve the basic skills by providing a very powerful incentive for their mastery." Few would disagree with this contention. Certainly the justification for the mastery of basic skills is not in the mastery itself, but in the experiences which competence in these skills will make possible and would promote.

Addressing the goals of the literature curriculum has never been a simple task in the public schools, and as the demands to perfect "basic" literacy increase, this task becomes more problematic than ever. Evidently proposals to foster students' literary insight and discrimination, and to deepen and broaden their enjoyment of imaginative experience do not seem so compelling to curriculum planners as do proposals to treat student skill

at discerning context clues and at identifying main ideas. Such an outlook is understandable in light of strong new public convictions about the priorities of schooling. In some cases, even the students themselves express doubt concerning the time they spend reading literature, for at the end of their curriculum tunnel they see only one thing: a legally mandated competency test which has nothing to do with poetry or short stories.

Language arts educators today thus find that if they are to teach literature, they not only must confront the perennial problem of developing student interest but must also demonstrate literature's curricular relevance. Of course, students who have been "hooked on books" in wide reading programs do, by their very reading, manifest the achievement of basic reading skills. Yet teachers are often not allowed to use such *prima facie* evidence as proof of curricular effectiveness. "Just exactly what *do* they get from this literature anyway?" a parent and school board member asked me once. She was mostly concerned with the pitfalls of studying values, but she also wanted me to cite some sort of explicit knowledge or insight, some specifically useful awareness mastered by students of literature in our schools. The more I tried to explain, the more nebulous and disappointing my explanation became.

Later we cleared up the matter by examining some papers written by high school students who were comparing the values of protagonists and antagonists in their literature anthology. The students appeared to have become aware of a certain selflessness which tended to characterize the most sympathetic heroes. Here indeed was evidence of socially significant insight, of specific knowledge. On reflection, however, I find that we should not have been satisfied just with social fulfillments of the literature curriculum, for literature requires responses quite different from those required by other school subjects like social studies and even developmental reading.

This difference is revealed in the fact that literature is art, and its function in the curriculum is devolved from aesthetics not science. The student of literature is not primarily looking for information, s/he is looking for experience. The pedagogic issues faced by the literature teacher, therefore, concern the optimum means of eliciting imaginative experience and coherent response to this experience, not the optimum means of imparting knowledge. And if the literature curriculum is thus seen as one of process rather than content, it must also be seen to differ from other skills curricula (such as the developmental reading curriculum) in that it fosters not the processes of intellection, but the processes of exhilaration.

Where then are we led in our search for literature's pertinence to today's accountable curricula? If we acknowledge that literary exhilaration depends at least in part on decoding and intellection, we find ourselves drawn to the conclusion that literature can serve the basic skills by providing a very powerful incentive for their mastery. Valid literary experiences are available even to the developmental remedial reader as we find in several publishers' materials, especially those of Scholastic Publishers. Consider, therefore, how much more compelling is the motivation of the developmental reader whose imagination has been

liberated by literary experience than is the motivation of the developmental reader whose imagination has been confined to the seeking of right answers.

In fact we may find an embodiment of such motivation in the title of this journal. The reading student who lacks experience in literature is like a person ambling in a closed corridor; he lacks a promising horizon. Surely one of the most basic services we can offer our students is to show them the way outside, to help them achieve the invigoration of the outdoor traveller, to reveal to them the limitless horizons of literature. Surely reading teachers who lack this goal suffer from horizons as unpromising as those of their students.

BOOK REVIEW

Eleanor Buelke

Gaylin, Willard

Feelings:

Our Vital Signs

New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1979. Pp. xiv + 254.

Feelings . . . are testament to our capacity for choice and learning. Feelings are the instruments of rationality, not—as some would have it—alternatives to it. Because we are intelligent creatures—meaning that we are freed from instinctive and patterned behavior to a degree unparalleled in the animal kingdom—we are capable of, and dependent on, using rational choices to decide our futures. Feelings become guides to that choice.

In this book, Dr. Gaylin deals with feelings as messages to the cognitive processes. As such, they may be used by teachers as an important part of learning guides to decide and to determine behavior, “fine tunings” directing ways of meeting and manipulating environments. Here, for purposes of analysis and discussion, he has divided the wide range of feelings into three groups: those giving direction toward individual survival and the obligations of group living; those serving to warn that there is a depletion or malfunctioning of the life resources; and those acknowledging a meaning to life beyond mere survival, one that includes pleasure, goodness, and joy.

Using these general categories, the author has organized this text into Part I, Signals for Survival: Serving Self and Group; Part II, Caution Signals: The Center Is Not Holding; and Part III, Signals of Success: Reaching Out and Moving Up. In Part I, he discusses feeling anxious, feeling guilty, feeling ashamed, and feeling proud. In Part II, he writes about feeling upset, feeling tired, feeling bored, feeling envious, and feeling used. In Part III, he is concerned with feeling touched (and hurt), feeling moved, feeling good, and feelings as responses related to the broader aspect of emotions. Throughout the entire book, he maintains the theme that feelings, no matter what kind they are, need not be obstacles to happiness and productivity. Rather, if they are heeded, trusted, and understood, they become keys to harmony and pride in the whole area of living and creating a satisfying life, for oneself and others.

In writing about feelings as signals for survival, for self and the group, this author provokes thought with some interesting statements about the usefulness of such signals and the significance of their mis-use, or corruption. He questions whether one's inner feelings always have

legitimate claim to public expression. He suggests that public displays of bad temper, foul language, and ill-humor might be forms of littering and contamination of the environment. Perhaps, responsibility to the social unit, and personal dignity as well, call for a certain evasion and reserve. Because the human life is not a predictable, fixed, instinctual life, individuals must always endure *feelings of anxiety* for the privilege of freedom. Because humans depend upon the social good for survival, *guilt feelings* become the guardian of goodness to others. Similarly, *feelings of shame* can be guides to better selves, and insure safety of individuals by supporting the group upon which all depend. Because man is capable of desiring and appreciating intrinsic rewards, *feelings of pride* and pleasure in achievement support developing independence in the human young, and enable them to move toward accomplishments and gratifications of maturity that extend "the meaning of *human* survival beyond the mere perpetuation of a biological shell."

The feelings Gaylin calls caution signals serve as alerting mechanisms, as indices of levels of functioning. *Feeling upset* warns that one is particularly vulnerable to events that may cause one to lose control. Expressions of *feelings of being tired* are more likely to refer to a psychological state that signals vulnerability to depression than to a purely physical state. They may indicate that it is time to strive, to push, to expand one's life, to stretch one's potential a little further. *Feeling bored* is interpreted as a call to action, a rapping for attention to the quality of one's life, and for applying the greatest antidote to boredom: new mastery of new learnings. Recognizing *feelings of envy* alerts one to a situation of growing alienation from common purposes and shared joys and achievements with others. When the self is used, or given, with pride and pleasure, a sense of self-worth is built and enhanced; but, if one's intelligence, creativity, companionship, or love should be taken away, or exploited by others, without regard for one's person, *feelings of being used* result. To read this signal accurately requires understanding the context of the use. To be of service in the context of love is appropriate and allows for generosity of spirit, accompanied by generation of self-esteem.

The signals for success are largely positive feelings, pointed toward life's meaning, not its mere survival. *Feeling touched* is possible only within the frame of reference of human contacts and caring relationships. "People need people not simply to survive but to embroider and enrich that survival." The deeper, more intense *feeling of being moved* is related more often to certain events, sensations, concepts, and abstractions. It is a reminder that beneath the simple experiences of routine existence lie symbolic meanings that are the nascence of wonder, elation, and joyous encounters with life. There follows, then, the combination of intelligence and sensate pleasure, the learning experience, an enlargement of self, which yields the specific qualities of *feeling good*. That "sense of good feeling, whether exploited for other purposes or enjoyed directly, is the sole support of the value of living in this world."

No student or teacher, no one, lives entirely within the real world. All

live in spaces of their own, and their responses to the world they perceive are dominated by feelings. The challenge to grasp the value of these directives, to help students understand and trust these signals, thrusts teachers directly into encounters which develop their own humanity day-by-day in their work.

Feelings are internal directives essential for human life. In addition, and not just in passing, they are their own rewards. They are the means and the ends. All goodness and pleasure must be ultimately perceived in the realm of feelings. It is in the balance of small passions of daily existence that we measure and value our lives.

QUICK REVIEWS

R H Staff

Classroom Discipline: Case Studies and Viewpoints by Sylvester Kohut, Jr., and Dale G. Range. Published by National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1979, 112 pp.

This book is presented in two vastly different parts. The first fifty pages are devoted to an account of our growing concern with the need for better classroom discipline. In the second part we find cases describing the results of bad parenting, ethnic and cultural confusion, effects of our increased materialism, and even cases for the school psychologist and the local law enforcement agencies. Statistics alone in the first part are sufficient to cause misgivings in all but the most resolute prospective teachers. Vandalism and property damage alone, for example, are estimated to be \$600 million annually, to say nothing of the psychological and physical harm that teachers risk.

The sixty-four pages which constitute the second part contain case-studies which do little to serve the concerned interest of teachers who want answers to real problems. A case study presented in one paragraph cannot truthfully be called a study. Nor can the real problems of students who disrupt classrooms be solved by a text that asks discussion questions. Experience in various kinds of educational challenge, including "reform" school, prompts the reviewer to note that discipline is not something we can study, as if it were a body of knowledge. The situation that requires the correct decision or action by the teacher is usually like lightning or some other sudden natural phenomenon. The discipline situation is something that explodes or erupts or comes down like a sudden storm. If the teacher has not *lived* with these possibilities, has not considered each student's potential for good *and* bad, *in advance*, then (s)he has simply not prepared for sudden expressions of resentment. Education in the classroom must be based on mutual trust, and the farther one moves up in grade level the more important this attitude becomes to the relationship between the teacher and the learner. We might add a final question to the discussion questions of Part II: If the teacher has not built trust into the classroom atmosphere, how can learning take place?

Practical Communication Skills. New Readers Press, Publishing Division of Laubach Literacy International, Box 131, Syracuse, New York 13210.

To help students function in a complex world full of technology, three texts about telephones, personal communication, and filling out forms are made available to students of about fifth to sixth grade

reading ability. For each text there is a separate, consumable student workbook called the *Skills Practice*. Teachers' Manuals accompany the set.

Persons of all ages may learn tips and ideas in the practical areas of calling long distance (time zones and charges), writing formal and informal letters (invitations and applications), and ubiquitous forms (consumer survival). Interest and ease of reading are special assets.

It seems fair to say that adequate use of these kinds of lessons, applied to everyday life in urban America, will help to smooth out some of the rough spots in the ways that we communicate. One of the major reasons for the deterioration of courtesy in communication in the United States ("Rudeness an Epidemic in the Land" U.S. News & World Report, June 25, 1979, p. 41) is ignorance in how to relate to others.

Slack, Robert C., and Beekman W. Cottrell, *WRITING A PREPARATION FOR COLLEGE COMPOSITION*, second edition. Glencoe Publishing Co., Inc., Encino, California. 1978. 198 pps.

Slack and Cottrell's *Writing—A Preparation for College Composition* is an easy to read, simple approach to acquiring good basic writing habits. While prepared for beginning college students, the book could be easily adapted for high school writing classes also.

The purpose of the book is to teach differing writing styles. Grammar especially as applied to writing skills, is taught as the writing process is developed. However, because of the scope of the book, it is sometimes vague and confusing in defining terminology regarding grammatical and literary terms. Much grammatical knowledge is presupposed on behalf of the students.

The book's format is well-laid out with an example-critique-practice-rewrite-critique approach. This is easy for a student to follow and make comparisons to. The teacher will find this book an easy one to supplement with further examples, discussions and activities.

Savage, John F., and Mooney, Jean F., *Teaching Reading to Children with Special Needs*. Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 470 Atlantic Avenue, Boston, MA 02210. 1979. 395 pps.

Teaching Reading to Children with Special Needs is a comprehensive, well written introduction to both reading theory and practical application in the classroom.

While intended for classroom teachers, the book is well worthwhile for the preservice teacher in training. Even "special teachers," i.e., reading teachers, learning disabilities teachers and special

education teachers will find this work timely and rewarding.

Authors Savage and Mooney have integrated today's newer movements in reading theory including psycholinguistics and in educational mainstreaming with explanations of past movements and practices. They carefully point out that no one magic formula has ever been found for teaching reading and that teachers are wise to take an integrated approach.

The easy to read format includes both chapter previews and conclusions. Activities for both the preservice and inservice teacher are included at the end of chapters. References to major works are additional attractions.

This work would, of course, make an excellent text. However, it would also be a book that any teacher or student of reading could study on their own for personal professional enrichment.

AUTHOR INDEX

Adams, Jillone, 1:87, 2:182
Allington, Richard, 2:143
Axelrod, Jerry, 3:232
Ball, Howard G., 2:169
Ball, Sarah B., 2:169
Blachowicz, Camille, L. Z., 1:71
Braun, Carl, 1:44
Briggs, L. D., 2:147
Buelke, Eleanor, 1:89, 2:166,
3:197, 4:332
Carey, Robert F., 3:228
Cassidy, Jack, 4:315
Chall, Jeanne, 1:85
Cheek, Earl H., 4:308
Cheek, Martha A., 4:308
Cunningham, Patricia, 3:222
Cushenbery, Donald C., 1:40,
2:162, 3:245, 4:320
Davis, Michael D., 2:115
Dishner, Ernest K., 1:78
Dunn, Sharon, 4:276
Fairweather, Peter G., 1:71
Galen, Nancy, 4:280
Grady, Joan B., 3:193
Gray, Mary Jane, 4:292
Groff, Patrick, 2:134
Haase, Ann Marie B., 1:29
Hafner, Lawrence, 4:324
Haggard, Martha Rapp, 3:200
Harker, W. John, 1:7, 3:217
Hill, Charles H., 1:61
Hopkins, Carol J., 1:75
Hornberger, Timothy R., 4:315
Howell, Helen, 3:237
Hunter, Dianne, 3:189
Johns, Jerry L., 3:235
Koenke, Karl, 2:112
McCormick, Sandra, 2:130, 3:208
McKenna, Michael, 4:284
Mack, Faite, Royjier P., 1:53
Marshall, Frances, 2:151
Moe, Alden J., 1:75
Muia, Joseph A., 2:115
Ngandu, Kathleen M., 2:123, 4:

Palmer, William S., 3:240, 4:324
Plummer, Bonnie C., 3:248
Prendergast, John F., 2:128, 4:280
Readence, John E., 1:78
Robinson, Richard D., 1:29, 4:
Robinson, Sandra, 1:23
Russell, Donovan, 2:101
Schnell, Thomas R., 1:34
Schubert, Delwyn G., 2:159
Shuman, R. Baird, 1:85, 2:159,
3:240, 4:329
Skelton, Sherri, 2:147
Smith, Laura, 1:12, 2:103
Stammar, John D., 4:298
Strange, Michael, 2:143
Thompson, Mark E., 3:248
Titus, Mary Ellen, 1:82
Tovey, Duane, 4:302
Vacca, Jo Anne, 2:139
Weaver, Constance, 1:12, 2:103
Wilson, La Visa, 1:82

TITLE INDEX

- Aid for the School Principal: Evaluate Classroom Reading Programs, 2:130
- Beginning Reading A Continuing Debate, 3:240
- Beginning Reading Without Readiness: Structured Language Experience, 3:222
- Black Students Get an Edge in Reading, 4:324
- A Boost for the "Basics" Through Children's Literature, 1:44
- Bringing Children and Books Together, 4:292
- Children Get Ready to Read, 2:115
- Children's Recognition of Words in Isolation and in Context, 2:134
- Cloze Encounters of a Different Kind, 3:228
- Communications Across Four Generations, 1:82
- A Computer-Assisted Pre-Service Program in Reading, 1:71
- Content Area Textbooks—Waste Not . . . , 1:23
- Content Reading: Past. Present! Future?, 1:78
- Critical Reading and Today's Adolescent, 1:40
- Diagnosis—A Part of Content Area Reading, 4:308
- Drill Versus Discovery: The Effects On Student Attitudes, 1:61
- Effective Procedures for Teaching Reference Study Skills, 3:245
- Elementary Students' Definitions of Reading, 4:272
- Enlarging the Perspective, 3:189
- A Foot in the Door: The Annotated Checklist, 4:314
- Game Books for Reading Instruction, 1:75
- The Gifted Student in the Intermediate Grades, 4:276
- Identifying the Basic Elements of Critical Reading, 1:21
- The Illiteracy Concept: Defining the Critical Level, 1:53
- Inferential Aspects of the Cloze Task, 4:284
- Implications from Psycholinguistics for Secondary Reading, 3:217
- Issues and Trends: IRA National Conventions: 1962-1977, 2:123
- Minimal Competencies in Reading for Secondary Content Teachers, 2:143
- New Materials, 1:87, 2:182
- Organizing Observable Reading Behavior, 2:112
- Overskill, 2:128
- Peer-Tutoring: Learning Boon or Exploitation of the Tutor?, 3:237
- Perceptions of Reading Instruction, 1:7
- Principles for Establishing Effective Secondary Reading Programs, 4:320
- Professional Concerns, 1:85, 2:159, 3:240, 4:329
- Providing for the Older Reader in the College Reading Program, 1:29
- A Psycholinguistic Look at the Informal Reading Inventory Part I: Looking at the Quality of Readers' Miscues, 1:12
- A Psycholinguistic Look at the Informal Reading Inventory Part II: Inappropriate Inferences from an Informal Reading Inventory, 2:103
- Quick Reviews, 1:91, 2:178, 3:256, 4:335
- Reading Assessment—The Third Dimension, 3:235

- Reading—Do We Need to Know What it is Before We Try to Teach It?, 3:212
- A Reading Checklist for the Principal, 3:208
- Reading Research: What Difference Does It Make?, 4:267
- Remedial College Freshmen English Students: Description and Characteristics, 3:248
- Remedial Reading Programs for Secondary Students, 2:162
- Science Fiction: The Future in the Classroom, 3:193
- The Science of Reading, 4:298
- Selling Reading, 4:280
- Social Readiness: The Neglected Area in Reading, 2:147
- So What if Johnny Can't Read, 2:101
- Staff Development in Reading: What the Experts Say, 2:139
- Teachers' Abilities to Judge the Difficulty of Reading Materials, 2:151
- Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Miscues, 4:302
- The Three R's: Readin', Riting, and Radio!, 2:169
- We Suggest, 1:89, 2:166, 4:332
- What Administrators Actually Know About Reading Programs, 3:200
- Word Analogies: An Overlooked Reading Aid, 3:232
- Worlds of Language Within the Classroom, 3:197

